CHAPTER – I

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1.1 PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

This chapter provides background of Performance Appraisal, Quality of Work Life, Union Commitment and Work Culture.

Performance appraisal forms a topic of vital importance with the scope of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. The people at this point of action meet together in the organization. The effectiveness of any organization depends upon the degree of effectiveness of its employee’s performance. Performance appraisal, thus, become a key factor in effective performance of an organization as a whole. On the other side, performance appraisal is also a powerful organizational tool with the potential of tremendous psychological impact on the minds of employees and, through them on the organization.

Performance appraisal is also known as an employee appraisal, an employee evaluation, an employee performance evaluation, a performance review, a confidential report, etc. The common purpose of all these is a systematic and periodic evaluation of the performance by their superiors and others who are familiar with the performance or even self appraisal of one’s performance by the employee himself. National Institute of Personnel (NIP) Management put it as a technique which endeavors to assess, as impartially as possible, the attributes of the individual employee, his strength and weakness. It is a system of measuring, both qualitatively and quantitatively, an individual’s capacity and attitudes in relation to his job. Performance appraisal may be used as an aid to take personnel decisions, including promotion, special increments, transfers and salary changes in any business and industrial undertaking (Tripati, 1992).

Job performance as how an individual actually perform in a given position is distinct from how he is supposed to perform (Devis, 1949).
Job performance as the manner and extent to which jobs are performed is a practical situation (Razvi, 1967).

The performance appraisal has gained more importance in the modern organizations to achieve objectives of the organization. Dalton E. Mac Farland (1974) points out that, 'the purpose of any formal method of systematic employees appraisal is to provide in the executive’s judgment about subordinates and making decision on employees’.

Performance appraisal is mainly to judge an employee in respect of various performance educations such as quality and quantity of work, knowledge of rules and regulations, work experience, routine performance, personality and general traits. An effective performance appraisal system is not only important from the organizational point of view but also for the all round development of employees (A.K. Pandey, 1996).

The performance appraisal is essential and, therefore, widely practiced on human resource management activity. Survey and reviews of its practice demonstrate a large number of decision making purposes for which individual performance data are seemingly required and used. These include decision concerning employees, counseling, promotions, training, development, salary, administrations, bonus payment allocation, personal auditing, potential spotting, job redesign, work motivation and selection and training programme validation (Spriegel 1962, Hegel 1973, Kane and Lawler 1979, Davis 1981). The major decision about the human resource necessitates performance data (Randell 1976).

The assessment of an individual has a significant role in raising the standard of employees and in building a more effective team work (Clark, 1972).

The performance appraisal is a major key to management development; this has been considered to be very important for reinforcing the positive points and overcoming the weakness (Koontz and O. Donnel, 1976).
It is always the justified concern of every organization to strive to improve the performance of its employees with a view to increasing the efficiency and locating the factors responsible for performance.

Appraisal of person's performance by other persons or persons by using certain criteria is a common perceptual and judgment process, but at the back operates a host of unconscious and emotional processes. Appraisal also takes place in absentia as well as through individual sources like opinions or remarks by others.

Personal appraisal is a part of integrated personnel activities; work performance being the basis of effectiveness and efficiency of any organization. Performance appraisal aids to appraise the work performance in the organization. Therefore, the performance appraisal helps the management to assess employee's skills and talents and forms part of a well integrated personnel policy to guide and ensure implementation of a variety of personnel activities (Paul.L.N, 2005).

The performance appraisal system is used to achieve a purposive goal. In order to achieve its purpose, it has to be followed by an effective reward-punishment system. Thus, the performance appraisal system has to be viewed and operated as a vital part of an integrated whole of all personnel activities, cutting across all levels and functions of the organization. As Basu (1987) has emphatically stated, "the informal performance appraisal is only one aspect of personnel work, which is terribly important". In the ultimate analysis, it provides the base to operate the reward-punishment system. The way the performance appraisal is operated, determines the effective utilization of the human resource available to the organization, and has very significant implication in terms of an employee's perception of a company's fairness.

Performance appraisal as a part of the overall management process of the organization such as planning, organizing and assembling of human and other resources, constitutes the preparatory base. And the subsequent activities of directing, supervising and controlling, constitute the actual managerial
actions and a behaviour operative as an immediate base to the achievement of results. Performance appraisal is a vital tool of control. A manager has to make sure that individual and departments output is of satisfactory quality, quantity and volume and is completed within time or when needed (Dean Elmuti, 2003).

The implication of performance appraisal as a controlling tool is of far greater importance than the mechanical tool of control, because its purposes are to control the people, their performance and other organizational resources through people. Performance appraisal is a tool of effective performance, and is an instrument of achieving effective performance.

The three key elements to effective performance are knowledge, skill and attitude. It also logically follows that these three key elements provide the bases of performance appraisal. The primary and ultimate objective of an individual organization is profit maximization, which may be addressed through employee's performance of the job. The job performance depends on many factors, namely, organizational commitment, organizational climate, motivation, job satisfaction, job involvement, morale, job stress and other factors. These factors can contribute either positively or negatively to the job performance.

Job performance is explained as the level of success arrived by an individual as a result of his efforts. It is the end result of the application of efforts by an individual employee. Performance appraisal is an effective instrument for helping people grow and develop in organizational settings. It could be used as an effective mechanism of continuing education and learning from one another. Through an effectively organized appraisal system every employee can create learning spaces for himself in an organization. Some researchers have shown that development-oriented performance appraisal and review system, when effectively practiced, substantially contribute to the organizational health and facilitate multiplication of managerial resources.
In the organization, performance might translate into measures of group task completion, quality, and efficiency. At the individual level, performance might translate into behaviors and actions as rated by superiors and peers.

When the management wants to tie rewards and performance together, performance evaluation is critical as a basis for making differential reward decisions. Any decisions the organization makes with regard to improving performance, through training and other forms of organizational change and development, must be based on appraisals of skill deficiencies made during performance review (Szilagyi AD, Wallace MC, 1980).

The performance appraisal serves the following purposes: Promotion and transfer decisions, Feedback for the employee regarding how the organization views his or her performance, Evaluations of relative contributions made by individuals and entire departments in achieving higher-level organizational goals, Criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of selection and placement decision including the relevance of the information used in those decisions, Ascertaining and diagnosing training and development needs for individual employees and entire divisions within the organization, Criteria for evaluating the success of training and development decisions, Information upon which work-scheduling plans, budgeting, and human resources planning can be based. Behavioral scientists have categorized the major situational factors that must be taken into account in performance appraisal. They are- Physical factors which include hazards, lighting, temperature, architecture. Technology which includes types of equipment and methods demanded by work tasks, Information which includes the kinds of information and sources of information with which the employee must deal on the job, People include the kinds of people with whom and circumstances under which the employee must interact, Group situation includes the nature of group influence surrounding the employee in carrying out job tasks, Historical precedents include traditions and precedents established by earlier employees on the job, Organizational climate
includes properties of the work environment, perceived by the employee, that presumes influence on his or her work behavior.

Thus, the time at which an evaluation is made, the employee whose performance is being evaluated, and the circumstances under which the evaluation is made—all are critical factors in determining the validity or relevance of a performance appraisal (Sharma A, 1998).

Performance appraisal serves many purposes, there can be no general method appropriate for all purposes. The problem for management is to determine what kind of performance appraisal method is adequate, given the purpose to be served. It is important to remember that performance criteria consist of many dimensions, only a part of which may be relevant for a specific auditing purpose. In addition, the specific purposes of performance evolution vary widely between different kinds of organizations. Hospitals, insurance firms, universities, police departments, welfare departments, courts, and architectural firms vary widely in terms of environmental, organizational, and individual factors influencing performance.

A number of investigators have examined the process of performance appraisal with the objective of making it more reliable and valid. They divide the most frequently employed methods of performance appraisal into two categories: traditional methods; and behavior based methods.

The most frequently used forms of appraisal today based on traditional methods, and they usually take one of two basic forms: rating or ranking. Both kinds of appraisal methods are based on traditional, descriptive language, and in turn use these dimensions as a basis for designing and rating scales or ranking forms. All basic ranking method has in common the fact that they force the evaluator to distribute scores representing performance effectiveness. In a typical ranking procedure, a single global dimension of performance would be defined for evaluators.

There are at least five possible sources of performance appraisal: supervisors; peers; the employees to be appraised (self-appraisal); subordinates
of the person to be appraised; and people outside the immediate organization, such as clients. In some cases, the appraisal may include a combination. Which of these sources is best depends upon the purpose of the evaluation; the kind of criteria being used in the appraisal; and the nature of the employee being evaluated.

The purpose of the appraisal is purely evaluative to determine the size of the employee’s merit increase for the next year. In this situation, most organizations use the immediate supervisor as the primary source of information. He or she is probably most familiar with the quality of the employee’s work and is in the best position to make consistent evaluative judgments about the relative quality of several individual employees’ performances.

First, an organization may decide upon a standard review cycle, such as every twelve months, or, the organization might choose to evaluate an employee at “natural points,” such as the completion of a project. Second, an organization may require that superiors initiate the appraisal or have a system in which employees request the appraisal (Whisler T.L & Harper S.F, 1972).

The changing concepts about the management of industrial organizations, thus, require a new look at the concept of job performance. In the past, job performance was defined in terms of rise in the level of output of services with the same or reduced level of input as a result of better work methods and improved technology. It is through the employees that the ultimate increase in production is achieved. Their performance is more important than equipment and raw materials. If they are not motivated to work harder, better, with sincerity, initiative and cooperation, no amount of sophisticated technology or improved work method is going to help. Therefore, job performance needs to be redefined in terms of employee motivation and satisfaction. Every employee’s satisfactory performance is vital to the proper functioning of machinery and equipment in an industry, and productivity is more likely to be determined by employees rather than machines.
According to Gagne and Fleishman (1959) human performance of almost any sort can be improved by increase in motivation. The study that job performance is a function of skill level multiplied by motivation. The role of motivational processes in determining worker's job performance is widely recognized by other industrial psychologists (Moorhead G & Griffin RW, 2005).

