CHAPTER-II

2.0. INTRODUCTION:

In chapter-I a brief introduction about organisational climate was given. This chapter highlights the related concepts of organisational climate, related approaches / theories / models, related studies, scope & need of the study and conclusion.

2.1. RELATED CONCEPTS:

2.1.1. ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE:

Organisational climate has been defined in three different ways namely (1) as objective phenomena (2) as a subjective phenomena and (3) as an outcome of person-environment interaction. However, apart from such difference in definition many other conceptual issues related to the different aspects of the climate concept such as the dimensions, the researchers raised context, facets, contents and levels. (e.g., Chhokar and Sethumadhavan 1992: Hellriegel and Slocum 1974: James and Jones 1974: Muchinsky 1976).

Georgopovles (1960) defines, “Organisational Climate as a normative structure of attitudes and behavioural standards which provide a basis for interpreting the situations and act as a source of pressure for directing activities”.

Forehand and Gilmer (1964) define “Organisational Climate as a set of characteristics that describe an organisation and that (a)
distinguish one from another (b) are relatively enduring over a period of
time and (c) influence the behaviour of people in the organisation”.

**Litwin and Stringer (1968)** define “Organisational Climate as a
relatively enduring quality of the internal environment that is
experimental by its members, influence their behaviour and can be
described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics of
the organisation”.

**Taguiri and Litwin (1968)** Organisational climate has been
defined as the “relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of
an organisation that a) Experienced by its members, b) influences their
behavior, and c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular
set of characteristics (or attitudes) of the organisation.”

**Friedlander and Margulies (1969)** define Organisational Climate
as a relatively stable or ongoing property of the organisation which may
release, channel, facilitate on constrain on organisations technical as well
as human resources.

**Taylor and Bowers (1970)** defines “Organisational climate as the
perceived traits of organisational stimuli which became a group property
through interpersonal interactions and which modify overt behaviour of
people within the organisation”

**Cambell (1970)** defines “Organisational Climate as “A set of
attributes specific to a particular organisation that may be induced from
the way that the organisation deals with its members and its
environment. For the individual members within the organisation, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and expectancies which describe the organisation in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behaviour outcome and outcome – outcome contingencies”.

**Payne (1971)** defines “Organisational Climate as a normal concept, reflecting the context and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, behaviour and feelings of the members of a sound system, which can be operationally measured through the perception of system members or observational and other objective process”.

**Pritchard and Karasick (1973)** defines “Organisational Climate as a relatively enduring quality of an organisation internal environment, distinguishing, it from other organisations which (a) results form the behaviour and policies of members of the organisation, especially in top management (b) is perceived by members of the organisation (c) serve as a basis for interpreting the situation and (d) acts as a source of pressure for directing activity”.

**Hellriegel and Slocum (1974)** define “Organisational Climate as a set of attributes which can be perceived about a particular organisation and for its subsystems and which may be induced from the way that organisation deals with its members. Several themes are implicit in this definition of organisational climate. (a) Perpetual responses sought are primarily descriptive rather than evaluation, (b) The level of inclusiveness
of the items, scales and contracts are macro rather than micro, (c) The unit of analysis tends to be attributes of the organisation rather than individuals, (d) The perception of organisational climate have potential behavioural consequences”.

**Benjamin Schneider and Rover, A. Snyder (1975)** Organisational Climate is the summary perception, which people have about an organisation. It is thus a global expression of what the organisation is.

**Glick (1985)** The psychological climate refers to the beliefs and attitudes held by individuals about their organisation. The climate is an enduring quality of an organisation that (1) is experienced by employees, and (2) influences their behavior. It should be thought of and measured “at the organisational level of analysis.

**Ekvall (1990)** studied that conglomerate of attitudes, feelings and behaviours that characterise life in an organisation. This definition of organisational climate is just one of many in the literature. Even if there is some disagreement as to the exact meaning of the term, most authors seem to assume that the organisational climate is rather stable over time respect to attitudes and that it affects people’s behaviour.

**Koys and DeCotiis (1991)** define the psychological climate as “an experimental-based, multidimensional, and enduring perceptional phenomenon, which is widely shared by the members of a given organisational unit.” They state that the psychological climate is the description–and not the evaluation–of experience.
Zammutto and Krakower (1991) define climate as part of culture. Culture is made up of: organisational characteristics, organisational climate and strategy. We use their climate definition and measures, but not their culture definition. We define climate and culture as separate concepts.

Moran, E.T. (1992) Organisational climate is a relatively enduring characteristics of an organisation which distinguishes it from other organisations: (a) and embodies members collective perceptions about their organisation with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation, and fairness: (b) is produced by member interaction; (c) serves as a basic for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organisations culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behaviour.

Jit Chandan (1998) a person’s perception of the organisation to which he belongs is organisational climate. It is a set of characteristics and other factors that are perceived by the employees about their organisation, which serve as a major force in influencing their behaviour. These factors may include job description, organisational structural format, performance and evaluation standards, leadership styles, challenges and innovations, organisational values and culture and so on.

2.1.2. QUALITY OF WORK LIFE:

An international conference was held at Arden house, New York in the year 1972. It dealt in detail with the practice and theory of the
democratization of work place. In this conference the phrase ‘Quality of Work Life’ coined by Davis. International council for Quality of work life was formed to facilitate research and widen the knowledge and action for Quality of Work Life. The concept of Quality of Work Life has wide variety of conceptual coverage and became the theme of ‘Work Life 2000’ organized by the National Institute for Working Life, Sweden.

**Glaser, E.M. (1976)** The term Quality of Work Life recently has come to mean than job security, good working conditions, adequate and fair compensation – more than even equal employment opportunity or “job enlargement”.

**Lloyd Suttle, J. (1977)** has defined quality of work life as the “degree of which members of a work organisation are able to satisfy important personal needs through their experiences in the organisation”.

**Lippin, G. (1978)** Quality of Work Life is a broad concept. It refers to the degree to which work provides an opportunity for an individual to satisfy a wide variety of personal needs- to survive with some security, to interact with others, to have a sense of personal usefulness, to be recognized for achievement, and to have an opportunity to improve one’s skill and knowledge.

**Guest, R.G.H. (1979)** Quality of Work Life is a generic phrase that covers a persons’ feeling about every dimension of work including economic rewards and benefits, security, working conditions,
organisational and interpersonal relationships and its intrinsic meaning in a persons’ life.

**Cohen, D.S. (1979)** Quality of Work Life is a process of joint decision making, collaboration and building mutual respect between management and employee, which seems to cause a change in how people feel about labour their work and each other. It is this change in the human climate that quality advocated, maintains, increases satisfaction and facilitates better solution to management and production problems.

**Nadler, L. (1981)** Quality of Work Life is concerned with improving the work place, bringing humanity into the work situation and creating the environment where people will find work personally satisfying as well as economically rewarding.

**Ozley and Ball (1982)** Quality of Work Life can be defined effectively as improvements that enhance the work life of all members of an organisation and that increase the effectiveness of the organisation.

**Nadler and David A.Lawler (1983)** provide a concise working definition of QWL as “a way of thinking about people, work and organisations. Its distinctive elements are: (i) a concern about the impact of work on people as well as on organisational effectiveness; and (ii) the idea of participation in organisational problem solving and decision-making”.

