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CHAPTER- I
INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction:

"Woman is the companion of man, gifted with equal capacities. She has the right to participate in minutes details of the activities of man and she has the same right of freedom and liberty as he. She is entitled to a supreme place in her own place of activity as man is this ought to be natural condition of things and not a result only of learning to read and write. Man and woman are equal in status but are not complementary to one another, so that without one, the existence of the other cannot be conceived and therefore it follows as a necessary. Corollary from these facts that any thing that will impair the status of either of them will involve the equal ruin of both"

-M.K. Gandhi

Women constitute almost fifty percent of the human resource of the country. The constitution of India guarantees formal equality to all its citizens. The directive principles have been formulated to attain justice, liberty and equality for men as well as women. Several legal measures have been introduced in order to improve the position of women. These are all laudable steps taken by the government to wipe out the ravages of hundreds of years of effacement of women by our society. However, trends in demographic data clearly indicate that benefits of these efforts seem to have largely by passed the women.

Vedic India, as revealed by its literatures that women in those times were treated with grace and consideration. Women receive respect and had an honourable place in family, society and state. They had optimum freedom of thought and action. Thought the Rig Veda has prayers which plead for a son, the birth of a girl child was by no means considered inauspicious. Child marriage was unknown during Vedic times. Women in the epics and purans were endowed with grace and heroism, full of chaste thoughts, love and dedication to wards God and man. A mother occupied
and exalted position in society, home and were consulted by the men in every sphere of life.

A gradual deterioration in the status of women was evidenced in the post-Vedic age. Many advocated male supremacy and wrote that the rights of women depend entirely upon her husband. Women were barred from participating in religious rites and functions. Subservience and faithfulness towards husbands were the characteristics which marked women's behaviour in the post Vedic period. In the post Vedic age there was a slow but steady eclipse of their importance, both in the home and society. Women once again lost their ground during Buddha's time. Lord Buddha's compassionate outlook and respect for humanity was perhaps responsible for this resurgence. Buddha's teaching deeply influenced the reigns of Chandra Gupta Maurya, Ashok and others who followed and during their reigns women regained a part of their lost freedom and status. However, despite the gradual decline in Buddhism in the face of Brahmanical onslaughts relatively free attitudes towards equality and respect for women lasted from about 400 B.C. to 7 A.D.

A decline, indeed degeneration in their status is visible in Medieval India. Polygamy and ill assorted marriages resurfaced and women came to be regarded as objects of pleasure or convenience. Purdah, Sati, dowry and child marriage resurfaced with a vengeance. Education of women was once again a thing of past. However, in spite of the atmosphere of decadence and depravity, there were a few instances where women were honored and encouraged in their intellectual pursuits. Women's status touched a new law with the onset of British rule in India. The practice of child marriage, dowry, infanticide, Sati and Purdah system gained further momentum. Their status and political independence as well as in health they also were prey to some abhorrent social customs. During this period, some efforts were made by social reformers as well as by the British government to bring about changes in the socio-economic conditions of women and the practice of Sati was banned by law. After all, the status of women remained the lowest during the time of British rule in India.
The advent of industrial revolutions permitted women to occupy independent jobs and allow them to become independent of other family members (Goode, 1963). Men and women have always worked in all epochs of human history. However, historical and social factors have been responsible for variations in the nature of tasks, the location of work, the definite reasons for work, the nature of its execution and performance. This direct entry into the economic structure gives the impression of equality of women with men for economic role is believed to provide social pre-eminence automatically.

2. Mental Health:

Mental health has been defined in different ways by different psychologists. For Dubos health implies "a modus vivendi enabling imperfect men to achieve a rewarding and not too painful existence; while they cope with an imperfect word" whereas, disease connotes, "Failure or disturbance in the organism as a whole or any of its systems" Thus it is believed that if signs of adjective failure are absent a person is psychologically healthy.

Jahoda (1958) emphasized positive striving as the most important quality of health and outlined three basic features of mental health - mastery of environment, a unified or integrated personality and the accurate perception of oneself and the external world.

Foots and cottrell (1955) emphasized interpersonal competence, that is the social skill which give the individual effective control over his interpersonal affairs and help him develop optimally along self-chosen lines. Erik Fromm (1955) like Maslow has given more importance to the kind of society in which a healthy personality can grow according to him there are universal criteria of mental health valid for human race. A number of basic human needs (sense of belonging transcend vice, sense of being an integral part of the world and identity) must be gratified in order for man to reach optimal functioning.

Shoben (1957) proposed a model of "integrative adjustment" which is characterized by self-control" personal responsibility, social responsibility, democratic
social interests and ideals. Roger (1963) emphasized on the capacity for awareness and openness to experience, as criterion for a fully functioning person.

Freud lays importance on a person’s ability “to love and work” as evidence of a balanced and healthy personality by love Freud meant generosity, intimacy, trust, pleasure in the happiness of others and sexual love “work” means productive efforts which give meaning to life and makes one’s existence meaningful more in terms of the absence of pathology, than the presence of valuable attributes. Abraham (1949), Reich (1949) and Jones (1942) shared with Freud the tendency to think of health as the absence of pathology. The implicit Freudian concept of psychological health is usually expressed as the “genital character” as contrasted with the oral or anal character. In the Freudian view of genital character the ego emerges as the powerful controlling agent of the personality with full control over the primitive impulses. The prudential sexual urges are not repressed but transformed into safe and acceptable expression, due to which the person is capable of rational behaviour in accord to the realities of the situations. Thus Freud’s concept of mental health lays emphasis on sexual adequacy also as a sign of health.

Erikson (1950) systematically analysed development from infancy to adulthood and at each psychosexual stage presented a polarity of pathology and health, based on the manner in which the infertile erotic needs and the social attitudes connected with them are expressed. In defining the concept of health, Erikson used the term ego identity. According to him only that person who has emerged positively from every development crisis at each psycho-sexual stage can develop a healthy ego identity, which further leads to a balanced person.

According to Sullivan, a healthy person is one who has syntaxes (non-parataxis) relationships with others and who react to people as they really are, not as symbols of past relationships. Thus emphasis is on interpersonal relationships. Adler defined a healthy personality as one which experiences a sense of identification or one-ness with mankind pathology involves neurotic striving for power as a compensation against infantile feelings of inferiority and helplessness.
Allport (1961) gave six salient features for a sound healthy personality

1. Extension of the sense of self
2. Capable of intimacy, respect and compassion when relating to others
3. Emotional security (self-acceptance)
4. Realistic perception and skills
5. Self-objectification, i.e. insight and humour
6. A unifying philosophy of life a sense of direction and purpose in life.

Korchin (1976) believes that the concept of psychological health must focus on the ideal state, i.e. emphasis on the "positive well-being" rather than on disease, statistical or conformity criteria. Godoy, Fernander, Garcia and Gonzaler (1983), argued that health must be defined as a state of physical, social and psychological well-being rather than simply as an absence of illness or infirmity. They also stressed the importance of development of human potentials illness is considered to be a reflection of individual response to stress and change in the social cultural, economic and psychological environment.

Lastly, according to a W.H.O. expert committee on mental health "Mental health implies the capacity in an individual to form harmonious relations with others, to participate in or contribute constructively to change in his social and physical environment, and fully realize his potentialities"

Thus, we see that there are actually a very few basic differences in the criteria of mental health by different people. There is probably no concept of positive mental health that is valued across all cultures, because cultural and personal values and biases are so intimately tied to one's conception of normality as Cavan very rightfully defines a well-adjusted person as one who is able to satisfy his needs within the system of controls and outlets provided by his culture.

From her many definition of mental health, Jahoda (1958) gave the following as criteria of positive mental health.

1. Attitude towards the self—it includes acceptance by the individual of his own self.
2. Growth, development and self-actualisation—the extent to which the individual
utilises his abilities.

3. Integration the extent to which the psychic forces are balanced
4. Autonomy person is self reliant and is able to decide what suits his own needs best
5. Perception of ability freedom from need distortion and existence of empathy
6. Environment mastery adequacy in interpersonal relationships adoption and adjustment and efficiency in problem solving.

2.1 Traits of Mental Health:

Mental health like physical health is also a condition. And this condition can be recognised by its characteristics features. Roughly speaking a mentally healthy individual would exhibit the following symptoms.

2.1.1 Self-evaluation:

A mentally healthy individual evaluating himself properly is aware of his limitation. He easily accepts his faults and makes efforts to get rid himself of them. He introspects so that he may analyze his problems, prejudices, difficulties etc and reduces them to a minimum.

2.1.2. Adjustability:

It has been painted out earlier also that one special characteristics of a mentally healthy individual is that he adjusts to a new situation with least delay and disturbance. He makes the fullest possible use of existing opportunities and adjusts to every new situation that presents itself. This does not mean that he is a rolling stone that gathers no moss, but has his own ideas, notions, opinions, is a cool individual who deals coolly and patiently with every novel circumstance, without fear, disturbance, anxiety, complaint or desire to avoid them. He is aware of the fact that change is the principle of life, he is ever prepared for change and always finds some suitable mode of adjustment.

2.1.3 Maturity:

Intellectual and emotional maturity is another peculiar sign of mentally healthy individual. The mature mind is constantly engaged in increasing his fund of knowledge,
behaves responsibly, expresses his thoughts and feelings with clarity and is prepared to sympathize with others feeling and view points. The healthy individual behaves like a balanced, cultured and sensible adult in all matters.

2.1.4 Regular Life:

Habits are an important element in marinating mental health forming proper habits in matters of food, clothing and the normal routine of daily life leads to their becoming systematic and regulated, which in the long run, economizes upon energy and time healthy persons performs most of the common functions of life with quick assurance and show of neutrality, without any bother and fuss. Their life is a model of regularity, balance and measured calculation.

2.1.5 Absence of Extremism:

Aristotle believed that the ideal man lacks excess in any and every direction and the principle that excess of anything is bad is a golden rule as far as mental health is concerned. Whatever the instinct, if it is allowed to dominate an individual, it will bring him to harm and endanger his mental health. Hence, in order to maintain mental health, one's life should be integrated, interests should be wide and the personality balanced extremism is no well wishes of mental health.

2.1.6 Satisfactory Social Adjustment:

A healthy individual maintains good adjustment with social situations, and is engaged in some or the other project intended to benefit society. And this is because in modern society the proper development of everyone's personality can take place only if there is mutual cooperation. The grater the balance of these social relationships and the greater simplicity the better will be the individual's mental health.

2.1.7 Satisfaction from Chief Occupation:

For mental health it is essential that everyone should find satisfaction from his chief occupation, his vocation. Money is the result of work but if one works only for it, that much time is obviously a waste. If the work interests an individual, it will yield more money, but the same time, a proper illustration of time will bring an increase
in his pleasure and happiness. In fact, if one works for interest, and maintains it even in the event of a loss in trade or at least the pain of loss is considerably lessened. Health is always, in a given context, dependent upon existing condition, which are themselves related to the changes taking place in the environment.

There are two schools of thoughts concerning mental health. The first largely represented by the medical profession, thinks about mental health as the absence of mental disease, the second school is represented by psychologists, the teaching profession and the psychoanalysts, who have a more positive approach and regard mental health as the presence of certain psychological characteristics and their effective use. However, broadly three major ideas have been suggested as criteria's for a healthy when he understand himself and his own motivations, drives, wishes and desires. This leads a person to accept himself and recognise his liabilities and assets, his past and present behaviour in a socio-culturally approved way. The second criteria about a healthy self, views the person from a long time perspective, embracing his entire life span. It has to do with what a person makes of himself, and is often described as self actualisation, growth or acquiring his self the third idea is concerned with the process called integration of personality.