Employee performance refers to an act of fulfillment of the requirement of a given job, i.e., the manner in which employee carries out this job, efficiency at work or accomplishment and discharge of duty. Some researchers have also shown that one needs multidimensional evaluation of any performance situation. The nature of job determines whether one has to take judgment criteria or some other standards like production records, etc. In earlier years, perhaps, production records were considered the only criterion for employee performance appraisals.

Morrisey (1972) suggested that one must examine a few departments from the traditional practices of performance appraisals, to be truly effective. He suggested that relationship of objective and subjective measures in appraisals must be considered, but he agrees that objective measures are not easy to establish in all situations; the approach, according to him, should be tailor-made rather than universal, and it should be a performance appraisal rather than the all purpose evaluation.

The purpose of performance appraisal is to improve the organization's performance through the enhanced performance of individuals. Objectives of performance appraisal are as; to review past performance; to assess training needs; to help develop individuals; to audit the skills within an organization; to set targets for future performance; and to identify potential for promotion (Martin Fisher, 1995).

Organization outputs are produced through processes. Processes, in turn, are performed and managed by individuals doing various jobs. The Performance Variables that must be managed at the Job/Performer level
include hiring and promotion, job responsibilities and standards, feedback, rewards, and training.

The major distinction between this goal “flow-down” and traditional approaches is the process (rather than functional) orientation. While job goals should be directly linked to functional goals, both should be derived from the processes they support. Managing of people is not easy, but it is less mystical than it may seem. Rather than hiring good people and hoping for efficient, high-quality performance, effective managers use the human performance system to manage the factors that enable those good people to perform at an exemplary level. Managers recognize that everyone is in a human performance system, and they recognize the six factors that influence the effectiveness of that system. Executives can use Job/Performer level’s outlook and tools in order to clarify the responsibilities and measure the performance of their direct reports; to ensure that the human performance system will and can support the policies that they are considering issuing; to create human performance systems that maximize the quality of outputs, productivity, and work life of their direct reports; to diagnose and improve their own human performance systems; and, to ensure that organization wide changes are supported by the environment in which they will be carried out. Managers can use the Job/Performer level’s outlook in the same ways as executives for their direct reports themselves, and the changes they manage. Analysts (especially human resource specialists, industrial engineers, and systems analysts) can use the Job/Performer Level’s outlook and tools to diagnose and address performance needs; to ensure that the changes they recommend, or are asked to make are supported by the human performance system; to manage their bosses and others with whom they have to work; and to diagnose and improve their own performance and as also enhance the quality of their own work life. The performance can be improved through three levels; Organization Level Goals, Process Level Goals, and. Job / Performer level goals (Geary & Alan, 1995).
Without measures, managers have no basis for specifically communicating performance expectations to subordinates, knowing what is going on in their organizations, identifying performance gaps that should be analyzed and eliminated, providing feedback that compares performance to a standard identifying performance that should be rewarded, effectively making and supporting decisions regarding resources, plans, policies, schedules, and structure.

Effective management of organization requires, sound measures that ensure monitoring the right things, a total measurement system, not a collection of unrelated-and potentially counterproductive measures and a performance management process that converts the data provided by the measurement system into intelligent action (Andy Neely, 2007).

There are several steps in measuring Performance. Step 1: To define the outputs and performance expectations for each job (goal setting). Step 2: To ensure that the job holders are able to monitor their own performance on an ongoing basis and, if off target, to diagnose the situation and take corrective action. In addition, the supervisors and managers of that job holder should be able to track critical components of the job / process and troubleshoot off target performance. One needs to stress that the job holders should not have to rely on their supervisors, managers for their performance data. It should come directly to them, allowing them to make the necessary adjustments. Step 3: The job holders and supervisors / managers periodically (quarterly or semiannually) review performance. This periodical review should be a recap of the frequent discussions between the job holders and managers, with a focus on performance trends.

The performance improvement component should be performed periodically, resulting in longer-term improvement actions, rewards for the job holders, and goals for the next period, to effective manage performance, and an organization will have a performance management system for all levels of performers. The measurement of information monitored at each level is
determined to a large degree by the outputs required at each level. Each level of management is monitoring key indicators of the subordinate operation, troubleshooting, and suggesting corrective action. Each level of management periodically reviews performance of the subordinate operation against the goals set, and determines, jointly with the subordinate manager what action is required to continuously improve performance. The appraisal system is a source of anxiety for the appraisees as well, because, they being at the receiving end of the consequences of appraisal, were personally affected by it. Appraisal, if not properly managed, can be a source of ill health within an organization (Geary & Alan, 1995).

There are a number of organizations where appraisal is kept secret from the appraisee. In such organizations, the appraises sometimes tries to establish contacts at places where they can find out what has been written about them. Since appraisals are handled and are moved through a number of hands, they do sometimes manage to get this knowledge. Inability to know how a person has been appraised would in my estimation be creating its own unhealthy repercussions as these entries play so important a role in a person's career. Appraisal of an individual can be based on the work done by him. Some groups appraise on the basis of objectives achieved, some used the work targets and yet others indicated that one is required to carry out some work and appraised him on his performances of that work. What is expected from the appraisee subordinate. When asked to explain, the groups stated that the appraiser should inform the subordinate about what he expects from him; what has not been achieved, what shortcomings have been noted and what can be done towards improvement. The appraisee should be made known the manner in which he has been rated and given he should be a chance for expressing his disagreements, if necessary. The persons to be appraised by an individual have to be such that enables the appraiser to know one self well enough. This point came up specifically in those groups, where anxieties were expressed about the appraiser's knowledge of the appraisee. A system of standardization is to be evolved to ensure uniformity in appraisal within an organization. The groups
felt some difficulty in exactly defining the system they had in mind, but through discussions the following kinds of solutions emerged: preparation of a standard guideline to indicate when a person should be rated “good,” when “very good” and so on; group effort at appraisal, i.e., appraisal to be made not by one superior and reviewed by another in the ladder of hierarchy, but jointly, by all those who come in contact with the individual. The groups were in agreement that in a large organization it cannot be the top man, but would be someone in the staff who could analyze and present data to the top man so that he could take action selectively; development of a corrective factor to be applied to various reporting officers, so that all can be reduced to a common measure (Malathi Bolar, 1978).

The essential feature of performance appraisal is that it provides a flexible means for managers, and those whom they manage, to operate as partners but within a framework that describes how they can best work together. Performance appraisal is a process for establishing shared understanding about what is to be achieved, and an approach to managing and developing people in a way which increases the probability that it will be achieved in the short and long term. It is not therefore, just a system driven by management in order to manage the performance of their employees. It is also an approach to managing and developing people, which enables them to manage their own performance and development within the framework of clear objectives and standards which have been agreed jointly with their managers. Managers are responsible to develop their staff through counseling, coaching and training. However, it does place people in a situation where they can be more in control of the consequences of their own actions.

The concept of ‘empowerment’ is the continuous development and improvement of employee’s performance. In Charles Handy’s words (The Age of Unreason, Business Books, 1991), performance management or appraisal can help managers, teachers, counsellors, judges and friends; trust people to use their own methods to achieve the manager’s own ends. The leaders are to know
that every problem can be solved in such a way as to develop people’s capacity to handle it. All these points made by Charles Handy are important, but the last one is particularly relevant to the process of performance appraisal where leadership skills are used to help people to help themselves. One important aspect of the process should be emphasized, that is, that performance appraisal should be owned and driven by line managers (Frances Neale, 2002).

The skills required by managers to carry out a performance appraisal process are often underestimated. They need to know how to agree regarding clear, measurable and achievable objectives with their staff. They need to know how to define and assess competence requirements. They have to provide helpful feedback and know, not only how to commend staff on their achievements in appraisal discussion meetings but also how to coach them and help them to recognize where their performance has been substandard and needs to be improved. Performance appraisal implies a marked shift in the relationship between managers and their staff. The manager is faced with a new and more challenging situation: Feedback, coaching and counseling skills and the ability to handle and encourage upward appraisal all come to the fore.

Performance appraisal has traditionally been used as a mechanism of controlling employees through salary, reward, promotions and disciplinary action. Many companies use performance appraisal, confidential reports or employee service records in a confidential form. Each employee is rated confidentially by one or more senior officers annually for his performance on some dimensions and the confidential ratings are handled by the personnel department. In most cases the employee does not know how his performance has been rated by his superiors. A few companies have the practice of informing employees if their ratings are below a certain level, and some organizations do not do even this. Such practices have been found to result in the following: Employees never get to know their strengths and weaknesses in relation to their capabilities as officers, managers or supervisors throughout their life in an organization; in the organizations where only poor performance
below a level is feedback to employees. Feedback has a tremendous motivational value; very often promotions are demanded by better performing employee and are given to some of the confidentially rated better performers with little consideration for their potential to perform new roles in the new job; & human resources should grow and multiply as people have tremendous capabilities for development, acquiring new skills to perform new roles. Such development and multiplication of human resources is not only good for the organization and the employees but also for the society as a whole. This is a process of continuing education (Venkateswara & Pareek, 1979).

Performance appraisal is a natural process of management for three reasons: Measuring performance – performance appraisal can be used as a means of measuring performance. But the purpose of measurement is to be indicated. Performance appraisal is a means for creating and maintaining a 'climate of success in the organization'.

Performance can be managed by the following factors, defining the desired results (The Goal). The best way is to affect accomplishment, to define the desired results (the goal) clearly. Specifying the objectives not only focuses activities in the proper direction, it also energizes those doing the work. Communicating performance expectations is another common way of affecting what is accomplished. Performance expectations come in a variety of forms: descriptions of the final goal, explanations of what needs to be done, explanations of anticipated results, subtle requests, etc., specifying and managing the activities to be performed. The efforts and skills of employees can be focused and directed by the types of activities they are asked to do. The assumption is that individuals desire rewards as personal outcome for activities and gain satisfaction from obtaining them. The frequency and nature of feedback will have a great effect on what employees do. It provides them with the experience of success or failure and directs their activities (Baird.L, 1986).