68
Schnake, M.E. (1983) Quality of Work Life improvements are defined as any activity, which take place at every level of an organisation, which seeks greater organisational effectiveness through the enhancement of human dignity and growth.... A process through which the stakeholders in the organisation - management, unions and employees – learn how to work together better... To determine for themselves what actions, changes and improvements are desirable and workable in order to achieve the twin and simultaneous goals of an improved quality of life at work for all members of the organisation and greater effectiveness for both the company and the unions.

Moskal, B.S. (1989) Quality of Work Life means simply giving workers the opportunity to make decisions about their jobs, the design of their work place, and what they need best to make products.

Jain, Sangeta (1991) viewed QWL as consisting of a ‘whole parcel of terms and notions all of which really belong under the Quality of Working Life Umbrella’. They include industrial effectiveness, human resource development, organisational effectiveness, work restructure, job enrichment, socio-technical systems, working humanization, group-work concepts, labour management, co-operation, working together, workers involvement, workers participation and co-operative, working together, workers involvement, workers participation and co-operative work structures. According to her, QWL is ‘the sum of all these various attempts to label a general new direction for work organisations in the late 20th century.'
Eaton, et al (1992) Quality of Work Life is a term that has been used to describe a wide variety of workplace programmes, which may include union management cooperation, work organisation or employee involvement.

Bernardin and Russel (1993) Quality of Work Life refers to the level of satisfaction, motivation, involvement and commitment of individuals experience with respect to their lives at work. Quality of Work Life is the degree to which individuals are able to satisfy their important personal needs (e.g. need for independence) while employed of the firm.

Tambe, M.R. (2000) In a broad sense QWL includes job enrichment, group work concept, labour management cooperation, workers involvement, co-operative work environment and organisational, industrial effectiveness. In a narrow sense it is a conductive and encouraging job and physical environment.

2.2. RELATED APPROACHES / MODELS:

2.2.1. ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE:

Organisational Climate is one of the most important concepts to enter in to the theory of organisations in this century (Guion, 1973). The intensive research as well as debates on its conceptualization and assessment during the last three and a half decades seems to have helpful to develop organisational climate as a mature concept in management. The concept has also proved useful in predicting and explaining a variety of job related behaviours, attitudes and performance
as well as organisational performance on a number of dimensions (Kacka and Kirk, 1968; Lawler et al, 1974). An overview of the history of the organisational climate research indicated that the concept has evolved through four approaches namely,

1) Structural and objective approach
2) Perceptual and subjective approach
3) Interactionist approach
4) Integrated and refined approach

2.2.1.1. Structural and Objective Approaches:

Due to the influence of sociological theories, many of the organisational researches in the 1940’s and 1950’s had focused on the structural / sociological aspects (e.g. Fayol, 1940; Parson, 1956; Weber, 1964) of the organisations. Consequently early researchers defined organisational climate as a characteristic of the organisations, and directed their measurement efforts mainly on the physical characteristics of the organisation that people notice or observe. For example Forehand and Glimmer (1964) defined organisational climate as a set of characteristics relatively enduring over time that describe the organisation and distinguish it from other organisations, apart form influencing the organisations. These as well as the other initial climate researchers who adopted a structuralism view have emphasized the environmental and situational factors than the individual cognition (e.g. Fried Lander
and Margulies, 1969). They in general argued that individuals in any work environment tend to have homogeneous perceptions of the objective reality. This perspective, however, failed to satisfactorily explain the wide variations observed in the perceptions of climate by the individuals working in the same physical environment as well as the inconsistent relationship between the structural factors and climate perceptions (Berger and Cummings, 1979; Schneider and Reichers, 1983). The structural view also failed to predict and explain the human behaviour satisfactorily in terms of structural variables alone. The limitations of the structural view seem to have prompted some authors to develop the perceptual and subjective perspective on organisational climate.

2.2.1.2. Perceptual and Subjective Approaches:

James and Jones (1974) defined organisational climate a psychological meaningful cognitive representations of the situations. They defined climate as an attribute of the individual, which is learned, historical and resistant to change (James and Sell, 1981). Similarly, Schneider (1975) also defined climate as perceptions or interpretations of meaning which help individuals to make sense of the world and know how to behave. This view which emphasis the cognitive representation and perceptions defined climate as largely subjective and individual attribute. However, these models did not recognize the impact of environmental factors
on behaviour and overlooked the fact that the same person may behave differently in different environments. The failure to predict and explain human behaviour satisfactorily, either in terms of structural or environmental variables or in terms of individual attributed lead to the wide acceptance of the interactionist perspective on climate as propounded by the Gestalt psychologists (Lewin, 1936) later.

2.2.1.3. Interactionist Approach:

The historical roots of the concept of organisational climate as it became widely accepted later during 1980s, remains in the pioneering studies conducted by Kurt Lewin and the associates in the 1930s. Kurt Lewin proposed that behaviour is a function of the interaction between person and environment. Lewin 1936 emphasized that the perception and construction of the environment by the individuals will be more powerful predictor of behaviour than the physical characteristics of the environment (Lewin 1936). Lewin and his associates also conducted experiments to show the effect of different leader induced climates namely authoritarian, democratic and laisser-faire on the behaviour of the followers. (Lewin, Lippit and White, 1939). Owing to the influence of these pioneering works, more attention was paid to individual perceptions than organisational characteristics during the 1960s by the organisational climate researchers. Litwin and Stringer (1968) in their landmark study brought the concept of
organisational climate to lime light. The concept was described as a summary of the environmental determinants of employee motivation. They predicated that, being an important link between the organisational environmental and individual motivation, the perceived organisational climate will help researchers and managers to diagnose the de-motivating factors present in the organisation. They defined organisational climate as a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in that environment which influence their motivation and behaviour. As stated by Scheneider and Hall (1972) this notion of perceived organisational climate represents an interaction between personal (subjective) and organisational (objective) characteristics. The definition as well as the instrument for assessing the organisational climate, offered by Litwin and Stringer (1968) gained wide acceptance among the organisational researchers and managers later.