A world health organization (W.H.O.) Expert committee on mental health had its first meeting in 1949 to formulate the principles that should govern the activities of W.H.O. in the mental health field. In view of the tremendous needs and the shortage of psychiatric personnel and facilities throughout the world, the committee considered that it would be impossible to provide therapeutic facilities for all the needy people of the world with in the foreseeable future. As a consequence the committee placed great emphasis upon the promotion of the general welfare and physical health of people as well as well as upon the development and application of mental health resources as rapidly as conditions would permit.

The committee has conducted studies and issued expert committee reports on such topics as alcoholism, drug addiction, maternal deprivation, mental hospital organization, the psychiatric aspects of delinquency and crime, and the development
of community health facilities W.H.O. has assisted with the development of psychiatric facilities in member state by making consultants available, providing training grants, and sponsoring conferences, both world-wide and local in scope since its inception, W.H.O. has made and is continuing to make many significant contributions to world mental health.

W.H.O. has headquarters in Geneva and regional offices for Africa, the Americas, South East Asia, Europe, the Eastern Mediterranean, and the western pacific. Hence its activities extend into areas with diverse physical environments, types of social organization, and psychiatric facilities. In its work, W.H.O. does not try to impose a predetermined plan on this diversity; rather it works toward "discovering, or uncovering, the basic needs of member states or of whole region and delineating, Those areas where effort may be most usefully expended" (W.H.O., 1962 p.78) In helping member states with consultative or other assistance, W.H.O. also strives to make its services available over a period of several years to insure continuity and success for the programs which are undertaken.

In 1948, at an International Congress on Mental Health held in London, the World Federation for Mental Health was established. The Federation consists of a group of nongovernmental Organisations and individuals concerned with the promotion of mental health throughout the world. Its establishment represented an important step toward furthering cooperation between government and non-governamental mental health efforts at the international level, and more than forty different countries are represented in its membership. The Federation has been granted consultative status by both W.H.O. and UNESCO (United Nationals Educational Scientific, and Culture Organization) and assists the U.N. (United Nations) agencies by collecting information on mental health condition all over the world. It has undertaken various studies, including world wide studies of childhood mental health and of the industrialization. In addition, it seeks to aid underdeveloped countries through consultation with local health groups and to broaden their vision of the advances that are now within their reach.
The twelfth and thirteenth annual meetings of the World Federation for Mental Health both of which fell within the World Mental Health year 1959-60 were devoted to planning for mental health and action papers presented at these conference cover a wide range of topics and plans in the mental health field they have been published in one volume, planning and action for mental health.

Health and illness are seen to exist along a continuum health is equated with an optimum stable balance and illness is seen as degree of departure from the satisfactory homeostatic functioning of the system. Human health and diseases are a continuum of psychobiological states, determined to a varying extent by biophysical and social variables. There is no sharp boundary between health and disease normal and abnormal before we go on to defining mental health we need to study the different approaches by different schools of thoughts to mental health and pathology. These different approaches have led to the emergence of different models of mental health which provide a better focus on the dynamics of mental health problems in the present context.

3. Models of Mental Health

A brief review of the basic models of mental Health is given below.

3.1 Medical or Biological Model:

Many contemporaries have used the model of physical illness as the basis for defining deviant behaviour as Maher (1966) has noted “Deviant behaviour is termed pathological and is classified on the basis of symptoms the classification being called diagnosis. The progress designed to change the behaviour are called therapies and are applied to patients in mental hospitals. If the deviant behaviour ceases, the patient is described as cured” (p-22) however in later years, this mode has undergone a barrage of criticism initiated by S2 (1960) and supported by Mowrer (1966) and others. Ullman and Kranser (1965) have also questioned the validity of the medical model.
3.2. Psycho-Analytical or Dynamic Model:

The concept of mental health has been related to a balanced personality. As a result, balanced id-ego-superego triad with ego holding a firm grip on external reality, is considered to be tantamount to mental health. Fraud conjectured that personality development can be traced to the expression of biological or sexual energy (libido) and the sources of gratification towards which that energy is directed. He explained psychological development as passing through a series of psychosexual stages. The stages were determined primarily by the focus on the expression of libidinal energy on various parts of the body (i.e. oral anal and genital areas), as a source of gratification, as well as, by the psychic mechanisms assumed to be operative during these stages.

Other psychoanalytic system include the individual psychology of Adler (1926-1929) the analytic psychology of Jung (1953), the interpersonal theory of psychiatry of Sullivan (1953), the humanistic psychoanalysis of Fromm (1941), and the neo-Freudianism of Horney (1937-1945).

The most vigorous critics of the dynamic approach are the behaviouristic, who hold that Freudian concepts can neither be proved or disproved, i.e. it can't be empirically tested Mowrer (1961), holds that the impulse or repression theory of neurosis as given by Simund Freaud is erroneous as the feels that the feeling of guilt is the central concept in the development of neurosis.

3.3. Statistical Model:

This approach measures specific characteristics of people, such as personality traits, syndromes and ways of behaving, and the distribution of these characteristics in the population curve which depicts the majority of people being in the middle as far as any particular characteristic is concerned and very few people fall in at either of the extremes. A normal person implies that he/she does not deviate from the average in a behaviour patterns who deviate, i.e., are judged abnormal Eysenck (1952, 1960) utilising a dimensional approach with in the statistical model measured three dimensions of personality Introversion - Extroversion Neuroticism and
Psychotics Cattell (1961, 1962, 1963, 1966), terms this approach as multivariate experimental psychology and has applied it in measuring anxiety and neuroticism. Criertin (1952, 1961) and Zubinet al (1961) gave the type factor approach. They applied factor analytic techniques to define behaviour patterns and syndromes, with a precision unobtainable by other psychiatric methods. However, the statistical methods by itself is inadequate; because it just analyses the data and does not decide what type is to be observed.

3.4 Learning Theory Model:

This model views psychopathology as a set of learned maladaptive or faulty behaviour which a person develops because the environment reinforces them. Wolpe (1958, 1969), for example, maintains that neurotic behaviour is essentially based on persistent habits of learnt or conditioned unadaptive behaviour which is acquired in situations which generate anxiety. Dollard and Miller (1950), have effectively synthesised Freud's dynamic model with that of learning theory. Maher (1966) in his "principles of psychopathology" has also successfully related learning model to psychopathology. Bandra (1962) also explained maladaptive behaviour through social learning theory.

This theory has been criticised on a number of grounds including, failure to include data on subjective experience, failure to tackle more complex dimensions of behaviour such as love, courage, faith, hope, despair, etc. failure to deal with the problems of values and meaning in human existence and failure in initiating personality restructuring in the process of behaviour therapy.

3.5 Humanistic Model:

The humanistic model is characterised by its general orientation towards human beings and their potentialities as by any coherent test of principles of personality development and functioning. According to this model, psychopathology is essentially the blocking or distortion of personal growth, which is generally due to one of the given factors.
1. The exaggerated use of ego-defence mechanisms, due to which, the individual becomes increasingly out of touch with reality
2. Unfavourable social conditions and faculty learning.
3. Excessive stress.

The humanistic model has been criticised for diffuseness and lack of scientific rigour in its conceptualisations.

3.6 Socio-Cultural Model:

The chief exponent of this model is Mead (1953), Coleman (1976) states that, by the beginning of the present century, sociology and anthropology had emerged as independent scientific disciplines and were making rapid strides in understanding the role of socio-cultural factors in human development and behaviour though the efforts of Mead and other contributors like, Ruth Benedict, Ralph Linton, Abraham kurdiner and Franz boas, it became clear that there is a relationship between socio-cultural factors and mental disorders it was also seen that patterns of both physical and mental disorders in a given society may change overtime as socio-cultural conditions change.

3.7 Existential Model:

This model emphasises on our uniqueness as individuals, our quest for values and meaning, and our freedom for self-direction and self-fulfilment. However, the existential model represents a somewhat less optimistic view of human beings, and places more emphasis on the irrational tendencies of human nature and the difficulties inherent in self-fulfilment, particularly in our bureaucratic and dehumanising impersonalising mass society. The existentialist place more faith in the inner experience of the individual, than modern science, in their attempt to understand human problems. Thorne (1963) constructed the existential theory of anxiety. Other prominent existentialists are, Frankle (1967, 1963) may (1959, 1961, 1967, 1969) Boss (1962, 1963) Strauss (1961, 1966) and Binswanger (1963)

3.8 Moral Model:

The chief exponent of the moral model of psycho-pathological behaviour is
Mowrer According to him "so long as we subscribe to the view that, neurosis is a
bonafide illness, without moral implications or dimension our position will, of necessity,
continue to be an awkward one. And it is here that I suggest, that as between the
concept of sin (however unsatisfactory it may be in some ways) and that of sickness,
sin is indeed lesser of the two evils"

As long as a person lives under the shadow of real unack knowledge guilt,
he cannot "accept him self" and all our efforts to reassure him will avail nothing. But,
the moment (with or without assistance) he begins to accept his guilt and sinfulness,
the possibility of radical reformation opens up, and with this individual passes from
deep pervasive self-rejection and self-hatred to a new freedom of self-respect and
peace.

We will find that, with in psychology, the philosophy about the basic nature of
man has undergone a change from the negativistic view of humanists. However,
each has, its impact on searches for etiological as well as therapeutic and preventive
searches. Each has demonstrated its efficiency for specific problems: Which are,
psychoanalysis for maladaptive behaviour caused by inaccessible factors,
behaviouristic and interpersonal models for everyday coping problems, while the
humanistic and existential models focus on the value problems of contemporary
life. Thus, it becomes safer to adopt a global approach in which all different models
are incorporated.

However, the integrative approach is more innovative, which is echoed in
the policy of W.H.O. too, which laid down the guiding principle of a "sound mind in a
sound body, and a sound body in a sound society". The interdisciplinary view requires
a need for and acceptance of a unified synergetic view of man and his world. Such
an approach has been advocated by Miller (1965) when he proposes a "general
system theory", which does not view individuals as distinct from their environment
but, rather as integral and interacting part of a whole, which is larger and more potent
than its components. This theory does not deal with current problems but also forecasts
the type of future problems and, provides a sound basis for shaping a 'good' future
of man (Fostering and helping to ensure his well-being and fulfilment). It appears to be an extension of the interdisciplinary view and goes beyond their view in terms of explanatory principles and capabilities of prediction and control. (Barrien 1968, Bertalanffy 1967, 1968, Buckley 1968 Coleman,)

4. Family Environment:

Each human environment has characteristics that affect the behaviour of people in it in many ways. As itself and Moos (1974) have described it "like people, environments have unique personalities. Just as it is possible, to characterise a person's personality environments can be similarly portrayed with a great deal of accuracy and detail. Some people are supportive, likewise, some environments are supportive. Some men feel the need to control others, similarly, some environments are extremely controlling. Order and structure are important to many people, correspondingly many environments emphasises regularity system and order."

Human environment reflects the prevailing attitudes and values of the individuals within them. An environment may be destructive and pathogenic. In much the same sense that we receive a genetic inheritance, we also receive a socio-cultural inheritances. The sub groups within a general socio-cultural environment, such as family, sex, age, social class, occupational and religious groups, foster beliefs and normal roles that their members learn to adopt. Each of us participates in the socio-cultural environment in a unique way and as a consequence of this differential participation no two of us grow up in the same world. Thus the socio-cultural environment is a source of differences in personality development.

