CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
A literature survey was conducted to become acquainted with the theoretical background regarding Quality of Work Life (QWL) and its predictors besides management education and B-schools. General literature regarding well-being, quality of life and organisational behaviour was consulted, as well as more specifically quality of work life, job satisfaction and specific components of quality of work life. The latter enabled the researcher to identify a set of components to serve as constructs for the study and to be able to define each of the facets of work life.

II.1 EVOLUTION OF APPROACHES TO QWL

There is a plethora of literature highlighting the factors critical for the assessment of QWL (Calson, 1978; Kalra and Ghosh, 1974; Morton, 1977; Rosow, 1980; Srinivas, 1994; Walton, 1973). Attempts also have been made to empirically define QWL (Levine et al., 1984; Mirvis and Lawler, 1984; Taylor, 1978; Walton, 1975). Comprehensive delineation of the QWL concept is found in three major works: Levine et al. (1984), Taylor (1978) and Walton (1975). Other researchers have attempted to measure QWL in a variety of settings using combinations of various questionnaires such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, alienation, job stress, organizational identification, job involvement and finally work role ambiguity, conflict, and overload were studied as proxy measures of QWL. There appeared to be no one commonly accepted definition for quality of work life. Heskett, Sasser and Schlesinger (1994) proposed that QWL, which was measured by the feelings that employees have towards their jobs, colleagues, and companies would enhance a chain effect leading to organization’s growth and profitability. According to Havlovic (1991), Scobel (1975) and Straw and Heckscher (1984), the key concepts captured in QWL include job security, better reward systems, higher pay, opportunity for growth, and participative groups among others. Walton (1974) proposed the conceptual categories of QWL. He suggested
eight aspects in which employees perceptions towards their work organizations could
determine their QWL: adequate and fair compensation; safe and healthy environment;
development of human capacities; growth and security; social integrative constitutionalism;
the total life space and social relevance. In UK, Gilgeois (1998) assessed how manufacturing
managers perceived their QWL in five different industries. Despite the growing complexity
of working life, Walton’s (1975) eight-part typology of the dimensions of QWL remains a
found that QWL companies have a higher growth rate as measured by the five-year trends of
sales growth and asset growth. However, the outcome for profitability yield mixed results on
Walton’s (1974) conceptualisation of QWL. Saklani (2004) stressed that with the ever-
changing technology and increased access to information, the study of organizations with
respect to productivity, efficiency and quality of services very crucial in order to improve the
performance of work in India. The need to improve organizational productivity in the health
care industry has spurred Brooks and Anderson (2005) to develop the construct of quality of
nursing work life. They came out with four dimensions of the conceptual framework namely;
work life/home life dimension, work design dimension, work context dimension and work
world dimension. In another study done by Wyatt and Chan (2001), they found four
dimensions of quality of work life among the predominantly Chinese Singapore sample of
employees. In Malaysia, Mohd. Hanefah et al. (2003), designed, developed and tested QWL
measure for professionals, namely public and government accountants and architects. They
conceptualized QWL as a multi-dimensional construct comprised of seven dimensions,
namely growth and development, participation, physical environment, supervision, pay and
benefits, social relevance and workplace integration. In summary, several studies that have
examined QWL dimensions varied significantly not only across countries but also among
researchers.
II.1.1 Approaches to QWL up to 1969

One of the first substantial research efforts (Schaffer, 1953) that made a break with this restricted view of the worker was conducted at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company. The "Hawthorne studies" brought forth a switch from the objective physical to the emotional aspects of work behaviour. Workers' perceptions of objective factors became a more important consideration in understanding behaviour than the facts of objective reality. In 1953 he was of the opinion that when certain needs of the individual were not fulfilled, tension was created, the amount of tension being directly related to the strength of the unfulfilled need. Schaffer stated that overall job satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual, which can be satisfied in a job are actually satisfied. He espoused that stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfilment.

The differences studied between job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in quality of working life predicts the influence of job satisfaction theories. Herzberg at al., (1959) used “Hygiene factors” and “Motivator factors” to differentiate between job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

An individual’s feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction might be an outcome of their perception, rather than predicting their “real world”. Further, an individual’s perception may be influenced by relative comparison (paid higher / lesser than other person) and comparisons of internalized ideals, ambitions, and expectations, for example, with the individual’s present state (Lawler and Porter, 1966).

II.1.2 Approaches to QWL between 1970 and 1979

Another approach (Lawler, 1975) would focus on the behavioural outcomes produced by psychologically harmful jobs. Phenomena such as rates of turnover, absenteeism, drug
abuse, mental illness, tension related physical illnesses and alcoholism would be measured. This has the advantage of focusing on more "objective" outcomes; however, it has the disadvantage of identifying conditions that produce dissatisfaction only after they have done their damage. Thus, where possible, it is important to identify poor work environments before there are serious negative outcomes. Potentially, measures of the actual physical work environment can also be used to identify poor conditions before problems arise. They also have the advantage of being objective. However, they do not take into account individual differences in how people react to the same work environment.

Depending also what the vested interest is, quality of work life can be defined in terms of the degree to which an organisation's work environment motivates effective job performance, alternatively with the degree to which it safeguards the physical as well as psychological well-being of employees, and in other cases in terms of the degree to which it limits stress inducing factors. High quality of working life has been equated with high employee motivation and also with a high level of employee satisfaction.

*Goodale, Hall, Burke and Joyner (1975)* conducted interviews in which they asked the respondents how they would define the phrase 'quality of life'. The most frequently mentioned components defining quality of life were psychological well-being, the work environment, realizing or working towards one's aim in life and the social environment provided by other people. It is safe to conclude that the work environment is not only one of the most important domains in people's lives, but also contains many of the components of quality of life. Therefore, this domain plays an important part in the individual's general quality of life and sense of well-being.

An individual's work experience can have positive or negative effects on other spheres of his or her life. The more direct relevance of work to the total life space is perhaps best expressed by *Walton (1975)* by the concept of balance. A balanced approach to work should
incorporate work schedules, career demands and travel requirements which do not intrude on leisure and family time on a regular basis. Even advancement in the work place should not require repeated geographical moves. The reciprocal nature of work and family-life balance is debatable as far as cause-and-effect or symptoms are concerned. Sometimes, the employing organisation imposes demands that seriously affect the employee's ability to perform other life roles, such as that of spouse or parent. In other cases, however, work demands are used as an excuse to escape the responsibilities and anxieties of family roles). It is, therefore, not always certain which is a cause and which is a symptom.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) observed psychological growth needs as crucial determinant of Quality of working life. Several such needs were identified; Skill variety, Task Identity, Task significance, Autonomy and Feedback. They concluded that fulfilment of these needs plays an important role if employees are to experience high quality of working life.

A stream of thought, also mentioned by Andrews and Withey (1976), encompasses the wide variety of social judgment theories, equity theory, social comparison and the judgments people make based on values of fairness or justice and the perceived distribution of equities in a group, as well as social judgment encountered in reference group studies. Their basic observation is that people seem to adapt to highs or lows, and, after a while, cease to experience them as extremes, even when the initial external conditions are still there. People have different values and the implication may be that they evaluate differently with regard to work related factors.

The measurement (Macy, and Mirvis, 1976) and assessment of work organizations often focuses on gross financial outcomes. Variables commonly used to represent economic effectiveness include the volume of goods or services produced, the cost of output, and the like. For both practicing managers and organizational researchers, however, these gross
measures are not sufficient for interpreting financial changes or assessing organizational performance.

*Taylor (1979)* suggested Quality of working life as a holistic approach that includes basic extrinsic job factors of wages, hours and working conditions, and the intrinsic job notions of the nature of the work itself. He also viewed other aspects to be equally important such as; authority exercised by employees, employee participation in decision making, fair and equal approach at work, social support, utilizing one's present skills, self growth, a relevant scope of future at work, social relevance of the work or product, effect on extra work activities. Taylor concluded that Quality of working life policies may vary as per the size of organization and employee group.

*Warr and colleagues (1979)* in their survey for Quality of working life, considered a variety of factors resulting in QWL, including work involvement, intrinsic job motivation, higher order need strength, perceived intrinsic job characteristics, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, happiness, and self-rated anxiety. They studied different correlations in their research, such as those between work involvement and job satisfaction, intrinsic job motivation and job satisfaction, and perceived intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction. In particular, Warr et al. concluded that there exists a moderate association between total job satisfaction and total life satisfaction and happiness, with a less strong, but significant association with self-rated anxiety.

**II.1.3 Approaches to QWL between 1980 and 1989**

Successfully managing *(Lawler et al., 1980)* or lacking the ability and resources to manage work stressors affects the self-esteem and impacts on health. When meeting a person, one of the first questions that come to mind is "What do you do for a living?" To a large
extent, people define themselves and others in terms of their work. Thus quality of work life in organisations is a major component of quality of life in general.

*Mirvis (1980)* saw the development in the understanding of work and working people as progressing from the notion that better wages, job security and working conditions contributed to improved performance to identifying the social motives of working people and the social purpose of their lives at work. At that work behaviour was found to be influenced not only by rewards and social relations but also by jobs, information systems, and leaders. Mirvis found that all of these form part of most models used in assessing the quality of work life. Mirvis summarized first conceptions of what a good job entails. Satisfactory work was thought to consist of repetitive and simple activities as it enabled the worker to work fast and accurately, thereby earning recognition. As these monotonous jobs were more thoroughly studied, researchers discovered that the workers performing them would get bored, work sloppily, or stay away from work. The researchers speculated that it was lacking the motivating features of the tasks, the features that satisfied ego and growth needs. Since then researchers have specified the core characteristics of a good-quality job, measured and analysed them, and documented their beneficial effect on employee's motivation and work behaviour. As a consequence, a good-quality job was seen as one that offers variety and autonomy to the worker, a sense of identity with the task, and feedback on how well it is being accomplished. But Mirvis was still not satisfied that the definition of the quality of a job was complete. According to him, workers who know how it feels "to be absorbed in work, to be swept along by it, and to have their efforts in harmony with their endeavours" have found true satisfaction. He sees this feeling as "an integral and fundamental element of the quality of a job". This is not a job characteristic that can be described and measured rationally, it is not solely the result of more or less variety, autonomy, or feedback but has to be experienced and then filled with personal.
Rapoport and Rapoport (1980) concluded that the family’s psychological support and the diversion that it entails make it a crucial factor affecting QWL. Studies also support the facts that a happy family life has a positive impact on the greater job satisfaction and objective career achievement with a directly proportional relationship.

Campbell (1981) considers twelve domains: marriage; family life; friendship; standard of living; work; neighbourhood; city, town or place of residence; the nation; housing; education; health; and the self. According to Campbell, the satisfaction people experience in the domains - self, standard of living, family life, marriage, friends and work – have the greatest influence in accounting for the level of satisfaction people feel with their lives in general. Occupation, for example, will affect standard of living; it guarantees financial security; to a great extent it will have something to do with how satisfied people are with themselves in terms of their achievements, which, in turn, influences their self-esteem. Many friendships and associations are formed with colleagues and through contact with people with common interests while at work. These domains or subsystems are, therefore, interdependent.

The holistic and eco-systemic conception views the world as an open, living system and emphasizes the interaction and interdependence of all phenomena, which implies that the individual organism always interacts with its physical and social environment (Capra, 1982). In a study of quality of work life, one could adopt an eco-systemic approach and try to list all possible variables, catalysts and influences with which someone could interact and which could contribute to his/her general state of being. One could also try to find and elaborate on a quality, which researchers have not yet exhausted, as a possible variable. However, perhaps it is as important to acknowledge that there are certain concerns that all people have in common, at least to some degree.
A general conception is that Quality of Working Life fundamentally relates to well-being of employees but it is differentiated from job satisfaction which solely represents the workplace domain (Lawler, 1982).

Nadler and Lawler (1983) provided a working definition that defines quality of work life as a way of thinking about people, work and organisations. Its distinctive elements are a concern about the impact of work on people as well as on organisational effectiveness and the idea of participation in organisational problem solving and decision-making. They specifically emphasize the importance of the outcomes for individuals in that quality of work life is seen as something that does not just cause people to work better, but how work can cause people to experience a more satisfactory work life altogether.

Chelte (1983) relied on Maslow's theory of higher-order and lower-order needs and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. Maslow's theory suggested the presence of several needs arranged in a hierarchical pattern. Once satisfied, a lower order need can no longer produce motivation in an individual. These needs range from physiological necessities through to self-actualisation. Thus, as lower order needs are satisfied the individual strives for self-actualisation, which can only be fulfilled through more interesting and challenging work. The implication of this approach is that extrinsic rewards are not sufficient to maintain high levels of motivation. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory subscribes to similar principles. His argument proposes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction result from different forces: that dissatisfaction is attributable only to inadequate work conditions (extrinsic factors), while feelings of satisfaction are to be associated only with variations in intrinsically rewarding job factors. These notions emphasized the need to improve the content of jobs. Whereas the human relations orientation focuses on the individual and interpersonal relationships, the human resources orientation has directed its attention to the nature of the job itself. The 'job itself notion revolves around the fit between the job and individual needs as the basis of job
satisfaction. The central feature of this approach to worker motivation is the concept of worker needs. The humanistic perspectives have the assumption that intrinsic involvement in work is tightly connected to positive self-image, satisfaction and the quality of life. For Chelte, therefore, it seems reasonable to argue that the quality of work has an extensive influence on the quality of life that is enjoyed.

The person-environment fit concept has received a lot of attention. It suggests that a person's sense of satisfaction stems from the degree of congruency between the environment, as the person perceives it, and the person's needs or aspirations, as the person also perceives these. Each of the two perceived entities - environment and aspirations - is presumed to bear some relationship to objective reality, though it is granted that the relationship may be less than perfect owing to distortions introduced in the process of perception. The person-environment fit model suggests that satisfactions are probably the result of some comparison between a perception of the environment and a set of needs or aspirations, or criteria.

In his study of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and quality of work life, Chelte refers to Argyris' 1973 theory of the "mature personality" that also emphasizes the notion of individual needs and the lack of "fit" between organisational structures and these needs. According to this argument, modern organisations do not provide individuals with what they "need" from work.