2.2.1.4. Integrated and Refined Approaches:

Currently organisational climate is one of the central constructs in management and is considered as an important factor in any Human Resource Development (HRD) system as well as decisions on organisational design. Despite the overwhelming impact of Litwin and Stringer’s definition and operationalisation of the concept, the researchers have attempted to develop new approaches to conceptualize and operationalise the concept. The
The driving needs behind such innovations were: a) The need to make the concept of climate more relevant to the specific sample, organisation, context, researcher’s objective, theoretical frameworks and so forth. b) The need to make the conceptualization, operationalisation and assessment of climate more practically useful, theoretically rigorous, and methodologically perfect. Many approaches which constitute this third stage in the evolution of the concept of organisational climate is discussed in the remaining part of this chapter while discussing the various approaches and issues in the conceptualization an assessment as well as the research on organisational climate. Furthermore there are several approaches to the concept of climate, of which two in particular have received substantial patronage: the cognitive schema approach and the shared perception approach. The first approach regards the concept of climate as an individual perception and cognitive representation of the work environment. From this perspective climate assessments should be conducted at an individual level. The second approach emphasizes the importance of shared perceptions as underpinning the notion of climate (Anderson, & West, 1998; Mathisen & Einarsen 2004). Reichers and Schneider (1990) define organisational climate as the shared perception of the way things are around here. It is important to realize that from these two approaches, there is no “best” approach and they actually have a great deal of overlap.
MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE:

Model A

- Conflict and Ambiguity
- Job Challenge, Importance, and Variety
- Leader Facilitation and Support
- Work group cooperation, Friendliness and warmth
- Professional and Organisational Esprit
- Job Standards

Organisational Climate Model A: From the study of Jones and James (1979)

Fig - 2.1
Organisational Climate Model B: From the study of Ryder and Southey (1990)

Fig - 2.2
Model C

A model of Climate, Culture and Productivity (Adapted from Kopelman, Brief and Guzzo, 1990)

Fig - 2.3
Model for the present study

Modifiers
Socio- Economic Characteristics

Organisational Climate Dimensions
Role Clarity
Respect
Communication
Reward System
Career Development
Planning and Decision-Making
Innovation
Relationship
Team and Support
Quality of Service
Conflict Management
Commitment and Morale
Training and Development
Direction

Quality of Work Life Dimensions
Adequate and Fair Compensation
Safe and Healthy Work Environment
Development of Human Capacities
Growth and Security
Social Integration
Constitutionalism
Total Life Space
Social Relevance
QWL Feeling

Organisational Climate

Fig - 2.4
The model for the present study was framed based on the model presented by Ryder and Southey (1990). Who conceptualise dimensions of organisational climate which frames the aggregate organisational climate. The dimensions of their study includes leader facilitation and support, job variety, challenge and esprit, conflict and pressure, organisational planning and openness, workgroup reputation, cooperation, friendliness and warmth, and job standards. The outcome is aggregate organisational climate. The present study explains the sources of organisational climate. The agreement level of organisational climate, the importance of organisational climate, and quality of work life are the determinant factors influencing organisational climate. The present study has looked into the dimensions used by Ryder and Southey in a different way. However the comprehensive and inconclusive list of these coping techniques makes it difficult to incorporate the same dimensions for investigations. The dimensions included in the study was incorporated after studying the organisation. The variables of the present study have been framed in looking into the employee and the work environment. For many individuals organisational climate perception originates around the work and career. Adopting to change at work and its divergent demands has become a prominent feature of modern organisations.
2.3. SURVEY OF RELATED STUDIES:

2.3.1. ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE – RELATED STUDIES:

*Krech and Crutchfield (1961)* explained the individual’s total conception of the worlds in which he exists... it includes his knowledge, beliefs and memories and his view of the past and future as well as of the present; and it may include domains of life reached after mortal ‘death’ – heaven and hell paradise and purgatory. It is not, of course, the same as the actual physical and social environments described by the outside observer. It is what exists subjectively for the person. His life space may correspond in some way with the actual external environment but it also deviated from them in radical degree, and varies markedly from life spaces of other people.

*Forehand and Gilmer (1964)* stated that variables like structure, goals, supervisory practices, etc. interact with personality to produce perceptions and it is through these perceptions that we can understand the relationship between causal and end-result variables.

*Asschin (1965)* puts, if two sets of factors interact in a complex situation requiring us to develop theories and research approaches which can deal with systems and independent phenomenon.

*Frederikson (1966)* on the basis of laboratory studies involving 260 middle level managers concludes that different organisational climate has different effects on human performance. He summarises his findings in the following statement: It appears that the amount of
administrative work in the stimulated job is more predictable in a climate that encourages innovation than in one that encourages standard procedures and that in an innovative climate (but not in a rules climate), greater productivity can be expected of people with skills and attitudes that are associated with independence of thought and action and the ability to be productive in five, unstructured situation.

Litwin and Stingers (1968) study – Measuring organisational climate trying to measure organisation climate is an attempt to capture the sense, environment, order and pattern of an organisation. He has identified several properties of organisational climate and measured them in Structure – The organisation’s rules, red tape and constraints, Challenge and Responsibility – The feeling of “being one’s own boss”, Rewards – The feeling of being adequately and equitably rewarded by the organisation, Warmth and Support – The feeling of helpfulness, supportiveness, and good fellowship in the work environment, Risk and Risk taking – The amount of challenge and risk in the work environment, Tolerance and Conflict – The degree to which the work environment can tolerate different opinions, Organisational Identity – The degree of group loyalty perceived by members, Performance standards and expectations – The perceived importance of performance and the clarity of the expectations concerning performance.

Friedlander and Margulics (1969) conducted a study in organisational climate, the objective of the study was to determine the relationship between organisational climate and the job satisfaction. The
study revealed that organisational climate is a significant determinant of individual job satisfaction and this links varies with different types of climate.

**Stren (1970)** explored the association between a personal needs and perception of climate using Murray’s ‘need press’ theory framework for both personality measure and climate measure. Joint factor analysis of measure shows little overlap between them. The evidence, though limited scope in coverage nevertheless show that perceptual description of an organisation and is not totally idiosyncratic, but say something about organisation reality.

**Whisendpaul (1971)** as studied in his book police ‘supervision’ that, when an individual joins in the organisation, he brings with all characters of a whole man, perception, needs, attitudes, motivation, tension, knowledge and problem solving capacities. Though he has moved from an individual environment to an organisation environment, we can expect the same laws to modify and shape his organisational behaviour,

**Baugratel (1971)** conducted a study on organisational climate, the objectives of the study was to find certain contributing factors of organisational climate to be a product of leadership practices, communication practices and enduring systematic characteristics of working relationships among any person on any division of an organisation.
**Schneider and Hall (1972)** in the study on organisational climate aimed to find the interaction between personal and organisational characteristics and its relationship to organisational climate. The authors in the findings perceived organisational climate as a phenomenon that represents an interaction between personal and organisational characteristics.

**Driehard and Kanarick (1973)** conducted a study on organisational climate; the objective of the study was to find the effect of organisational climate on job satisfaction and job performance. The study revealed that organisational climate is strongly related to employee satisfaction than to their job performance.

**Guion (1973)** has recommended that if organisational climate must be studied through perceptions of people instead of through direct observation of organisational characteristics the following procedure be followed, all members of a given organisational unit may be given a set of statements, each relating to an organisational attribute, and asked to report whether the same were “true” or “not true”, thereby determining the frequency of endorsement. The items to be treated genuinely descriptive of organisational characteristics are those in which the frequency of endorsement is not significantly different from 100 percent. He has recommended that inter-rater agreement indices should not depart significantly from 1.00.
**Pajne and Mansfield (1973)** conducted the study on organisational climate; the objective of the study was to determine the linkage between individual and organisation. The findings of the study revealed that there is conceptual linkage between organisation and individual that intervenes between specific situation attitudes on events and individual perceptions, attitudes and behaviour. The concept of organisational climate therefore encompasses both organisational climate and individual characters and attitudes.

**Badris (1974)** examines the effect of group’s size, tenure, position, power and task structure on the relationship holds under some conditions and not under others.