The home or family is a person's primary environment form the time he is born, until the day he dies while it may change over the years owing to marriage, death, divorce, birth of new members and other circumstances, the family unit and the pattern of living that meets the needs of its members remains relatively constant. There is sample evidence that the family influences are ruling determinants of what the person's concept of self will be in life.
There are a number of reasons as to why family environment influences mental health of an individual, which are mainly.

1. A major part of one's time is spent at home with members of family, especially during childhood, before the child's environment has broadened to the outside world.

2. Family members can influence a person's behaviour and personality make up, than any other person, that is why only we pick up our attitudes and values from other family members especially our parents.

3. The persistence of family relationships reinforces the effect of emotional ties and its influence remains, where as the other strong influences like teachers, friends etc. do not have the permanency of family relationships.

4. Primary social experience take place in the home environment. Glasner states personality is formed in the first instance within the womb of the family relationships" from these experiences only we acquire our attitudes, pattern of social behaviour and coping strategies to deal with different experiences of life, which in turn form the basis of our mental health.

5. The family environment also provides maximum security to the child and it is a place where he comes back with his experiences, good or bad.

Thus, the family environment influences a person's development by influencing the person's pattern of behaviour and his characteristic adjustment to life. It plays the fundamental role in providing psycho-social supplies, necessary for optimal development and functioning. It the family environment is conducive, the person will react to problems and frustration in a calm manner and to people in a tolerant and happy manner.

The study of the characteristics of a environment, be it the family environment, social environment, physical environment or even treatment environment should prove helpful in assessing and planning human environment which are conducive to mental health.
Moos and Moos (1974) developed nine social climate scales, including the Family Environment Scale (F.E.S.) the Work Environment Scale (W.E.S.) and the Group Environment Scale (G.E.S.) in the social ecology laboratory at Stanford University. Here we will focus on the family environment scale by Joshi and Vyas and work environment scale by Dr. R. P. Singh and also mental health check-list by Dr. Pramodkumar.

The Family Environment Scale assess the social climate of all types of families. It focuses on the measurement and description of the interpersonal relationships among the family members on the directions of personal growth which are emphasised in the family, and on the basic organisational structure of the family.

4.1 Dimensions of Family Environment:
Moos described ten dimensions of family environment, given as follows.

4.1.1 Cohesion:
The extent to which family members are concerned and committed to the family and are helpful and supportive of each other.

4.1.2 Expressiveness:
The extent to which family members are allowed and encouraged to act openly and to express their feelings directly.

4.1.3 Conflict:
The extent to which open expression of anger and aggression and generally conflictual interaction are characteristic of the family.

4. Independence:
Emphasises on autonomy and family members doing things on their own. It measures the extent to which family members are encouraged to be assertive, self sufficient, to make their own decisions and to think out for themselves.

4.1.5 Achievement Orientation:
It measures the amount of emphasis on academic and competitive concerns.
It measures the extent to which different type of activities are cast into an achievement oriented or competitive framework.

4.1.6 Intellectual Cultural Orientation:
This dimension reflects the degree to which a family is concerned with a variety of intellectual and cultural activities. It includes the extent to which a family is concerned about political, social, intellectual and cultural activities.

4.1.7 Active Recreational Orientation:
It measures the extent to which the family participates actively in various kinds or recreational and supporting activities.

4.1.8 Moral Religious Emphasis:
This scale is concerned with the extent to which the family actively discusses and emphasises ethical and religious issues and values.

4.1.9 Organisation:
It measures how important order and organisation is in the family in terms of structuring the family activities financial planning, and explicitness and clarity in regard to family rules and responsibilities.

4.1.10 Control:
Control assesses the extent to which the family is organised in a hierarchical manner, the rigidity of family rules and procedures and the extent to which family members order each other around

5. Characteristics Of Organizations:
There is good chance that any given organization will outlive the individuals within it. This persistence relates to change and to the organizational climate. The standard operating procedures of an organization have a strong effect upon the way its people behave. As stress in an organization increases, it first improves performance and then worsens it. Stress is particularly induced in automated organizations, where people's responsibility and work integration both increase.
5.1 Government And Other Organizations:

Once can think of each organization not as a single structure but as an aggregate of structures, such as a power structure, a communication structure, and an influence structure. Larger organizations have more potential and necessary communication linkages among the members, making communication difficult. The more complex a society, the greater the number of Organizations that exist in it; and this, in turn, increases the dynamics of communication. Innovation and change are likely to produce a heightened degree of communication among members.

Organizations tend to breed more organizations. It is quite characteristic that if people organize on one side of an issue, their opponents will organize on the other side; there is even a tendency for voluntary organizations to become more formal, a tendency for nonprofits organizations to drift away from their original goal. And, as one would expect, as an organization becomes larges, it develops more ranks.

During an external crisis an organization is more likely to be centralized than during normal periods. Strong informal groups within an organization, when hostile to its methods, can effectively oppose the organization. The larger the number of rules and regulations in an organization, the greater is the chance for conflict. Members of organizations tend to overestimate the prestige of their own organization compared to others of similar character. And we should recognize that the requirements for organizational leadership change with the life of the organization.

5.2 Organizational Similarities:

Cyert and MacCrimmon (1968) have found some similarities about organizations as viewed by various behavioural science disciplines. These scholars have focused on organizational participants, goals, and roles.

Stand goals of the organization often follow from function. For example, in the business firm the goal is to "maximize profits", for a philanthropic foundation it is to "contribute to the welfare of makind". Stated goals, being vague, contribute to the
flexibility of an organization, and many participants in an organization are involved in activities from which the goals can be inferred. But it must be emphasized that one of the principal characteristics of organizational behaviour is the interdependence of individual participants with quite different goals, each working toward the attainment of some portion of his goal set. Hence, organizational goals are in a sense an amalgam of the goals of the participants. The contributions the different members make to the organization coalition primarily determine what rewards they receive. And there is a continuous, sometimes adaptive bargaining process going on to resolve conflict situations. Compatibility between organizational goals and those of participants often increases over time; turnover of people is conducive to greater compatibility. Individuals whose goals do not relate to those of the organization may find themselves isolated. Some roles within the organization, often those on the boundaries, require the individual to identify with organizational goals.

There are tendencies in the organization's means-ends chain for higher-level goals to be forgotten as means become ends in themselves. This is more likely to happen in large bureaucratic organizations than in smaller organizations in which the higher-level goals are more visible. The incompatibility of organizational goals and participant goals becomes more relevant to the participant when the goals are reflected in the role the participant is expected to perform. Groupings of activities occur and may become viewed as programs; for example, computer programs. Programs are readily constructible when the goals are operational and the means for achieving them are clear. The individual must have knowledge of the sets of actions appropriate to particular situations, and much of this knowledge comes from what he has gained from previous experience. Decision-making behaviour is in essence the development of programs for new situations and the modification of old programs for known situations. As this activity proceeds roles themselves change.

5.3 Decision Making:

Decision making involves a response to a problem situation and hence can be used synonymously with the term problem solving. Decision-making stimuli may come from either the inside or the outside of the organization. Three common situations
give rise to decision-making activity. First, something must be done when there is a difference between performance and expectations. Second, decisions are called for when some event offers opportunities or threatens the organization or some part of it. Third, the occurrence of some recurring situation that must be resolved invokes problem solving. Those who relate closely to a university see immediate examples of each; such as the money gap occasioned by a cutback in government or other funds, the dissident behaviour of students, or the replacement of faculty leaving the institution.

Alternatives in decision making are developed by search activity. First, there is search of existing programs of the organization to see whether the problem can be handled by some routine procedure. Second, if no suitable program exists, the decision maker looks at sources with which he is most familiar. Third, search may be expanded with concentration in the area of the symptom.

Since problems change, it can be assumed that search rules will change as a result of interaction with the environment. When the organization discovers a search rule that produces a good solution, it is likely that the rule will be used when similar problems occur in the future. And organizations characteristically look to see how other organizations approach their problems. Search also involves bringing in consultants. Because the cost of continued search is expensive, some organizations have "stop rules." At various points in the decision process alternatives have to be evaluated, and criteria are sometimes changed, priorities rearranged. Alternatives are compared with each other and there are alternative-goal comparisons. Sometimes alternatives are "stored." In terms of both the time spent and resources involved in search, the actual choice of alternatives may be only a small part of the decision process. It is not unusual for organizations to defer decisions as long as possible, or to make decisions in terms of what will "do" rather than continuing the search for a "best" answer. March and Simon (1958) have introduced the concept of satisfying in the practicality of decision making. Here the decision maker searches for solutions only until he finds a satisfactory choice, but it may not be the best choice that could be made if complete information were available about the problem and the alternative
solutions to it. This "satisficer" searches only until a satisfactory, but not necessarily best, alternative is found.

Individuals within organizations play both primary and secondary roles. The primary role is the one to which he makes his major time commitment; it is usually the source of his work income. Secondary roles vary greatly. The corporation executive may head some charitable program; the scientist may function in some capacity in a professional society. Roles occupy the individual's time and effort, and they may help deplete his energy. Lack of involvement or identification with any one of his roles may mean that he will spend more time and effort on other roles. It is not uncommon that a person fails in getting need satisfaction from some roles and hence concentrates on others. Organizations may well suffer when a man devotes his "free thinking time" to some secondary role, perhaps outside the organization.

6. Private Sector:

Over the years in the past, in particular since the independence, on private sector in industries has grown rapidly. As a result, this sector has become quite a big force in the Indian economy.

The private sector has since the departure of the British Government in 1947 growth much both in respect of the areas covered by it and the nature of activities falling in its scope. Even before it, the private sector was a significant segment of the economy, although its operations were continued to consumer goods industries like the textiles, sugar etc. There were, of course, very little of metal and chemical based industries. The government sector was synonymous with a few department undertakings in the fields of railways, posts and telegraphs etc. The British government, wedded as it was to philosophy of free market economy encouraged the private sector, largely of the British origin, with a view to exploiting India's vast resources and large market. However since the advance of the Indian government things changed radically while the public sector was assigned a major role in the planned development of the country with industrial growth in the lead the private sector too was assigned a definite place in the mixed economy that become the basis of its function.
An aspect of the growth of the private sector is the large increase in the presence of the foreign private companies with a sizeable segment of industries under their ownership and control. The entry of foreign private firms has taken on normal forms one consists of the branches of the multinational corporation their number at present stands at 269 (March 1987) Another form is the Indian subsidiaries of foreign companies. Their number is 65 (March 1987) most of these belong to the advanced countries like the U.S.A. and the U.K. Germany, Japan, Canada etc. They have grown considerably in the last two decades or so for example in the case of the branches of the multinational corporations, the increase in their assets in India is very large form Rs. 165.5 corers in 1973-74 to Rs. 6,332 corers in 1987. In the case of Indian subsidiaries of the foreign companies, the value of assets has risen from Rs. 1,358 corers in 1973-74 to Rs. 2,893. There turnover was Rs. 2,083 corers in 1973-74 and Rs. 3,606 corers in 1988.