According to Davis, Levine and Taylor (1984), quality of work life is defined by those aspects of work that the organisation's members see as desirable and as enhancing the quality of life at work. This could mean that for no two organisations the definition of quality of work life could be exactly the same. There could be no well-developed or well-accepted definition of the quality of work life, because the concept takes on different meanings for different sectors of the working population. In other words, even in the same organisation the perception of what quality of work life is can differ from group to group. Therefore, it is
suggested by these authors that organisational members should participate in defining quality of work life in their own language and meaning.

_Hartenstein and Huddleston (1984)_ highlighted the fact that for quality of work life to be a reality Management and workers must participate in identifying shared values that are essential to quality of work life and not counterproductive to this end.

_Mirvis and Lawler (1984)_ found in their study that Quality of working life was related with satisfaction with wages, hours and working conditions, describing the “essentials of a good quality of work life” as; safe work environment, equitable wages, equal employment opportunities and opportunities for advancement.

_Work-at-home (Shamir and Salomon, 1985)_ gives the impression that the employee's level of autonomy is likely to be increased by the shift from the factory or the office to the home. The employee at home is less closely supervised and therefore can enjoy more flexibility in the choice of working hours and work patterns. However, the impact of the transfer from the workplace to work-at-home on the level of employees' autonomy may not change; it may even decrease, depending on several factors.

A distinction must be made between "flexi-place," which offers the option to work-at-home and a structural change imposing this arrangement. The former implies the availability of work stations both at home and at the workplace and the flexibility to move between the two at one's own convenience. The latter views working at home as an outside work which imply lower degree of autonomy. The other side of the distant supervision coin is related to a second core job dimension: feedback. The amount of feedback is at least partially related to the number of contacts the worker has with supervisors, co-workers, and clients. Working at home reduces the number of such contacts and is likely to result in reduced feedback. In addition, working-at-home individuals are assumed to consult their feedback sources mainly through the phone and through computer terminals. Although these channels are highly
reliable in terms of transferring the content of the message, they are less efficient in transferring other aspects of the message, such as tone of voice and nonverbal communication.

Various elements of our lives (Deci and Ryan, 1985) are tied to the actions of organisations. Indeed, most adults organize their lives around work. Most individuals spend a good deal of their waking hours in work or job activities; it prescribes how their days are spent and places certain restrictions on them; it determines their living standards and affects their friendship patterns. Work goes beyond just influencing behaviour, however. It plays a major role in the adult's sense of self. Work can embody a number of stressors, but it can also provide satisfaction. Although the nature and conditions of work vary considerably, just as perceptions of what is satisfactorily differ from person to person, there are important similarities that cut across these differences. People depend on work for money. They have to maintain a minimum level of effectiveness. Work is associated with beliefs of "must," "should" and "have to" and it is often described as difficult or stressful.

There are some important attributes (Katz et al, 1985) like economic environment, distributive bargaining, organizational policies, union-management climate. A longitudinal research design sensitive to the cycle of activities that occur in a normal bargaining relationship is critical to evaluating efforts to improve quality of working life.

Warr (1987) depicts quality of work life as the absence of stressors in the work environment, although he gives credit to the role that motivational needs and the importance of growth needs as factors to be present in the work environment play to provide satisfaction. Warr proposes three approaches, all to do with occupational stress. He distinguishes between physical stressors, such as noise, heat, vibration and those that are physical stressors, such as job demands and interpersonal problems. The second approach is to identify separate features in the environment that may give rise to strain. The third approach emphasizes that stress
should be viewed in relational terms, as a process of interaction between the environment and the person. Strain only arises in circumstances where an environmental feature is actively appraised as threatening; and people differ widely in their appraisals. This is often summarized in terms of a distinction between objective and subjective stressors. Different values can be obtained even from people working in the same job.

Warr also refers to the socio-technical systems theory. This perspective emphasises the fact that work organisations are human and technical systems, operating within a wider environment. Any working organisation may be viewed as a combination of technological elements (the formal task, the physical conditions, layout of work, equipment available) and social networks among those who perform the work. They are in mutual interaction, and to some extent each determines the other. In understanding the organisation, we have to think not only in technical, material and financial terms but also in terms of the motives, values, expectations and norms of the people within it. Just as an organisation cannot aim entirely to maximise member satisfaction, so must it avoid attempting only to maximise technical efficiency. This argument leads to the central concept of joint optimisation: when the attainment of a goal depends upon both the social system and the technical system, it is necessary to seek to optimise the two systems in interdependence with each other. Enhancement of employee mental health also depends upon joint consideration and modification of the two systems in interaction.

In an attempt to define the parameters of the quality of life, Mukherjee (1989) denotes that it comprises "an infinite but enumerable field of concerns" and therefore, "the quality of life is treated as an all-inclusive notion of life and living." Variables include those factors that are present in the work environment, the behaviour of the workers and their perceptions of the work environment. From the holistic point of view, namely, the whole is not just the summation of its parts, the assertion is that the integral whole cannot be appreciated by mere
collection of its components, whether or not these are examined as qualitative and/or quantitative variables. According to Mukherjee the only way to appreciate the integral whole is by conducting a general survey, instead of following an analytical approach.

### II.1.4 Approaches to QWL between 1990 and 1999

Career satisfaction is an outcome of the fulfilment of career growth needs of individuals that depends upon intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their career, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Worley, 1990; Rice, Phillips, and McFarlin, 1990). This is contrary to the job satisfaction which is termed as a positive emotional well being and a feeling of happiness derived from appraisal of one’s job or work experiences. Career satisfaction is actually subject to the comparison made by a person, of his/her career and life expectations with those being offered.

The results of a study by Baba and Jamal (1991) indicated the differential impact of two types of routinization at work on the perceived quality of working life among nurses working in hospitals. Whereas the routine in work hours had a positive influence on the QWL, the lack of routine in job content was positively associated with improved QWL. The former linkage between work hour routineness and QWL happens because routinization minimizes the need to actively manage the work context so that individuals can channel their energies toward the job itself. If one were to make constant adjustments in one's life in order to meet work demands, even if those adjustments had a certain predictable periodicity, they would eventually interfere with the harmony of life. The variables comprised job satisfaction, job involvement, work role ambiguity, work role conflict, work role overload, job stress, organizational commitment, and turnover motivation.
The feeling of career achievement is reflected in the willingness to spend extra time at job. It was observed that positive QWL acts as a motivation behind willingly working for long hours that was enjoyed by the executives. It was concluded from the study of managers that the ambition or the desire to excel acts as a catalyst for advancement in career. Researchers in their study on managers and executives have concluded a definite relationship between ambition and career achievement (Cannings and Montmarquette, 1991).

Researchers have also observed that, work-related stress and balancing work and non-work life domains (Loscocco and Roschelle, 1991) affect QWL significantly and should conceptually is considered as determinant of Quality of Working Life.

Nordenfelt (1993) describes a human being’s life as life in an environment with many parts. He enumerates the following: a physical environment - a habitat with its natural resources and its climate; a cultural environment - a society with its constitutions and codes of conduct, with its political system, its traditions and other cultural "expressions; a psychological, close environment - consisting of relatives, friend and co-workers. The different domains are not independent of each other; they tend to form clusters or subsystems within a bigger system. Nordenfelt is of the opinion that by quality of life is meant something that has to do with the values of welfare or well-being. A distinction can be made between external welfare, that is, those phenomena which surround us and continuously affect us, and, on the other hand, our inner well-being, in other words, our reactions to the external world and our experiences in general so that it is an interaction rather than a one way influence of external factors.

Hart (1994) investigated the positive and negative work experiences reported by teachers and how these contribute to their quality of work life. The theoretical model developed by Hart contends that it is psychologically meaningful to distinguish between
positive and negative work experiences and that these operate along separate paths to
determine quality of work life, positive experiences through morale and negative experiences
through psychological distress.

*Oshagbemi (1999)* conceptualises job satisfaction as a general attitude and, therefore,
quality of work life can be described as work environment that is conducive to the forming of
a positive attitude or emotional reaction towards the work environment.

Quality of Working Life is a holistic concept, which not only considers work-
based factors such as job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay and relationships with
work colleagues, but also includes factors that predict life satisfaction and general feelings
of well-being (*Danna and Griffin, 1999*).

**II.1.5 Approaches to QWL in the First Decade of the new Millennium**

*Moen (2000)* measured "effectiveness" of work life strategies in terms of
psychological and personal well-being (what he referred to as life quality). These include:
having a high level of perceived coping or mastery and generally experiencing low levels of
conflict between work and personal life, stress and overload.

*Sirgy et al. (2001)* listed various factors affecting quality of working life as: Need
satisfaction based on job requirements, Work environment, Supervisory behaviour,
Ancillary programmes, Organizational commitment. They observed quality of working
life as fulfilment of these key needs through resources, activities, and outcomes resulting
from participation in the workplace. This model is based at Maslow’s needs theory, covering
Health and safety, Economic and family, Social, Esteem, Actualization, Knowledge and
Aesthetics.

The need to manage diversity (*Kirby and Harter, 2001*) is promoted for four business
reasons, namely, (a) to keep and gain market share, (b) to reduce costs, (c) to increase
productivity, and (d) to improve the quality of management in organizations. Terms like managing diversity have more than linguistic implications. Unless human agents are given attention, it is too easy to forget they exist and then manage them like any other resource. Managing diversity should be the main focus of training programs.

Research by *Saipin Narongrit Supit Thongsri (2001)* deals with the quality of work life and organizational commitment. The objectives of this research were to study the level of the Thaitoyo Denso Company Limited’s staffs’ quality of work life and organizational commitment, to compare the organizational commitment according to personal factors, and also to analyse the factors affecting organizational commitment. The population consisted of all the two hundred employees. It was found that the levels of the staffs’ quality of work life were moderate. Personal characteristics like gender, age, status, education, position, staff salary, and line function caused no difference. All factors of quality of work life had positive correlation with organizational commitment.

The impact of the production regime (*Lewchuk et al, 2001*) on four dimensions of the quality of working life, including employee empowerment, workload, health and safety and management policies, was assessed. It was found that employees had not experienced significant positive gains in the quality of working life or in empowerment in the workplace. Rather, employees continued to find assembly line work arduous and subject to extensive managerial control. Second, rather than finding convergence in employees’ experiences across countries and companies as corporations embraced lean production it was found that patterns of difference between companies on measures of the quality of working life with some tendencies towards cross-country similarities existed. New models of work organisation under lean production are not about empowerment though they are in part achieved through reasserting company control over how hard, how long, and under what conditions employees will work. While participation and improved quality of working life are far from obvious,
employees experienced limited control over their work day and found work arduous and constraining. In the context of intense international competition, institutions of work and internal labour market regulation such as just-in-time (JIT), team working and Kaizen, have challenged established industrial relations regulation.

Productivity (Pranee, 2002) comes from the skills and creativity of an employee in making use of the variety of factors affecting the production of the desired quality services and products by maximizing values added that would best satisfy the employees’ needs to be served. Human resources are a key factor influencing productivity enhancement. Workers can be guided and developed and at the same time can be motivated through better quality of work life. Since employees spend a good part of their lives at their workplaces, a healthy working environment must be supported if productivity gains are expected. Improvements in the quality of work life are able to be accomplished through productivity gains by making the work itself a critical source of satisfaction.

Quality of work life (QWL) includes issues such as occupational hazards and safety, human resource development through welfare measures, professional training, working conditions and consultative work as well as participative mechanisms. QWL also involves schemes for sharing the results from the gains of productivity, use of small group activities, as well as job rotations. QWL is equally concerned with the concerns quality of products and improvements in production, as well as anticipated improvements in performance, productivity and skills. Moreover, QWL issues also address elements such as are involved high motivation, morale, healthy industrial relations and cooperation. QWL in public organizations include human resources development through training, occupational hazards and measures for safety, participative and welfare schemes as well as consultative mechanisms.
Some of the critical factors that impact a workforce’s quality of work life include for example: (a) The physical aspects of QWL, such as working conditions, the conditions of work, and managerial attitudes towards pollution and safety, etc.; (b) The economic aspects of QWL, such as wages and salary administration and considerations for the standard of living that employees need and enjoy; and (c) The psychological aspects of QWL such as the how and what of the assigned work, method to do work, and what kind of work.

The performance of an ophthalmologic department (Labiris, 2002) with respect to glaucoma patients was studied. The patient audit comprised factors like proper diagnosis, proper information dissemination, feeling of security, punctuality of appointments, staff’s professional attitude, and modern instrumentation. The staff audit comprised factors like adequate compensation, safe and healthy environment, commitment to full development, social environment and fostering of personal identity, personal privacy, infringement on family needs, and commitment to social and organizational actions.

Performance factors are objective indices that monitor the overall diagnostic and therapeutic approach towards the patient. Quality control, internal audit and performance audit are considered essential processes and should be adopted by the senior management. These have a direct bearing on the marketing process and strategic planning.

Ellis and Pompli (2002) in their study on nurses identified a numerous factors resulting in job dissatisfaction and quality of working life, including: Poor working environments, Resident aggression, Workload, Unable to deliver quality of care expected, Balance of work and family, Shift work, no involvement in decision making, Professional isolation, non recognition of work, unhealthy relationships with supervisor/peers, Role conflict, absence opportunity to learn new skills.
Work–family balance (Greenhaus et al, 2003) is broadly the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in - and equally satisfied with - his or her work role and family role. This includes positive balance and negative balance. Each component of work–family balance can represent positive balance or negative balance depending on whether the levels of time, involvement, or satisfaction are equally high or equally low. Role engagement can be further divided into elements of time and psychological involvement and three components of work–family balance are:

(a) Time balance: an equal amount of time devoted to work and family roles.
(b) Involvement balance: an equal level of psychological involvement in work and family roles.
(c) Satisfaction balance: an equal level of satisfaction with work and family roles.

Bearfield, (2003) adopted an all together different approach while examining quality of working life with the help of 16 questions, and the findings were surprising when he observed that causes of dissatisfaction in professionals, intermediate clerical, sales and service workers, vary for different groups and suggested that different concerns might have to be addressed based on different parameters.

The time and energy consumed at work must be commensurate to the time and energy devoted to life, thus maintaining family and career balance. As Cascio (2003) analyzed, the efforts must be aimed at enhancing the overall quality of life and shifting the focus from work to life and from balance to quality.