**Insel and Maos (1974)** conducted a study on organisational climate; the objective of the study was to determine the influence of organisation on individuals. The findings of the study revealed that like an individual organisation too has its own unique identity of personality, which exerts directional influence on behaviour of individuals.

**Lyon and Vancevich (1974)** in his study environmental perceptions is irrelevant as organisation members tend to adapt, their organisations to the environments which they believe exists, regardless of whether their perceptions would be objectively confirmed or not. Thus, the usefulness of subjective perceptions is not mention. It was found that different climate dimensions influences individual job satisfaction nor nurses and administrators.
James and Jones (1974) conducted a major review of the theory and research on organisational climate and identified climate in three separate ways that were not mutually exclusive, (a) multiple measurement – organisational attribute approach, (b) perceptual measurement – organisational attribute approach, and (c) the perceptual measurement – individual attribute approach.

Slocum (1974) point out, the intent of organisational climate is to clearly evoke perceptual rather than attitudinal or other typed of responses: that is, they stimulate, or intend to stimulate, the subject to orient himself with specific facts and to express his opinion as to how he perceives those facts, not whether he likes them or not. Thus, climate instruments are meant to describe work environment whereas satisfaction instruments serve to evaluate them.

Gavin, J.F. (1975) examined personnel and organisational correlated of climate perceptions to determine the interaction of the two in influencing organisational climate. The results indicate that climate perceptions are influenced equally by personal and organisational factors.

Schneider (1975) describing climate to have been conceptualized across studies in one of three ways – as a dependent, independent, and intervening variable, which he considered were merely different vantage points.
**Payne and Pough (1976)** have studied through both objective and subjective measures. Objective measurement of an organisation implies a direct assessment of organisational properties without any conceptual transformations. Here, a member is only an informant about, any, an organisation chart or performance records. Subjective measurement, on the other hand, implies an indirect assessment of organisational properties by instruments, which measure group perceptions. Here, a member responds to instruments with statement such as the jobs in this organisation are clearly defined and logically structured, the employees here are constantly being checked for rule violation.

**Hackman (1976)** pointed out substantial knowledge, available attitudes of individuals, which are important for understanding organisational behaviour, but less is known about organisational side of the equation.

**Johnston (1976)** in his study research found two climates in a study of professionals in a small consulting firm. He noticed that long-term employees deemed the climate flexible, supportive, non-authoritative, concerned with integrating individual with organisational goals, and generally organize, adaptive in its environment. Whereas, newer employees saw as rigid, procedural, strongly based on hierarchy, authority, more impersonal and emphasizing organisational goals.

**Sutton and Rousseau (1979)** suggest individual perceptions of job characteristics as an “intervening” variable in the relation between
situational characteristics and individual responses. People in work settings form perceptions of organisational climate because apprehending order in the world is a basic human need.

**James (1982)** has suggested another criterion for inter-rater reliability and aggregation of climate scores over individuals. In this method, inter-rater reliability is defined as the degree to which raters agree with respect to their rating (perceptions) of a particular target (e.g. the organisation) on a particular rating (Climate) scale. A within-group design is used because it is desired to have an estimate of inter-rater reliability separately for each group that is not a function of between-group variation. Such an estimate of inter-rater agreement will not be affected by lack of variation in-group means.

**Baldev, R. Sharma (1983)** in his studies states that organisational climate is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. The term organisational climate as used here refers to a set of characteristics, which can be individual from the way an organisation deals with the members in the function of various personnel policies and practices as perceived by the members of that organisation. According to this study the dimensions of organisational climate which were used for collection of data are Scope for advanced, Recognition and Appreciation, Grievance Handling, Safety and Security, Monetary Benefit, Training and Education, Objectivity and Rationality, Welfare facilities, Participation in the Management.
Ashforth (1985) discusses the integrationist perspective and highlights the susceptibility of newcomers to influence outcomes in their desire to fit into a new setting. Social comparison theory explains that individual compare their belief to others whom they perceive to be similar to them (for example, people in the same job). Normative social influence and the stake that group members have in maintaining the frame of reference of the prescribed behaviours, beliefs, and attitudes affect the development of organisational cultures. Organisational climate has much to offer in terms of its ability to explain the behaviour of people in the work place. He puts forward the view that climate has the potential to facilitate a truly integrative science of organisational behaviour.

Ekvall (1987) in his study concludes by stating, “In an overall organisational model climate can be seen as an intervening variable in the process between input an output, and one that has a modifying effect on this process. Climate affects organisational and psychological processes, and thus acquires an influence over the results of organisational operations”.

Pareek (1989) proposed that a framework based on motivation seems to be quite relevant for the study of organisational climate. Organisational climate studied in this framework can also be called “motivational Climate”. He argued that six motives are particularly appropriate in developing a framework that facilitates analysis of the connection between organisational climate and motivation. These motives
are achievement, affiliation, experience, influence, extension, control and dependency.

Pareek (1989) further contended that twelve processes or dimensions of organisational climate relate specifically to motivation: orientation, interpersonal relationships, supervision, management, communication, decision making, trust, management of rewards, risk taking, and innovation and change. He argued that the way in which these twelve dimensions of climate operate in an organisation indicated the underlying motive of top management and the principal motive that is likely to be generated and sustained within the organisation’s population. When the twelve dimensions are combined with the six motives mentioned earlier, a matrix is formed that can be useful in diagnosing the motivational climate of an organisation.

Ekvall (1990) the organisational climate is important due to its potential to influence different organisational and psychological processes. Communication, problem solving, decision-making, learning and motivation can all be affected by the organisational climate. This in turn might have an impact on the effectiveness and productivity of the organisation as well as the work environment and employee well being in the work place. In an high risk environment such as the Air Traffic Control (ATC) industry, it might also have an effect on safety standards.

Falix Wilson Francis, F. (1990) In his study identified the level of organisational climate form the angle of welfare measures. According to
the researcher’s view welfare measures are very much essential in order to have good organisational climate. For by giving sound welfare measures the workers get psychologically very satisfied.

**Kopelman, Brief and Guzzo (1990)** provided a linear model of organisation functioning that demonstrates the role of culture and climate as they are ultimately linked to organisational productivity. The model starts with societal and organisational culture as setting the parameters of the human resource practices. He states that organisational climate reflects both individual and organisational characteristics. Similarly, salient organisational behaviours such as attachment, performance and citizenship are seen as intervening between the climate of the organisation and the ultimate outcomes. Attachment will affect such factors as absenteeism and turnover, leading to an increase in training separation and replacement costs.

**Richard, M. Hodgettes (1991)** states that organisational climate can range along a continuous form favorable to neutral and to unfavorable. Both employees and employers want a more favorable climate because of its benefits such as better performance and job satisfaction. Several typical climates that are identified to contribute to a favorable climate are given below, Quality of work life, Amount of trust, Upward and downward communication, Feeling of useful work structure, Responsibility, Fair rewards, Reasonable job processes, Opportunity, Reasonable controls and bureaucracy, Employee involvement and participation.
Zammuto and Krakower (1991) used the competing values framework to measure climate and relate it to organisational characteristics. They find different climates are correlated with different organisational characteristics, i.e., there is a fit between the climate and the organisational characteristics. They use organisational characteristics (centralization, formalization, long-term planning), climate measures (trust, conflict, morale, equity of rewards, resistance to change, leader credibility, and scape-goating) and strategy dimensions (reactive/pro-active orientation) to categorize the culture into group culture, developmental culture, internal process culture, and rational culture. They concluded that cultural type is related to differences in organisational climate.