Another important aspect of the growth of this sector is the increase in the diversification of the industrial products. Initially at the beginning of the sixties the industrial composition leaved heavily towards the consumer goods industries although there was a large variety in the consumer products too, ranging from the traditional goods like the textiles and the most modern like the motor cars, the bridge, etc. At that time the second plan had allotted the basic and the capital goods industries as also many intermediate goods industries, to the public sector the consumer goods industries were, in general earmarked for the private sector. This was based on the rational ground that in this field there is a great element of risk as the consumer goods industries have to face the uncertain and fluctuating market demand. It was also contended that the private sector had already historically established itself in some major consumer goods industries like cotton textiles, edible oils sugar, etc. It was also good recognised that these industries, unlike the infrastructural goods industries these include industries connected with chemicals (e.g. dyes and dye stuffs plastic new materials paints, varnishes etc.) engineering (e.g. machinery ferrons and non ferrons metal products etc.) cement, rubber products paper and paper products printing and publishing etc. under the present industrial policy the area of operations
of the private sector, as many as nine have been thrown open to the private sector. These include such key industries as aircraft manufacture, heavy plant and machinery etc. There will again be further diversification of industries as the policy now allows foreign direct/equity investment in a number of industries.

Besides contributing the industrial development in terms of output and diversification of products the private sector has something to its credit in its operations. This is evident in the working of the public limited as also private limited companies in the private corporate sector. The satisfactory results are indicated by its fairly reasonable returns on sales net assets, and net worth the of the private sector. Such indicators as the profitability ratios like that of gross profits as percentage of total net assets, and profits after tax as percentage of act net worth have been in the range of over nine percent and over 10 percent for a number of years. Although in a number of industries, these ratios are somewhat less than that for all of them taken together, in the case of some individual industries like sugar, chemical fertilisers etc. these ratios have been still higher. These profitability ratio also compare well with those of the Indian branches of the multinational corporations and the Indian subsidiaries of the foreign companies.

Despite the fact that the private sector has something to its credit, all is not well with it there are some serious weakness in its functioning and there are some problem that it faces.

One unhealthy feature of the private sector is that it has fallen much short of what this sector is capable of or what it has achieved in some other countries. In fact, there are various evils that plague it with a few exceptions there is for instance little evidence of efforts of cost reducing on the part of private producers. Nor do they seem concerned about the quality of products there are again generation of black-money and carrot business dealings. And there is little flowering of genuine entrepreneurship which can innovate and dare into new products and new processes of course, there are reasons for all this so far there has been an excessive regulation and control of the private sector by the government. This has prevented competition
from becoming a generalised phenomenon of the economy. The sector has also become much too finances etc. This has stifled the capacity of the private business to stand on their own. In fact for many the business has become an occupation of how to manipulate the administrative rules and the government. It is also an unfortunate fact that there is grossly inadequate understanding of the way private sector works. It is evident from the fact that the private sector is often vehemently condemned and praised simultaneously at many government and non-government forums. Even at higher levels on perspective on the subject is largely confined to a mere division of the country's resources in terms of ownership of the public sector and the private sector, with little understanding of the different attributes/qualities/capabilities of the latter. Unfortunately, the private sector too is to be blamed for this it has failed to foster the business culture that is appropriate for a proper functioning of the market.

The industry in the private sector also suffers from the presence of large many sick/weak units these units are to be found in a variety of industries notably textiles engineering. Chemical, irons and steel and paper. These are the units which make continuous face worsening of debt-equity ratio (i.e. loans becoming an unduly larger component of finance relative to share money) fail to meet their current liabilities etc. Their sickness is best indicated by the fact that their outstanding debt, become much too much for them to service the interest and the return of the principal. The result is that these units do not work or do not work to their full capacity. As such the capacity remains unutilised or underutilised involving wastage of society's resources. The production falls with consequent loss to the firms in terms of revenues wages and profit. The society loses an account of shortage of goods. And the government has also to forego some tax-revenue. Infact it may be called upon to incur expenditure for the rehabilitation/closure of such units quite a number of factors have operated in the past several years to cause the present unhealthy situation. Some of the important factors are low quality of technical performance poor maintenance poor industrial relations, poor marketing inefficient and/or dishonest management etc.

A particular harmful aspect of the industrial scene in the private sector is the emergence of monopoly, and the concentration of economic power in the hands of
few. The dominance of some business groups in terms of capital and assets in an economic and social problem. Such a control of industries, as pointed out by the various commissions and committees like the mahalanobis committee, the monopolies, Inquiry commission, the Industrial licensing policy inquiry committee (Dutt committee) is not production oriented on the country it operates on the principle of maximisation of the monopoly profits this implies restriction of production, charging higher prices than under competition and making monopoly profits. All this amounts to the misuse of monopoly power. It is the antithesis of the competition and is, therefore harmful to the consumers and the society in general. Of course, it may not be possible to replace all such units by competition units nor is it desirable to do so in certain lines where for historical as also economic reasons (like reaping scale benefits) monopolies have to exit. However, in the case of large many monopoly units it is for want of an effective regulatory mechanism that the evils group up and assume large proportion.

The new economic policy, incorporating change in trade, industry finance and fiscal affairs, aims at the expansion of the private sector, injection of a strong dose of competition and globalisation of the economy. These together amount to a big market orientation of the Indian economy.

One important aspect of the new government economic policy is to enlarge the sphere of the private sector in a big way. In the field of industries, it has been brought about by the following measures. One is by reducing the number of industries reserved for the public sector since 1956, under the old industrial policy, 17 industries have been reserved for investment by the public sector. Private sector was, however, permitted to invest in these industries on a selective basis under the new industrial policy, in operation since the middle of 1991, only 8 industries will continue to be reserved. Many of the now deserved industries are core industries like iron and steel, electricity air transport, ship building, heavy machinery industries such as heavy electrical plants and telecommunication cables and instruments. Industries which continue to be reserved for the public sector are in areas where security and strategic concerns predominate. The focus in the public sector will henceforth be on strategic, hi-technology and essential infrastructure areas.
The government has also decided that it will undertake a review of the existing portfolio of public investments, particularly in respect of industries based on law technology, small scale and non-strategic areas, inefficient and unproductive areas, areas with low or no social significance or public purpose and areas where the private sector has developed sufficient expertise and resources. This review obviously is intended to transfer these industries to the private sector. In pursuance of the aim of expanding the private sector, the government has also decided to offer a part of government shareholder in the public sector enterprises to mutual funds, financial institutions, the general public and workers. A beginning has already been made by diverting a part of the equities of selected enterprise which have been placed with mutual funds.

The expansion of the private sector is being done with a view to giving a market orientation to the economy. To carry forward this thrust of the policy, several others peps have been taken to provide freedom in the operations of the Indian private sector and a new environment of increased competition. These steps consist of the following. One pertains to the industrial licensing in respect there are also certain locational guidelines designed to discourage the clustering of industries. Particularly the polluting industries in the periphery of major urban centres with the abolition of industrial capacity licensing firms will now be free also to manufacture any article in response to market demand.

In another major move the government has given up its policy of forcing the pace of indignations in manufacturing. Under the phased manufacturing programmes applicable to a number of engineering and electronic industries, the government would restrict the import of raw materials intermediate goods and components so as to force the use of such goods produced by indigenous producers with the new exchange rate policy as also new trade policy most of such imports have been freed from licensing. As such the policy of indigenisation becomes redundant. Further, since the policy of enforcing the local content requirements was done on a case by case basis it caused much irritant to a large number of firms because this involved the use of discretionary powers by the bureaucrats and government's interference
in business decisions. Another irritant associated with the mandatory convertibility clause in the loans from the financial institutions. Through the incorporation of amend by clause in their lending operations, these institution has been done away with by the removal of the clause. So far a substantial portion of industrial investment has been financed by loans from banks and financial institutions. Though the incorporation of amandatory clause in their lending operations, these institutions have provided themselves with the option of converting part of their loans into equity, if felt necessary by their managements. This has often been interpreted as an unwarranted threat to private firms of take over by financial institution. Hence forth financial institutions will not impose this mandatory convertibility clause while extending loans is the private firms.

7. Public Sector:

Till the end of the nineteenth century, the accepted view was that "that government is the best which governs the least" This view is again gaining strength at the end of the twentieth century. In the interviewing hundred years, the accepted view was that the government should concern it self with people from their birth till their final rites. Near the end of the nineteenth century traders and industrialists, who are the basis of free sector, themselves pressurised governments, through combinations did so accordingly. During this period only the thinker marks wrote his book "Das capital" in which he stated that capitalism will by its own weight and the protectorate will rule. In 1917 the Bolshevik revolution took place in Russia to embody this view activities the labour party came to power through the ballot-box in countries like Britain. It has liberated from slavery many countries like India. Many countries including India and Britain forwarded the concept of socialism and welfare state. Certain economic activities were left to the industrialists traders and farmers and certain activities were taken over. Till the later half of the twentieth century. All the three views prevailed simultaneously at times they were in conflict, at times they became complementary to each other so the capitalist American government retained the ownership and operations of the Tennessee valley Authority while the communist Russian government permitted free trade to the small farmers. India
permitted a giant still plant to remain with private industrialist government it self has become multipurpose and self contradictory institution on the one hand while taking over many activities for the welfare of the common the government declared that these activities instead of remaining those of a few traders and industrialists, have now became national i.e. they have been nationalised this entire sector has became a people sector i.e. a public sector thus, when the government nationalises any activity it does so by law, once the activity becomes a public activity. It is free from the distinctions of caste, race, colour, religion and community. Thus during these one hundred years there was an explosion of various concepts. From which making gave itself public sector over and above private and government sector public utilities were also started to provide a basic service to the people of an area without any distinction.

7.1 Definition of Public Sector:

After understanding the fundamental roots of public sector and public utility we shall first try to understand the public sector "Any sector, established for undertaking a specific economic activity becomes a public sector when its ownership management had control rest with the government sector means any aggregate of units having common features of special objectives ownership management and control for undertaking economic activities" government is at the root of the definition government is accepted as the respective countries. All the activities of the government done or not done, have come to be strongly identified with the national activity so if the government undertakes any economic activity or controls the same it is presumed that this is done by the nation. It the government enjoys the ownership of assets concerned with the activity. It is believed that the ownership belongs of the nation most of the governments in the world come into existence by the constitution of their respective countries and they rule by law. Consequently the ownership management and control of whatever economic activity is taken over by the government, it would do so under some law thus law is the based in the creation of a public enterprise. We have used the terms public sector and public enterprise inter changeably. The activities of a public sector are to be carried on under the various provisions of law.
So for the management of that activity, it has to be institutionalised public sector cannot be informal. The authority relationship is formally established in the organisation or unit established under public sector. The responsibility for undertaking activities of the unit remains indivisible i.e. the responsibility of the department under which the activity is carried on remains indivisible and extends to the minister concerned and even at times to the entire cabinet and the government. In this organisation there is a clarity in accountability as to who is answerable to whom. In public sector unit. It is clearly mentioned how much freedom or autonomy will be there in taking which decision government must have the ownership of the sector. The ownership can remain with the government if maximum 100 percent or minimum 51 percent of its share capital is paid up by the government. Not only ownership but the management and control of the sector also should be with the government the definition indicates that it can be called a public enterprise only if these functions are with the government from the sector having a direct management and control over day decisions having indirect management and control of government through observations and guidance in policy matters are all public sector in short any enterprise became a public enterprise in which the government has the final say and the majority capital is invested by the government. In a federal state like India. Such types of enterprise whether with the central government or with a state government are also public sector. If any state government takes over a specific activity then also it is nationalisation if local governments like municipalities and panchayats take over a specific activity it is called a public utility.