Sadique (2003) conducted a study on the employees of sugar mills and explored a significant difference between the white collar and blue collar employees’ QWL. According to Sadique, a high QWL exists when democratic management practices are prevailing in an
organization and all the managers, employees, workers, union leaders share organizational responsibility.

QWL (Saklani, 2004) is the existence of a ‘work environment’ which is a matter of certain humanistic and life-enhancing work experience characteristics, as perceived by people in the organisations. Certain working conditions and management practices such as, reasonable pay, healthy physical environment, employees welfare, job security, equal treatment in job related matters, grievance handling, opportunity to grow and develop, good human relations, participation in decision making and balance in life are some of the key components of this humanistic and life-enhancing ‘work environment’. QWL covers a wide range of issues both financial and non-financial relating to work context, work content and work relations.

The results of the study revealed that, apart from financial factors affecting primarily the material well-being of a person outside the work place, many non-financial issues (relating to both job content and job context) which satisfy higher order needs of self-esteem and self-actualisation have emerged as being highly important to employees in organisations in India. As against the commonly held stereotype, many factors fulfilling biological and social needs at the work place are relatively less important to the present-day work-force in organisations.

The number of women (Littlefield, 2004) entering the workforce and the incidence of dual-earner families has steadily increased; a trend that seems unlikely to change in the near future. Research on employee values reflects a new trend with employees often placing family interests above career and increasingly expecting employers to help them balance home and work demands. These changes have made it imperative for organizations to consider how their policies and procedures affect family life. Absenteeism, employee turnover, employee morale, and job satisfaction may be directly related to the firm's ability to
offer quality of work-life programs which the employee perceives as important in coping with quality of work-life issues. If employees face problems in simultaneously meeting the demands of work and family, the organization usually suffers in terms of lost time at work and turnover of personnel due to an inability to cope with concurrent family and work demands or to relocate when required by the organization. The conflicts employees have between work and family hinder overall corporate productivity.

Organizations can implement or redesign practices to reflect consideration of the issues facing dual-career couples. As a result, they may avoid the costs resulting from home stress spilling over to work. Creative practices designed to accommodate the needs of working couples are emerging in companies. Practices such as flexitime and childcare are typically assumed to be helpful to dual-career-couple employees with families. However, the actual beliefs of employees are rarely assessed. Employee's perceptions may be a crucial barometer of the usefulness of family support practices in diminishing home-career conflicts and may assist companies in selecting and implementing new benefits while also enhancing corporate productivity. Companies that minimally support and consider employee's family responsibilities in terms of personnel practices may experience decreased acceptance of the organization's values. This may lead to diminished loyalty to the company, decreased willingness to exert effort of work (decreasing worker productivity), and the employee may elect to leave the company in favour of organizations who support quality of work-life programs and practices which employees deem important.

A survey was conducted by David, Joseph and Nora (2008) based on a sample of 219 service deliverers to the elderly in a large Midwestern city. The research on quality of work life was conceptualized in terms of need satisfaction stemming from an interaction of workers’ needs of survival, social needs, ego needs, and self-actualization needs and those organizational resources relevant for meeting them. It was hypothesized that need satisfaction
is positively related to organizational identification, job satisfaction, job involvement, job
effort, and job performance and negatively related to personal alienation. It was found that
the results were consistent with the hypotheses.

*Brooks and Anderson (2005)* compared various works. Walton listed quality of work
life empirical referents like adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy work
conditions, growth, security, social integration, constitutionalism, work life and social
relevance of work. Taylor created a similar list which included two more items, namely,
employer’s quality of work life and societal quality of work life. One more item was added to
the list by Levine, Taylor and Davis which was use of capabilities. In the ninetees, Attridge
and Callahan developed a new list of referents which comprised characteristics of the
organization, nature of nursing work, acknowledgement of value, human and other resources,
collegial relationships and self-career development. Villeneiuve and others compiled a list of
referents like work setting issues, the work itself, personal satisfaction and feelings about
work, work life / home life interactions, management / leadership issues and social / work
world issues.

Pay (*Bhola, 2006*) is a unique incentive as it is able to satisfy both the lower order
physiological and security needs and also higher needs such as esteem and recognition.
Productivity based incentives should be introduced by management and can also be used as
incentives for creativity. Natural lighting and proper ventilation would go a long way is
fostering he right ambience. Safety training and audit should be on a continuous basis.
Research is vital including research through job redesigning. Organizations must have
defined goals and mission statements. Labour unions should be viewed as part of the system.

The study quantified eleven indicators like national and international quality award,
adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy working conditions, immediate opportunity
to use and develop human capability, future opportunity for continued growth and security,
social integration in the work organization, constitution in the work organization, balanced role of work in the total life span, social relevance of work, management perception, collective agreement signed on terms of work.

Individual choices (Serey, 2006) profoundly affect quality of work life. When one chooses maintenance, one tries to hold on to what he has created or inherited. Since people feel that mistakes are more punished than achievements rewarded, there is a reluctance to achieve greatness. Responsibility brings with it an amount of risk. The next dilemma is between caution and courage. Performance reviews mostly influence employees to exert caution in what they do. On the other hand, courage to take small steps towards new avenues requires the support of top management. Another dilemma is between debasement and self enhancement. Also, the choice between dependence and autonomy stares in the face of employees.

Maintenance, caution, debasement and dependence are related to external control where one observes passivity, feeling of helplessness, lowered self-esteem and reaction. Internal control is related to greatness, courage, self-enhancement and autonomy where one observes enhanced vitality, feeling of empowerment, increased confidence and proactiveness.

Worrall and Cooper (2006) found in their recent survey that a low level of well-being at work may cost dear to an organization resulting in a loss of about 5-10% of Gross National Product per annum.

Quality of life (Ballou and Godwin, 2007) describes a person or group’s standard of living, environment, public health and safety, and/or general surroundings while 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. Employee satisfaction is an important tool in attracting and retaining quality workers and developing them into an intellectual capital base that can provide a company with competitive advantage. Organizations are learning that satisfied employees who believe their employers care about them personally are more loyal and dedicated to working effectively and efficiently. Organizations have been suggested to (a) clearly emphasize the overall business priorities and objectives of the organization, (b) recognize and support employees as “whole people” by openly acknowledging and even celebrating the fact that they have roles outside the office, and (c) continually experiment with the way work is done.

A Fortune’s 100 best companies to work for listed the following common benefits: child-care resource and referral, relocation services, career counselling, casual dress every day, elder-care resource and referral, stock options for every category of employees, on-site ATM/banking, adoption aid, mentoring programs, flexitime, subsidized cafeteria, dry-cleaning service, college-planning assistance, reduced-hour employment, tuition reimbursement, home-purchasing assistance, unpaid educational sabbaticals, on-site child care, compressed work week, individual financial counselling, group auto insurance, group homeowners’ insurance, group prepaid legal service, job sharing, take-home meals, telecommuting, no-layoff policy.

According to Royuela, Tamayo and Suriñach (2007), European Commission (EC) proposed ten dimensions for QWL, which are (a) intrinsic job quality, (b) skills, life-long
learning and career development, (c) gender equality (d) health and safety at work, (e) flexibility and security, (f) inclusion and access to the labour market, (g) inclusion and access to the labour market, (h) social dialogue and worker involvement, (i) diversity and non-discrimination, and (j) overall work performance.

QWL has direct impact on human outcomes and it significantly reduces absenteeism, minor accidents, grievances, and quits. It is found that employee turnover can be minimized with better QWL (Newaz, Ali and Akhter 2007).

According to a study by Joshi (2007) to find out the issue of representation of legitimate interests of women workers in its entirety and make suggestions to help policy makers to improve the QWL of women workers, specifically in banking, insurance, PSUs, and hospitals, it was found that the level of satisfaction of women employees with QWL in their respective organization was quite high.

Despite the acceptance (Nam Cam Trau and Emma Jean Hartel, 2007) of diversity management practices by an increasingly growing number of companies, many diversity management programs neglect to include sexual orientation on their agenda. Invisible social identities such as the gay demographic have remained an unexplored area in organizational research on diversity, despite the knowledge that invisible groups encounter different work experiences compared to visible groups. This oversight is surprising given that gay and lesbian employees represent a larger proportion of the workforce than many other groups commonly included in diversity programs. Ignoring sexual orientation in diversity programs sends an organizational signal that diversity only refers to minority groups with whom the organization feels comfortable. Such a stance creates problems for organizations as past research indicates that gay or lesbian job candidates are more likely to choose an employer that is more accepting of sexual orientation. In light of these concerns, research is needed to understand the issues faced by gays and lesbians in the workplace as well as the impact of
diversity management practices aimed at fostering openness toward sexual orientation diversity.

QWL (Chan and Wyatt, 2007) is also found to affect employees’ work responses in terms of organizational identification, job satisfaction, job involvement, job effort, job performance, intention to quit, organizational turnover and personal alienation. In a review of the health and well-being literature there is a linking of people who experience greater QWL with those who also experience higher levels of health and well-being. Other work-related behaviours such as absenteeism, reduced productivity and efficiency also appear to be affected by experienced levels of QWL.

QWL is said to differ from job satisfaction but QWL is thought to lead to job satisfaction. QWL refers to the impact of the workplace on satisfaction in work life (job satisfaction), satisfaction in non-work life domains, and satisfaction with overall life. Some researchers see QWL as a hierarchy of concepts that include non-work domains such as life satisfaction (at the top of the hierarchy), job satisfaction (at the middle of the hierarchy) and more work-specific facets of job satisfaction including such things as pay, co-workers, and supervisor (lower in the hierarchy). In the study, QWL was conceptualized in terms of the satisfaction of six needs including:

(a) Satisfaction of health and safety needs (protection from ill health and injury at work and outside of work as well as enhancement of good health)

(b) Satisfaction of economic and family needs (adequate wages, job security and other family needs such as having enough time from work to attend to family needs)

(c) Satisfaction of social needs (collegiality at work and leisure time off work)

(d) Satisfaction of esteem needs (recognition and appreciation of one’s work both inside and outside the organization)
(e) Satisfaction of actualization needs (realization of one’s potential within the organization and as a professional); and

(f) Satisfaction of knowledge needs (learning to enhance job skills and professional skills).

A study by Dargahi and Saraji (2007) showed that the perceived strongest areas among 12 categories developed by QWL Strategic Planning Committee that employees agreed to improve on their QWL, were communication, leadership, monitory and non monitory compensation, and support. An organization with a high QWL is an organization that promotes and maintains a work environment that results in excellence in everything it does-by ensuring open communication, respect, recognition, truss, support, well being and satisfaction of its members, both personality and professionalism.

A study by Kaushik and Tonk (2008) revealed that three dimensions of personality: extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness are positively correlated with the QWL. Agreeableness is primarily a dimension of interpersonal tendencies. People high on agreeableness have altruistic characteristics. It is tempting to see the agreeable side of this domain as both socially preferable and psychotically healthier. The main characteristics of conscientious people are strong-will, purposefulness and strong determination. Conscientiousness is the degree of organization, persistence, scrupulousness and the need for achievement. In other words, conscientious individuals are dependable, hardworking, achievement orientated, and persevering. Conscientiousness has been most consistently related to performance across jobs, because it assesses those personal characteristics seen as necessary for success. Extroversion means liking for people, preferring large groups and gatherings. Extroverts are assertive, active and talkative. They like excitement and stimulation and tend to be cheerful in disposition. They are upbeat, energetic, and optimistic.
The direct benefits of QOL, QWL and health programs (Ventegodt et al., 2008) were: Lowered absenteeism, Improved health, Less stress, Better ability to solve conflicts, Improved personal development, Higher efficiency, Improved commitment to work, Better co-operation, Improved communication, Better leadership, Improved organizational image, Individual life and health management. The indirect benefits were: Lowered medical costs, Higher productivity, Healthier retirees and older workforce, Higher value to society, More innovation and Improved competitiveness.

Social Policy Agenda (Royuela et al., 2008) defines QWL by looking at both the existence of paid employment and the characteristics of the employment. It is a relative, multidimensional concept. In its broadest definition, it involves taking into account:

(a) objective characteristics of employment, including the wider work environment and the specific characteristics of the job

(b) worker characteristics—the characteristics the employee brings to the job

(c) the match between worker characteristics and job requirements

(d) the subjective evaluation (job satisfaction) of these characteristics by the individual worker.

Skinner and Ivancevich (2008) urged that QWL is associated with adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy working conditions, opportunities to develop human capacities, opportunities for continuous growth and job security, more flexible work scheduling and job assignment, careful attention to job design and workflow, better union-management cooperation, and less structural supervision and development of effective work teams.

Wilkinson (2009) theorized that to attain effectiveness, a company must enhance the quality of work life through more challenging, satisfying jobs coupled with the involvement and commitment of their employees. This notion promotes understanding and responsibility
which when combined with open communication can help an organization become more responsive to the needs of its employees.

The aim of quality of work life culture is to create a fear free organization in which employee involvement is pursued vigorously. It generates a high degree of reciprocal commitment between the needs and development of the individual, and the goals and development of the organization (Ivancevich, 2009).

Two major factors (Rao and Venugopal, 2009) influencing quality of work life from previous research were found to be (a) work environment and (b) employee welfare. These were the result of various studies undertaken between 1974 and 1988. The sub-areas under work environment comprised democracy, individualism, power distance, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, supportive management, personal growth and autonomy, nature of job, stimulating opportunities, co-workers, task content, supervision, resources, promotion, job mobility, quantity and quality of leisure time created by job, safety and health and work relevance to society.

The sub-areas under employee welfare comprised security equity, cultural differences in value dimension, equitable pay, job security, healthy social relations, seniority, adequate compensation and social integration. Factor analysis employed in the study revealed four factors: favourable work environment, personal growth and autonomy, rewarding nature of job, and stimulating opportunities and co-workers.

Service industries (Kandasamy and Sreekumar, 2009) are becoming increasingly important to the economies of developed nations and managers of service organisation affirm that their employees are the most valuable asset. This contention is particularly relevant for the service sector, which is largely dependent on the encounter between employees and customers. In spite of this acknowledged connection not much attention has been paid to the conditions of the work environment that forms the basis for service oriented employees, and
low QWL may affect the quality of services and organisational commitment. Moreover, QWL programmes can lead to greater self esteem and improved job satisfaction and satisfied employees are more likely to work harder and provide better services. Yet, despite such importance of QWL for the employees in the service sector, there is hardly any research, which elucidates the employees’ expectations of the QWL elements.