Moran and Volkwein (1992) examined the relationship between culture and climate they saw an organisation’s climate as a specific portion of the overall construct. They viewed climate as embedded into the overall construct of culture, which was seen as large and more abstract. As far as the individual behaviour in the formation of climate is concerned, saw the contextualising of the psychological principles contained in the Gestalt and functional approaches to behaviour. They view culture as being the invisible construct which guides and inform individual behaviour, in effect setting an agenda from which climate can develop and where in their view it can have some enduring quality.

Hooijberg and Petrock (1993) characterize the four corresponding climate type from the point of view of the competing values. “The group
climate could be described as a friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders, or head of the organisation, are considered to be mentors and, perhaps even parent figures. The organisation is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment is high. The organisation emphasizes the long-term benefits of human resource development with high cohesion and morale being important.

Schneider (1994) discussed climate in terms of the atmosphere that employees perceive is created in their organisations by practices, procedures, and rewards... Employees observe what happens to them (and around them) and then draw conclusions about the organisation’s priorities. They then set their own priorities accordingly.

Schneider, Gunnarson and Niles –Jolly (1994) claim that organisational citizenship behaviour is essential in creating a climate that allows for organisational success. Perceptions of fairness and trust, norms of helpfulness and co-operation and fair reward systems based on a broad range of contributions are seen as essential in creating a good climate.

Guzzo et al., (1996) argue that ‘sustainable organisational change is most assured when both the climate – what the organisations’ members experience- and the culture – what the organisation’s members believe the organisation value –change.
Burton and Obel (1998) developed a multi contingency model for organisational design. Organisational climate, which we can describe in terms of tension and resistance to change, is one of the contingencies, which determine the organisational design, which includes the configuration, level of centralization, formalization, complexity, coordination and incentives. The climate implications for the organisation can be summarized using the competing values framework and in particular for the four climate types: internal process, rational goal, developmental and group.

Eisenhard and Brown (1998) make a competing argument that continuous change is easier to manage than episode change which requires the Lewinian change process of: unfreeze, change and refreeze. The idea is to make change the climate of the organisations change itself becomes the expected activity for a fast paced world.

Pervaiz, K. Ahmed (1998) titled Culture and Climate for innovation has portrayed that many companies pay "lip service" to the idea of innovation and stresses that becoming innovative requires an organisational culture, which nurtures innovation and is conducive to creativity. Considers the nature of organisational climate and of organisational culture, focusing on factors, which make for an effective organisational culture. Looking at the interplay between various organisational factors and innovation and suggests elements which promote innovation. Concludes that the most innovative companies of
the future will be those, which have created appropriate cultures and climates.

Veronique (1998) in his study, the role of the emotional climate in learning organisation, it becomes increasingly obvious that an emotional climate pervades every level of human interaction inside organisations. Emotionally and rationality coexist in organisational settings. This research examines how an emotional climate arises, how it evolves, how it is maintained, and what are the consequences of a given type of emotional climate. We suggest that it may deeply affect organisational dynamics such as idea-generation, creativity, adaptability to change, and facilitation or inhibition of learning processes. Hence, it ultimately influences performances. We are in the process of developing an instrument to measure the emotional climate in a learning organisation.

Bruce Kirkcaldy and James A. Athanasou (1999) in his research paper Perceptions of working climate: a study of German employees highlights that theories of career development urge an upward and linear progression in career adjustment and satisfaction. The result of the study of German paraprofessional employees indicated that the perceptions of their working climate were first accounted for by two separate factors comprising four negative climate components (job pressure, job dissatisfaction, poor relations with co-workers, and lack of recreation) and a separate career motivation dimension. Secondly cross-sectional comparisons yielded significant age by gender interactions for job selected by a decrease in the quality of working climate over time.
Joseph Wallace et al., (1999) in their study, the relationship between organisational culture, organisational climate and managerial values, the findings from an empirical investigation into the relationship between the organisational culture, climate and managerial values of a large Australian public sector agency. The relative strengths of four dimensions of culture in this organisation were measured using Hofstede's instrument. Added to this were items from a questionnaire developed by Ryder and Southey, delivered form the Jones and James instrument measuring psychological climate and providing scores across six specific dimensions of organisational climate. Measures of managerial values, drawn from a questionnaire by Flowers and Hughes, were also incorporated. Results show that Hofstede at variance with those reports levels of culture within this particular organisation from his Australian data. Findings indicate a strong link between specific organisational climate items and a number of managerial value dimensions. Additional relationships between particular dimensions of culture, climate and managerial values are also reported. From this, a hypothesized, predictive model of linkages between the constructs is presented.

Richard, M. Burton et al., (1999) in their study, “Tension and resistance to change in organisational climate managerial implications for a fast paced world”, Climate is the atmosphere of the organisation, a “relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation, which is experienced by its members and influences their behavior.” The organisational climate can be measured in terms of trust,
morale, conflict, equity in rewards, leader credibility, resistance to change and scapegoat. Using a factor analysis, we found that the organisational climate can be described in two dimensions: “tension” and the resistance to change for a group of 245 Danish companies. High tension involves strained relationships, stress and a balance of the combined factors. High resistance to change is a preference for tomorrow to be like today. Change management has a long history and rests fundamentally upon Lewin’s three phases: unfreeze, change and re-freeze. More recently, change management is seen as sense making and the creation of an organisational reality in which change is more usual and continuous.

**Chandramohan Reddy, T., Gajendran, M. and Gayathri, S. (2000)** has made an attempt to examine the workers dual commitment—both organisational and union commitment—in the context of organisational climate. The study was conducted in four private and four public textile organisations by interviewing 200 respondents, 25 from each organisation. Organisational climate was found to have an important role in determining organisational commitment and not union commitment. Dual commitment does not exist irrespective of the type of organisational climate.

**Davidson, Michael Cameron Gordon (2000)** this study author gathered data from 14 four to five-star hotels in South - East Queensland, Australia, in an attempt to examine the nature and degree of influence organisational climate has upon the performance of hotels. Employee perception of customer satisfaction was studied both as an
index of performance and as an intervening variable between organisational climate and financial performance as indexed by revenue per available room (REVPAR). The data provided a description of a young, relatively gender balanced, well-educated and trained work force which received relatively low levels of financial remuneration and displayed very high levels of turnover. A new instrument was used to measure the dimensions of organisational climate across the hotels. This instrument represented a modification of that presented by Ryder and Southey (1990), which itself was a modification of the 145-item psychological climate questionnaire of Jones and James (1979). The instrument represented a subset of 70 items of the Ryder and Southey instrument. Responses to all items within the instrument were on a 7 point anchored scale. Principal components analysis (PCA) produced results consistent with earlier versions of the instrument, which had been reported elsewhere. The study analysis described organisational climate within the sample to be composed of 7 underlying dimensions; Leader facilitation and support, Professional and organisational esprit, Conflict and ambiguity, Regulations, organisation and pressure, Job variety, challenge and autonomy, Workgroup co-operation, friendliness and warmth, and Job standards. These dimensions were judged to be consistent with those reported earlier by Jones and James, and by Ryder and Southey. Poor support was found for the first structural model that proposed that employee demographic variables would affect organisational climate and that organisational climate would affect customer satisfaction (although the latter link was quite strong). The most important finding of the study
was the support for a second structural model when it was found that variation in the 7 dimensions of organisational climate accounted for 30% of the variation in Employee Perception of Customer Satisfaction. Furthermore, that Employee Perception of Customer Satisfaction accounted for 23% of the variation in REVPAR between the hotels. Possible extensions of this study using direct measures of customer satisfaction and expanding it to include hotels of different star ratings are discussed.

