

**COMMITMENT OF WOMEN INDUSTRIAL
WORKERS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO
ELECTRONICS INDUSTRY IN KERALA**

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DECEMBER 1993

CERTIFICATE

Certified that the thesis "COMMITMENT OF WOMEN INDUSTRIAL WORKERS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ELECTRONICS INDUSTRY IN KERALA" is the record of bona fide research carried out by Gladis Mary John, C. under my supervision. The thesis is worth submitting for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences.



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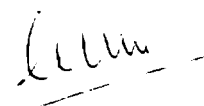
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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is the record of bona fide research work carried out by me under the supervision of Dr.N.Chandrasekharan Pillai, Professor, School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin-22. I further declare that this thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title of recognition.

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The influx of women into the industrial workforce and their growing interest in new career opportunities over the past few decades has been a major development all over the world. Before the industrial revolution women were primarily housewives and any economic activity they performed along with their domestic chores remained under-reported. With the increasing pace of industrialisation and urbanisation the role of women in the labour market has gone through a major social transformation. A century ago economic equality between the sexes was a distant goal, far out of reach for the average woman. Women who worked were generally, poor, ignorant, young and unmarried. Middle class, married women remained at home. Their situation reflected the societal view that the role of a woman was to perform non-market work at home, while the role of a man was to participate in the labour market to earn and support his dependent family.

The socio-economic changes have affected women's life. The process of socio-economic change from agricultural society to the modern industrial society has

meant ruination of women's participation in economic activities. The change of society from rural to urban, agricultural to industrial, handicrafts to machines, non-technical to technical, the problems of adjustments for persons of rural backgrounds are many. In addition, women have their own problems arising out of their new roles as workers in urban, industrial settings. Indian women are for centuries, highly integrated in a closely knit joint family life in the broad traditions of caste and rural communities. For women, urbanisation and industrialisation have meant complete and radical change in the whole rhythm of life.

About the problem of women in transition, industrial development has caused social adjustment, intrinsically alien to the ideals of one's civilization and culture. In actual practice problem of adjustment are made acute for women in two different ways.

1. A fundamental change in the very rhythm of life from rural co-operative to competitive way of work.
2. Women suffer great deal due to disruption of their home life of which has widespread ramifications.

This phenomenon is visible both in developed and developing countries. Today women's economic horizon once limited to household chores and farm labour, has widened. The economic status of women is now accepted as an indication of society's stage of development.

Work in the lives of majority of women in the Third world is not a matter of equity or self actualization. The changing economic roles and responsibilities of women, particularly among the poor, make working a matter of economic survival. Higher levels of economic development were related to greater integration of women into the labour force. Woman is now considered as secondary wage earner of the family. Numerically agriculture is by far the most common occupation of women. Industrialisation involved the movement of labour and resources away from primary production (agriculture, fishing, forestry) towards manufacturing, commercial and service activities. One of the enduring images of industrialisation created by contemporaries and transmitted by historians is of the female factory work. The emergence of a class system of wage labour in the larger capitalist economy combined with a growing surplus in the labour population and high rates

of urbanisation have restricted economic opportunities. Under such economic pressures family structures are no longer able to function as protective welfare systems and extend economic support to their women as dictated by tradition. Male unemployment and/or low earnings have also meant an increase in the number of married women workers. Low male wages often impose a double responsibility on married women who need to subsidise the family income through additional home production and work outside the home. Economic necessity has led women to work. Women work for most of the same reasons as do men (Semyonov, 1980; Stead, 1978). In addition Stead says that they are as committed to their jobs as men. In terms of need to work, two-thirds of those women working are self-supporting, and more than one-third are the sole wage earners of their families, "contradicting the myth that women work only for pin money" (Stead, 1978; p.5).

The spread of education and the opening of new opportunities to develop their talents and the availability of chances to participate in all spheres of social and economic activities enabled women to compete with men on equal terms.