QWL is defined as the favourable condition and environment of employees benefit, employees” welfare and management attitudes towards operational workers as well as employees in general (Islam and Siengthai 2009).

Quality of work life is simple - it involves giving workers the opportunity to make decisions about their jobs, the design of their workplaces, and that they need to make products or to deliver services most effectively. It requires management to treat workers with dignity (Schuler, 2009). Its focus is on employees and management operating the business together.

Quality of work life (Jagannathan and Akhila, 2009) is not a unitary concept, but incorporates a hierarchy of perspectives that, not only include work-based factors, such as job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay and relationships with work colleagues, but also factors that broadly reflect life satisfaction and general feelings of wellbeing. More recently, work-related stress and the relationship between work and non-work life domains have also been identified as factors that should conceptually be included in QWL. A study was conducted on salesmen in a particular organization.

It was found that goal attainment, supportive dynamic structure, holistic job factors have a positive influence on the QWL of the salesmen, whereas balanced target setting factor has a negative influence on the QWL of the salesmen. It was suggested that the organization can provide customized training depending on the calibre of each salesmen, and reduce the
monotony of long working hours by switching them between different product lines and branches easily.

Certo (2009) believes that quality of work life is the degree of opportunity of workers to make decisions that influence their work situation. The greater the opportunity of workers to make such decisions, the higher the quality of work life is said to be. Workers would like to make decisions, that tend to create the following: (a) jobs that are interesting, challenging and responsible; (b) worker rewards through fair wages and recognition for worker contributions; (c) workplaces that are clean, safe, quiet and bright; (d) minimal but available supervision; (e) secure jobs that promote the development of friendly relations with other system members, and (f) organizations that provide for personal welfare and medical attention.

II.1.6 Approaches to QWL since 2010

A quality of work life cultural underpinning anchors the development of total quality and is essential to a successful Total Quality Management (TQM) strategy (Thomas, 2010).

The increasing effects (Koonmee et al., 2010) of factors such as globalization, information technology, world business competitiveness, and limited natural resources have changed people's views of how a good company is defined. In parallel to the importance of ethics; QWL and job-related outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been important topics in human resource (HR) and organizational development (OD) since the beginning of 1960s. Ethical culture develops in an organization from people's values, policies, and activities. When organizations create an environment that makes their employees behave or act persistently according to their ethical values and policies, those organizations are considered to have institutionalized their ethics.
The results of the study at Thailand indicated that manager's job satisfaction and organizational commitment are significantly related to lower-order QWL, while manager's team spirit is significantly related to higher-order QWL. Therefore, in order to increase employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment, firms should try to enhance the lower order QWL (i.e., meeting health/safety needs; providing good pay and job security). In contrast, in order to boost employee team spirit, firms should try to enhance higher-order QWL (i.e., collegiality at work, recognition/appreciation of work, realization of one's potential).

Ethics institutionalization positively influences QWL which will, in turn, enhance job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and team spirit. It fortifies the proposition by many ethics scholars that ethics and business can coexist well in the long term. Since QWL, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and team spirit are generally recognized to be essential factors in organizational productivity and performance, the research findings that these variables have positive relationships with an organization's ethics institutionalization further verifies the importance of ethics to business organizations — and, it is important to note that this conclusion appears to apply to developing, non-Western economies as well.

Quality of work life is the favourableness or unfavourableness of a total job environment and working conditions that are excellent for people as well as for the economic health of the organization (Newstrom and Davis, 2010).

In essence, quality of work life represents a desired end – a state that emphasizes the importance of providing opportunities for employees to contribute to their jobs as well as to receive more from their jobs. It is an alternative to the control approach of managing people. This approach considers people as an “asset” to the organization and that people perform better when they are allowed to participate in managing their work and make decisions (Normala, 2010). The quality of work life philosophy hinges on changing and improving the
work climate so that the interface of people, technology and the organization makes for a more favorable work experience and desired outcomes.

Luthans (2010) consider quality of work life as an attempt to develop more satisfying work conditions through the collaborative efforts of management and employees. Many popular qualities of work life projects provide opportunities for growth in the workers’ personal and professional lives. Some popular quality of work life activities includes problem solving, meetings with representatives of management, labor and members of product development to settle conflicts or misunderstanding, open communication channels and promoting the feeling of trust and confidence in the organization.

Robins (2010) considers Quality of Work Life as a process by which an organization responds to employee needs by developing mechanisms to allow them to share fully in making the decisions that design their lives at work.

As an integral component of the organization’s culture, quality of work life constitutes the norms, standards of behavior and attributes that informal groups involve as a result of the organization systems, structures and processes that impinge on them (Saklani, 2010). It reflects the employees’ reactions and feelings about how work is designed, the way it is distributed and organized, which later are communicated to organization members and finally coordinated to achieve organizational goals. Provisions for quality of work life facilitate the performance of gainful work. Unlike the job enrichment and social information processing approaches, quality of work life is not based on a particular theory, nor does it advocate a particular technique. Work life is concerned with the overall climate of work (Luthans, 2010).

Reece and Brandt (2010) consider quality of work life as an attempt to develop more satisfying work conditions through the collaborative efforts of management and employees. Some popular quality of work life activities includes problem solving, meetings with
representatives of management, labor and members of product development teams. There is considerable evidence that employees who are truly empowered and work within a participatory, problem solving framework are more committed to the organization.

Reddy and Reddy (2010) in their conceptual paper on Quality of Work Life (QWL) describe QWL as a comprehensive construct that includes an individual’s job related well-being and the extent to which work experiences are rewarding, fulfilling and devoid of stress and other negative personal consequences. The QWL has been encompassing more factors like education level, job aspirations of employees, association of workers, significance of human resource management, widespread industrial unrest, and human behaviour. The elements of QWL comprise health and well-being, job security, job satisfaction, competence development and the balance between works with non-work life. Different groups need to take responsibility such as employers, workers, professional organisations, government, and managers. Therefore, quality circles, management by objectives, suggestion system and other forms of employees’ participation in management help to improve QWL in the industry circles. Techniques to improve quality of work life include job redesign, career development, flexible work schedules, and job security. If any organization properly adopts these techniques, the QWL will certainly be improved to the desired levels.

Gupta and Sharma (2011) conducted a study on QWL of BSNL employees in Jammu, India. The factors determining the satisfaction with the quality of work life in the organization were Adequate Income and Fair Compensationl, Safe and healthy working conditionsl, Opportunities to use and develop human capacity, Opportunity for career growth, Social integration in the work force, Constitutionalism in work organizationl, Eminence of Work Life and Social relevance of work.

The world economies (Sheel et al, 2012) have recently recovered from recession blues and the continued restructuring, downsizing and reorganization in the post recession scenario
have created havoc for HR managers as they have to struggle with preserving staff morale and job satisfaction. In this scenario, high quality of work life is essential for organizations to continue to attract and retain employees. This is the reason QWL concept has gained momentum recently and researches are going on worldwide to find out inputs for framing effective QWL strategies.

A study was conducted (Kara, 2012) to examine gender differences on perceptions of employees’ quality of working life indicators in five star hotels in Turkey. 443 hotel employees participated in this study. Quality of work life was measured using 7 dimension and 16 items scale. All these dimensions were investigated with respect to gender variable. According these results male employees reported significantly different mean scores in health and safety needs, actualization needs and knowledge needs in quality of working life indicators. However; economic and family needs, social needs, esteem needs and aesthetic needs factors were not statistically significant.

A study (Kashani, 2012) to survey the relationship between quality of work life and organizational citizenship behavior in Delshad Company applied tests to establish relationship between quality of work life and its dimensions with organizational citizenship behaviour. The tests showed that amongst all nine QWL dimensions, “constitutionalism” and “total life space” respectively were more effective than other variables. All variables apart from “adequate and fair compensation”, “safe and healthy environment” and “social relevance” were on a desirable level. Tests also showed that there are no meaningful relationship between demographic characteristics with quality of work life and organizational citizenship behavior.

A study was (Indumathy and Kamalraj, 2012) undertaken to look into the Quality of Work Life among Workers with special reference to textile industry in Tirupur District (textile hub) in South India. The investigation has remarkably pointed out that the major
factors that influence and decide the Quality of Work Life are attitude, environment, opportunities, nature of job, people, stress level, career prospects, challenges, growth and development and risk involved in the work and rewards. It was highlighted that work life balance must be maintained effectively to ensure that all employees are running at their peak potential and free from stress and strain. Organization need to focus on their workers and improve their quality of work life so that attrition, absenteeism and decline in workers’ productivity can be checked.

A cross-sectional survey (Almalki et al., 2012) was used in a study and data was collected using Brooks’ survey of quality of nursing work life and demographic questions. A convenience sample was recruited from 134 Public Health Centres (PHC) in Jazan, Saudi Arabia. The Jazan region is located in the southern part of Saudi Arabia. A response rate of 91% (n = 532/585) was achieved. Findings suggested that the respondents were dissatisfied with their work life. The major influencing factors were unsuitable working hours, lack of facilities for nurses, inability to balance work with family needs, inadequacy of vacations time for nurses and their families, poor staffing, management and supervision practices, lack of professional development opportunities, and an inappropriate working environment in terms of the level of security, patient care supplies and equipment, and recreation facilities (break-area). Other essential factors include the community’s view of nursing and an inadequate salary. More positively the majority of nurses was satisfied with co-workers, was satisfied to be nurses and had a sense of belonging in their workplaces. Significant differences were found according to gender, age, marital status, dependent children, dependent adults, nationality, nursing tenure, organizational tenure, positional tenure, and payment per month. No significant differences were found according to education level of PHC nurses and location of PHC.
A study by Mohamed and Mohamad (2012) investigated the correlation between QWL and job satisfaction, QWL and performance, and job satisfaction and performance. A total number of sixty three nurses were selected from three government hospitals on a stratified random sampling basis. The findings reveal that there was significant positive correlation between QWL and job satisfaction. A significant positive correlation was also found between QWL and performance, and job satisfaction and performance. QWL had the highest contribution to performance. Perceptions of QWL and job satisfaction were significantly higher among the respondents in small organizations than in larger ones. Morning shift nurses perceived higher QWL and job satisfaction than those in the night shift. Night shift nurses were suffering from more security problems than the nurses of other shifts. Thus, it was suggested to keep the hospitals lighted to certain extent and allow nurses to work in small groups. This would provide the nurses not only a feeling of security but also an opportunity to interact with each other, which in turn would lead to improved and congenial working relationship in the hospitals.

A study (Sinha, 2012) was undertaken to explore the factors of quality of working-life experiences in organizations. The study focused on 100 employees holding middle managerial positions in various organizations. The results showed that three factors came out from the “Quality of Working Life Experiences” component. The following variables formed the first factor: Job Satisfaction, Family-Responsive Culture, Employee Motivation, Organizational Support and Compensation. The second factor was formed by the following variables: Career Development and Growth, Flexible Work Arrangements, Emotional-Supervisory Support and Rewards and Benefits. The third factor was formed by the following variables: Communication, Organizational Commitment, Organizational Climate and Emotional-Supervisory Support.
Employee Relations (ER) issues (Sundaray, 2013) are influencing the success of any organisation in terms of profitability, survival, competitiveness, adaptability and flexibility. Organizations have realised this and recognised the importance of human resource for their success and survival. For optimum utilisation of the existing work force, the managements have given proper attention towards major ER issues such as employee empowerment and involvement, collective bargaining, employee suggestions, grievance and conflict management, and union-management relations to develop sound and cordial employee relations climate. Though there are some areas which need to be taken care of by the managements, they are committed to continual improvement of employee relations by considering their employees as stakeholders. As a result of which, employees are more satisfied with their jobs and committed towards the organisation.

Thus labour-management relations are significantly contributing towards improvement in quality of work life of employees along with achievement of prime objective of the organisations. However, its success depends upon the commitment and attitudes of the three stakeholders- management, union, and the employees of the organisation. The changing aspirations and needs of today’s workers require the union to adapt and adjust to the volatile situation. Unions can play a constructive role in the QWL efforts by supporting and cooperating with the management.

Strategic ER enables both management and unions to adapt a more integrated approach toward conflict and encourages the development of healthy labour-management relations. It not only enhances the individual efficiency but also improves the organisational effectiveness by reducing accidents, work stoppages, grievances, absenteeism and turnover of employees. In general, one of the key outcomes of strategic ER is enhanced quality of work life which developed the whole gamut of human life by improving not only the quality of work life, but also the Quality of Life (QoL) of the employees.
A study on the existence of QWL in small-scale industries was executed with regard to importance of QWL factors. Study revealed that QWL is not highly prevalent as per the view of employees.

Valarmathi and Bhalakarishnan (2013) studied the effects of quality of work life on employees and its implications for working policies and practices. The survey was conducted amongst employees in textile sector in Coimbatore region. Several remarkable factors that influence quality of work life were noted. They were: Fair Compensation; Healthy Working Conditions; Safety; Opportunity to develop Human Capabilities; Opportunity for Career Growth, implementing alternative programs, etc. QWL provides for the balanced relationship among work, non-work and family aspects of life. It was suggested that family life and social life should not be strained by working hours including overtime work, work during inconvenient hours, business travel, transfers, vacations, etc.

It was suggested by Sankar and Mohanraj (2013) that employees who have great culture tend to have high expectations in the quality of work life and Job satisfaction. Thus companies can concentrate on organization culture by providing adequate QWL conditions. It has been proved that the QWL factors are essential for promoting a strong work culture. A good human resource climate and work culture can develop belongingness towards the company and also that would motivate them to do the job well.

II.2 PRINCIPLES OF QWL

According to Herrick and Maccoby (1975) there are four basic principles, which will humanize work and improve the Quality of Work Life.
II.2.1 Principle of Security

Quality of work cannot be improved until employees are relieved of the anxiety, fear and loss of future employment. The working conditions must be safe and fear of economic want should be eliminated. Job security and safety against occupational hazards is an essential precondition of humanization of work.

II.2.2 Principle of Equity

There should be a direct and positive relation between effort and reward. All types of discrimination between people doing similar work and with same level of performance must be eliminated. Equity also requires sharing the profits of the organization.