Deborah Hicks et al., (2000) in their study, Climate for diversity and the effects on career and organisational attitudes and perceptions, discussions of issues of human resource diversity, and diversity climates in organisations and develops a conceptual model of a “positive climate for diversity” (PCFD). This refers to the degree to which there is an organisational climate in which human resource diversity is valued and in which employees form diverse backgrounds feel welcomed and included. It presents a model of the indicators of a positive climate for diversity and the outcomes for organisations and individuals of such a climate, especially individual career and organisational attitudes and perceptions. It also presents variables, which have a moderating effect in the model. The results of research from both private and public sector organisations, which emphasis on service, indicate that climates for diversity do impact significantly on a range of career organisational attitudes and perceptions. The research and managerial implications are discussed.
Neal, A., Griffin, M.A. and Hart, P.M. (2000) the current study examined the effects of general organisational climate on safety climate and safety performance. As expected, general organisational climate exerted a significant impact on safety climate, and safety climate in turn was related to self-reports of compliance with safety regulations and procedures as well as participation in safety-related activities within the workplace. The effect of general organisational climate on safety performance was mediated by safety climate, while the effect of safety climate on safety performance was partially mediated by safety knowledge and motivation.

Peter Kangis, D. and Gordon, S. Williams (2000) the aim of the study was to contribute this discourse by examining the extent to which “above” and “below” average performing companies also exhibit different climate measurements. Interest in organisational climate and its link with corporate performance is gaining momentum. The survey was conducted on a sample of electronic component manufacturers, as a sunrise industry in a growth phase, and hosiery and knitwear manufacturers, as a sunset industry, in decline. In turn, sub-samples of companies that performed above or below average for each of these sectors were selected. Climate dimension measurements collected from staff of the sample companies were analysed against corporate performance measurements. The results showed a consistent association between climate and performance. Independently of sector, companies performing above average showed higher values on climate dimensions
than those performing below average. Although a link was shown to exist between climate and performance, it would be premature to conclude that this connection is causal and, if so, in which direction.

Peter Kangis and Peter Kareklis (2001) the study was based on managers of a sample of private and public banks in Greece was surveyed through the vehicle of agency theory. It was found that managers in private banks showed greater alignment of interests with those of the bank, their pay related to outcomes and they were more mobile in their jobs. Private banks also used more control mechanisms to align interests of their managers with those of the bank and displayed a different working climate. Given evolving organisation structures resulting from deregulation, the convergence of information technology and communications and the entry of firms from other industries, the implications of the findings for governance are important.

Roderic, J. Gray (2001) the study establishes a clear association between project outcomes and the social and management climate in which those projects are implemented. Drawing on extensive field research involving project management professionals in major British organisations, project success is shown to decline as the level of personal and environmental threat perceived by project staff increases. Other organisational characteristics, such as free expression, questioning, participation in the definition of goals, innovation, and intrinsic satisfactions from the work itself, are all found to be positively associated
with successful project outcomes, whilst organisational change and conflict are negatively associated with project success.

**Chris Watkin and Ben Hubbard (2003)** this study is a summary of consulting field research carried out by Hay Group to answer why leadership motivation matters to the drivers of share price. The summary also aims to explain how measuring organisational climate can help leaders better understand the effect they have on the motivations and performance impact of those they lead. As such it represents the business case for its use by organisations. There are practical guidelines on how to spot the early warning signs when climate starts to deteriorate; the key factors leaders need to focus on in getting it right; and how climate measures can be used as a macro change lever as part of an organisation talent review.

**Michael, C.G. Davidson (2003)** in this study the researcher studied, Does organisational climate add to service in hotels? Examines organisational climate and organisational culture within a hotel industry framework. An argument put forward that there is a causal link between good organisational climate and the level of service quality in a hotel. Organisational climate is also examined within the service quality framework to explore the effects of its integration into quality initiatives. A conceptual model or organisational climate and service quality and performance is presented that provides an explanation of the linkage between organisational culture, organisational climate, service quality, customer satisfaction and hotel performance.
Allen, D.K. (2004) the research introduces the concept of organisational climate and contributes to an understanding of the recursive relationship between organisational climate and strategic change initiatives. The research focuses on approach to strategic change: the development of information strategies in 12 UK Higher Education Institutions. Using a grounded approach to theory generation, it highlights the influence of different styles of management on organisational climate. The study discusses the antecedents and influence of one of the dimensions of organisational climate identified: insecurity/security. It establishes that that climates of insecurity (or security) can exist within an HEI and can be shared on an organisational level, or can be rooted in sub-cultures. Six issues were identified which affected the climate of insecurity or security within the different HEIs. These issues related to perceptions of change management and its frequency, predictability, openness, degree of participation, discontinuous or incremental nature of change, and whether or not decisions are implemented by use of persuasive power or coercive power. The study goes on to discuss the multi-dimensional nature of insecurity. It notes that `managerial' approaches are more likely to create highly insecure environments which reinforce a vicious circle: staff be motivated, cautious, less willing to take risks or exercise discretion and are more likely to resist change. In contrast, in environments where a more `collegial' approach had been used, a virtuous cycle was created, whereby there was a willingness to be open and share information, there was a greater degree of cognitive conflict, and more positive interpersonal
relationships. These factors helped create consensus, the wide spread understanding of decisions (acceptance of their legitimacy) and commitment to both the strategic decisions and the university. The study concludes by arguing that a more sophisticated approach to strategic planning and change should be utilised reflecting the need to view the HEI as a symbiotic community.

**Askar Ali, K (2004)** a study based on organisational climate as perceived by Employee, this research data was collected using questionnaire method with dimensions like communication, training, quality of work life, leadership, decision making, problem solving, conflict, creativity and innovation. The study revealed that communication, training and reward system has to be improved.

**Sonny Nwankwo, et al., (2004)** The article presents the results of empirical study, which aimed to construct a test of organisational climate, valid in the cultural context of Lithuanian work organisations. The sample of the study included 1299 respondents from 36 different business, non-governmental and governmental (customs, police) organisations and 147 work teams. Exploratory factor analysis was applied to reduce the original 137 items of the test to 18 subscales. The quality of the subscales was validated by means of factor and internal consistency analysis. Secondary factor analysis revealed that 17 subscales comprised a single factor (64.3 percent of variance explained). It also appeared that subscales of the tests of organisational climate and teamwork were persistently correlated. Results of multiple regression
showed that the scores of the organisational climate test on average explained about 20 percent of the variance of team work test. It appeared that managers of subunits and work teams tended to evaluate both organisational climate and efficiency of team work more favourably than ordinary employees. In order to account for this fact, some alternative hypotheses were developed. Since the differences of evaluation of organisational climate in subunits and in work teams were rather sharp (some of the amounted to 2.6 standard deviations), it was postulated that the climate depends on the situation and context. Theoretically relevant problems (those pertaining to the conceptualisation of ‘organisational culture’ and ‘organisational climate’) were also considered, as well as other studies in the field of organisational climate assessment.