8. The Working Environment:

We assume that almost everybody prefers pleasant to unpleasant surrounding. But are we justified in assuming that because the surrounding are pleasant, production will be changed? In the ensuing discussion we shall attempt to answer this question by surveying some of the studies that have been carried out on the effects of noise, illumination, temperature, ventilation, music, and related conditions on work output.

8.1 Noise:

Noise is usually regarded as a distracter and therefore as interfering with
work efficiency. "I can't do my job properly around this place because it's too noisy," is a common worker's complaint. Actually, clear-cut evidence that noise reduces work output is very scant. We do know, of course, that many people find different kinds of auditory stimulation irritating. Thus high tones and very low tones are judged almost universally to be more annoying or irritating than tones in the middle ranges. Unexpected noises, intermittent noise, and reverberating noises are also irritating to most people. Such knowledge as this has made it possible to sound-treat work areas in order to reduce the irritating effects of noise.

An interesting study of the effects of noise in a work situation has been conducted in England in a film-processing plant Broadbent & Little (1960). Different measures of efficiency were made in untreated workplaces and in the same places after the noise level was measurably reduced by acoustical treatment. The results of this study showed that rate of work was not improved by noise reduction but that error was significantly less frequent when the noise level was less.

Another study had to do with the output of weavers over a period of twenty-six weeks during which noise reduction devices reduced the noise from 96 to 87 decibels. There was an increase of 12 percent in speed of production while they were wearing the ear defenders.

In view of the universal dislike of noise it seems probable that deleterious effects exist, but much additional research must be conducted before definite conclusions can be drawn regarding the effects of noise on work output in different jobs [40].

8.2 Music:

Within recent years, the practice of introducing music in the workplace has become common. Music is alleged to have salutary effects on attitudes, to improve morale, and to increase production. Some of these claims have been subjected to experimental inquiry. In two investigations significant increases in production were associated with the use of music. In both of these studies the workers performed relatively simple tasks, so before it can be assumed that all productive effort will be
enhanced by music, the effects of music on different kinds of tasks must be determined.

In one study of the effects of music on a complex industrial task, attitudes were revealed as important. This investigation was conducted in a rug-manufacturing factory and dealt with a task known as setting. Setting is a relatively complex job involving the preparation of material for rug looms. The work requires a high level of mental and manipulative skill and considerable physical endurance. Music was found to have no favourable or unfavourable effect upon the production of workers in the setting operations. Despite these findings, questionnaire results showed that the workers were favourably disposed toward music and, perhaps more significantly, that they believed that it increased their actual production.

It is not entirely clear why simple task performance is sometimes improved by music and complex task behaviour is not. One possibility is that the workers in the setting operation, being highly skilled and experienced, had developed stable habits of production and adequate adjustments to the work environment and that music effects were not sufficiently strong to break these well-established habit patterns.

8.3 Illumination:

Despite a voluminous literature on the effects of illumination on work efficiency, solidly established relationships are practically nonexistent. Studies have been conducted in actual work situations, and in some cases changes in illumination appear to be related to output, but so many variables have been left uncontrolled that it is impossible to assess the effect of the illumination variable per se. There have been some well-controlled laboratory studies, but in these cases the tasks were often not of the kind that are performed in the industrial workshop. Where there does appear to be similarity between the laboratory tasks and workshop tasks, it is possible to make some educated guesses as to the probable effects of different illumination levels on industrial output. Tentatively, it has been concluded that the majority of industrial operations could be carried out with maximum efficiency in the
neighbourhood of 10 foot-candles. In exacting visual tasks like drafting and typesetting, as high as 40 foot-candles are required, and spectral qualities are often important.

The colour dynamics of the workplace is often claimed to be an important determinant of work efficiency, but supporting evidence is conspicuously nonexistent. One of the few experiments related to the colour problem is that dealing with the effects of colored illumination upon perceived temperature. This study was prompted by the almost universal tendency to speak of green and blue as "cool" colours and red and orange as "warm." The experimental question: Can a person's judgment of the temperature of the air around him be biased by the hue of his surroundings? Subjects performed a number of tasks illuminated by different spectral lights and were asked to indicate by a switch when the temperature rose to a point when they began to feel uncomfortably warm. The findings showed no change in the levels of heat they would tolerate as a function of the colours of illumination, but nevertheless they persisted in the conventional belief that blue and green are cool colour when asked to rank the colours they had experienced. It appears, therefore, that despite belief about colour efficiency, any attempt to change the comfort of persons in a work environment through variations in colored illumination may be unsuccessful.

8.4 Atmospheric Effects:

Every worker at one time or another has complained about the "heat" or the "cold" in rooms which imply that his efficiency is being affected adversely by the temperature of the working environment. A determination of temperature effects on work efficiency would seemingly be an easy matter. The problem actually is complicated because almost always when atmospheric temperature varies, other conditions such as humidity do not remain constant. There are a few studies which enable us to pinpoint temperature effects uncontaminated by uncontrolled variables. These studies have been summarized by Baetjer (1944) and he concludes that the desirable temperatures for sedentary work in winter are from 68 to 73°F and for the same kind of work in summer, 75 to 80°F; for moderately hard work in all seasons, the desirable temperature is 65°, for strenuous work, 60°. Humidity effects are considered negligible because in the range of temperatures investigated relative humidity is an unimportant variable.
The role of humidity has been demonstrated in a number of studies, so that there is factual basis for the summon expression that "it's not the heat, but the humidity" which causes discomfort. In one of these studies workers were exposed for one hour to different combinations of humidity and temperature. Temperatures as high as 140°F were judged to be tolerable when the humidity was only 10 percent. On the other hand, when the humidity reached 80 percent, a temperature of 110°F was judged to be intolerable.

Besides temperature and humidity, air circulation is another atmospheric condition that is critical in a good work environment. An example is a study in which electric fans were operated on alternate days for a period of six summer weeks and the effects on a weaving operation were observed. For every hour of the working day, production with the fans stopped was less than when the fans were running. The beneficial effects of the fans were greater in the afternoon than in the morning, for the most part, although the third hour of the morning and the second hour of the afternoon showed the greatest production increases.

Altering atmospheric conditions in order to create a favourable working environment is nowadays frequently accomplished through the installation of air-conditioning systems. Indeed, these systems are now under such precise control that humidity, temperature, and air-circulation problems would appear to be amenable to ready solution. However, the problems are not as simple as they appear. The complicating factor is the worker's reaction or perception of the change brought about through the manipulation of physical variables. A case point is the reaction of workers in a factory built in Texas during World II blackouts. The building contained no windows or skylights but was conditioned to control temperature, humidity, and air circulation. Since the ceiling was 50 feet from the floor, most of the air vents were located near the top of the walls.

From the beginning employees complained about the bad air. It was too hot, too humid, and too close. A thorough check of the system was made, and it was found to be in excellent working order. Complaints persisted until it was recognized
that the workers were rural people unaccustomed to industrial work and air conditioning. They felt cooped up in a windowless plant where they would not feel a breeze. Since the vents were too high for the workers to feel the moving air, they needed some visual indication of stirring air. When tissue streamers were fastened to the ventilators high on the walls, the workers could see that the air was moving, and the frequency of employee complaints soon became negligible.

9. Common Characteristics of Work:

As a basis for discussion it will be helpful to examine work performance pictorially in terms of its basic concepts. Suppose we enter a factory or office or a department store for the purpose of studying the output of the workers. By obtaining measures of production and plotting them against time, we come up with a work curve which looks something like the hypothetical curve.

The work curve shows that before peak productivity is reached there is an initial warming-up period. Eventually there is a decrement or falling off in production, but often, in anticipation of the end of the workday, there is an end spurt.

A word of caution about work curves is in order. There are variations in the curves from day to day for the same worker and also variations among workers. Also the different kinds of work-heavy muscular work, light tasks, or work of a clerical nature-do not yield identical curves. The representative curve shown above is the best single description and will serve as a point of departure for our discussion about the cause of change in work activity and what can be done to improve productive efficiency.

9.1 Sleep, Rest and Efficiency:

Laboratory experiments confirm the common experience that the loss of sleep, like other effects of fatigue, does not appreciably change a person's capacity to work, but it does reduce his drive to perform efficiently. A disturbed frame of mind interferes with good sleep; even creative excitement can get us up to the point where sleep is interfered with. Sleep is actually a habit and anything that interrupts this habit may also interrupt other behaviour patterns. The college student, for example,
who goes without sleep studying for exams, may break his sleep pattern enough to change certain kinds of behaviour. He may go without sleep one night; the next day his attention may wander a little or he may feel like lying down, but nonetheless he may actually function normally in taking exams. However, loss of sleep night after night causes irritability and impaired judgment. Many people report that short naps may restore one's energy and motivation; this is also true of rest pauses during work. It is also true that work breaks relate to overcoming feelings of tiredness by changing perception.

The tired worker is irritated, lacks interest, is fed up with his job; and he may see things as lacking a sense of urgency. What he is capable of doing is not achieved because of his perceptions. His tiredness will disappear when he moves to another task that is perceived as challenging, exciting, or otherwise satisfying. Muscular work that is perceived as interesting or productive can be prolonged over longer periods of time than work that is perceived as drudgery, even though the actual energy expended is the same in both cases. The student who cannot continue with his study because he is "so tired" often finds that tiredness vanishes when he turns to an activity that interests him. In a very real sense we become the victims of our own perceptions as well as of decreases in physical energy. rest periods relate to both.

Numerous studies in the laboratory and in industry have shown that distributing work through the introduction of rest pauses results in increased output. In a typical laboratory study, subjects lifted weights until they were exhausted. After a five-minute rest they could lift the weights with about 80 percent of their previous ability. They returned to 95 percent of their best output after a rest of twenty minutes. In industry the beneficial effects of rest periods on production have long been noted. A historic study conducted by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology in Great Britain in the 1920s is significant because it shows how a work curve may be altered by introducing rest periods. Before the introduction of the rest pause, the work curve, averaged from a number of workers and depicting output for each half hour during the day, rose until 9:30 A.M., remained at the same level until 11 A.M. fell off sharply until
noon, then climbed slowly until 12:30. and from 12:30 to 1 P.M. fell off slightly. An hour's lunch break began at 1 P.M., the work curve throughout the morning was generally at a higher level, the decrement after 11 A.M. being markedly diminished and periodic fluctuations giving way to more uniform output throughout the morning. In the afternoon, when no rest pause was interpolated at 4 P.M., the work curve fell sharply from 4 to 4:30, but after the introduction of a seven-minute rest period at 4 P.M. the work done during the remaining twenty-three minutes of the half hour exceeded that done in the same half hour when no rest pause was interpolated [56]. Many recent human-factors studies have shown the same phenomena as this earlier investigation, and no doubt some readers have experienced something similar in their own work efforts.

Work supervisors sometimes argue that most employees take unauthorized rests when there are no regularly scheduled rest periods. Are there any advantages of authorized rest periods over periods of unauthorized rest? A study of a group of comptometer operators in a government office provides one answer to this question [34]. The operators were observed without their knowledge for a two-week period during which a record was kept of the number and length of their unauthorized rests. Later a rest schedule was formally introduced, consisting of an eight-minute pause in the morning and a seven-minute pause in the afternoon. Because of government regulations, the workday was lengthened by fifteen minutes to make up for the time spent in the regularly scheduled rest periods. Total working time thus remained unchanged. The changed system resulted in a significant decrease in the time spent in unauthorized rest and a 35 percent increase in work completed.

One reason for the advantage of authorized over unauthorized rest periods is probably better placement of the rest interval during the work period. The best way to determine how rest periods should be scheduled is to plot production records throughout the work period and note drops in production.