Performance measurement may serve many purposes. The ability to provide valuable feedback is one critical purpose. Feedback, in turn, tells the
employee where she or he stands in the eyes of the organization. Appraisal results, of course, are also used to decide and justify reward allocations. Performance evaluations may be used as a starting point for discussions of training, development, and improvement. Finally, the data produced by the performance appraisal system can be used to forecast future human resource needs, to plan management succession, and to guide other human resource activities such as recruiting, training, and development programs. Providing job performance feedback is the primary use of appraisal information. Performance appraisal information can indicate that an employee is ready for promotion or that he or she needs additional training to gain experience in another area of company operations. It also shows that a person does not have the skills for a certain job and that another person should be recruited to fill that particular role. Other purposes of performance appraisal can be judgment and development. Performance appraisals with a judgmental orientation focus on past performance and are concerned mainly with measuring and comparing performance and with the uses of the information generated. Appraisals with a developmental orientation focus on the future use information from evaluations to improve performance (Rao TV, 1984).

The construct of organizational performance has never been well-specified. It has been dealt in a number of ways. Ivancevich, Szilagyi and Wallace’s model (1977) views performance as the outcome of systems that are determined by situational factors and operate through various processes to produce behavior. The approaches dealt with above have focused on different aspects of organizational performance, the relationships between input-output as well as productivity efficiency, the dominant coalition within the organization, and the influence of the environment. To the extent the quality and quantity of production is not reasonably good, the survival of an organization becomes doubtful. Similarly, for the success of an organization it is important that it shows potential to increase its performance and achieve its targets. With this argument in mind, the influence of the coalition(s), environment and other related factors become secondary. Organizational
performance is what an organization as a collectivity succeeds in achieving its goal (Khandwalla, 1977; Pugh-Pheysey, 1972).

Thus, it is considered in global terms as the starting point and the ultimate criterion in the assessment of organizations. In the present study organizational performance is defined as the net result of the combined efforts of all individuals and groups in the organization in achieving organizational goals in terms of their own preferred criteria. The perception of organizational members regarding the achievement of such goals has also to be considered while assessing organizational performance.

1.2 QUALITY OF WORK LIFE

The concept of quality of work life (QWL) remained a subject of inquiry to both industrialists and academicians. The emerging and sustaining importance of quality of work life has necessitated the carrying out of the studies dealing with quality of work life of the people working in different spheres of occupations. The concept of quality of work life needs to be studied continuously as the present scenario emphasizes human resource development and human resource management. In other words, the fall or rise of any organization, society or nation development depends on quality of work life. It represents a concern for the human dimension of work. There is a word wide concern for improvement in the work. The worker alienation, increased job dissatisfaction, decline in productivity, higher absenteeism, lack of confidence, etc., is often observed in various field of work. Thus it is noticed that there is a continued need to study the problem of quality of work life from various dimensions.

Like any other concept, evaluation of quality of work life is also traced back to various phases in history, originally, quality of work life activity occurred during the period from 1969 to 1974. When a broad group of researchers, scholars, union leaders and government personnel is interested in knowing how to influence the quality of an individual’s on the job experience (Nadler and Lawler 1983).
The term Quality of Work life has been defined by various authors; there is no consensus on definition of the term.

Some people define quality of work life "as the existence of a certain set of organizational practices". They argue that a high QWL exists when democratic management practices are prevalent in an organization, others equate QWL with the input of working conditions on employees well being.

Talor, (1973) defined QWL as 'the phenomenological experience of people of work' referring primarily to the QWL from the point of the view of the individual employee

Herrick and Maccoby (1975) tried to define QWL in a more normative way in terms of security, equity and democracy. Similar is the opinion of Trist (1975) who says that the QWL is both an end and a means it is an end by itself because it is a highly significant component in the quality of life in general and it is a means by which employees can acquire civic competencies and skills.

Glaser (1976) stated that QWL means more than job security, good working conditions, adequate and fair compensations, more even that is equal employment opportunity.

Hackman and Sattle (1977) described QWL from varied view points; it refers to industrial democracy, increased worker participation in corporate decision making on a combination of the goals of human relations. In terms of management perspectives related to a variety of efforts to improve productivity through improvements in the human rather than the capital on technological inputs of production. From the stand point of the characteristics of individual workers, it refers to the degree to which members of work organizations are able to satisfy important personnel needs through their experience in the organization.

According to Guest (1979), QWL is a generic phrase that covers a person's feelings about every dimension of work, including economic rewards,
benefits, security, working conditions, organizational and interpersonal relations and their intrinsic meaning.

Prakash Sinha (1982) concluded from various definitions and researches that “quality of working life is the degree of excellence brought about work, which contributes to the overall satisfaction and performance, primarily at the individual level but finally at the organizational level”.

Devis L.E. (1983) define QWL as “the quality of relationship between employees and the total working environment”. He further states that it seeks to create those conditions in the organization, which provide individuals learning and development; provide individuals with influence and control over, what they do and how they do it and, make available to the individuals interesting and meaningful work as a source of personal satisfaction and a means to valued personal rewards (Dyer and Hoffer Berg 1975).

Nadler and Lawler (1982) refer to, a concern about the impacts of work on people as well as on organizational effectiveness and, the ideas of participation in organizational problem solving and decision making. It is also viewed as a process in the work organization, which enables its members at all levels to actively participate in determining its environment methods and outcomes.

According to Mansell and Rankin (1983), “QWL is the concrete expression of a particular set of beliefs and values about people, about organizations and ultimately about society”. Best (1988) argues that quality of working life means “democratization of the work place”. According to him QWL also implies that workers have entitlements beyond money, safety, basic rights under collective agreements, and the opportunity for personal growth in the job they do.

Chakraborty (1990) stated that QWL is often determined by the state of mind.
Sangeeta Jain (1991) viewed QWL as consisting of a whole parcel of terms and notions all of which really come under the quality of working life umbrella. They include industrial effectiveness, human resource development, organizational effectiveness, work restructure, job enrichment, socio-technical systems, working humanization, group work concept, labour management, cooperation, working together, workers involvements, workers participation and co-operative work structure” (Khanica S.S 2000).

The concept of QWL in India is age old, it has its philosophical origin in Bhagavat Geeta, Lord Krishna has expressed work (Karma) as one of the ways to attain spiritual fulfillment. The gist of “KarmaYoga” is “to perform action (duty) with himself and involvement without being worried about the reward”. This broader attitude towards work certainly brings out the potentially of an individual in the work field. As human behaviour is more complex and unpredictable and that too the work behaviour certainly needs special attention towards it. In view of this, recently experimentation is going on to improve QWL in India laying more emphasize more on proper utilization of human resources.

In India, very recently to enhance the quality of work life, a variety of operational systems like workers participation, job enrichment, quality circle, total quality management, management by objectives (MBO), total quality people (TQP), etc, are in practice (Gani A&Ahmed R, 1995).

Achievement of organizational goals efficiently and enforcement of effectiveness are possible only when the management is able to create congenial environment at the workplace and able to improve the quality of work life in the organizations. Work is regarded as source of satisfaction and need-fulfillment by the workers. The organizational effectiveness and its operation are affected by the whole situation, in which the employees are supposed to work. The attention must, therefore, be given to improve the work situation and work environment. These two are the major determinants of quality of work life. The major areas of quality of work life have been
identified by us as human resource management and its development. The organizational culture, leadership, participative management, motivation, communication, quality circles, etc., will have a great effect on the employees and at their work places. During the last decade, the term 'quality of work life' has appeared prominently in research journals and in the press. It highlights the major four key elements such as, promotion of human dignity and growth, working together collaboratively, anticipatively determined work changes and last but not the least, assume compatibility of people with organizational goals (Sharma&Pandey, 1995).

Work plays a central role in the life of people engaged in productive pursuits. It is, therefore, appropriate to bring about improvement in the quality of working life which may ultimately lead to improvement in the overall quality of life because a good quality of working life leads to improvement in productivity, greater human satisfaction and thus to overall improvement in the quality of life itself. However, in order to bring about improvement in the quality of working life, emphasis has to be laid on the interlinkages between work and some aspects of socio-cultural and psychological milieu. This may need re-designing of work. Work systems should be so re-designed as to make them sensitive to their environment and also adaptable and dynamic in nature (Hian CC,Einstein WC, 1990).

An improvement in the level of occupation in terms of skills, responsibilities, pay and such other attributes also effect improvement in the quality of working life. Similarly, direct participation by employees in problem-solving and decisions making or self management would also lead to improvement in the quality of working life. Other factors which may cause improvement in the quality of life at work comprise job satisfaction, collaboration and mutual respect between management and employees, increased autonomy at work place, introduction of quality circles, etc. Improvement resulting in the quality of working life from the aforesaid factors will ultimately effect improvement in the overall quality of life itself.
Quality of work life is an important area relating to the link between a worker and his environment through which work is designed. Concrete contributions were already made to fit the worker to the job. Quality of work life is a social concern to be approached through social indicator. Quality of work life relates to the facilities and conditions in which workers have to work. For improving QWL, working conditions and environment, too, have to be improved, and more humane conditions are to be created. Humanization of work, for instance, is often used in a number of languages as a synonym for quality of working life (Lau RS, 2000).

Quality of work life efforts are systematic attempts by organizations to give workers a greater opportunity to affect the way they do their jobs and the contributions they make to their organization’s overall effectiveness. These efforts are not a substitute for good, sound personnel practices and policies. However, effective QWL can supplement other personnel actions and provide improved employee motivation satisfaction, and productivity. QWL is improved through employee involvement. Whether that involves in solving workplace problems or in merely participating in the design of one’s job.

The ultimate aim of Quality of Work Life lies in ensuring better quality of products, for higher productivity, for reducing cost of production. The Quality of Work Life and increasing work effectiveness work together, which is concerned with overall climate of work situation that refers to favorableness and unfavorableness of a work environment. A favorable work environment results in better quality of work life and vise-versa. In a nutshell, improvement of the quality of work life in any organization depends upon the methodology and technique being used by the organization which might vary from one to another (Hanlon&Nadler, 1986).

Quality of Work Life (QWL) refers to job environment for working people and job design and job enrichment. It emphasizes on employees’ skill development, reduction of occupational stress and development of co-operative labour-management relations. The traditional approaches of specialization and
efficiency have become obsolete because the workers lose their interest in the whole product and work it. The workers had less job-satisfaction under that context and developed less aspirations and attitudes towards the work. Thus, the need for better quality of work life (QWL) arose whereby the designing of jobs is based purely on attributes desired by workers and create favorable environment for the work. QWL provides more opportunity to work and the skills, aspirations, ability, devotion to work and job-satisfaction (Hoque ME&Rahman A, 1999).