II.2.3 Principle of Individualism

Employees differ in terms of their attitudes, skills, potentials etc. Therefore, every individual should be provided the opportunities for development of his personality and potential. Humanization of work requires that employees are able to decide their own pace of activities and design of work operations.

II.2.4 Principle of Democracy

This means greater authority and responsibility to employees. Meaningful participation in decision making process improves the quality of work life.
II.3 EXTRINSIC JOB FACTORS

II.3.1 Adequate and fair compensation

Even though accepted operational measures are not available to judge the adequacy of income from work and the fairness of compensation, the two factors are important determinants of the quality of working life. A positive relationship (Walton, 1975) between standard of living and mental health has been recorded in many national populations. Some research has found that people with higher incomes are more satisfied with their pay; and others have obtained similar results in respect of perceived fairness, relative to one's own and others' responsibility and skill level.

II.3.2 Physical Work Conditions

Moen (2000) studied effective work life strategies regarding work conditions. Work-hour preferences were found to be a characteristic related to quality of life. A significant predictor of quality of work life is whether or not respondents are working the hours they see as ideal. Those wishing to work fewer hours on the job tend to experience more conflict between work life and personal life, more stress and more overload. Existing structural constraints, policies and practices prevent significant numbers of employees from working the hours they would like, with important consequences for their well-being regarding work conditions. Work-hour preferences were found to be a characteristic related to quality of life. A significant predictor of quality of work life is whether or not respondents are working the hours they see as ideal. Those wishing to work fewer hours on the job tend to experience more conflict between work life and personal life, more stress and more overload. Existing structural constraints, policies and practices prevent significant numbers of employees from working the hours they would like, with important consequences for their well-being.
The comfort dimension of job satisfaction assesses the employees' reactions to aspects of the job, which include travel to and from work, the physical surroundings, the work hours and sufficient time to complete assignments. According to Payne (1987), the physical environment, such as architecture, equipment, noise, lighting, decoration and use of plants, is likely to make an impact upon a person's achievement, affective satisfaction, and psychological strain. Stein (1983) mentioned any decent working conditions, subject to the constraints of the particular setting, task, or technology.

II.3.3 Promotion Prospects

Promotion is said to be happened when an employee makes a shift in the upward direction in organizational hierarchy and moves to a place of greater responsibility (Dessler, 2008). Promotion can make a significant increase in the salary of an employee as well as in the span of authority and control. It will help the competitors to identify the most productive employees in the business world at the same time the employees are being recognized by their own organization. The employees themselves feel to be an effective contributor and thus will be more satisfied with their job.

Status is the place of the individual in an organization or a group when compared to others within the hierarchy. Being an abstract concept status is characterized with esteem and respect shown by other people (Huberman and Onculer, 2004). Whatever the position is being appreciated for a good job, or being accepted as a qualified employee and being respected for his/her knowledge status is a cause of motivation for every employee. On the other hand, promotion is the advancement of an employee to a higher rank with more responsibilities. Having a fair promotion policy in the organization is an important factor increasing motivation. Because in a working place promotion means rewarding success. A promoted employee obtains both a higher status and a higher wage. A promotion obtained
due to knowledge and skill can help individuals improve their other talents; On the other hand, if a promotion is not deserved, it can cause anxiety and stress about increasing responsibilities.

Apart from job satisfaction, the employee satisfaction is determined by satisfaction with promotion. When employees perceive that there are golden chances for promotion they feel satisfied for the respective place in the organization (De Souza, 2002).

Promotion can be used as an incentive tool. It is a way of rewarding the employees for meeting the organizational goals thus it serves as a mean of synchronizing organizational goals with personal goals (Lazear and Rosen, 1981). According to Rosen (1982) the deciding factor for the position of any individual in the hierarchy is his talent, higher the level of talent in any individual higher will be his position in the hierarchy. Promotion has its importance due to the fact that it carries with it a significant change in the wage package of an employee (Murphy, 1985). Thus, a raise in salary indicates the value of promotion (Baker et al., 1994).

Promotion follows a defined set pattern which is outlined in the employment bond (Doeringer and Piore, 1971). In this highly competitive corporate world, promotion can help the competing firms to trace the most productive participant of one organization to be worth hiring for another organization (Bernhardt and Scoones, 1993). In such a way the promotion highlights am employee in the external environment and realizes his worth in the internal environment.

According to Carmichael (1983) promotion enhances the yield of an organization when an employee climbs a promotion ladder on the basis of his seniority and resultantly he gets an increased wage rate. However, according to Baker et al. (1988), promotion does not consider to be an incentive device, thus the optimal results cannot be generated by promoting the employee in the organization. There is a more failure rate when the employees are hired externally than when they are promoted internally (Kelly-Radford, 2001).
The impact of wage raise, a result of promotion, is found to be more significant than fixed income on job satisfaction (Clark and Oswald 1996). According to Shields and Ward (2001) the employees who are dissatisfied with the opportunity available for promotion show a greater intention to leave the organization. Pergamit and Veum (1999) established that greater the chances of promotion higher will be the job satisfaction of employees.

A worker (Chelte, 1983) who feels over-qualified (promotion overdue according to promotion policy) for his job will almost always be concerned about his possibilities for promotion. There are of course reasons other than satisfaction for wanting promotion, the most obvious of which is more pay, but surveys reveal almost universally greater concern with promotion than with pay or other job aspects. With promotion, different needs can be involved such as more power, more pay, more status, sense of achievement and new challenges. Comparable questions, items and clusters show that this is generally the job aspect with which satisfaction is lowest. The promotion dimension utilizes items such as the good chances for promotion, and the employer is interested in providing opportunity for advancement.

II.3.4 Benefits

Monetary compensation is an essential component in recruitment and retention process; but benefits are equally important and can often be the deciding factor in whether an individual accepts an offer or even stays. Switzer (2008) concludes that as the competition increases for library employees with the skills and knowledge that most academic libraries need, many libraries rely on their benefit packages to give them the leading edge. It is pertinent therefore that present day human resource specialists are well informed about the various benefits available so that they can adequately manage recruitment and employment.
Academic institution typically offer a wide range of benefits to their employees; and as university employees, academic librarians are afforded the same institutional benefits as other university employees. These include retirement plans, medical care, sick and annual leave, sabbatical leave, study leave, maternity leave, child care, pension benefit, sponsorship to conferences and workshops, leave bonuses, on campus accommodation, and so on, which are referred to as university supported benefits. Libraries, in addition to these can also make some benefits available to its employees. The onus is on the human resource specialist who must be aware of benefits offered by other libraries to ensure that his library is not left behind. Some library supported benefits have monetary value while some have no financial impact.

Benefits are the usual benefits Ducharme and Martin (2000) that flow from work, including pay, promotion or position, rank and status, privilege of position, security and fringe benefits (Chelte, 1983; Stein, 1983). found extrinsic rewards to have a statistically significant effect on overall job satisfaction, but compared to other job stressors it had the least influence,

II.3.5 Job Security

Employers should be sensitive about the motivation of their employees under any circumstances for the interest of their organizations (Celtek, 2004). Because employees are not machines running on physical power but social beings thinking, feeling and being affected by their environment. For this reason, trying to understand employees can make them feel valued and inspire them to work harder on the quality of their work.

Factors motivating employees can occur in various forms. In fact, job security is one of the most influential means of motivating employees particularly in times of economic downturn. Employees’ belief that they will not lose their jobs or they will be employed in the
same organization as long as they want is a significant reason for motivation. Therefore, job security is one of the most significant variables of employee satisfaction which expresses the general attitude of the employee towards his/her job (Bakan and Buyukbese, 2004).

Job security (Sirgy et al., 2001) is associated with feelings of security about future employment, for example, feeling secure knowing that one is not likely to get laid off.

Job security plays an important role in both social and working life because it helps individuals do not worry about their future, contributes to maintaining labour peace, increasing organizations’ productivity and protecting social balance and values. For this very reason, in order not to cause employee’s prestige loss in society, employees should not be dismissed from the organizations without reasonable grounds, because job security has political and social dimensions. Therefore, if in a country employees are dismissed without showing a reason, it is difficult to talk about social order, peace and stability (Well, 2001).

Moen (2000) studied effective work life strategies regarding work conditions, gender and life quality. Job insecurity was found to give rise to stress symptoms and overload, as well as higher levels of intrapersonal conflict concerning work and personal life.

Today unemployment is an important problem almost every country suffers from. Although the reasons may show variety, job security seems to be in decrease in every part of the world. The most prominent reasons for decreasing job security can be cited as technology, internationalization of capital, demographic change and government policies (Smith, 1999). From this aspect, today’s business world is experiencing a difficult period in terms of both employees and employers. Job security, which is crucial for an employee in terms of keeping his or her job or finding a new job, is also important for the employers since it enables them to keep their employees or find new ones.
II.3.6 Safe and healthy working conditions

Having a secure job and being protected against income loss, physical dangers, crime and risky duties are parts of employee’s safety need. And within the concept of job safety, job security which guarantees the continuity of employment is also an important safety expectation. The assurance that they will work at the same job for long years eliminates questions and worries about future, which is perceived as a part of job safety (Telman and Ünsal, 2004).

In terms of physical working conditions, working atmosphere and social rights, a safe environment should be supplied. Particularly in organizations related to production, the purpose of the safety regulations is to minimize work accidents. Physical, biological and chemical risks in the workplace, work speed, working hours, employee empowerment, communication networks, job definitions, information sharing and technological facilities are all important elements determining working conditions of a workplace (Pailhe, 2002).

Fear of being dismissed from the organization is an element of oppression for the employee. The behavioural change caused by this fear is felt more obviously particularly in economies with limited employment opportunities. For example results of the research by Probst and Brubaker (2001) show that motivation of employees lowers when they perceive job security negatively, their attitudes change towards not obeying the rules and this leads to an increase in job accidents.

It is widely accepted in our society, as well as enforced by law, that workers should not be exposed to physical conditions that are unduly hazardous or detrimental to their health (Walton, 1975). Hence health and safety are important aspects.
II.3.7 Resources adequacy

Resource adequacy has to do with enough time and equipment, adequate information and help to complete assignments (Chelte, 1983).

II.3.8 Job Demands

Too little demand leads to boredom, just enough to excitement, and too much to breakdown (Janssen, 2000). It was found that those in demanding jobs are especially vulnerable to overload and stress.

Ducharme and Martin (2000) found that high job pressure is inversely and significantly related to satisfaction.

Workers are required to accept certain goals, often imposed as task demands arising from their job description. This is one of the aspects that is a normal requirement of a job, but when there is too much of it, it can be experienced as stressful (Warr, 1987). Job demands can be described as psychological stressors. This refers to what the person is required to do, and particularly to the quantity and quality of work to be done. Jobs that simultaneously demand high quantity and high quality within little time can be particularly stressful. Such situations can be very challenging and exciting, so it all depends on the strength of the demands.

II.3.9 Fellow Workers

The emphasis on esprit de corps in organisations necessitates that we pay greater attention to the role of co-worker relations in determining the nature and quality of work life. Hodson (1997) found that the effects of co-worker relations on job satisfaction and on good relations with management are substantial, often more than those of job characteristics.
Conflict and infighting among fellow workers are associated with lower job satisfaction, while worker harmony is associated with greater job satisfaction.

Supportive co-worker relations (Chelte, 1983) appear to be part of a favourable environment. A measure for relations with fellow workers is the amount of interpersonal contact and communication in the job.

According to Stein (1983), people need to be treated with dignity and respect under all circumstances. This could form part of one's satisfaction with fellow workers as respect is normally expected from people one works with.

II.3.10 Supervisors

Frone (2000) developed and tested a model of interpersonal conflict at work in a sample of young workers. The model predicts that conflict with supervisors is predictive of organisationally relevant psychological outcomes, such as job satisfaction.

A demanding job (Moen, 2000) and job insecurity are associated with low life quality, while supervisor support appears to be an important component of high life quality. It was found that employees with supportive supervisors experience far better quality of life.

Koberg et al. (1999) found that feelings of empowerment are more likely in a work group with an approachable leader who encourages the worth of the group and that these feelings are positively correlated to job satisfaction. Superior leadership occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their followers and when they emphasize the purposes and mission of the group.

Yuki (1998) sees supporting, developing, recognizing, rewarding and conflict management supervisor behaviour as conducive to good quality working relationships. It is more satisfying to work with someone who is friendly, cooperative, and supportive than with someone who is cold, hostile or uncooperative. Some forms of supporting behaviour reduce
the amount of stress in the job, higher job satisfaction is likely to result and less unhealthy consequences such as alcoholism and drug use. Overall extensive research demonstrates that subordinates of supportive leaders are usually more satisfied with their leader and with their job. Yuki mentions the following behaviours that are associated with supportive leadership: acceptance and positive regard; polite and patient, not arrogant and rude; bolster self-esteem; recognition for achievements and contributions by each employee; assistance with the work when needed and help to overcome bureaucratic obstacles and willingness to help with personal problems.

*Pool (1997)* hypothesized that leadership behaviour indicating friendship and respect between the leader and subordinates would have a significant and positive impact on job satisfaction and it did prove to be a powerful predictor. He also suggested that an inverse and significant relationship would exist between the leadership behaviour in which the leader organises and defines the relationships in the group and job satisfaction. He demonstrated that the higher the level of this leadership behaviour, the lower the level of job satisfaction. When the leader dictates how the job is to be performed, this results in little room for autonomy and creativity.

The transformational type of leadership, as described by *Bass (1990)*, is characterized by qualities such as consideration for followers, as well as the ability to inspire and intellectually stimulate followers. The transformational leader meets the emotional needs of each follower by paying attention to their particular development needs. Followers are assigned tasks with those needs in mind, as well as the needs of the organisation. People with high needs to develop, who need to be creative, to do challenging work and to master skills and achieve goals, will be particularly very satisfied with this type of leader and their satisfaction with their work life will be increased.
Davis et al. (1984) made use of a step-by-step Delphi analysis to develop a definition and measure of quality of working life. Their results identified the degree to which superiors treat subordinates with respect and have confidence in their abilities as significant predictor of quality of working life.

Bateman and Organ (1983) found a correlation between leader behaviour perceived as positive by workers and specific facets of satisfaction. Satisfaction with supervision and promotional opportunities was found to be more important than pay, co-workers and the work itself. The rationale seems to be that the immediate supervisor represents the most direct source of variance in events that arouse a felt need to reciprocate or that influence positive affect.