How can we account for the beneficial effects of rest pauses on production? A number of plausible reasons come to mind, the most obvious being that rest
provides the opportunity to recover from fatigue. The physiologist has demonstrated that work causes an accumulation of waste products within the organism which reduce work capacity. Rest provides a period during which the waste products are dissipated and bodily capacity restored. In heavy muscular work, physiological fatigue is unquestionably a major factor contributing to work decrement.

When work does not involve the expenditure of a great deal of physical energy, the beneficial effect of rest periods may be due to relief from a task that engender in the worker feelings of boredom. The worker is not physically tired-he is irritated, lacks interest, is fed up with his job. He wants a change, a break from what seems to be interminable activity. rest pauses provide an opportunity to talk and think about nonjob activities. When the worker returns to his job, he is psychologically refreshed, so to speak, and this is reflected in increased output.

The effectiveness of introducing rest pauses may be due to still another factor-a change in attitude toward the company, including, of course, the work supervisor. A worker with a favourable attitude toward his supervisor is much less likely to soldier on the job than the worker who dislikes his boss. The introduction of rest periods may be tangible evidence that management has an interest in the welfare of the worker, and he may respond with more efficient output. On the other hand, the worker may feel differently if the coffee break, for example, is gained through union negotiations. Like other authorized rest periods, the coffee break may lead to abuse, not only in extra time taken out but in psychological time lost in getting back in the full swing of work. It is a loss somewhat related to the unproductive minutes before quitting time. One insurance company, after a study in its nationwide offices, defined the time from 4 to 5 P.M. as "the most expensive hour in America".

9.2 Repetitive Work:

The introduction of rest periods is not the only way to alter the shape of the work curve in the direction of increased output. The nature of the job itself has a lot to do with how long a person can maintain a high rate of production. We "stay with" interesting jobs a lot longer than with uninteresting jobs, and repetitive jobs appear
to be the least interesting, we reflect this lack of interest when we say that the job is boring. Actually the job itself is not boring. Boredom is the worker's reaction to the job. More specifically, boredom arises from a conflict between the necessity for doing a dull job and wanting to turn to more interesting activities.

Attention requirements have much to do with the degree of boredom engendered by repetitive tasks. A highly repetitive job to which the worker becomes habituated elicits relatively little boredom in some workers if they do not have to pay close attention to what they are doing. If the worker can do the job "without thinking," he is free to talk to his fellow workers about yesterday's football game or next month's vacation. Or, if conversation is impossible, he can daydream. Boredom will be pronounced on a repetitive job like an assembly-line operation where the continuous work flow and the task requirements occur over and over again but permit few lapses or of shifts in attention. Boredom is not a problem in a complex and varied task which because of its intrinsic nature tends to hold attention.

10. The Perception of Work:

Work, in essence, is the use of a person's physiological and mental processes in attainment of some goal. The goal may be intrinsic, extrinsic, or both. The goal may be a managerial decision, participation in a conference, the sale of an insurance policy, the erection of a stone wall, or the human efforts involved in producing ball bearings by the many, many thousands. The definition of work is broad, and it is sometimes criticized because of its generality. For example, may we not define play the same way? Doesn't the tennis player use his physiological and mental processes in the game? Indeed he does. But the point to remember is that even though work and play may seem to be the extremes of a continuum, the distinction rests primarily upon motivation rather than on any fundamental differences between performance determinants. What is play to some people may be work to others.

Taking time out for sleeping, eating, and other essential activities, what choices do we have in how we spend our remaining time? We say we want time for reading, watching television, and sports. But how much leisure can we take? The
trend toward shorter hours of work, as well as toward earlier retirement, has had an important influence on attitudes toward work versus leisure. The week of labour, sixty or seventy hours for the last generation, is now in some quarters less than forty, and for the person in retirement much less of course. How then does one spend his time if he doesn't work? Most of us actually seek things to do; some take up hobbies, some seem to prefer social interactions, and for others the creative arts offer outlets for energies.

To some "leisure" is a myth, to others it is an opportunity; just as "work" to some is positive in character, to others it connotes the negative. And some of us tend to expand work to fill the time available. Aronson and Landy [5] divided volunteer students into two groups. Those in one section were given five minutes to prepare a talk on the subject of smoking. The other section was allowed fifteen for the job. Next, each group was given a new but similar chore allowing them to take as much time as they wanted. The five-minute students managed to finish the job in accordance with their original deadline; the others, having initially decided that the job required more time, took eight minutes to complete the assignment. An important aspect of work is how we individually perceive it and its conditions.

10.1 Individual Differences:

It is axiomatic among behavioural scientists that all behaviour is a product of the perceptual field, and it follows that there are many individual differences in the ways we interpret the environment. One common fallacy is that many of us become trapped by the attitude of naive realism which suggests that our perceptions simply register accurately what is "out there." Ask one worker how he interprets the meaning of an oil slick on the floor, and he says simply that it is there. But to the safety engineer it is not only there, it is an accident hazard. For another example, take two men who are looking at the pressure gauge of a steam boiler, both of them with good eyesight and equally able to see the reading on the gauge. One man knows nothing about boilers, so to him the information means little. The other person, who knows about such things, sees that the pressure is close to what he knows to be the danger point.
As a psychological function perception attaches meaning to that which is sensed. It is an organized and interpretive act and relates closely to the way we see. It shows up particularly in the way each of us perceives our organization. To understand one's subordinate, supervisor, or neighbour, cognizance must be taken of the way that person organized his perceptions.

10.2 Variables in Perception:

We perceive that which is familiar to us because of previous learning; our perceptions are changed by experience and thus become familiar. Memory provides for the storage of information which is amenable to recall, and recalled familiar information influences perception. The expert mechanic listens to the sounds of an engine and organizes them into familiar patterns that are different from those of the novice. The cardiologist sees evidence of heart damage in a patient's electrocardiogram. To the patient unfamiliar with cardiograph tracings, they appear to be a jumble of wiggly lines. We have to learn to play attention to certain things.

What a person perceives depends in large measure upon what he is ready for. The crane man is set to hoist the steel beam into place at an appropriate signal; the stockbroker responds to some cue in the market. We all carry with us a wide variety of sets: sets to start and stop when certain visual and auditory signals appear, sets to react in certain ways in different social situations, sets to perform some task in the laboratory. Set exerts a strong influence in the perception of people, and on occasion leads to a hasty judgement. Set may even function when we prepare our income tax report—even those sets that someone may wish to label as being unconscious. The Internal Revenue Service reports that in any given year among the most frequent errors are failing to sign one's name, failing to attach earnings reports, and giving wrong social security numbers. Most arithmetic errors favour the taxpayer. And set even relates to the time of day a person attempts some task. It has been estimated that two of every five persons are unable to rest the body's built-in "biological clocks" to adapt to night-shift work. Tiredness relates, in part, to set and to physical condition. A study of 2,000 "tired" workers and managers who came into a clinic found that over half of the conditions could be improved by a proper diet [45].
But why, we may ask, do men work in the first place? One man may feel that something important needs to be done, that he is the man to do it. He needs no other motive to get the task completed. In the upper levels of the industrial hierarchy we may find economic forces pressuring an executive to work hard purely for financial reward. At another time he may work to avoid penalty for shirking. But generally he works, as do most people gainfully employed at any level, not for some special reward or for fear of penalty, but for a combination of reasons. We work for different reasons at different times, but in the main we are all after very much the same things in our work.

Near the beginning of this chapter we listed in Table 3 the specific aspects of the ten major job factors related to attitudes. Let us now consider each of these in a summary way as they contribute to understanding why people work. In terms of overall needs managers and workers differ little in kind, although they may differ greatly in degree and in the hierarchy in which they would place their needs at any given time. Let us present some average ranks as determined by Herzberg et al. (1957). It is possible, of course, that no single individual would rank these factors in the order in which they are presented. We also know that at any given time, for any given person a certain factor may rank high. With changing circumstances this high factor may shift to a relatively low comparative position. For example, for a man who has just been married wages may be of primary importance. At some other time he might place wages low in his comparisons. For the upward-mobile manager opportunities for advancement may well take first place, even topping security. The man in the wet mines may place working conditions near the top. For most people benefits (hospitalization, holidays) may rank last by comparison because most people already have them in some form or other.

12.1 Security:

This factor deals with the steadiness of employment; it is positive where the manager or worker feels he has a reasonable chance of working under conditions of company stability. The man with security feels that he is valued by the firm and that he has the abilities and the opportunity to keep his job. Security is a strong
reason for liking a job and is generally mentioned first by both men and women as contributing to job satisfaction. The lower one gets in the occupational scale, the greater the importance attached to the security factor. The greater skill and responsibility demanded in higher-level jobs gives the employee more "saleability" and hence creates a demand for his services both within his own company and in others.

Security is a job-attitudes factor which increases slightly in importance with an increase in age. There is evidence that security is less important to employees with more education. It seems to be equally important to employees regardless of their dependents, with the possible exception of the single man who is entirely on his own.

12.2 Opportunity for Advancement:

What are the chances of getting ahead? This factor ranks high in importance, particularly to the person striving for upward mobility. Opportunity for advancement is quite a different problem for persons at opposite ends of the socioeconomic scale. The professional man and the corporation executive have this factor primarily within their own individual control. To the man in middle management, however, the problem of opportunity is of greater concern, for his future is largely tied in with what happens to and within his company. To the worker, advancement is related to merit, to be sure seniority plays a big role where union contracts are in effect. The young, ambitious, good worker may find advancement held back because of seniority agreements.

The results of many attitude surveys show that the lack of opportunity for advancement is frequently a strong reason for disliking a job, but rarely is opportunity for advancement mentioned as a contributor to satisfaction. Men are much more expressive in giving importance to this factor than are women. There is some evidence that there is a decrease in the importance of the advancement factor with increasing age. Once a man has reached his "opportunity level" and becomes adjusted to his situation, other factors become more important to him, length of service in a stable company, for example. Intelligence and education are substantially related to the opportunity factor. As a matter of fact, one serious problem for the
bright and ambitious college graduate is to realize that promotional opportunities are often slower in coming than he would like. Some studies show that college seniors select their jobs largely because they think they will have a good opportunity for advancement.

12.3 Company and management:

What constitutes a good company and management? To one employee this may mean how well the company gets along with the union. Another man may rate the company on its sponsorship of athletic teams. Whether we are dealing with the size of the organization, reputation, earnings, or public relations, the employee believes that a good company is one which helped him feel some stability in his job. Like security, this job factor is seldom a strong reason for dissatisfaction, but it contributes substantially to the employee's satisfaction.

In terms of occupational level there is some evidence that the higher the skill level, the greater the satisfaction with the company. Older workers show a slightly greater concern for the rating and reputation of the company than young workers do. Perhaps their years of service to the company have made them a little more ego-involved with it.

12.4 Wages:

When this factor is ranked with nine other job factors, employees give it fourth place. It is interesting that employers generally rank this factor near the top when they are asked what the employee wants. Although there is some indication that wages and opportunity for advancement are related through the element of money, employees consistently have rated wages as much less important than either opportunity for advancement or security.

Studies show that the factor of wages contributes more to the dissatisfaction than to the satisfaction of the worker. Rarely ever does a man express satisfaction with the amount of money he is making.

Wages are more important to men than to women workers and are generally
more important to factory workers than to office workers. Hertzberg and his colleagues conclude that there is a tendency for the importance of wages to drop as the employee grows older, at least until the age of forty. After forty, the employee attaches more importance to the factor of wages, whereas the factors of job, company, security, and so on seem to have become fairly well established.