Ever since the concept of quality of work life (QWL) was first used over 30 years ago, a range of definitions and theoretical constructs have succeeded each other with the aim of mitigating the many problems facing the concept. A historical overview of the concept of QWL is presented here. Given the lack of consensus convening the solutions that have been developed to date, a new definition of QWL is suggested, inspired by the research on a related concept, general quality of work life (QWL) which, as the literature shows, has faced the same conceptualization and definition problems as QWL. Although the expression “Quality of Work Life” was not used in the late 19th century, certain isolated efforts had already been made to improve conditions for workers.

The concept of quality of work life was slowly taking root in the specific context of working conditions in the industrialized countries. Contrary to Lawler (1975), QWL was based on the claim that the feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction determines the level of QWL. To support his opinion, he asserted that close to half of the variance in job satisfaction measures could be explained by a relatively limited number of environmental conditions (Kingpadungk, 1994).

The definition of Carlson (1980), which takes absolutely organizational point of view; the author emphasizes the dynamism of QWL and describes it as a process experiencing constant change. Unfortunately, the superimposition of the concepts of goal and process make it, to all intents and purposes,
impossible to operationalize in a measuring instrument. Nadler and Lawler (1983), for their part, define QWL as a “way of thinking”.

As far Kieman and Knutson’s (1990) definition, it emphasizes the subjective nature of QWL to the point of making it a concept specific to each individual, just as Nadler and Lawler (1983) had favoured. The individual malleability attributed to the concept condemns it to remain subject to interpretation and again frustrates any possibility of attaching a valid assessment method to it. Nevertheless, this theoretical approach had the advantage of taking account of the dynamic nature of QWL.

Finally, Sirgy et al. (2001) recently published a validation of a QWL questionnaire based on a definition that returns to the concept of satisfaction as an underlying theoretical model. This publication suggests that 30 years after the concept first appeared, QWL is still being defined in terms of satisfaction.

QWL is an important construct theoretically, and has been widely recognized as crucial for effective functioning of organizations. “Quality of life” may describe a person or group’s standard of living, environment, public health and safety, and/or general surroundings, the quality of a person’s “work life” encompasses things that affect their well being during the working day, such as salary and benefits, facilities, the potential for advancement, and work/life balance. Providing a work environment that creates a real and/or perceived high quality of work life is not an easy task. Higher salaries do not necessarily appear to be the answer. While workers certainly want to earn as much as possible, the stress of balancing work and home life, among other issues, generally causes much greater concerns.

Beinum (1974) defined QWL as ‘the quality of content of the relationship between man and his task’. Cohen (1980) viewed QWL as ‘intentionally designed effort to bring about increased labour – management co-operation to jointly solve the problems of improving organizational performance and employee satisfaction."
Mansell & Rankin, (1982) stated that “The quality of working life redesign of an organization is an on-going process of individual, group and organization learning. Quality of working life is a set of beliefs and values which affect all aspects of the organization”. Ted Mills (1992), a leading proponent of QWL, defines the concept as an attempt to: “provide people at work with structured opportunities to become actively involved in a new interpersonal process of problem solving toward both a better way of working and a more effective work organization, the payoff from which includes the best interests of employees and employers in equal measure”.

De (1975) contended that quality of work life is a major determinant of quality of life. Life without work has no meaning. Quality of life refers to the life of an individual outside or away from his work. It is his life in family, society and the environment he lives in.

Macu and Mirvis (1976) assessed the quality of working life on the basis of factors such as absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, work stoppages, strikes, productivity, product or service quality, grievances, accidents and job related illness, unscheduled downtime and unaccounted for inventory, material, and supply utilization variances.

Carlson (1978) developed dimensions of quality of work life which included variables like relationship with supervisor, work group relationship, respect for individual, job stress, and state of mind and so on.

The quality of work life was naturally defined in the following terms, “a broad expression covering a vast variety of programmes, techniques, theories, and management styles through which organizations and jobs are designed so as to grant workers more autonomy, responsibility, and authority than is usually done. To simplify somewhat, the general objective is to arrange organizations, management procedures, and jobs for maximum utilization of individual talents and skills, in order to create more challenging and satisfying work and improve organization effectiveness” (Jenkins, 1981).
Objectives of quality of work life were such as to create challenging and satisfying work and to improve organizational effectiveness. The twin objectives were to be realized by maximum utilization of individual talents and skills which were to be made possible by arranging organizations, management practices, and job structures.

The phrase Quality of Work Life has been increasingly used to describe certain environmental and humanistic values neglected by the industrial societies in favour of technological advancement, industrial productivity and economic growth. Propagators of QWL have been drawing consistently our attention to the unsatisfactory quality of work life experienced in the work places, while organizations have questioned their justification in the circumstances of increasingly competitive world markets (Gene Boialetti, 1998).

Quality of Work Life programmes have been receiving widespread attention in more and more organizations, both in developed and developing countries, and are adopting QWL programmes for their contribution to job satisfaction, productivity and organizational success. In India, these programmes have received wide support both from private and public sector organizations.

The American Society for Training and Development appointed a taskforce on the QWL in 1979. The taskforce defined QWL as “a process of work organizations which enables its members at all levels to actively participate in shaping the organizations environment, methods and out-comes. This value based process is aimed towards meeting the twin goals of enhanced effectiveness of organizations and improved quality of life at work for employees”. (Skrovon, 1980). According to this definition, it is a process of work organization designed to enhance the effectiveness of an organization and to improve QWL of its employees. However, Cohen and Rosenthal (1980) have focused attention on the employee-satisfaction. They describe quality of work life as an internally designed effort to bring about increased labour
management co-operation to jointly solve the problem of improving organizational performance and employee satisfaction (Cohen and Rosenthel, 1980) earn his/her living. They further observe that the QWL is related to the case with which people can undertake tasks they are required to undertake, and thus gives the performance necessary to the economic vitality of the business (Robinson and Richard 1988). However, (Goodman observes that in recent years the term QWL has been used to refer to employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction with over-all conditions of work. Accordingly, QWL programmes should be designed to provide maximum satisfaction to the employees (Goodman, 1980).

Quality of work life is a very broad concept as it covers the feeling of an employee about every dimension of his work-life, including economic rewards, benefits, security, safety and health, working conditions and organizational and interpersonal relationships. QWL has been defined, by Arnold and Feldman, as “the quality of the relationship between employees and the total working environment, with human dimensions added to the usual technical and economic dimensions”. (Arnold and Fieldman, 1981). Indeed, Arnold and Feldman have properly defined the concept of QWL. However, for further analysis, the concept of QWL will be examined in the perspective of organizational development (OD). The concept will also be analyzed in the context of its motivational value. International Labour Office, engaged in improving Quality of Work Life (1981) lists the following areas as concerns of QWL: flow of work, holidays, shift work, flexible hours and other working time issues. Work organization and job content. The impact of new technology on working condition and work environment, working conditions for women, young, workers, older workers and other special categories. Work related welfare services and facilities, shop floor participation in the improvement of working conditions.

The resistance of trade unions to earlier QWL programs was also linked to the difference of assumptions between the traditional system and QWL.
While the traditional work place, industrial relations system that developed under collective bargaining stressed the management of contractual relations and due process, the QWL proponents focused on the psychological needs and motivation of individual employees. Thus, whereas QWL theorists and organizational development consultants stressed the value of individual participation, cooperative, problem solving and the building of trust through informal participatory processes, collective bargaining focused on the management of inherent conflict over individual and group rights, and uniformity in the application of work rules and practices (Kochan 1986).

The concern of the unions was justified, when QWL process, started by several leading organizations had the ultimate objective of avoidance of trade unions. Employers had used the quality of work life programme as a powerful weapon. They had appeared to workers to do a good job, to be part of a group, to make a contribution, etc. Workers responded positively to their appeal. At the same time, these moves undermined trade union power and influence.

Unions should join QWL and equip themselves so that their influence in QWL programmes is at least equal, if not more than that of the management. Instead of disengagement in QWL, “the union’s best bet is to take the QWL built by the horns, take leadership in the programme, insist that it meets its promises, and use it to meet the real worker needs and to build the union” (Parker, 1985).

In order to do this, the unions should take some definite steps as part of union strategy. These steps are - Unions must develop their own goals and strategies before they enter QWL activities. Democracy should be there in union decisions. Before joining QWL, the union position vis-à-vis QWL programme should be clarified and decisions should be taken about their goals and attitudes towards QWL. Trade Union leaders should educate the workers about the QWL’s hidden trap and rebuild union pride and an active union life as the alternative (Parker, 1985).
The Quality of Work Life aims at progress in terms of enriched quality of work life, and the quality circle is a technique of participative management through which the progress in quality of work life can be achieved. Thus, the two concepts are interlinked, one setting the goals and the other achieving them through the techniques of participation. In this article, an attempt has been made to analyze the two concepts, their relationship and the results of their operation in an industrial setting (Davis, 1993).

According to Fred Luthans (1981), QWL is the socio-technical approach to job design. There other view is that QWL is not based on a particular theory, nor does it advocate a particular technique for application. It is concerned with the overall climate of work. It has been defined as a process of joint decision making, collaboration and building mutual respect between management and employees. The purpose is to change the climate at work, so that the human-technological-organizational interface leads to a better QWL, (Luthans, 1981). The term QWL has also been defined as “the degree to which members of a work organization are able to satisfy important personal needs through their experiences in the organization” (Heckman, J.Richard and J.Lopud Suttle, 1977). Robbins has taken QWL as a goal for redesigning jobs. The redesign options available to management include job-rotation, work-modules, job-enrichment, integrated work teams, autonomous work-teams, Quality Circles, etc. (Robbins, S.P., 1985).

The foregoing ideas of some of the leading authorities on ‘Organizational Behavior’ suggest that QWL covers all the aspects of worker’s life with special reference to his interaction with his work and work climate. It is a balance of human imperative and technological imperative; jobs are required to fit people as well as technology. It relates directly to job-enrichment and job-humanization. Job enrichment means that additional motivators are added to a job in order to make it more attractive and rewarding. Job humanization is an attempt to serve the higher order needs of workers as well
as their basic needs. It seeks to employ the higher skills of workers and to provide an environment that encourages them to improve their skills.