II.4 INTRINSIC JOB FACTORS

II.4.1 Job Content

Davis, Levine and Taylor's (1984) analysis to develop and define a measure of quality of working life resulted in the identification of variety in the daily work routine, challenge of work, good future work opportunities and contribution to society as significant predictors of quality of working life.

Thurman's (1977) analysis found several aspects of a 'good job.' These are variety, learning opportunities, the possibility of organising one's own work, mental challenge, growth and being given a chance to do the things one does best. He also found that there is a need to create jobs that are more meaningful and creative and that such jobs are more satisfying and give a greater personal stimulus to development than specialized, routine tasks.
II.4.2 Variety

Observations of workers (Warr, 1987) before and after the introduction of greater variety into their jobs made it clear that highly repetitive work gave rise to low satisfaction.

II.4.3 Opportunity to use and develop human capacities

With regard to opportunities to use and develop abilities and skills in a job, Walton (1975) questions whether a particular job allows for substantial autonomy and self-control relative to external controls; permits the learning and exercise of a wider range of skills and abilities, rather than a repetitive application of few skills; obtains meaningful information about the total work process and the results of one's own actions, in order to appreciate the relevance and consequences of one's actions; embraces a whole task in order to provide meaningfulness; embraces planning as well as implementation activities; contributes to maintaining and expanding one's capabilities; and provides the opportunity to use acquired knowledge and skills in future work assignments.

II.4.4 Control or autonomy

This is the degree to which a work environment permits (Stein, 1983) an individual to control activities and events. Freedom of action, discretion, influence, power, participation in decision-making and decision latitude on the job is inseparable from a high quality of work life.

II.4.5 Meaningfulness

Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason (1997) investigated the effect of dimensions of psychological empowerment on satisfaction. They report that most empirical research has shown a strong link between meaning and work satisfaction and this was also confirmed in
their research. They base their choice of this dimension on literature that emphasises the importance of the degree to which an individual finds work personally meaningful as precondition for work satisfaction. They also refer to the link between meaning and satisfaction in the transformational leadership literature, where it is argued that a sense of meaning results in increased motivation and satisfaction.

II.4.6 Autonomy

In their study, Ducharme and Martin (2000) found autonomy to be the strongest predictor of overall job satisfaction compared to complexity, pressure and income.

Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe and Ryan (2000) described activities related to autonomy as something not enforced by the external environment, but rather performed out of interest and enjoyment.

This dimension was found by Spreitzer et al. (1997) as being a critical determinant of satisfaction and was considered a key component of intrinsic motivation.

II.4.7 Initiative

High discretion (Payne, 1987) tends to be associated with more loosely defined jobs, such as those given to senior managers. Some jobs can be clearly laid down, but leave the person discretion within the boundaries specified. Others may require even a manager to check with a senior before taking any decision that is not strictly a routine task. The balance between the degree of clarity in the role and the amount of discretion allocated to it is important, for between them they determine the degree of control the person has over his or her environment. Control is becoming a central concept in the stress literature, where lack of it seems to increase people's perceptions of stress which leads them to experience emotional strain.
Some researchers take a very strong position (Greenberger and Strasser, 1986) regarding the importance of personal control; they posit that persons are motivated to seek control and that the possession of control is necessary for the individual’s wellbeing. As an important aspect of work, this will translate into the sense that people are given opportunities to use their own initiative in the execution of their work, are involved in participation in decision-making and are able to influence certain outcomes.

II.4.8 Recognition

Recognizing is one of the behaviours of leaders mentioned by Yuki (1998). It involves giving praise and showing appreciation to others for effective performance, significant achievements and important contributions. According to Yuki, recognizing is one of the most neglected managerial practices, even though it can be one of the most effective for building commitment, increased job satisfaction and improving working relationships. Most studies that measured positive contingent reward behaviour using questionnaires found a positive correlation with subordinate satisfaction.

Recognition means being known as an individual and being visible not only personally but as a contributor (Stein, 1983).

II.4.9 Progress and development

These are among the benefits we derive from work. They include the internal rewards available from the organisation: challenge, exercise of competence, development of skill and a sense of accomplishment (Stein, 1983).
II.4.10 Challenge

The amount of challenge a person has in a job is noticeable in development of abilities, freedom to decide on work control methods, degree of interesting work and a chance to see results of work (Chelte, 1983).

II.4.11 The social relevance of work life

Organisations seen not to be acting in a socially responsible manner, for example honouring human rights, will cause increasing numbers of workers to depreciate the value of their work and careers which in tum affect their self-esteem (Walton, 1975).

II.4.12 Clarity

Low levels of clarity, or high uncertainty, are generally found to be detrimental, especially over long periods of time. Warr (1987) describes three types of clarity: information about the results of behaviour in the form of feedback about the consequences of action is a minimum requirement for the establishment and maintenance of personal control and for the development and utilization of skills; task feedback for learning promptly about outcomes; information about the future and information about required behaviour, also referred to as role ambiguity. Low clarity about future career developments was found to be significantly associated with high levels of job dissatisfaction, job-related depression and job related anxiety.

Payne (1987) considers the degree to which job content is specified and the degree to which the incumbent is given discretion about what, when and how he or she does the job. Roles can be very clearly defined with detailed written instructions, or they can be left unspecified and ambiguous. There is a correlation between role clarity, role ambiguity and role conflict. Clear jobs create less ambiguity and lead to less conflict among the role-holders.
of associated jobs. A meta-analysis of results relating these role variables to measures of job satisfaction shows that both role conflict and role ambiguity relate to lower satisfaction and more signs of psychological and physical illness.

II.5 SOCIAL FACTORS

Since work and career are typically pursued within a framework of social organisations, the nature of personal relationships becomes an important dimension of the quality of working life.

II.5.1 Social Support

In their study, Ducharme and Martin (2000) suggested that social support arises from affective support and instrumental support. Affective support provides the recipient with feelings of being accepted and cared for by co-workers, while instrumental support involves functional and material assistance in response to specific needs in the execution of work. They expected to find that workplace relationships may be a source of satisfaction and may contribute directly to overall job satisfaction regardless of stresses and rewards encountered at work. In fact, when comparing the estimates for the two social support variables, both forms of co-worker support have significantly positive effects on job satisfaction, but instrumental support appeared to have made a relatively stronger contribution. In their study, it was the third strongest predictor of satisfaction with work.

Meir, Tziner and Glazner (1997) studied the importance of group membership to job satisfaction. They found that the importance of groups emerged more significantly as an independent predictor of job satisfaction over time. Because social support has its source in the work group, this may explain why groups may be a considerable factor in determining job satisfaction. Placing importance on the work group results from the perception that it can
provide social identity and opportunities for social interaction and helps in surmounting psychological and functional obstacles in organisational life.

Membership in work groups marked by patterns of reciprocal help, socio-emotional support and affirmation of the uniqueness of each individual, could have an effect on individual's satisfaction. A sense of community and the way members of the work organisation relate to one another about their ideas and feelings have a positive effect (Walton, 1975). The social climate can modify the effects of negative job conditions. At the individual level, the social relationships surrounding a person (climate) have been shown to have important consequences for mental health and even physical well-being. Social support occurs in the form of comfort and emotional security, direct help with things like money or practical assistance and information, which can help people to solve their problems and reach decisions about their situation.

II.5.2 Friendship Opportunities

Reported friendship opportunities (Warr, 1987) at work are significantly positively correlated with job-related mental health. Support received from one's co-workers and boss is found to contribute significantly to a range of context-free variables, such as low anxiety, depressed and somatic symptoms and high self-esteem and subjective competence.

II.6 ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Organizational culture is shaped by the organisational experiences of the employees (Telman and Ünsal, 2004).

Organizational climate is also perceived as a tie between members of the organization because behaviours of the individual change in parallel with organization’s demands. Since employees’ co-workers, superiors (supervisors) and their own individual characteristics are
effective in the perception of climate, the concept of organizational climate is also seen as the psychological atmosphere of the organization. Therefore, organizational climate is related to motivation (Efíl, 1993).

Organizational culture is a system of values, beliefs and habits which shape behavioural norms designed to realize the same goals and activate mutual perception between members of the organization (Mandy and Noe, 1987).

Another important factor affecting job motivation is organizational climate which is closely related to organizational culture. Organizational climate is the atmosphere resulting from employees’ expectations about their employment in the organization and their perception of how much these expectations are met (Schwartz and Davis, 1981).

II.6.1 Autonomy

The extent to which employees (Joyce and Slocum, 1982) are allowed to plan and schedule their work as they choose to, as determined by rules and regulations and actions of co-workers.

II.6.2 Structure

There is an important relationship between employee motivation and organizational structure. For example, employees’ ability to reach top management without an agent and the awareness that top management is accessible to all employees strengthens the commitment to the organization. On the contrary, when a strict normative or hierarchical ladder makes top management inaccessible, this situation affects employees in an undesired way (Pfeffer, 1994).
According to Walton (1975), important contributing attributes to a member’s self-esteem are the absence of stratification in work organisations in terms of status symbols and/or steep hierarchical structures and the existence of upward mobility as reflected, for example, by the percentage of employees at any level who could qualify for higher levels.

James and Jones (1974) refer to the degree of structure imposed upon the position as closeness of supervision. The extent to which superiors actively direct or intervene in the activities of their subordinates has an effect on subordinates who value autonomy (Joyce and Slocum, 1982). This study will therefore focus more on initiative and autonomy than on satisfaction with the structure itself.

The debate with respect to structure (Forehand and Gilmer, 1964) centres mainly on "flat" (few layers in the hierarchy) versus "tall" (many layers) structures, although no conclusive evidence has been found that one contributes more towards satisfaction than the other. There was evidence, however, of interaction between size and shape of the organisation: in relatively small organisations the extent to which managers report their needs to be satisfied was higher for flat than for tall organisations, but in larger organisations reported need satisfaction was greater for tall organisations. Experimental studies indicate that satisfaction with job and results are greater in structures with a wider spread of participation. Participation, opportunities to contribute in a creative manner and to be able to use initiative and autonomy are factors that are influenced by structure.

II.6.3 Reward

Prendergast and Topol (1996) mention the possibility that organisations use bureaucratic rules in pay and promotion decisions to protect themselves from accusations of favouritism and to limit the prospects of mismanagement of compensation practices. Another factor is that when money is involved there is a tendency toward leniency (Brody, Frank and
Kowalczyk, 2001). Organisations tend to give too much weight to non-corruptible measures such as seniority in compensation and promotion decisions. From this it is clear that an organisation's reward system and how it is perceived in terms of fairness are closely related.

The cost to the system (Deci and Ryan, 1985), however, in signifying good performance through the use of performance contingent rewards, is that many people end up receiving the message that they are not doing very well, and this is likely to be de-motivating and give rise to dissatisfaction.

While merit (Joyce and Slocum 1982) pay plans are supposed to motivate and reward employees, the extent to which adequate rewards are available within the organisation and are contingent upon performance determines the effect. Theories of human motivation suggest that merit pay encourages employees to excel at their job and will produce positive results, but there are potential threats that may lead to negative outcomes. Whenever extrinsic rewards are used, it is probable that they will have a negative effect on the people's intrinsic motivation. Competitive contingent rewards were said to be the most detrimental. However, rewards that are appropriately linked to performance, representing positive feedback in an informational context, ought not to be detrimental.

The reward system of an organisation is based on factors of reward, promotion opportunities and achievement orientation (James and Jones, 1974). Rewarding normally involves tangible benefits for effective performance, significant achievements and helpful assistance. Research indicated that contingent rewards often increase motivation and satisfaction although results were not significant in every study. It is essential to be fair and objective when deciding how to allocate rewards, otherwise it can give rise to more dissatisfaction than satisfaction. Rewards should be based on performance indicators that reflect a person's effort and competence.
II.6.4 Leadership

Studies of leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2001) began around the 1930s. Earlier approaches, such as the situational or contingency models focused on identifying the behaviours or styles, which appeared to predict effective outcomes depending on various situational contingencies. However, when organisations were faced with constant change during the 1970s and 1980s these approaches did not provide all the answers. During the early 1980s a major paradigm shift in approaches to leadership from 'transactional' to 'transformational' transpired. A range of studies, conducted across the world, substantiated the notion that transformational leadership has a strong positive relationship with a range of outcome variables, including objective measures of organisational productivity, as well as subjective evaluations, such as greater job satisfaction and commitment, and lower levels of stress.

Tracey (1998) investigated similarities between transformational leadership and fundamental managerial practices and found some empirical support for the validity of Bass and Avolio's transformational leadership construct. In using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, researchers found significant relationships between subordinate ratings of leader effectiveness and satisfaction with their leader and transformational leadership across a number of settings. In addition, there is some evidence that transformational leadership is significantly related to other relevant outcome variables, such as follower perceptions of role clarity, mission clarity and openness of communication. Tracey concluded from his study that the behaviours that are unique to transformational leadership are non-traditional approaches to solving problems, making decisions and improving work; the focus on the personal development of followers and the promotion of a future orientation such as articulating a compelling vision and fostering a strong sense of purpose. In addition, a regression analysis showed that the composite transformational leadership measure accounted for a significant
proportion of variance in ratings of leader effectiveness, beyond that accounted for by a managerial practices scale.

*Ulmer Jr. (1997)* thinks that a healthy organisational climate enhances the development of individual leadership, while successful leadership contributes to the strength of the organisational climate. According to him, leadership and discipline go hand in hand and good leaders must establish themselves as firm, competent and fair. In troop units, he reckons, to be sensitive to people's needs is fine for moral reasons, but the emphasis should be on accomplishing the leaders' mission efficiently.

*Bass and Avolio (1990)* devised the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Transformational leadership has become one of the most prominent topics in current research and theory on leadership. Much empirical work on transformational leadership is being done, according to the many doctoral dissertations, theses and reports that are being gathered at the Centre for Leadership Studies of which many focus on satisfaction. Managers who behave like transformational leaders are more likely to be seen by their colleagues and employees as satisfying and effective leaders than are those who behave like transactional leaders, according to their colleagues', supervisors', and employees' responses on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Similar results have been found in various organisational settings.