Ayers and David, F. (2005) this study at a community college undergoing renewal provided an opportunity to explore how members of various institutional subsystems differ in the ways they make meaning of organisational climate conditions. The researcher identifies and describes competing discourses relating to the signs and symbols of power, collaboration, technology, and shared vision.

Eva Lindberg and Urban Rosenqvist (2005) in his case study Implementing TQM in the health care service: A four year following-up of production, organisational climate and staff wellbeing, this study seeks to present a case study over four years following an implementation process of total quality management (TQM) on an ICU (Intensive Care Unit). The aim was to describe consequences shown in the organisational climate,
workload and staff wellbeing. A case study design was employed using a longitudinal method of data collection. The findings of the study is downsizing due to diminishing resources was a parallel process probably disturbing the TQM implementation. The workload increased by 20 percent, whereas organisational and individual variables remained stable over time. However, sick leave increased dramatically and was higher than the general level within the Swedish population. The ICU had the capacity to adapt successfully by regulating working hours to workload. It is speculated that another cause behind sickness absence exists other than the general opinion. The literature used for the discussion departs from the relation between people’s understanding and acting, sense making, and organisation theories describing complex adaptive systems emphasizing attraction patterns.

**Klinkner, J., Riley, D. and Roach, Mary.A. (2005)** This study highlights how successful early childhood program that is a nurturing place for children must also be a good place for staff to work. Too often it is not, and employees leave. Coping with staff turnover in early childhood programs is a constant struggle, not only for administrators but also for children and their families and the staff who remain behind. Both administrators and teachers, by examining the climate of their organisations, can effectively strategies to improve staff retention. While issues of compensation, professional development, and staff working conditions are all critical components of the struggle to retain staff and increase the quality of early childhood programs, the study focuses on
program climate, which is less dependent on external factors and more easily addressed by all staff. To address this issue, the authors asked administrators at 15 high-quality early childhood programs in Wisconsin to share their strategies for staff retention. Their answers in four key areas were categorized as follows: (1) Do staff feel a sense of professional commitment? (2) What does the center do to enhance team building? (3) Do teachers, administrators, and families communicate? and (4) Do administrators and staff show appreciation for one another? It was found that creating a good organisational climate involves establishing and maintaining satisfying relationships among coworkers and with families, providing opportunities through which individuals contribute to the program, incorporating appreciation and respect, and building feelings of accomplishment, such as making a difference in the lives of children and families. While these aspects of an early childhood program do not supplant the need for appropriate compensation and adequate work conditions, they do promote job satisfaction, which is crucial to staff retention.

Yoder, Debra .M. (2005) in an era of unprecedented challenges and rapid change, community colleges need effective leadership that brings out the best in people, organisations, and communities. The qualitative study was based on interpretive research using appreciative inquiry (AI). AI is based on social constructivist theory and is a collaborative and highly participative approach to inquiry. AI is action research that is a radically affirmative approach searching for the best in
people and their organisations. It involves systematic discovery of what gives a system life when it is most effective. In this study the participants engaged in appreciative interviews using provocative positive questions on the topic of emotional intelligence and organisational climate. Both emotional intelligence (EI) and appreciative inquiry are evolving constructs. By integrating the technique (appreciative inquiry) with the topic (emotional intelligence), the question of how emotionally intelligent leadership affects organisational climate was explored. The study addresses potentially useful questions about the characteristics of emotional intelligence and its possible implications for affecting organisational climate.

Frans Berkhout, Julia Hertin and David, M. Gann (2006) argue that analysis of human adaptation to climate change should be based on realistic models of adaptive behaviour at the level of organisations and individuals. The study sets out a framework for analysing adaptation to the direct and indirect impacts of climate change in business organisations with new evidence presented from empirical research into adaptation in nine case-study companies. It argues that adaptation to climate change has many similarities with processes of organisational learning. The study suggests that business organisations face a number of obstacles in learning how to adapt to climate change impacts, especially in relation to the weakness and ambiguity of signals about climate change and the uncertainty about benefits flowing from adaptation measures. Organisations rarely adapt ‘autonomously’, since
their adaptive behaviour is influenced by policy and market conditions, and draws on resources external to the organisation.

**Lim, Doo Hun and Morris, Michael. L. (2006)** This study examines the effect of transfer variables on trainee characteristics, instructional satisfaction, and organisational factors of perceived learning and training transfer made by a group of trainees who attended a financial training program conducted for a Korean conglomerate. Data analyses revealed several variables in the three domains that significantly influenced the trainees' perceived learning and learning transfer immediately after and three months after the training.

**Louis, Karen Seashore et al., (2007)** The study attempts to explore the effects of organisational and work-group characteristics on the socialization of new scientists. It focuses on the experiences of graduate students and postdoctoral fellows in science. The authors chose to look at outcomes that reflect behaviors (early productivity) and attitudes (willingness to share research findings) since both likely have an impact on the future attitudes and behavior of individuals once they enter the scientific work force. The first point suggested by the data is that the "local setting matters" in graduate education. For both of the outcome variables, a limited number of indicators of organisational structure and climate predict a relatively robust percentage of the variance. Although the rewards of science, from grants to the Nobel Prize, go to individuals, there is evidence that graduate students and postdoctoral fellows who find themselves in the right kind of work setting
may have a leg up in their trajectories toward becoming successful scientists. A second overall finding is that "work group size is positively associated with early productivity." The authors conclude that, in a typical university setting, both graduate and postdoctoral students are better off being in larger laboratories. With respect to early productivity, the authors found that life science graduate students and postdoctoral fellows publish and present more than their chemical engineering peers. In spite of the increasingly cross-disciplinary nature of scientific research, this finding suggests the need to continue to explore underlying disciplinary differences that may make generalizations about graduate education inappropriate.

2.3.2. QUALITY OF WORK LIFE – RELATED STUDIES:

**Macy’s (1979)** case study on the Bolivar Quality of Work Life project was launched as a result of extremely poor working conditions. The project objectives were to improve employees work life, and enhance organisational effectiveness. The author claimed that the programme had resulted in the creation of new in-plant social structure, processes and relationship. The cost benefit assessment of the project was positive net savings with increased product quality and productivity.

**Keating, Pullock and Walsh (1980)** analyzed the survey conducted in Ireland and learned that the trade unionist, managers and employers had believed that changing work organisation and improving quality of working life was desirable.
Peterson and Others (1980) had conducted a study on the QWL programme and found that the collective aspect of the employees had an influence within the organisation. The employees who involved in the programme perceived that they have high organisation influence than that of who were directly affected by programme change.