The core of the QWL concept is the value of treating the worker as a human being and emphasizing changes in the socio-technical system of work through improvements in physical and psychological working environment, design and redesign of work practices, hierarchical structure and the production process brought with the active involvement of workers in decision making (Geogios, Andreas, 2002).

The following are the critical parameters of QWL; Management Commitment: For survival and success of QWL, top management should be committed and involved in the process; Involvement of Union Leaders: Union leaders commitment and involvement is equally important for this programme; Acceptance of Union Legitimacy by Management: For success of QWL programme the legitimacy of union should be accepted by management. Similarly, management must be willing to accept the fact that employees/unions too have a right to share the benefits accruing from QWL programmes; Joint Evolution of Programmes: The goals and ground rules of any QWL programmes should be evolved jointly. When management unilaterally initiates any programme the longer it waits to involve union, the harder it becomes a joint programme. Unions look at such programmes with suspicion and decline to cooperate in the implementation of such a programme; Both management and union be committed to utilize every employee’s talent to the fullest extent possible, for making the organization a better place to work and to provide opportunity for individual growth and development. This helps in improving organizational effectiveness by reaching quality, cost and other goals of it. Commitment of union Management to succeed in long-run QWL programme should be both task and people oriented. Improvement in quality cost and other factors of competitive effectiveness must be incorporated openly into QWL programmes; otherwise it remains something separate and does not become part of the mainstream of management concern (Edward E.L, 1982).
Scope of quality of work life movement which is originally included only job redesign efforts based on the socio-technical systems; the approach has gradually widened so much as to include a wide variety of interventions such as quality circles, suggestion schemes, employee participation, empowerment, autonomous work teams, etc.

To the workers who are already employed and working in an organization it denotes the degree to which its members are satisfied with respect to their important personal needs. Improvement in quality of life involves the increased effectiveness of organization, which leads to the enhancement of the productivity, wages, and dignity of the workers and growth of the enterprise. Thus, quality of work life is a part of the organizational environment. It involves the job enrichment, natural work teams, and a conducive socio-economic environment. The quality of work life is often roughly estimated for comparative purposes; and, to some extent, it can be measured in a given organization (Martel JP&Dupuis G, 2006).

The quality of work life is defined more specifically as a process by which an organization attempts to unlock the creative potential of its people by involving them in decisions affecting their work lives. A distinguishing characteristic of the process is that its goals are not simply extrinsic, focusing on the improvement of productivity and efficiency phrase; they are also intrinsic, regarding what the worker sees as self-fulfilling and self-enhancing ends in themselves (Mitchell L.M. et.al 1985).

Quality of work life and organization performance are closely tied together, because without some level of organizational performance there can be no work-life at all. The interest in workers' performance since the dawn of the twentieth century was later supplemented by attention to their adjustment and satisfaction in jobs (Fisher & Hanna, 1931; Hoppock, 1935; Kornhauser & Sharp, 1932).

While Quality of work life is generally advocated as a joint union-management process, a few studies have suggested that QWL participation
results in positive outcomes for unions (Verma, 1989), and none have specifically examined union commitment. Most existing research has examined QWL participation from a company perspective. More research examining the specific influence of QWL on unions is needed, but it is even more important to examine the outcomes of both company and union from the same intervention. (Verma, 1989)

Based on a review of literature, Tuttle (1983) concludes that QWL and productivity are conceptually different but related concepts. According to him, most authors would agree that productivity improvements accompany improvements in QWL. Many of the experiments reviewed by Katzell and Guzzo (1983) measure, in addition to productivity effects, changes in various attitudinal measures of the sort commonly associated with QWL, especially job satisfaction (Katzell and Guzzo, 1983).

The basic objectives of an effective QWL program are improved working conditions (mainly from an employee's perspective) and greater organizational effectiveness (mainly from an employer's perspective). Positive results of QWL have been supported by a number of previous studies, including reduced absenteeism, lower turnover, and improved job satisfaction (Havlovic, 1991; Cohen et al., 1997; King and Ehrhard, 1997). Not only does QWL contribute to a company's ability to recruit quality people, but it also enhances a company's competitiveness. Common beliefs support the contention that QWL will positively nurture a more flexible, loyal, and motivated workforce, which is essential in determining the company's competitiveness (Allan and Loseby, 1993; Meyer and Cooke, 1993; Bassi and Vanburen, 1997). Other studies also found positive associations between progressive human resource management practices such as training and staffing selectivity, and common firm performance measures (Huselid, 1995). Employee satisfaction is essential to implementing high-performance. Roth (1993) empirically found statistically significant correlations between a measure of QWL and business performance (in terms of market performance,
stakeholder value, and business sustainability) as well as differentiating competitive capabilities (in terms of service quality, delivery, employee knowledge, flexibility, and technological leadership) (Delaney and Huselid, 1996).

1.3 UNION COMMITMENT

The unions devote themselves, to job related questions such as ways and benefits, other rules of work and problems of the work place. Organizationally, the trade movement is characterized by multi policy and vividly of the enterprise area, as well as national levels. The sense of competition is fed by consideration such as, ideological, organizational, and personality difference among the leaders.

In most, one way trade unions have been assigned economic, social and political role in the national life. Their potentiality has been very rightly recognized by the policy planners in the country. Trade unions not only have an indirect contribution to make through their influence on workers, but within the national economic decision-making process structured scope have been provided for them to contributes in this direction. In all matters dealing with labour, the scope for union participation ranges from policy formation to its implementation (Omenbin S., & Sinha P, 1981).

In their pursuit of workers cause they do not confine themselves to problem relating to employers employee relations. They were much influence the workers non-working hours as well. Their interest in social, civic, and political affairs probably influences not only workers but also the members of their family. The social status of the working class is obtaining from the trade union movement. So far researches on trade unions have been of historical studies, studies of leadership and studies relating to unionism of the area industry, and enterprise level. However, keeping in view the long history and coverage of the Indian trade union movement, the studies of trade unionism have been rather limited. Maximum writing has been in the areas are historical studies. The trade union movement would have certainly gained considerably
form those historical studies, had they perceptibly interpreted the factors leading to the success or failure of the movement of different points of time. But most historical studies have been of the nature of the narration of events and presentation of broad facts rather than an inclusive and analytical interpretation of the movement (Fields, Mitchell, 1992).

White-collar unionism is a new but impressive feature of the trade union movement in India. In fact, this section of work force has been in the force front of unionism in recent times. Perhaps, the working of trade unions as an organization provides a stimuli area for study. In modern industrial society, the trade unions are widely recognized. These trade unions emerged as “Protest Movements”, these unions were reacting against the working relationship and conditions which were created by industrialization. In the industrialized countries there is simple evidence of organized or unionized labour activity, and even in the developing countries too, union activity, in some form or other has made its appearance. Trade union has become a powerful force and in many countries the terms of collective agreements which had been entered into between representatives of majority groups of an industry may be made legally binding upon all persons in the industry or in a particular region industrialization has created organizations of workers, they widely differ in their functions, structure, leadership and ideology (Clive J.F et.al 2004).

Unions are organization designed in order to promote and enhance the social and economic welfare of their members. Basically unions were created to protect workers from exploitation; unions gave unity and power to workers (Becker HS, 1966).

“Frank Tannenbaum”, (1951) found that the emergence of trade unionism is spontaneous and inherent in the growth of capitalism. The origin of trade unionism lies in the industrial revolution which disrupted the ordered way of life and created a new society forged by the shop, the factory, the mine, and the industry”, (A philosophy of labour 1951).
According Chambenlin (1935) and Warner Chisholm and Munzensider (1978) found wages and job security to be the most prevalent explanations for the decision. Unions are an integral part of the organization. They are designed to enhance the social and economic welfare of the group, which they represent every hierarchical echelon of an organization. Therefore, the study of control of unions in the organizations seems relevant (Tannenbaum 1965).

In earlier studies demographic variables were found to be important correlates of union participation, and also there are other numerous variables that have been identified as determinants of membership participation in union activities. Spinrad (1960) has grouped participation variables in the three classes objective conditions of job, personal association and orientation, plant size, stability of work force, pay and status are the important objective conditions variables conducive to membership participation. The off-job contact between workers, and family background and are important personal association variables (Fonseca A, 1972).

Perlme and Lorenz (1970) have summarized participation correlates into three groups of variables. These three groups are related to individual participation, group participation and union structure.

Swanson (1981) has organized the literature of participation under four major headings: (i) the organization context (ii) Militancy and strikes (iii) leadership and profiles of general participation. The literature organized under the first and the fourth headings is more relevant. The size, type, age of union and spatial distribution of union members are some of the variables related to the organizational context. Martial status, number of children, pay level, skill level, conviction of belief of sympathy, attitude towards unionism, seniority and age are the important general participation variable.

Many researchers have argued that skilled senior, older and married members are more likely to participate in union activities than unskilled junior young and unmarried members (Tannenbaum and Khan 1928). Senigrly (1984) stated that age and marital status should be positively related to union
participation. Thus, male members would participate more than the female members, more educated members may find satisfaction from their jobs and may not have any need to participate in union activities (Basu Sharma, 1987).

Workers have a variety of needs. They desire to earn wages that are equitable and adequate to maintain themselves and their families. They want work rules that protect them against arbitrary decisions and provide congenial working conditions. They want to be heard and respected by the management. Among the several social institutions that function in a workers’ environment, the trade union is best suited to encompass all or most of their needs. It is the only social institution that provides within itself the mechanism where by workers can secure the “respect from other people, creature comforts and economic security, independence and control over their own affairs and understanding of the forces of work in the world and integrity”. If a worker believes that the union can help him in these ways, he is likely to join it, he will join the union that will give him most of what he wants. The structures of trade unions in India as well as its functions revolve around their basic, but quite distinct concerns for workers. First, its views workers as employees whose wage, work rules and welfare needs should be protected and promoted. The unions’ role in these areas is to interface in the relationship of employers with their employees. Second, the union is concerned the worker in his status as a union member; it develops internal systems to regulate the relationship between member and member. (K.V.Vaid, 1952)

According M.I.Joseph (1987) certain factors that are likely to be related to the commitment of employees to trade unions early social, psychological studies on unions have mainly concentrated on the motives of workers in joining labour unions (Gordon and Rothenberg 1942, Barlash 1951, Rose 1952). The result of investigation is that of primary factors such as economic need, job security and grievance representation are important impelling forces that make workers join the union. As commitment of workers to unions depends on factors like opportunities for leadership and social satisfaction with
the stabilization of unionism, workers tend to expect more from unions, but inefficient leadership, prolonged strikes and failure to protect employees' rights are also factors that may affect the attitude and morals of the individual members (Tubbs, 1993).