12.5 Intrinsic aspects of the job:

There are many reasons why people like their job simply for the sake of the job. One man may like what he is doing because he has just the right ability and training for it. Another may like his job per se because it brings him recognition; a third person may like his job because it is easy, gives him an opportunity to travel, or is free of tension and pressure. Whatever the reason, what the man does at his particular job contributes to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

There is an requirements relationship between a person's skill and education and the requirements of a job. It has been found, for example, that a reduction in the skill requirements of job increases the dissatisfaction of the more skilled worker, whereas it would not affect the less skilled worker. The higher the occupational and skill level of the person and the higher his education, the more important the challenge of his job becomes. Most people in executive or supervisory positions say they like their job because intrinsically it challenges and stimulates them. One difficult thing for successful leaders to realize is that employees in lower-status jobs often of not like jobs with challenge. For them there must be other things involved if the job is to lead to satisfaction.

12.6 Supervision:

To the worker, his supervision is both a father figure and an irritating boss who is an equally strong contributor to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Women seem more sensitive to supervision than do men, but for both bad supervision can be a primary reason for absenteeism and labour turnover.

Supervision seems less important at the high levels in spite of the fact that people in high positions have a greater tendency to verbalize the things that are
wrong with their particular supervisory structure. College graduates voice criticism of their supervisions more than less educated people. They are particularly critical at times of the supervisor's ability to handle people. There is some evidence that married workers with dependents are more conscious of the problem of good supervision than are single men. One could interpret this as meaning that the man with family responsibilities feels more necessity for supervisory approval. And, of course, we cannot overlook the fact that the supervisor, in playing his many roles with the worker is a focal point for attitude formation.

12.7 Social aspects of the job:

This is one of the most difficult of the job-attitudes factors to describe. It involves such needs as belonging and social approval. This factor contributes to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the employee. A man who feels himself a member of a productive, cohesive group is happier with his job than is someone who finds himself a misfit. The social factor appears only slightly more important to women than to men; it is relatively independent of age and occupational level.

12.8 Communication:

An old military expression which says that "there is always someone who does not get the world" is expressive but hardly a complete definition of the factor of communication. The lack of good communication may be a reason for disliking a job, but it is never a specific reason for linking a job. What, then is really meant by communication? To be sure, it means the formalities of conveying information, giving orders, turning out annual reports. But to the employee it also means being listened to, receiving recognition, and "knowing why." Good communication, as far as feelings go, means the opposite of being ignored. The factor of communication seems to be more important at the higher educational levels.

First-line supervisors list the lack of good communication as one of their chief annoyances. Perhaps this is because they feel that they are "told" by higher management rather than "conferred with." In one company an attitude survey was made among 120 foremen. When asked to describe their biggest problem, most of these supervisors
listed communication. In a few months these men were brought to gather to discuss company policies and problems. After a one-day session they returned to their jobs. One year later when they were asked to identify problems, communication was far down the list. A follow-up study showed that merely being brought to gather and asked for view on company problems had made the men feel that communication was now good. Recognition that he is a part of management may well be what the supervisor wants when he asks for improved communication.

12.9 Working Conditions:

Temperature, lighting, ventilation, parking facilities, cafeteria, toilets, and the like are always a place affording criticism when the employee wishes to let off steam. Actually this factor has been found to make an equally low contribution to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Working conditions are substantially more important to women than to men, as we shall point out later in the chapter on needs of women. Hours are more important to men than any other specific aspect of working conditions; but among women, especially married women, this aspect has even more significance. To the more educated and higher-level employee, hours are almost negligible in importance. Few, if any, executives work the limited hours of the union man! To workers in hazardous jobs, safety conditions are most important; but when they are ranked with nine other job factors, working conditions come in next to last.

12.10 Benefits:

Retirement provisions, hospitalization, levels, vacations, and holidays are now a fairly standard part of most jobs; there is greater uniformity throughout industry in this factor than in any of the other major factors. This factor has not been mentioned as a real contributor either to satisfaction or to dissatisfaction in the many studies of job attitudes. It is interesting to note, however, how much attention is paid by union riper tentative to fringe benefits at the time of contract negotiations.

The person giving serious consideration to his or her career may find the ten factors described above useful in helping him to establish an individual need hierarchy. He will no doubt find that HW wants all these factors in the job that he chooses, but
HW will want them in different degrees. As time goes on he will find his attitudes shifting, but it is important that he have a base of understanding from which to operate in making decisions about his life's work.

13. Effects of Attitudes on Productivity:

Within the past thirty years, the writings in the area of worker productivity have shown a shift from an emphasis on wage incentives and environmental working conditions to an emphasis on human relations.

This shift is due, in part, to the fact that working conditions and wages have been improved in recent years. Mainly, however, industry leaders are finding that there is another important side to the economic man. A poll of the executives of several hundred companies emphasized that business leaders are beginning to realize how important worker attitudes are.

What can be done to improve worker attitudes? There are no simple answers. Is music, for example, a legitimate device that gives pleasure to workers and profit to employers? As long ago as 1911 it was reported that six-day bicycle riders can be stimulated to respond with increased effort when lively music is played even though working close to the point of exhaustion. Uhrbrock, one of the pioneers of industrial psychology, has reviewed some four decades of research of music on the job and its relation to worker morale and production [5]. He concludes that many unqualified claims are not proved and that some advertising brochures issued by music merchants are not backed by facts. Attitudinally, the majority of factory workers surveyed prefer working where music is played, but not all workers feel so positively, and some are annoyed by it. Young, inexperienced employees engaged in simple, repetitive, monotonous tasks increased their output when stimulated by music, whereas evidence has been presented which demonstrates that experienced factory operators, whose work patterns are stabilized, do not increase their production when music is played, particularly when performing complex tasks. Some investigators have found that at times music has had an adverse effect on production. There is a negative correlation between age and preference for work music.
Is the performance-appraisal interview worthwhile in improving worker morale? A study at General Electric showed that most subordinates felt they deserved more favourable appraisals than they received [27]. Criticisms of performance in the single interview typically resulted in defensiveness, and the use of praise had no measurable effect on employee reactions to subsequent job performance. Subordinate participation in goal planning, another aspect of the study, resulted in improved subordinate attitudes pertaining to man-manager relations but little difference in the degree to which goals were achieved. The study showed further that increased subordinate participation in day-to-day goal planning was much better in bringing about favourable attitudes and goal achievement.

13.1 Work and Attitudes:

Do attitudes affect the amount and quality of work production? This is an involved question; what are the facts? In one review twenty-six studies were cited in which some quantitative relationship between productivity and job attitudes in a variety of jobs had been measured. Fourteen of these studies found that workers with positive job attitudes showed higher productivity than those with negative attitudes; for nine studies, there was no relationship; and in three studies, workers with positive job attitudes actually showed poorer production records than those with negative attitudes. The contradictions in these studies may be due in part to differences in the research methods involved, in the workers surveyed, or in their work situations. One basic consideration is that high productivity accompanies high morale only when the attitudes of the work group favour maximum output. This is particularly true when the work group is very cohesive, when the atmosphere is friendly, and when belonging to that specific work group is highly desirable to its members. A group of this kind can either restrict or raise output independently of the degree to which its members are satisfied with their jobs. Cohesive groups may be highly productive or highly unproductive, depending on whether the members go along with management goals for high productivity.

The findings of studies relating attitudes to job turnover and absenteeism are in general in agreement. Twenty-one of twenty-four studies cited in the literature
report than workers with negative attitudes [21]. Two studies report no effects, and one study showed workers with positive job attitudes as having more turnover. Wickert has shed some light on the problem in his investigation of telephone-company employees. He found that those who quit their job felt they were less personally involved in these jobs than those who stayed; they left, in part, because they had had no chance to help make decisions, and they felt they had not contributed to the success of the company. Another investigator found virtually the same thing with bricklayers and carpenters, who were less likely to leave their jobs when they were given some say-so in the composition of their work groups.

It has been found that the critical employee is not always a poorer producer than the uncritical one, but the preponderance of evidence adds up to the conclusion that workers with positive job attitudes out produce workers with negative job attitudes when the psychological climates favour high production, where there is good supervision, and where the employee really wants to produce and get ahead.

13.2 Aspiration and Productivity:

Morse has made the point that employee satisfaction is a function not only of how much a person receives from the job situation but also of where he stand with respect to his level of aspiration. When the environment provides little possibility for need satisfaction, those people with the strongest desires, or highest aspirations, will be the least happy. Or as the has put it another way, "The greater the amount the individual gets, the greater his satisfaction, and at the same time, the more the individual still desires, the less his satisfaction." From her interview studies of white-collar clerical workers and supervisors, Morse makes the point that if an employee is in a situation where he is not making any decisions and does not want to make any, he will tend to be highly or moderately satisfied with his work, but if he is not making any decisions and would like to make some, he will tend to derive little satisfaction from his job.

With satisfaction seem then as a function of both the strength of needs in a particular area and the amount of "environmental return," we can see how education
increases the strength of needs for pay and for job status. This factor is of vital consideration to the college student in planning his career. As the person grows older, the need for pay and job status increases. This can lead to job dissatisfaction when the discrepancy between levels of aspiration and possibilities of attainment gets too great.

One way to get an indication of how people feel about their jobs in terms of environmental feedback is to take a look at turnover of people on the job.

13.3 Some Generalizations About Job Turnover:

In a review of over seven hundred titles dealing with job turnover, Schuh finds that managers tend to remain with their companies longer than professionals and craftsmen. Production workers have the highest turnover rate in industry, surpassed generally only by household employees. North American industry as a whole has a turnover rate around 40 percent a year. The average person holds a job with the same employer or in the same type of business, in the same locale, for $3^{1/2}$ years. Studies of those who have remained with a given organization ten years or more show ratios of one-third for managers, one-fourth for professionals and craftsmen, and one-fifth for workers. Even within a given employment bracket, differences of turnover are found. For example, typists have the highest turnover rate, followed by stenographers. Comparatively, secretaries have the lowest turnover rate within the clerical and secretarial occupation. Rates of turnover differ from industry to industry; turnover in the restaurant business is three times that of manufacturing. And turnover is costly. One company which spent almost a million dollars to recruit 193 scientists and engineers found only 54 had remained with the organization by the end of one year.

Men at the top of the corporate jobs tend to remain in their positions, markedly in contrast to men of lower rank. Insul et al. found that 120 executives from forty firms, ranging in size from 2,000 to 125,000 employees, had held no more than three management jobs. This particular sample included 34 presidents and 19 board chairmen among some forty job titles.
Study after study in the Schuh review reflects the fact that individuals do very little career planning before seeking a job and industry itself often fails to provide a climate for job satisfaction. Reasons for turnover range widely with most data obtained by exit interview. Employees tend to give polite rather than real reasons when they leave. Typical is one study where over half of the employees said they were leaving for higher pay, while a follow-up study showed the real reason was poor supervision and psychological factors related to job attitudes. Such things as commuting and crowded transportation are frequently mentioned in exit interviews as reasons for absences and for quitting a job. However, one may question these as basic reasons for turnover. A study of over 5,000 white-collar workers in 30 Swedish insurance companies showed no relation between commuting time and absenteeism. Living distance had little to do with turnover. Weather affects tardiness, but not absenteeism. And regardless of weather, tardiness increases toward the end of the week.