Putt and Springer (1980) conducted study with professors in public administration to examine the QWL. The result indicates that factors involving the immediate working environment are indeed important and distinct from personal background or movement in the profession. Participation in policy formation appears to have the greatest impact on satisfaction.

Donahue (1982) in this study the author identified problems with QWL programmes in US. They were short term pressure of the recession that wipe out improvements made by the programmes, responses of executives conditioned by rewards for short-run success and supervisors poorly equipped or prepared to be programme leaders.

Sinha (1982) studied the QWL on the basis of job satisfaction, job attractiveness, intrinsic motivation, control and influence, job involvement and work values in the light of socio-cultural background played a very important role in conceptualization of life as well as work and resultantly affected both quality of working life and quality of life. The result indicates that the quality of working life and quality of life are two separate identities but they are interdependent.
**Ozley and Ball (1982)** labour and management when work together on implementation of QWL will be more effective. The commitment of management will contribute to positive, responsible behaviour and action on the part of the work force.

**Nadler and Lawler (1983)** the study determines the opinion on the success of the QWL. The study reveals that the success or failure of the QWL depends on the felt need of the project by the organisation and its commitment towards participative problem solving approaches. The programs should not be introduced for novelty sake. To be successful with QWL programme certain steps should be taken like project development at different levels in the organisation, changes in corporate systems and change in upper-level management practice.

**Copenhaver, Lisa and Guest (1983)** the study which was conducted in Ford plant, Saton Ville, Ohio and Brick plant, Flint, Michigan about the QWL programme where both studies gave an outcome stating that the commitment to take risk, question common assumptions and avoid looking for quick – fixes. There was a climate of support form top to down and there was a conviction that much knowledge and experience rested with rank-and-file workers.

**Leventahal (1984)** here the author after conducting a study on QWL programme states that the failure or success of the programme depends on the presence or absence of the trained facilitator. The study
concludes stating good facilitators are trained to describe the behaviours they observe.

_Sorensen (1985)_ and others have conducted the study on the QWL programme to promote participatory management in small suburban community service organisations. This study was based on a change strategy incorporating the survey feedback process of the action research model and Likert’s (1977) model of the relationships between causal, intervening and end-result variables in the change process. The programme has helped to increase productivity and organisational effectiveness but managerial influence did not diminish with increased employee participation. The conclusion of the study states the programme could be successful in small organisations.

_Marks et al., (1986)_ studied the impact of Quality Circle programme on employee quality of work life attitudes and on productivity and absenteeism behaviour among the direct labour employees in a manufacturing firm in America. The data revealed a positive relation between QC participation and changes in QWL perception in areas directly involved in QC activities. The study concludes stating that the QC participation had led improvements in employee productivity and absenteeism rates.

_Parr (1986)_ and others have evaluated QWL programme at Canada Postal Head Quarters. This is to improve the poor state of labour relations in the data conversion unit of Canada Postal Headquarters. The
evaluation after the first year showed slight drop in absenteeism. But there was a slight improvement in motivational potential, growth need strength and job satisfaction.

**Williamson and Alexander (1986)** studied the QWL provision in US postal service (USPS) contracts. Content analysis was used to identify the number of Quality of Work Life clauses in labour contracts and the same is found to be associated with decrease in productivity and increase in absenteeism.

**Bocialetti (1987)** tested whether employees were benefiting, from QWL process. The longitudinal study with the gap of 18 months revealed that employees with relatively seniority benefited more than and sometimes at the expenses of workers with relatively high seniority. The data interpreted as the senior workers suffered negative effects while junior employees remained unchanged.

**Bushe (1988)** has studied multiple case study and comparative analysis to improve labour management relations through joint management quality of work life projects. The result of the study states that the quality of the LMCs (Labour Management Committees) created to oversee the process was an important determinant of a project’s success.

**Davis Keith and Newstorm (1989)** could perceive wide range of QWL activities as open communication, equitable reward system, a concern for employee-job security, and participation in job design. According to them, emphasis should be placed on employee skill
development, the reduction of occupational stress and the development of more co-operative labour management relations.

**Krim and Arthur (1989)** conducted a study to evaluate the joint labour –management co-operation and have found that politics can enter into a public sector QWL programme. The consequences of the programme would make the programme and the initiator of the political behaviour.

**Manz and Grothe (1991)** where they conducted a nation wide survey in a large, US based Computer-manufacturing Corporation, of 3,836 employees, which revealed that the scores of the younger generation below 20 years were significantly lower than that of their order age group employees.

**Fields and Thacker (1992)** studied the feedback of implementation of a joint union management quality of Work Life programme whether any changes in union and organisational commitment. The result was that the company commitment increased only when participants perceived QWL efforts as successful, but trade union commitment increased irrespective of the perception of QWL-success.

**Yousuf (1996)** conducted a study to find out the QWL of the Doctors. The studies revealed that when works were found routine and boring, the job was also considered frustrating. Those who were happy in their personal life were happy in their friend’s circles. The successful of
work lives found to be related to the quality of work performance. The study found that the supervision were good, their present job also had given a sense of accomplishment. The conclusion of the study was the better socio-technical system along with better QWL would certainly offer best health services to ailing mankind.

Ekramul Hoque, M. and Alinoor Rahman (1999) They attempted to compare the QWL of industrial workers according to the nature of the organisations and to measure whether there is any significant relationship among quality of work life, job behaviour and demographic variables of the workers. The result revealed workers of private sector textile mills perceived significantly higher QWL than in the public sector; QWL has significant negative correlation with absenteeism and accident and QWL has significant positive correlation with performance.

2.4. SCOPE AND NEED OF THE STUDY:

When we look at many organisations we find that many of them are not able to achieve their goals. The major reason for this is poor organisational climate. In this rapid changing scenario of organisations context, structure, concepts, procedure, policies, rules, technology the climate of the organisation changes in adopting the recent trends. The new trends in management will influence the employees working in the organisation, which reflect in determining organisational climate. Such thought induced to go in for this research and to get first hand information. Organisational climate is the perception of the employees
feel to work in a particular environment. To improve organisational climate the atmosphere of the work place depends on people's perception. This study is focused on how the present organisation is able to cope with the rapidly changing environment and to identify the present situation at the workplace. This study will be helpful for the organisation to develop good climate by understanding various dimensions of organisational climate like role clarity, respect, communication, reward system, career development, planning & decision making, innovation, relationship, team & support, quality of service, conflict management, commitment and morale, training & development and direction. The present study attempts to focus on the socio-economic conditions of the employees, organisational climate perceived by them and the quality of work life of the employees. The researcher with rich experience in the field undertook this project with confidence. The researcher feels that justice has been done to the extent possible.

2.5. CONCLUSION:

The survey of the related studies reveal that majority of studies conducted on organisational climate reveals that rapid changes in the pursuit of the technological changes neglected the personnel of the organisation which caused low morale of the employees and resulted in many conflicts and disputes. To avoid such untoward incidents, at present, every organisation is attempting to create a favourable organisational climate, which will ensure better performance and efficiency from the employees. The organisations are interpreted as a
dynamic process, since it is simply a mechanism for coordinated behaviour. It is the process of people having in a rationally coordinated fashion. It also found that most of the studies are carried out in developed and developing countries. It is also noted that there are only few theories / models in this area.