Trade unions came into existence as organizations that aimed primarily at economic needs of the members with increasing union membership and widening horizon of union activities. Unions have now become important socio-political organization which can influence the full range of employee behaviour. Economic, social and political, variations can be seen among individual member, in their involvement in union activities (Hameed S.M.A. and Joya Sen, 1985).

Devis (1957) observes that unions provide additional human relations benefits such as group solidarity, leadership opportunities, protection from unreasonable authorities, communication to management and social power in order to get rewards for their members. Thus, the available literature is concerned with the positive relationship between union commitment and available, perceived support from work environment. This, in turn, may make the employees more satisfied with their work and help them to reduce feelings of emotional tension at work (Eaton, Gorden, Keefe, 1992).

Lester (1987) defines a trade union as “an association of employees designed primarily to maintain or improve the condition of employment of its members”.

According to S.D. Punekar, (1974), “A union is a continuous association of persons in the industry. Workers join trade unions to achieve their objectives which they could not achieve individually, specifically workers join trade unions due to the following reasons; to attain economic security in other words, securing permanent employment, higher salary and benefits, to improve their bargaining power and balance with that of the management, workers would like to restrain or resist the management's irrational, illogical and discriminatory actions, workers can resist the management by improving their
bargaining power which in turn requires joining in trade unions. Management’s decisions regarding promotions, transfers, work assignment, grievance redressed and disciplinary issues can be challenged by a group of worker, rather than any individual workers, to ventilate the worker’s grievances to the management, to inform workers views, aims, ideas and dissatisfaction/frustrations to the management, to satisfy their Socio-Psychological belongingness needs (Tiwari AK, 1992).

There are some characteristics of trade unions, they are as; the trade union may be an association either of the employees or of independent workers. Trade unions are relatively permanent combination of workers and are not temporary or casual. The character of trade unions has been constantly changing. The origin and growth of trade unions has been influenced by a number of ideologies (Joseph A.A. et.al, 1982).

As trade unionism grows the study of its social implications especially in non western societies attains increasing academic as well as practical importance. Most studies of the trade union movement, however, till now focused their attention on membership, finances, wage structure, labour legislation, agreements and the like. While all these are extremely important, it is also necessary to know how a trade union works on a concrete situation, say, among industrial workers in a given locality or factory. The sociologist’s emphasis is moreover on the pattern of interactions and interrelations between the various sections of a trade union, viz., workers, their representative professional leaders and employers (Bert.K, 1989).

Trade unions came into existence during the period of ‘Industrial Revolution’. The “Trade union” has been defined in various ways by different authors.

According to “Webb and Sydney” (1920), “A trade union is a continuous association of wage earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their working lives”.

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According to "Dale Yoder" (1970), "A union is a continuing, long term association of employees formed and maintained for the specific purpose of advancing and protecting the interest of members in their working relationship".

British Ministry of Labour (1981) defines that, "Trade union as all organizations of employees, including those of salaried and professional workers, as well as those of manual wage earners which are known to include among their functions that of negotiating with employers with the object to regulating conditions of employments"

The term "organized labour" used to distinguish workers/employees who are the members of trade unions and the "organized labour" and "trade unions" are used as synonymous with the term labour movement (Brunello G, 1992).

One of the most urgent problems in a developing economy is the socio-economic adjustment to a process of rapid industrialization initiated and directed. Most often, this problem directly impinges on industrial labour, for it is not only machines but human beings that are involved in the process of economic growth (Martin D.Hanlon, David A. Nadler, 1986).

In the process of transition from an underdeveloped to an industrialized society, the trade unions play a role of crucial importance. They can either effectively hasten or retard the pace of development. Their willing co-operation is a crucial factor in raising the level of production. They are more necessary to induce participation in the upward progress of the economy (Tagllacozzo&Joel S, 1987).

In the industrial relations, discipline, powerlessness has been cited as a causal variable in the unionization (Lowe 1980). Perelman's (1928) theory of unionization has no direct reference to power, but certain scholars (Lowe, 1880) have felt that implicit in the concept of job consciousness is the worker's desire to have control and power over the job. Somers (1962) used power very effectively in his bargaining theory. The union leadership, the economic and
social functions performed by the union, its success in solving member’s problems, and the way union officers may have handled any grievances important, as is the bargaining relationship between the union and the company. The age of the union and the strength of union tradition in the industry may likewise exert a strong influence, as the entering worker is exposed to the attitudes of the older members of the work force.

The ideological unionist is the extreme case of enthusiasm and devotion. Usually sympathetic to one or another of the leftist philosophies, he sees management as an oppressor and union-management relations as an aspect of a class struggle, with both contenders in the grip of larger social forces. While most union activities necessarily center on the employer-employee relationship, the broader goal of a different social order appears to the ideological unionist as one toward which workers should ultimately strive. The strengthening of the union is an important objective, and any heightening of class consciousness is welcomed (Fullagar, et.al, 1994).

The “good” union man” is devoted to his union, accepts its goals fully, and supports all its objectives. Often strongly emotional, he supports his unions strikes without qualification and willingly and enthusiastically. Typically, he gives strong support to the union shop, seeks to sign up new workers in the union, and plays an active part in the union. The ideological unionist has reached unfavorably to the established social order and views unionism as an agency of social change, but the good union man looks to his union to do no more than improve working conditions (Nalini S and Aparna J, 1995).

Though the good union man can accept a position in management more readily than can the ideological unionist, yet he has doubts about it. He may say that management would not consider him because of his known pro-union stand; or he may think he would be suspect in the eyes of his fellows (Viswesvaran et.al, 1993).

Trade unions represent a compelling aspect of modern industrial countries. Opinions about their usefulness and necessity for better industrial
climate differ widely. Union is not merely an economic organization; it is also a social and ethical system, because it strives to re-establish the values in which man has found his dignity and identity (Tannenbaum, 1952). According to Vail (1970), when a worker opts for membership of union, his action is usually the out-come of a decision making process, and, he wishes to satisfy his needs (Iverson, Buttigieg, 1997).

In modern organizational psychology, the influence of trade unionism upon various industrial constructs, e.g., productivity, performance, job satisfaction, job characteristics, etc., has been widely explored and a considerable literature regarding the interdependency of those constructs and trade unions may be found (Singh, 1965; Singh, 1971; Gilme, 1971; Gluskinos and Kesteunan, 1971; Mathew, 1976; Rastogi, 1972, Brumvack, 1972; Thompson and Richard, 1973; Weiner, 1978; Pestonjee, Singh and Singh, 1981).

In a formal sense, trade unions in a democratic society tend to develop and function with in the framework of representation and majority rule. An internal working of a union is governed by its constitution. The union leaders are generally the elected representatives of the members and can be removed from their positions if their performance fails to satisfy the rank and file. Besides, there is a provision in most union constitutions, that the work done by leaders has to be endorsed by the general body of members in periodic meetings. Nevertheless, it has been pointed out by some scholars that while the form of a union is democratic, the practices are often undemocratic. In the first place, many persons who get into positions of union leadership develop in course of time a vested interest in retaining such positions, and hence use their existing authority to weaken the interest and influence of others (Dr. A. P. Singh & N. L. Srivastava, 1985).

Tannenbaum and Khan (1928), likewise, postulated six items to serve as indicators of participation in union activities. These are: (i) number of regular union meetings attended, (ii) number of special union meetings attended, (iii)
number of things done at those meetings, (iv) holding union office, (v)
membership on union committees, and (vi) voting behavior during the last
union election for officers.

The following seven are indicators of union-participation on the basis of
our observations in a preliminary study: (i) union membership, (ii) payment of
union dues, (iii) visit to the union office, (iv) perusal of union notices, (v)
participation in union elections, (vi) active participation in elections to the
works committee, and (vii) participation in important union activities such as
representation to the management, demonstrations organized by the union,
membership raising work, etc.(N.R.Sheth,1975)

The concept of commitment is widely used but has received little formal
analysis. It contains an implicit explanation of one mechanism producing
consistent human behavior. The term “commitment” enjoys an increasing
vogue in sociological discussion. Sociologists use it in the analyses of both
individual and organizational behavior. They use it in the analyses of a wide
variety of phenomena: power, religion, occupational recruitment, bureaucratic
behavior, political behavior, and so on. In spite of its widespread use, the
appearance of the concept of commitment in sociological literature has a
curious feature, which the reader with an eye for trivia will have noticed. The
concept of commitment has been put and the possible reasons for its increasing
popularity indicate the nature of one of the social mechanisms to which the
term implicitly refers, and develops a rudimentary theory of the social
processes and conditions involved in the operation of this mechanism
(Alutto.JA, 1982).

Sociologists typically make use of the concept of commitment when
they are trying to account for the fact that people engage in consistent lines of
activity. The concept of commitment enjoys use in studies of occupational
careers. The committed person has acted in such a way as to involve other
interests of his; originally extraneous to the action he is engaged in, directly in
that action. (Howard.S.Becker, 1960)
The Indian trade union movement has passed through several stages in its career. Periods of frustration and bitter struggle have alternated with occasions of recognition, consolidation, and achievements. It is today a powerful organized group, working at a voluntary level. Around fifty per cent of the non-agricultural work force is unionized. However, unionism is not even. The rate of unionization is higher in large industrial cities. Similarly, older industries such as textiles, jute, railways, etc., have a greater degree of unionization.

The traditional role of unions is to negotiate collective agreements and to protect their members by ensuring that managements adhere to the terms of the agreements. Although the constructs that affect union commitment are the same as those affecting company commitments, events at a workplace will not have the same effects on company and union commitment. Verma (1989) found that a union's involvement in joint union-management endeavors is more likely to result in positive than in negative outcomes for the union (Ramjas, 1989).