Bass found the two approaches to be independent and complementary. According to Bass's theory, transactional leadership entails an exchange between leader and follower in which the leader rewards the follower for specific behaviours, and for performance that meets with the leader's objectives, while non-conformity is criticized or punished. On the other hand, superior leadership performance occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and
mission of the group and when they move their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group.

*Bass and Avolio (1990)* elaborated on this basic definition and designed the Full Range Leadership model on which the leadership development programme employed in the SANDF is based. They proposed that transformational leadership comprises four dimensions. The first dimension is idealized influence and is described as behaviour that results in follower admiration, respect and trust. The second dimension, inspirational motivation, means that the leader communicates high standards of performance and is reflected by behaviours that provide meaning and challenge to followers' work. The third dimension, intellectual stimulation, implies that leaders solicit new ideas and creative problem solutions from their followers and encourage alternative and new approaches for performing work. It makes it possible for followers to be more independent and autonomous. The fourth dimension is individualized consideration. This reflects leaders who listen attentively and pay special attention to follower achievement and growth needs. It is the goal of the SANDF to establish a transformational leadership style as part of the preferred culture by developing leaders to be more transformational in their behaviour.

*Field and Abelson (1982)* saw organisational climate as created by leadership styles. The degree to which management is sensitive to the interests, needs and aspirations of the managers reporting to them is one such leadership characteristic.

*Forehand and Gilmer (1964)* asked the question whether leadership is truly characteristic of organisations rather than simply of certain individuals. There is some evidence that organisations can be reliably described in terms of typical leadership practices as persons in leadership positions control significant organisational properties. As the climate of an organisation is also supposed to prescribe what behaviours are acceptable and what not, a particular style can be more the acceptable norm than others.
II.6.5 Goals

In the model of *Field and Abelson (1982)* the goals and the functions of the organisation form part of organisational climate. The goals of the organisation are a given and to some extent the satisfaction of the individual member will depend on how well his own needs and goals are aligned with that of the organisation. However, the aspect about goal direction that contributes most to satisfaction is the extent to which the sub-goals chosen to accomplish the overall goals are unambiguous and clearly defined.

II.6.6 Equity and Fairness

Organisational justice is another concept related to equity and fairness and is described by *Scandura (1999)* in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional forms of justice. Distributive justice is defined as the individuals' perception that the outcomes that they receive are fair. Examples of distributive outcomes are pay increases, promotions and rewards for performance. Procedural justice is defined as an employee's perception that the procedures followed by the organisation in determining who receives benefits are fair. An example of procedural justice is whether or not consistent rules are followed in making decisions regarding rewards and allocation of resources. Research on justice has indicated that members will accept a decision if procedural justice is followed, even if the distributive outcome is less than what an individual expected. For example, a low pay raise would still be accepted if the organisation's procedures of performance appraisal and rewards were seen as being followed in the determination of the raise. Interactional justice involves the manner in which superiors communicate organisational justice to followers.
Meindl (1989) affirms the opinion of other researchers and theorists that an equity-parity contrast exists. According to him, "equity" is relevant to perceived entitlements based on relative contributions or inputs, while "parity" is sometimes referred to as equality, calling for resources to be distributed equally to all.

Walton (1975) regards equity as part of the constitution of the work organisation. The constitution involves decisions regarding matters such as equal opportunity, privacy and the right to openly express opinions, as well as the right to equitable treatment in all matters including for example, the employee compensation scheme, symbolic rewards and job security.

Runciman (1966) described the term 'relative deprivation' as the authors of a large-scale social psychological study of the American army originally called it during the Second World War. Instead of a definition the following description is given: If A, who does not have something but wants it, compares himself to B, who does have it, then A is relatively deprived with reference to B. Similarly if A's expectations are higher than B's, or if he was better off than B in the past, he may when similarly placed to B feel relatively deprived by comparison with him. A strict definition is difficult but we can say that A is relatively deprived of X when (i) he does not have X, (ii) he sees some other person or persons, which may include himself at some previous or expected time, as having X, (iii) he wants X, and (iv) he sees it as feasible that he should have X. Possession of X may mean avoidance of or exemption from Y. To be able to judge whether one is being treated fairly, it is theorized that one must compare oneself with others who are presumably getting more of what one wants.

II.6.7 Consideration, warmth and support

Suls, Martin and David (1998) refer to research that indicates that conflicts with other people are among the most frequent and potent sources of distress in daily life. However,
they also maintain that there are individual differences insofar as conflict is experienced as distressing. According to their findings, individuals who are motivated to maintain positive relations with others became increasingly distressed as the number of interpersonal conflicts increased during the day.

*James and Jones (1974)*, as well as *Joyce and Slocum (1982)* mention warmth and support, leader support and nurturance of subordinates and the degree to which supervisors maintain warm and friendly relations as important aspects in satisfaction. One aspect considered to be a sign of warmth and support in an organisation, is how effectively conflict is resolved.

**II.6.8 Initiative**

*James and Jones (1974)* considers factors in the organisation that are based on how members are treated in terms of individual responsibility and opportunities for exercising individual initiative as important for satisfaction with organisational climate,

**II.6.9 Motivation to Achieve**

The degree to which members of the organisation (*Joyce and Slocum, 1982*) are viewed as attempting to excel, to address difficult problems, or to advance themselves will ultimately affect standards and consequently the satisfaction of members.

**II.6.10 Communication**

*Orpen (1997)* found that among managers, both job satisfaction and work motivation were positively affected by the quality of communication within their firms.
II.6.11 Participative Management

Yuki (1998) sees the involvement of subordinates mainly as a responsibility of the leader. Participation is likely to increase the quality of decisions when participants have information and knowledge the leader lacks and the opportunity to have some influence over a decision usually increases commitment. Other benefits are increased acceptance of decisions by subordinates, decision-making skills are developed and conflict resolution and team building is facilitated. The outcome criterion in most participation research was overall satisfaction and performance of subordinates, rather than satisfaction with the way a particular decision was handled or commitment to implement that decision effectively.

Participation (Wagner, 1994) is a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchically unequal. Participatory management practices the balance between the involvement of managers and their subordinates in information processing, decision-making or problem-solving endeavours. Many managers, leaders and a number of researchers share the belief that such practices have substantial, positive effects on performance and satisfaction at work. Wagner's research suggests that participation can have statistically significant effects on performance and satisfaction, but the average size of these effects is small enough to raise concerns about practical significance.

Forehand and Gilmer (1964) contend that an organisation in which personnel policies are participative, democratic and unstructured, will differ from one whose practices are non-participative, authoritarian or structured in that employee satisfaction will be higher. However, there is evidence that the hypothesis may be true for some jobs or some parts of an organisation, but not for others.
II.7 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

When Hochwater, Ferris, Perrewe, Witt and Kiewitz (2001) realized that previous research assessing the relationship between age and job satisfaction provided mixed results and no stable conclusions could be drawn from it, they statistically controlled variables, such as gender, supervisor and position status and affective disposition. Their results portrayed relationship between age and job satisfaction. Reasons proposed for such a relationship are that younger employees have high expectations, have a limited understanding of what makes a satisfying job and earning money is enough satisfaction for them. Later on they may realize that their expectations are not met, they find out more about other types of job opportunities and the incentives may not be as enticing any more. More rewarding, upper level positions are not available to younger employees and more mature people who earned these positions experience more satisfaction. It was also suggested that the power and prestige inherent in senior positions contributes to higher levels of satisfaction among older people.

Faubion, Palmer and Andrew (2001) conducted a study among vocational rehabilitation counsellors to determine perceived differences between rural and urban employees. The results indicated that rural counsellors were more satisfied than urban counsellors with extrinsic factors, such as office location, safety in the office, parking and surrounding areas and safety in job related travel. Additionally, rural counsellors reported being more satisfied with the healthiness and various comfort factors of their work environment. However, no differences were found related to overall job satisfaction and other demographic variables, such as gender, race, age, education and work experience.

Ducharme and Martin (2000) found that older workers and workers in higher status occupations are significantly more satisfied with their jobs. However, when job rewards were held constant, the significant influences were reduced to non-significance.
Moen (2000) found that some characteristics of the work environment predict quality of work life differently for men and women. Autonomy on the job is positively related to coping or mastery for men and negatively related to their experience of overload. Having the option to negotiate work hours is related to lower overload for women, while being able to work at home tends to predict fewer stress symptoms for men. Working a varying job shift is associated with overload for men and tends to be linked to men's work/life conflict.

Koberg, Boss, Senjem and Goodman (1999) reported findings that individuals at higher levels of the organisation, who traditionally hold the most power, and individuals with more seniority in the organisation feel more empowered, while variables such as gender and race (Whites and non-Whites) had no significant effect on feelings of empowerment. Their findings further suggest that workers who feel empowered, irrespective of position, have increased job satisfaction.

Looking at cross-cultural variations in predictors of satisfaction with life, Diener, Lucas, Oishi and Suh (1999) found that financial satisfaction was more strongly associated with satisfaction with life in poorer nations, whereas satisfaction with home life was more strongly related to satisfaction with life in wealthy nations.

Mutran, Reitzes, Bratton and Fernandez (1997) researched gender differences against other variables, such as age, career phase, education and occupation in order to explore their assessment of the quality of time spent at work and their satisfaction with work. They had the expectation that men and women who are better educated, have higher income and may have experienced fewer difficulties with occupational mobility would be more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. They also surmised that highly educated individuals would be less satisfied with their work, because of elevated, but potentially unfulfilled expectations.

On the other hand, it can be assumed that individuals with prestigious and higher paying jobs will be more positive in their subjective responses to work. Their research
results showed that there are no overall differences in the way that middle-aged working men and women perceive their jobs. In their research it was found that as far as work conditions go, men are more likely than women to hold upper-level occupations, to have more variety in their jobs, and to exert more self-direction in their work than women. As they expected, they found that those with the greatest education tend to be less satisfied with their work.

They concluded that education contributes to having more alternatives to consider. They further found that it is more often women (African Americans more than Whites) than men who assess the quality of time at work in a positive light in terms of meaning and purpose. Married persons too have a positive assessment of their time at work, as well as those who have more autonomy and self-direction at work and those whose work is non-repetitive.

Pool (1997) did not find that professional orientation correlated with a significant positive effect on job satisfaction. As far as needs are concerned, it is generally proposed that management jobs require people to exercise power more than non-management jobs do, and that managers as a group have a higher need for power than most other workers.

Nordenfelt (1993) commented on environmental influences. The physical environment within which the individual functions, forms the basis for his or her actions, that is, it provides the opportunity to indulge in various activities. These opportunities vary in different parts of the country. Cities provide the opportunities for entertainment, better education, information and better medical facilities. Rural areas provide opportunities to be close to nature, clean air and open spaces. Nordenfelt refers to a study Veenhoven presented in 1984 where 245 studies by researchers, mainly psychologists, investigated the importance of various background conditions for happiness and satisfaction. The demographic factors did
not come out as strong predictors, but the correlation between happiness and such factors as education, intelligence and general activity were still evident.

It was found that (Landy, 1989) different levels of satisfaction were related to different occupational levels, with the highest occupational level (professional, managerial and executive) being accompanied by the highest satisfaction. There were more unskilled manual workers who reported dissatisfaction than professionals.

Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star and Williams (1977) found that in the military, factors such as ambition to become an officer, level of education, a chance to choose the post and appointment in the chosen post to be important for job satisfaction. Satisfaction was also associated with formal status and with informal status (for example, men in more prestigious corps were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than men in other branches).

The period a person spends (Seashore, 1975) in a position can be useful for predicting or influencing the satisfaction if it is also considered how the person sees his or her chances to be promoted. A person who has just been promoted may be more satisfied than the individual who was not, while being within an established career ladder, with known advancement stages, for example, rank promotion in the military. Satisfaction will be affected by gradual awareness that these will or will not be realized. Another job aspect that can be influenced by the period in a position is that an initially challenging job may become less so as the occupant gains competence by experience and the novelty of new skill also gradually wears off. Promotion to a higher position also entails an increase in salary and the individual may initially be satisfied with his or her income, which after a number of years without a raise may not be as satisfactory any more. Another variable that was taken into account by Seashore is age. Normal life experience increases with aging, abrupt changes of economic inflation or changing levels of employment may alter the meaning a person attaches to a job and his or her satisfaction with it.
Schaffer (1953) mentioned the possibility that certain common needs are associated with members of the same occupational groups, and that the occupation provides the opportunity to derive common satisfactions from it.

II.8 HIGHER EDUCATION AND MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

Main features (Parthasarathi, 2005) of Indian Higher Education System are:

i. Highly bureaucratized system with multiple controls and regulations exercised by Central and State Governments, statutory bodies (UGC, AICTE and others), university administration and local management.

ii. System is heavily subsidized by the Government. Up to 90 per cent of the operating costs are paid for by the state. The efficiency of fund utilization is very poor due to internal rigidities.

iii. Salary and compensation for teaching staff is poor and, therefore, higher education institutions are unable to attract and retain qualified and trained teachers. Besides unattractive compensation packages, recruitment procedure is lengthy and working environment not conducive to retention. As a result, a substantial proportion of high ranking students who could fill up such assignments prefer to work elsewhere or go abroad. In a recent move UGC has further damaged the pay and promotion prospects of college teachers by reducing promotional grades thereby creating more stagnation and frustration amongst college teachers.

iv. Most institutions offer out dated programmes with inflexible structures and content. While course content has been updated and restructured over time in the world’s best institutions, Indian university curricula have lagged behind.

v. Infrastructural facilities range from inadequate to dismal. Classrooms are often unattractive and laboratories inadequately stocked, leading to poor teaching. It is
estimated that barely 20 per cent of the institutions have the basic minimum laboratory equipment.

vi. Steady electric power supply is not available.

In its size and diversity, India (Agarwal, 2006) has the third largest higher education system in the world, next only to China and the United States. Before Independence, access to higher education was very limited and elitist, with enrolment of less than a million students in 500 colleges and 20 universities. Since independence, the growth has been very impressive. In post-independence India, higher education growth occurred in two distinct phases.

In phase I, from 1947 to 1980, there was steady growth. Large number of colleges were started and affiliated to the new and the existing universities. The government set up universities and colleges at places not having higher education facilities. Courses in new and under-represented subject areas were started. This resulted in geographical dispersal of higher education facilities and broadened the base of higher education.