Some investigators have related turnover to scores on intelligence, aptitude, personality, and interest tests. These measures predict early quits fairly well but do less well in predicting who will give up a job after about eighteen months. When the employee’s job goals are in line with the demands of his position, he has a high probability of staying. Turnover is high among those persons whose positions are below their level of education. On the whole, the weighted application blank has yielded the highest validity coefficients over the greatest number of jobs. But study after study shows that rapid decay in predictability of the blank occurs, necessitating reweighing every two or three years.

In some industries women leave their jobs more frequently than men. In other industries, textile, for example, and certain clerical jobs, they show less turnover than men. In the main, women entering the labour market today stay with the job longer than women who entered it a decade ago. The easing of household duties, better child care, higher cost of living, and more interest employers in problems of women are contributing to a falling rate of female turnover. Personnel selection and training are also related to this improving situation.
There is a higher turnover among younger than among older people. The older employee often has too much invested in the job situation, whereas the younger person is still exploring the job field and learning more about himself through job trial and error. Handicapped workers have, on the average, lower job turnover.

The probability of leaving a job is directly related to the extent to which a person has failed to relate personal goals to job opportunities. Many people even fail to define their own goals clearly. Coming onto the scene are researches on turnover cantering on the interrelationships between the individual and his climate. Important also is the problem of job obsolescence. The United States government estimates that each week some thirty-five thousand workers lose or change their jobs because of the advance of automation.

13.4 Industrialization and The family:

The man a work, be he an executive or a labourer, does not function alone in his industrial environment. It is almost inevitable that his problems of work are shared with his family, and the feedback from family life affects his work. Essential to the study of the whole man in his total community is the study of the family. About two-thirds of families have one or more members earning a wage or salary in a non-agricultural industry.

13.5 Socioeconomic Environment:

Industry directly and helps establish the socioeconomic environment within the community, even to the extent of influencing marriages. In their jobs, large numbers of men and women become acquainted. Several studies have shown that one of the primary factors related to who marries whom is proximity. Men and women who live within relatively short distances of each other tend to marry. People who live in the same neighbourhood usually come from the same class and often from the same status groups. Marriages occur between people who are thrown to gather at work or who meet through their positions in the social structure.

The modern industrial-urban family has a high degree of equality among its members. The father is less of an authoritarian figure than in the patriarchal family,
particularly where the wife and/or children work for pay. Although those who work may leave their problems at the office or not talk about their work at home, much about these problems is revealed by attitudes, particularly where feelings are involved. Men at all levels of society concentrate daily at their place of work, leaving their homes for a world of often different values and traditions. In all levels of society, says our industrial sociologist, the husband is but a part-time member of the family who must somehow adjust his work life to the demands of the family life. Some men succeed here, but many fail. One man may see his “work self” dominate; another may see the “family self” win out. Here one may find a key to personal adjustment. How a man behaves with his family often reveals something about how well his needs are being satisfied at work.

13.6 Work and the Family:

To the man in the upper levels of society with prestige and authority gained at work, there may be little carry-over into his family life. The pressure of life at the high occupational levels may mean the man has little time to devote to his family. In either case the work self differs from the family self. This is particularly true where the wife has adequate funds of her own to allow her some independence.

To the middle-class white-collar man, the situation is often different. The income of the white-collar worker is usually superior to his wife’s; hence the family is wholly or in part dependent on the husband’s wages. But still his family has not a complete idea of what the man has to put up with in his work. He has difficulty transferring his feelings of accomplishment or lack of accomplishment to his family. The family may observe the strains of his failure or try to share in his victories, but with little real success.

The status position of the worker may be as low within his family as it is at work. If the wife or the children work as wage earners, they may make out as well as or better than the husband. This very weakness of the father’s position may cause him to play an authoritarian role in the family as a defensive behaviour. For the unemployed father, with the mother as breadwinner, there is often role shifting. Some
studies of the family as a unit of interacting personalities conclude that we must ask how the child is socialized into a particular family, how he develops life roles, for example, as a scapegoat, that may keep him culturally handicapped.

For the worker, the manager, or the professional man there is a total environment. To put it simply, the total environment for the individual consists of "problems in the office and the factory" and "problems where we live." Automation, technological changes, world conditions—all impinge upon the individual, often creating a climate of uncertainty. Invention has a way of opening up opportunities for some and denying them to others; perhaps we should remember, along with Thoreau: "The mass of men lead lives of quite desperation."

14. Women in Organizations:

In an article in a technical journal dealing with the subject of women in industry one write concluded, "...women are a minority group, in the social sense of the term, regardless of what percentage of the population they may actually make up." Business Week summed up what many statistics bear out in America. "Despite an increasing interest among women in returning to work after raising a family, business isn't eager for them." yet, women constitute almost one-third of our total labour force; 13 million households find women working to help support the family budget. They constitute one-sixth of the 18 million members of the nation's 184 labour unions, take 17 percent of all higher degrees, make up 4 percent of the listing in Who's Who, and own real estate and stocks and bonds than do men. They spend more of the consumer dollar and inherit more business property.

14.1 Problems of adjustment:

The employed woman who has to divide her energies between the working world and her traditional role as a woman faces adjustment problems peculiar to her sex. The married woman has both home and job responsibilities somewhat different from those of her male counterpart. The social and psychological pressures on the single woman complicate her attitudes toward marriage, toward her job, and toward her associates. A major consideration of the young single woman in selecting a job may well be the opportunities which it offers her to meet eligible men of marriageable age.
There are still many prejudices and traditional discriminations against women in factory-type jobs, but enough traditions have been broken to show that changes can be made. Even such small things as changing physical working conditions and introducing schedules which allow the women time to get their housework done can reduce women's absenteeism below that of men. In the more professional types of jobs (accounting, science, engineering, mathematics), once thought to be the exclusive province of men, women are being accepted in many quarters. Some writers feel that our shortage of scientists and technologists can be partially overcome by selecting and training more women.

Although women are going into many “men's” professionals, the proportions are still small. Most female college graduates who work go into traditional women's jobs. Women constitute about 90 percent of all librarians, 60 percent of all welfare workers, and 80 percent of all public school teachers. For many jobs women must deemphasize the traditional home-maker roles.

14.2 Higher-level Positions:

Apparently it takes a long time to establish a tradition favourable to women within the higher-level position in industry. In the home offices of instance companies, women hold only about 20 percent of the supervisory positions; in banks, the figure is even lower. Both of these industries employ large proportions of women. Two-thirds of all insurance-company employees are women. women constitute about one-half of the number of employees in banks. Only in department stores does one find an even distribution among women and men in the so-called higher-level positions. here women make up about two-thirds of all employees.

Women officers in industry are no more 4 percent of the total. Only a handful hold board directorships. In production operations in manufacturing, few women are found above the level of forewomen. Aside from prejudice, lack of education and training has been cited as one of the principal reasons women do not advance. One writer summed the problem up well by pointing out that the young woman does not take specialized training because she fears it will be wasted in a hostile market, and
she has little chance for advancement because she lacks the training. This circular
dilemma must surely be avoided if our economy is to continue along its predicted
course. The women in middle-management brackets with no more than a high school
education are usually older than those in the general labour market, and more of
them are single. Women in personal work, training, publishing, job testing, social
service, science, and engineering are usually college graduates.

The opportunities for women at the administrative level are increasing in such
positions as research analysts in banks and insurance companies and in merchandising,
public relations, advertising, and personnel work. However, very few women in any
field occupy the top executive jobs. One business magazine estimated that not over
five thousand women could be found among the quarter-million "real" executives. A
market analysis of women holding positions of responsibility in industry and commerce
indicated that the way women behave on the job rather than the way they perform
the technical operations of their position is a chief determinant of their acceptance
as administrators. Apparently there is a widespread belief that women are "too emotional"
or "too personal" to hold down supervisory jobs or executive positions. Most evi­
dence that seems to point in this direction, however, is more subjective than objec­
tive 9, 11, 26.

14.3 Wives of men in Industry:

Another important aspect of the industrial environment to which industry, as
well as other kinds of organizations, has given some attention in recent years is the
part played by the wives of men in industry. Consideration has been given to educating
the families of workers in such company matters as health and safely. In selecting
Americans for government assignments overseas consideration is given to the
adaptability of the wife of the technician as well as to the technician himself. However,
the most elaborate attempt to bring wives onto the industrial scene has occurred in
the management structure. No picture of the psychological climate of modern industry
would be complete without some description of the role played by executives' wives.
This is a subject of particular import to the young man who is planning a career with
some companies (and to his wife also).
Surveys concerning management wives have been conducted across the United States. The interviews were made on the basis of a rough sampling of management by age and business (size and type); they were supplemented by interviews providing a cross section of particular corporation communities. Interviews were held with executive wives themselves, with executives as corporation officials, and with executives as husbands; they were held management consultants, sociologists, and psychologists. The husbands of the wives in question were in the age range of twenty-five to forty and in junior and middle management or with aspirations for getting there.

Corporation officials sketched the ideal management wife as one who is highly adaptable, is gregarious, and realizes that her husband belongs to the corporation. As the wife sees herself in this corporation culture, she is judged "good" by what she does not do: she is not to complain when her husband works late; she is not to fuss about a transfer; she is not to engage in any controversial activity. Above all, the wife feels that she is expected to be a good listener, to serve as the sounding board for her husband's frustrations. In a subtle sort of way the good management wife is expected to be a valuable publicity agent for the husband. Of course, in many organizations, wives do not get involved in the company at all. A manager's wife can affect her husband's performance more often in a small "company town" or an overseas location than in a large-city complex.

There is enough evidence to conclude that attitudes of women and about women can and do change. It may well be that the wise personnel man should take a hard look to see just where he may profit by employing women even though men may be available for the job. The woman worker, the woman executive, and the professional woman may hold the key to our expanding economy if the role casting of the woman can be changed.

Women are treated differently from men in a number of small ways. Textbooks (including this one) list men in the bibliography by initials but women are given space for their first name; one computer dating service charges female registrants
less money. There are few women holding high positions in church organizations, and some newspapers publish separate "male" and "female" help-wanted ads without a disclaimer that United States law forbids sex discrimination. In another vein, there are more specialists in women's than in men's diseases and the majority of governmental health programs are aimed at women. The National Science Foundation reports that 8 percent of scientists and 1 percent of engineers are women. Psychology as a career attracts women who have more intellectual, scientific, and verbal-linguistic interests than does the average woman, and fewer interests in the traditional feminine roles centered in the home or the office, and certain job habits may follow a male-female pattern. We have recorded over a period of time the manner in which restaurant cashiers return change to the customer. Of over 200 women cashiers 87 percent counted small change coin by coin whereas only 11 percent of some 60 male cashiers did so. Bern and Bern have concluded that our society's pervasive use of the ascribed characteristic of sex as the basis for delineating an individual's opportunities is now recognized. Nearly all North Americans, male and female alike, hold underlying assumptions about females that motivate a host of subtle practices which are effective at keeping the woman "in her place" much more effective than discrimination itself.

Studies have revealed that an individual's mental health is affected by his environment. The present work makes an attempt to study the influence of these two variables needs and family environment on the mental health. It is not only important to study the effect of various variables on mental health and how it can be unhanded, but it is equally interesting and important to investigate the changes taking place in the characteristics of these variables over the time. Thus an intergeneration comparison has also been attempted in this study. We have chosen women as our subjects because they play a very crucial role in the personality formation of a child thus their own mental health is very important moreover, with change in their status and roles over the year it would be interesting to study the changes in their perception.

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