The structure of union organization in the country shows that basically, unions are organized at the enterprise level. The next level constitutes their association or federation at the industry level. At the apex, they have affiliation with their respective national centers. Broadly the enterprise level unions devote themselves to job-related questions such as wages and benefits, other rules of work, and problems of the work place. Those organized at the industry level provide a federating link to enterprise unions. In addition, they attend to industry-wide issues and participate in forums dealing with industrial problems. The national centers are involved in political and broad policy issues of interest to unions and workers. This division of tasks is, however, flexible. (C.P.Thakur, 1967)

In more than one way, trade unions have been assigned economic, social and political roles in the national life. Their potentiality has been very rightly recognized by the policy planners in the country. A trade union not only
have an indirect contribution to make through their influence on workers, but within the national economic decision-making process structured scope has been provided for them to contribute in this direction. In all matters dealing with labour, the scope for trade union participation ranges from policy formulation through its implementation (Ramjas, 1989).

In their pursuit of workers cause they do not confine themselves to problems concerning employer-employee relations. They very much influence the workers non-working hours as well. Their interest in social, civic and political affairs probably influences not only the workers, but also the members of their family. The social status of the working class as obtaining today is by no means without substantial contribution from the trade union movement. Unions have effectively contributed to the spread of democratic values and practices in the national milieu (Ganguli HC, 1956).

There are three sets of motivations that lead workers to join unions. They are work rules, socio-psycho-political and economic. So far as work rules are concerned, it would have been noted that workers attached varying degrees of importance to them at the time of joining unions which also influenced their choice of a union. But these differences became narrow over the years, thereby indicating their diminishing role in worker's choice. The need for better work rules continues to stand unsatisfied, but does not matter much. This may be due to a more realistic perception by members of the union's ability to help in this direction. Leveling up of uneven work rule motivations appears to be a natural corollary to the way in which the latter have been brought into existence. Work rule measures have been enacted more or less, through legislative action and are enforced by the government. Unions have little role to play in their formulation-unless indirectly by influencing the sister political party. At best, they can police a proper implementation of these rules which often becomes unnecessary in large and old companies where management policies are formally defined, and various departments are staffed by professionally trained
managers and administrators. Workers may have high hopes about unions in this area (Schriesheim CA, 1978).

Over the past 20-25 years, union membership in most developed countries, including the USA, the UK, Australia and most of Western Europe, has declined markedly (Carter & Cooper, 2002; Visser, 2002). For example, according to the latest statistics available from the US Department of Labour, in 1983, 20.1% of wage and salary workers were union members. In 2001, however, only 13.5% of wage and salary workers were unionized. Likewise, in Western Europe, union density was 42.6% in 1978 which has been reduced to 30.8% in 1998 (Visser, 2002). Previous research suggests a number of reasons as to why unionization has decreased so dramatically during this time, including technological changes, increasing legal protection for workers, organizational efforts to suppress unionization, greater faith in capitalism, and changing social customs (Bennett & Taylor, 2001; Kleiner, 2001).

Fiorito (2001) has argued that positive employer practices reduce the need for unionization and, thus, have served to undercut union support among employees. When employees perceive that their psychological contracts have been breached, they are likely to look for ways to try to restore the benefits they were expecting to receive and to try to protect themselves against future organizational actions that would negatively affect their employment relationship. Consistent with this notion, Fiorito (2001) proposes that positive actions on the part of organizations reduce the need for unions and undermine union loyalty, while, in contrast, the extent to which organizations break their promises to employees should be positively related to union commitment. In particular, in a unionized context, the union is one mechanism through which an employee can attempt to restore equity to the employment relationship (Brett, 1980). Thus, it is expected that psychological breach of contract breach will be positively related to employees; allegiance to their union. The appeal of unionization is that collective action potentially gives employees the means to exert some control over their working conditions (Turley, Bolino, Lester, 2004).
Gordon, Barling and Tetrick (1995) define union instrumentality as ‘the perceived impact of the union on traditional (e.g. wages, benefits) and non-traditional (e.g. job satisfaction) work conditions that define the employment relationship’. Thus, union instrumentality describes the extent to which a union is perceived to be able to put pressure on an employer in order to fulfill the psychological contract. According to Brett (1980), unions are likely to be supported to the extent that they are seen as being instrumental in influencing the behavior and actions of the organization. Union success is dependent on members’ participation (Cornfield, 1993; Fiorito, Jarley, & Delaney, 1995). Yet the issue is whether, or not the union agenda (e.g., bargaining goals, training programs) reflects the needs of the membership. A problem faced by unions is under representation of women in union activities, a problem deepened by the growth of service industries and women’s participation lags behind men’s, the question is dependent on new recruits from these industries and women’s needs are met by the union agenda (e.g., equal pay initiatives, sexual harassment policies). The answer to this question can be addressed to the extent of women’s participation. Simply put, the more that women participate in union activities, the more the union agenda is shaped by women’s needs (Briskin & McDermott, 1993). However, resolving the under representation problem is not easy. Studies on perceived barriers to participation report that women and men differ in their perceptions of barriers, with women reporting that barriers play a more determining role in their participation than men (Gray, 1993; Roby, 1995).

Research on union commitment and participation indicate that it would be difficult to characterize the relationship between industrial-organizational psychology and organized labor as still one of mutual indifference. Much of this research has been motivated by a need to understand the decrease in union membership over the last 55 years. A good proportion of the psychological research on unions has concentrated on the topic of worker commitment to the labor organization that represents them in their place of employment. Whereas the research has focused on creating a measures of union commitment and
determining of the construct. Union participation has always been regarded as a behavioral variable and has been broadly categorized in terms of participation in two types of union activity; formal activities and informal activities. Most measures of union participation tend to emphasize participation in such formal, structured, and administrative activities as voting in offices, contract ratification or strike, attending union meetings, filing a grievance, and serving in an elected office (C.J.Fullagar et.al, 2004).

1.4 WORK CULTURE

The culture around a work place provides a comprehensive framework for understanding the various facts of work behaviour. The concept of culture has been long in use by a number of disciplines in a variety of settings. Culture is the man made part of the environment, it reflects the way of life of a people, their traditions, heritage, design for living, etc. Culture is the very air they breathe and the spirit which permeates their life. It is the totality of beliefs, norms and values (HerKovits 1955).

The two perspectives of culture have been discovered in the literature, culture as a behavioural system and culture as on ideational system ...'. It is through the flow of behaviour .That cultural form find articulation (Geertz, 1973). The patterned regularities in the behaviour of a group of people reflect the presence of certain norms and values which are the cardinal components of cultures (Triandis et.al 1986).

The term ‘equivalent’ in Rohnet’s definition refers to rules and meanings which are shared by most of the people but may also be complementary. The behavioural as well as ideational approaches agree that culture has been acquired and transmitted from generation to generation.

The work culture is a relevant setting for the concern for work (or lack of it); it may be a cluster of organizations located in a geographical or socio-political region having its own features and demands on the people who live in that region. The interacting forces within the region might give rise to a configuration which may be prototypical of the work culture in an organization.
This, in turn, is influenced by the work culture of other organizations located in that region (Gupta OP, 193).

Work culture signifies work related activities and the cognitions, the effect and the values attached to them in terms of the normative structure within a setting. There are different levels and types of settings pertinent to work and work related activities. Hence work culture may be examined at four levels within an organization. They are Organizational goals and objectives and the way they are perceived and reacted to by the employees, Technology of an organization, the structure, work forms, financial position, etc., Social groups, norms, values, power structure, role relation etc., Work behaviour and other work related activities (Tristin Green, 2005).

Developing positive work culture is the most important. The developing of positive work culture is needed at the company or management level and the worker and trade union level, Schools, colleges, universities, administrations, service associations, chambers, political parties and social organizations for better performance.

Managing people at work deals with the process of influence employed by managers to win the favour of their seniors and subordinates in power relationships. Previous researchers (e.g., Ansari and Kapoor 1987; Singh 1988a) have focused on downward or upward strategies with respect to the goals-personal organizational. Unfortunately, there is little information available about the dynamics of influence tactics used separately for seniors and subordinates. Any influence attempt in power relationships varies when the resourcefulness of the power holder and situational demands (Giri DV&Choudhuryd, 2004).

The beliefs, norms and values relating to work centered activities will produce what we normally call 'work culture'. Within the organisational boundaries people on a continuous basis come to interface with goals, objectives, technology, structures, policies, etc. This interface will produce beliefs, values, norms and roles related to work. It is this totality of the various
levels of interacting factors around the focal concern for work which is labeled as work culture'. This interplay of the various factors which produces a certain 'work culture' usually provides the backdrop for organisational performance. If the employees perceive the prevailing work culture as positive, it could lead to effective performance and consequently to organisational success. To generate this positive employee perception, the organisation needs to necessarily create conditions for effective human resource management (HRM) practices. This leads to the hypothesis that proactive human resource management practices can facilitate positive culture which, in turn, will assist performance effectiveness. Another dimension of the emerging environment, which needs to be taken cognizant of, is the changing orientation of trade unions. It is interesting to note that some of the trade unions are reorienting themselves faster than the managements. As a result of the pressures from the new generation of employees who are the present members of unions coupled with the changes in the leadership approaches, several trade unions in the country are exploring alternate ways of managing unions. They have realized that mere resistance to change will not keep them going for long and that the new generation of membership will not blindly follow all directives of trade union leadership. Develop and maintain a conductive work culture organizations have to make conscious efforts. They cannot afford to take either inactive or reactive positions. If they have to successes in the emerging turbulent environment, they have to be pro-active and even interactive, and work towards developing a positive work culture. Culture is man made; organizations can make efforts in creating work culture which will be complementary to employee satisfaction and organisational performance (Chaturanan Mishra, 1994).