From 1980 onwards expansion has been largely driven by private initiatives. After 2000, there has been a consolidation of private initiatives, particularly in the area of professional higher education. Despite, explosive growth of private professional education, majority of the universities and colleges still impart education at the undergraduate level in arts, science and social sciences. Post-graduate and doctoral education continues to be small. Several developments took place in the post-1980 phase. There was an unprecedented demand for quality higher education relevant to the needs of business and industry. The growing middle class which could afford higher fees made non-subsidised education possible. A large number of private institutions at the elementary and secondary education had come up as viable enterprises all over the country. Due to financial constraints, the
government found it difficult to set up new universities and colleges. According to some observers, this marked the withdrawal of the government from taking over additional responsibility for higher education (Tilak, 2005).

Thus, this period saw the emergence of new types of providers. Private institutions proliferated, distance education programmes gained wider acceptance, public universities and colleges started self-financing programmes, and foreign institutions started offering programmes either by themselves or in partnership with Indian institutions and the non-university sector grew rapidly. As result the entire higher education landscape got transformed over the past 25 years.

Business education (web 2.1) can be defined as that form of instruction that both directly and indirectly prepares businessmen to manage their business. Business education can be considered as the total activity which is planned, organised and developed in favour of the preparation of youth for responsible economic participation in the country. Business education, like other manpower training programmes, is usually designed with the primary purpose of upgrading skills or providing citizens with the necessary skills required to obtain gainful employment. Business education can also be considered as a programme designed to develop special competencies in marketable business skills and techniques. It deals with business experiences both for specialized occupation uses and for general uses. Business education has recently developed into a more complex kind of learning which requires the knowledge of other subjects. A professional must equip himself with all forms of skill to be able to fit into today’s competitive environment.

A B-school (web 2.2) is a university-level institution that confers degrees in Business Administration. It teaches topics such as accounting, administration, economics, finance, information systems, marketing, organizational behaviour, public relations, strategy, human resource management, and quantitative methods.
They include schools of business, business administration, and management. There are four principal forms of business school. Most of the university business schools are faculties, colleges or departments within the university, and teach predominantly business courses.

Management education in India (Sinha, 2004) is a post-independence phenomenon. The Andhra University was the first to start a full time postgraduate management program in 1957. The All India Institute of Management and Social Welfare, Kolkata and Delhi University followed suit in 1958. A number of universities setup the postgraduate management programme thereafter; mostly three year evening course for working executives. The University of Madras, University of Allahabad, University of Jodhpur, Punjab University and Bombay University set up their Masters in Business Administration (MBA) programs in the 1960s. Majority of the universities set up their management programs between 1970 and 1995.

The first Indian Institute of Management, a centre of excellence in management education, was set up in 1961 at Kolkata followed by IIMs at Ahmedabad (1961), Bangalore (1971) and Lucknow (1974) and in 1990s at Indore and Kozhikode. These All India Institutes were set up as autonomous societies in the Ministry of Education with funding from the central government. Despite their dependence for funding on the government, IIMs enjoyed freedom in the formulation of syllabi, recruitment of teachers, international collaborations and faculty development. The XLRI was set up in 1966 in Jamshedpur with private initiative and TISCO's support. The universities not to lag behind started MBA programs; some innovative ones; rest using commerce faculty base or adjunct to engineering colleges. By the year 1990, about 120 universities had set up full-fledged courses in management.

However, the demand for management graduates far exceeded the supply. Further, the State encouraged establishment of private funded Management education institutions; and
strengthened AICTE with the twin responsibilities of maintaining/upgrading the standards of management education and regulating all business schools in the country. AICTE granted liberally permission to establish new Management education institutions. The number of such institutions by year 2002 increased to around 850. As of now these postgraduate management programs are run by societies, trusts, university departments and affiliated colleges. AICTE in 1998 decided to discontinue PGDM programme undertaken by autonomous societies and encouraged them to affiliate with existing universities.

Business schools (B-schools) are pivotal in developing managerial manpower, but exclusive focus on teaching is not likely to advance management education as an academic discipline. They need to give adequate emphasis to research and application. Moreover, B-Schools in India are positioning themselves as placement agencies; securing attractive jobs for future graduates. This has led to increasing criticism that MBAs are over-valued.

Some of the criticisms have been recorded in recent researches undertaken by Pesulima (1990), Neelankavil (1994), Bickerstaffe (1996) and Yucelt (1998). These are:

i. MBA graduates are ill-equipped to cope with or meet the challenges of a dynamic global environment.

ii. Business schools’ faculty lack necessary business experience.

iii. MBA curriculum is largely theoretical.

iv. Overemphasis on quantitative subjects, while development of people skills is neglected.

v. Linkage between business schools and major stakeholders like industry is inadequate.

vi. It has been argued that the programs offered by some business schools are
unaligned to the real problems of business. This is partly attributed to the extensive proliferation of B-Schools, which is perceived to have resulted in lowering of standards.

In Indian context, some of the key issues faced by management education could be summarized as follows:

i. Growing unemployment among Business Graduates.

ii. High cost of management education causing burden on students and parents.

iii. Unavailability of effective Quality Assurance System.

iv. Lack of quality faculty members in India.

v. Inadequate infrastructure in B-Schools.

vi. Negligible attention to research in management.

vii. Lack of indigenous contents in curriculum.

viii. Lack of practicum, internship for development of management.

ix. B-Schools giving false promises to aspiring students.

x. B-Schools producing graduates more suitable to business and industry, not suited to social sectors such as public system, rural development, education system etc.

A research undertaken by COSMODE (2000) has brought to surface the wide variation in quality of MBA programs. There are hardly 10 schools out of 744 which could be bench-marked globally; 90 which just about meet the minimum standards and the remaining 644 fall far below acceptable standards. Most of the schools are teaching schools, hardly a dozen conduct any serious research and very few schools have truly multidisciplinary faculty. It may however be mentioned that some of the Indian schools have nearly 100 member faculty equal to some of the
best in the world, but most others do not have an average of 7 member faculty which is the minimum stipulated by AICTE, the regulating agency. This has led to issue of credibility of management education among its stakeholders in the country.

The survey indicated that Business Schools in India defined management education as "an integrated, applied, cross functional discipline"; "advancing, imparting, and applying management know-how in real life situations"; "preparing men and women for managerial leadership responsive to change"; "optimizing human and natural resources available"; "inculcating global and local perspectives" and "aligned to business and non business organizations". The survey also found that most deans and directors of business schools positioned management education as a postgraduate, post experience, preparatory as well as continuing education, producing professional managers with necessary skills, ethics and value orientation.

While 91% of the Schools had formulated institution's mission, the programs and activities of most of these institutions were hardly aligned to the mission. While some B-Schools encouraged top class engineering graduates to join MBA, most others recruited graduates from Commerce, Arts, and Science. Almost all B-Schools believed that they produced graduates in general management with some specialization through electives. Very few focused on development of entrepreneurs or managers for non-business sectors.

The research by COSMODE on business schools recorded some other findings:

i. B-schools in India have done exceedingly well. In their early years, they imitated American B-schools. Later, they recognized its inadequacies and some of the B-schools attempted to meet them through development of
indigenous cases, summer projects, occasional interface with industry. However, by and large, they have not been able to bring the world of reality to the classroom.

ii. Some B-schools associate senior executives and business leaders in delivering their curriculum. This has helped students to understand managerial mind but not many schools have been able to attract top executives to their classrooms.

iii. B-schools provide lip service to human values, social responsibility, quality of life, sustainable development. To build social concern among B-school graduates one has to change their mindset. The career orientation of MBAs make them elitist, unconcerned about management of social sectors, non-government organizations.

iv. B-schools need to focus on quantity and quality of its graduates, provide both microscopic as well as telescopic view of management.

v. MBA education does continue to be an oasis of elitism; of late this has emerged as the preferred choice of young men and women.

vi. Managers having MBA education become obsolete in their mid career. There are no systematic efforts to re-educate them.

vii. B-schools produce job seekers. India also needs job creators.

viii. B-schools talk about indigenising curriculum and teaching material, using participant-centred pedagogy and inculcate creativity and leadership skills. But most schools are unable to put them on ground.

ix. B-schools, particularly those promoted by private corporate, are more interested in recovery of investments rather than improving curriculum, faculty competence and quality delivery system.

x. There is a gap between skills desired and the skills that a typical faculty
member possesses to deal with subjects that require understanding of industry and ability to innovate suitable pedagogy to deal with them.

xi. B-schools are a highly differentiated lot, some richly endowed while some are like street-corner shops. In spite of standardized curriculum there is wide variation in delivery system and in the quality of B-schools.

xii. Most schools have hiked fees and made students pay for their education, which they do willingly because schools promise placement on graduation. Students opting for MBA education are greatly influenced by job opportunities help in placement and high starting salary.

xiii. MBA education has received great hype from media. It is seen as a short cut to success. The roof may collapse, if not corrected.

xiv. In the above context there is an urgent need to develop and design a system of continuous quality improvement of B-schools is India.

_Lagace (2010)_ felt that Management education institutions are at a crossroads and will have to take a hard look at their value propositions. To remain relevant, business schools will have to rethink many of their most cherished assumptions. Also prospective applicants were being discouraged by many employers from going to full-time MBA programs, that part-time MBA, executive MBA, and other masters programs were seen as attractive substitutes, and that the students who came were not as engaged with the academic curriculum. Some schools had already launched change programs that incorporated flexible curriculums, courses in creative or integrative thinking, or experiential learning and project work. A few schools were cutting-edge in one or more of these areas. Other schools felt that the business school community as a whole had a long way to go. So while there was a uniform degree of acceptance of opportunities and needs, the extent to which they were being met revealed
disparity. MBA graduates increasingly need to be more effective: they need to have a global mind set, for example, develop leadership skills of self-awareness and self-reflection; and develop an understanding of the roles and responsibilities of business, and the limitations of models and markets.

Critics have simultaneously accused the Management education institutions of (a) doing irrelevant research; (b) being too market-driven and pandering to the ratings; (c) failing to ask important questions; (d) pursuing curricular fads; (e) “climbing down” course content; and (f) focussing more on specialist, analytical rather than professional managerial skills (Howard, 2007). Earlier research had identified three broad categories of performance, namely, (i) financial performance; (ii) operational performance; and (iii) organisational effectiveness.

The environment of Management education institutions is characterized by their complexity and uncertainty. It may not be possible to provide a straightforward remedy to resolve the problems caused by the ever-changing environments of Management education institutions. On the other hand, the uncertainty is high and the threats and challenges are influential. The best combination of measures to cope with such changing demands would involve: (a) an entrepreneurial mindset, consisting of an open mind to anticipate as well as reacting with flexibility to the challenges posed by the driving forces of change; and (b) an emphasis on diversity.

Management educators (Birnik and Billsberry, 2008) and researchers must confront challenges, or else Management education institutions are doomed to a future where faculty’s isolation and students’ self-interest gets ever worse. In an age obsessed with the academic pursuit of rigour and an increasing interest in relevance, the time has come to revert back and reintroduce the notion of righteousness as a legitimate and worthwhile motive for human behaviour. Management scholars need to become much more careful regarding the implicit
ideological assumptions in their theories. The goal is to promote a business school agenda that is simultaneously rigorous, relevant, and righteous.

Management education institutions (*Pfeffer and Fong, 2004*) are struggling with several pressing challenges and competitive threats. All is not well in the Management education institutions world. Management education institutions are simply following in the same path by promulgating a value proposition emphasizing career enhancement and following a strategy of imitation. Management education institutions must try adopting an approach that maintains more of a professional ethos.

They should not sell business education primarily as a way to make more money. If they can break free of their past and to some extent their intellectual traditions to pursue this different path, Management education institutions may potentially avoid at most of the problems and issues confronting them.

Management education institutions need to understand faculty (*Agarwal, 2010*) as talent and construct talent management strategies considering relative importance of various factors similar to the practices in corporate. Effective talent management strategies should be made in line with the learning and development of faculties aligned with institution vision.

Extended faculty could apply to business schools, where huge numbers might include alumni such as local business leaders, who with suitable oversight and training by core faculty could help with team projects and experiential learning.

### II.9 RESEARCH GAPS

Organizations are continuously looking for new ways of doing business in order to meet the challenges of today’s dynamic business environment. Given the amount of time and energy people expend at the workplace, it is important for employees to be satisfied about their life at work and job / behavioural outcomes.
Quality of work life has been defined as the workplace strategies, operations and environment that promote and maintain employee satisfaction with an aim to improving working conditions for employees and organizational effectiveness for employers. While there are many studies and emphasis on QWL in America, it seems that, in comparison, the concept has been researched in South East Asia, especially India. Given that India is now undergoing dramatic changes in its social and economic structure, it will want to pay attention to factors that will improve its ability to compete in the business world. Improving the QWL may be one of those competitive factors needing attention in business organizations.

Although the constructs of QWL have been studied in recent times, it is felt that the research is incomplete as most of the studies focused primarily on job-related outcomes only with little or no regard for workplace environment. Also, most QWL studies pertain to manufacturing sector and very few in service sector.

This research examines the employees perception about QWL in B-schools (institutions offering management education either stand-alone or affiliated) in Bangalore. Higher education and especially Management education has gained prominence and has been making rapid strides. However, the adequacy and quality of faculty in B-schools has been much debated. There has been a gap in assessing the QWL of faculty which would provide deeper insights about issues faced by faculty and hence its impact on well-being, satisfaction and productivity. B-school faculty are expected to mould global citizens of the future and hence their QWL is of prime importance for their efficient functioning. Bengaluru is one of the most favoured and bigger cities in India besides sporting a cosmopolitan outlook. Citizens from across the country work in its B-schools and they mould national and international students.
From the literature it seems that no one variable can be singled out as predictor, but rather that they may have a moderating effect or have an impact in combination with other variables. Most research studies have taken into account only few variables at a time and have been studied mostly in organizations engaged in manufacturing.

This study alleviates those gaps by:

a) Covering a wide range of work life facets
b) Determining the perceptions of faculty in B-schools which is a part of the service sector
c) Investigating various categories of variables impacting QWL
d) Assessing the overall opinion about level of QWL
e) Recommending strategies to foster high level of QWL at the B-school, department and faculty levels.