Culture and values are the soul of development. They provide its impetus, facilitate the means needed to further it, and substantially define people’s vision of its purpose and ends. Culture shapes our character, personality and actions; it informs where we believe ourselves to be in a society. Over the ages, it shapes the values we live by, as if they were just
common sense; it incorporates our belief structure, and shapes the very fabric of our being. The work cultures consists of, the shared attitudes toward work, the shared beliefs not about this workplace, but work in general, the common expectations about behavior, the "rituals' of work, the traditions of work, and the ‘way things have always been done’. Work culture is determined and driven by the machines, the mode of production. Culture, in which one live of work, drives the advancement of our personal, professional, and business lives. Culture provides the impetus for bringing out the capabilities and possibilities of life; it facilitates the means needed to further those capabilities and possibilities; and culture substantially defines people’s vision of personal, professional and business purposes and ends; it directs the patterns of interaction among people. Culture and values are instrumental in that they help to shape people’s daily hopes, fears, ambitions, attitudes and actions. Culture is also formative, because it molds people’s ideals, and inspires their dreams for a fulfilling life for themselves and future generations. There is some debate in the business world about whether the present work culture and values of our culture are the source from which the most effective state of our personal professional and business lives spring (Evie Lotze, 2004).

The term 'culture' has been extensively used by sociologists, anthropologists, and dominantly by the behavioural scientists. To some, it means the" way things are done around here" or the "personality of the organization". According to Drennan (1992), culture is “how things are done around here”. It is what is typical of an organisation, the habits, and the prevailing attitudes, the grown-up patterns of accepted and expected behaviour. Georgiades (1987) defined it as "a system of shared values and beliefs that interact with a company's people, organizational structures and control systems to produce behavioural norms (the way we do things around here)".

Culture takes time to develop, and after having come into being it acquires an enduring character that is resistant to change. Viewed thus, the culture of an organisation can be characterized as follows: the prevailing
beliefs, norms and values which serve to guide the behaviour of individuals and groups; these are shared by people throughout the organisation; and culture is developed over a period of time. The collective beliefs, norms and values affect the daily behaviour of employees at two levels. The overt level represents observable, intentional and direct changes in behaviour in terms of performance, productivity, discipline, and efficiency at work. The covert level is characterized by obscure, unintentional and indirect influences on behaviour such as commitment to the job, pride in work and motivation, etc. A combination of these elements, high performance culture implies that the employees of the organisation make extra effort to be productive, accept change, do not neglect details, do their best, are willing to try something new, develop their talents/abilities, are proud of their abilities, enjoy their jobs, seek constant improvement and display confidence in the management. Such a work culture promotes high morale, peak performance and higher productivity through most effective utilisation of all resources and elimination of all wastes, material and human, leading to steady growth in the organisation and its member (Rama. J. Joshi, 2001).

According to Peters and Waterman (1982), "Work culture is defined as a system of 'shared values', which results in high performance in organisations"

Tunstall (1983) defines "Work culture as a general concept of beliefs, mores, customs, value systems, behavioural norms ways of doing business that are unique to each corporation". Singh (1985) says that the work culture prevail in the common patterns of feelings and behaviour in an organization.

Sinha (1990) labels work culture as "the totality of the levels of interacting forces around the focal concern. Work culture means work relativities in the framework norms and values regarding work. Work culture has been defined by Walton (1979) as 'the combination of attitudes, relationships, developed capabilities, habits and other behavioral patterns that characterize the dynamics of the organization' (Kavita. Singh, 2001).
Louis, M.R. (1985), while describing how culture develops in organizations stated, “Culture may develop around the top of an organization”. There may be a ‘for-public-consumption’ culture at the top, one deliberately designed by the ruling elite to be passed down through the organization. Secondly, an emergent yet more public culture may also emanate from the top of the organization. It is the second variant that is usually referred to as the ‘corporate culture’.

Umezawa S. (1990) has defined corporate culture as the ‘firm’s specific thinking and behavioral pattern.’ In other works, companies may have distinctive pattern of thinking or beliefs, the former is directly observable among the members of the organization while the latter is in their minds. These definitions stress the following points: culture is specific to one organization. There may be many sub-cultures in an organization. Culture develops through interaction of employees, individuals and group traits and organizational climate. The top management has a role in the development of particular corporate culture. It is a combination of attitudes, relationships, habits and beliefs shared by the employees of an organization.

The cultural phenomenon, when related to work-related activities, gives the concept of work culture. In other words, work culture means work related activities and the meaning attached to these activities in the framework of norms and values regarding work. These activities, norms are values and generally contextualized in an organization (Daftuar, Nair, 2000).

The concept of work has to be modified. Work is not simply a job or a collection of jobs, but rather a system in which people come together with technology, and in which work can be designed both to optimize the best of technology and to elicit significant contributions from people. In an integrated system, all design elements reinforce each other and send similar consistent message to employees. To achieve this kind of system, the following elements need to be stressed upon in the organization: orientation and initiation programmes, job definitions, recognition and reward system, performance
appraisal methods, training opportunities, communication systems and the information they provide, organizational structure, work rules, company policies and how they are enforced, managements' role and modeling by key executives (Gerry Davis, 1997).

These are some of the dimensions which determine the nature of work culture, or in which work culture is manifested. The top management plays a vital role in the development of work culture. The professional approach to management, consensus for the policies, awareness of the changing environment, planning practices and decision making system are some of the characteristics of leadership of the top management.

A good work culture is based upon the level of trust among the employees. If the employees feel that they are a part of the organization and there is co-operation for work, the culture would be supportive for healthy employee relations.

Work culture of the organization can be judged through analysis of its communication processes. Communication can be open, encouraging, inter-unit, top-down, down-top or horizontal. A conducive work culture would be having a rationalized open communication system.

Conflicts are the part of organizational processes. They are inevitable and the quality of work culture can be determined by how conflicts are being resolved. The organization may follow the win-lose, lose-lose or win-win kind of strategies for management of differences and conflicts among employees. Like conflicts, change is also inevitable. Changes may occur in the industrial environment, political set-ups, economic conditions, and technology and management styles. The organizations may vary in their policies to cope with the change. An organization, which is in high-technology, high competition environment and the product, which is manufactured in the organization has short life cycle, and is bound to have inclination towards change (Monica Forret, 2005).
Job satisfaction of employees is another determinant of positive work culture. If the employees have positive attitude towards work, then they will get satisfaction out of their jobs. Job satisfaction and positive work culture have positive relationship with each other.

The characteristic of conducive work culture is the cooperation and team work in the organization. It is not that the actual job is performed in teams, the support from the superiors and peers, the existence and functioning of small group activities, encouragement for formation of informal groups and group incentive schemes are some of the characteristics of team work in the organization.

Trade unions are the link between management and workers. If the trade unions are helping management in the accomplishment of organizational goals, the work culture seems to be good. The identification of employees with the organization is a healthy sign of work culture. The sense of belonging with the company gives positive attitude towards work, and the employees will work hard in case the company is in trouble.

The personality factors of the employees also have deep impact on the work culture of the organization. The employee’s involvement in social activities, informal groups, and level of interpersonal relations determine the nature of work culture. This factor is partially affected by organizations attitude towards formation of informal groups.

For development of work culture, the first and foremost prerequisite is the positive attitude of the top management. If the top management thinks of people principally as a variable cost, then it is most likely to seek changes in technology or in work methods as ways to control costs (Nesbit PL, 2005).

Culture has been conceived linguistically to connote two distinctive meanings. Firstly, in a narrow sense, culture means “civilization” as an outcome of the mind’s refinement. In a broader sense, however, culture, as used by anthropologists, means the shared set or sets of values and attitudes that shape, to some degree, the behavior of a certain society (Hofstede, 1980;
Evans, 1975; Child and Keiser, 1977 among many others). Hofstede (1994) uses the analogy of the computer system to explain the meaning of culture, and argues that culture is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another, it should be noted here that these common features of community members are learned through their life with what one could call the "hardware" of culture. This refers to the social environment in which individuals grow up, attain their life experiences and assimilate their social interactions. People are very much influenced by what they see, hear and learn. They are affected by their families, schools, work environment, television, and by their society. Management and organization are penetrated with culture from the beginning to the end (Tayeb, 1988).

Industrial Relations provide the immediate backdrop for effective organizational performance. On the other hand, it is influenced by the state of work culture that prevails in the enterprise. Therefore, Organizations have to take serious look at the ways work culture has evolved strategies for positive work culture, including changing perspectives, new values of employees, new responses of trade unions, information technology, human resources diversity, etc. Keeping these realities in view, certain strategies such as developing a philosophy, transparent policies, and management by values, redefining the concept of employment relations and discipline management, building learning organizations and empowering people for developing positive work culture, should be devised. Human response is generally a function of the culture that prevails in the work situation. Therefore, developing and nurturing positive work culture is an important dimension of managing organizations (Sing K, 2001).

The Meaning of Working (MOW) International Research Team (1987) conceptualize work culture as the degree of general importance that working has in the life of an individual at any given point of time. It has two components: value orientation and decision orientation. Value orientation
indicates whether working is perceived as central or peripheral to one's self image. When working is perceived as central, the person feels involved in his work and seeks his identity in work. Work serves as a referent for self worth. Decision orientation indicates the centrality of work compared with other life roles, and defines the set of activities consonant with the centrality of work in the life space. Similar, but, more elaborate conceptualization of work culture as been advanced by Super (1982). Like the Meaning of Working team, he defines work culture as 'the importance attached to work'. This importance is understood in terms of two levels of concepts which are commitment, participation and know. Commitment and participation combine to give rise to involvement Commitment and knowledge jointly decide the degree of one interest in work. Participation and knowledge jointly determine of the one's engagement in work (Sinha JBP, 2000).

It is also possible that an organization demands hard work from its employees, enforces strong work norms, maintains strict work discipline and makes profits, but neglects and exploits its human resources. Developing a high performance, culture essentially implies some change. It must be borne in mind that the new beliefs, values, attitudes and behaviors do not develop overnight. It has been seen that culture takes time to develop; the attitudes and behaviors that people depict today as 'habit patterns had developed over a period of time. Similarly, new habits will develop when new behaviour is repeated over a period of time. When we talk of transforming the culture of an organisation or developing a new culture, what we mean is consciously and carefully planning and designing change in work culture. This is opposed to evolutionary development of culture, which is an unplanned emergence of beliefs, values and behaviours concerning work. While evolutionary development of culture reinforces beliefs and behaviours developed in the past, planned or 'architectural' development of culture reinforces beliefs and behaviour needed to support present and future strategy (Conner, 1993).