World wars also became a cause for women entering into labour force. In her analysis of World War I, Greenwald (1980) noted that although the numerical increase in women workers was slight, women shifted from domestic work to office and factory work as industries became mechanised and routinised. Anderson (1981) observed that there were high wage and job opportunities for women during the time of world wars. The period of World War II was one of profound changes for women and work. The increased wartime productivity needs and the absence of men, forced women into work. It was a fact that during and after World War II it was older married women who were employed most often. Prior to World War II, women who were in the labour force were predominantly young and single. Some women want to maintain their individual interest and status and want to enter into jobs in order to satisfy their intellectual need or the need for achievement, creative work, recognition and fame. Certain fields have been stereotyped for women, i.e., teaching, nursery, sales, household industries such as handicrafts, pottery making, garment making etc. Women usually work as secondary breadwinners of the family.

Women and Family

The extent of women's economic need may be assessed by considering the degree to which women

contribute economically to the well-being of the family or household members. It is shown that there is considerable evidence which demonstrates that women's contribution to household income provide the means to meet basic survival needs such as food, clothing and shelter. Women's contribution make possible improvements in the health and nutritional status of young household members.

It is found that family organisation is a powerful source of resistance to women's work. The contention that women's first responsibility is to her home, and hence the course of action women take with respect to her work depends on the adjustments made between the organisation of the economy and the prevailing family system. Ramanamma and Bambawale (1987) pointed out that findings of a positive relationship between wage, employment and fertility among low-income groups clearly suggest that the need for additional earnings has a stimulative effect and dominated over the negative influence of childcare on women's work participation.

The Double Burden

A constant problem associated with women's changing economic roles and responsibilities and their

increased employment outside the home is the double work load they must perform. For the overwhelming majority of working women, employment means an extension of the working day to accommodate both their salaried activities and their home responsibilities. The problem is intensified when one considers the long term effect of women's double burden on their psychological and physical health and resulting loss of productivity. It is also found that women find it difficult to cope with this double burden.

The problems of absenteeism, turnover, reduced earning capacity, reduced profitability for employers and other behaviour which is interpreted by employers and researchers as lack of commitment, are said to be the result of situations where women are unable to totally cope with the double burden.

Even in many towns of India the joint family exists in one form or another. The parents-in-law will have some expectations from their daughters-in-law, in the matter of looking after their household chores. In most cases the husband also expects the same kind of attention from her. Taking up the duties and responsibilities at home alongwith the duties of her job, she overstrains herself.

Kala Rani (1976) pointed out that eventhough women entered various jobs and professions, she was not yet regarded as a sincere professional worker. This hurts her ego. If she is working under a male boss there is a tendency of her being taken not as a worker first, but as a woman. Working with men also produces tensions.

Although her husband and society want her to take up the job, they do not want her to develop an independent personality. They expect her to be an obedient, submissive and efficient housewife. With the multiplicity of roles, her behaviour becomes complex in terms of expected and actual conduct and she faces a lot of confusion with regard to her role and status. The two roles sometimes lead to a conflict, which is reflected in so many ways in the life of a working woman (Kala Rani, 1976).

Galbraith (1973) argued that only the duties of modern housewife had changed, not her basic role. In fact the modern household does not allow expansion of individual personality and preference. It requires extensive subordination of preference by one member or another.

Work and Family

Currently scholars rely on one of the three theories to characterise the process by which work and family are linked--segmentation, compensation or spillover.

The earliest view of the relationship between work and home was that they were segmented and independent, that work and home did not affect each other. Recent research suggests that if segmentation occurs it does not occur naturally. Instead workers "actively attempt to separate work and family life in order to deal with work related stresses" (Piotrkowski, 1979, p.98).

In general segmentation treats work and home as separate spheres of life, either because they are inherently independent or because workers actively respond to occurrences in both spheres, led to the view that they may try to compensate for a lack of satisfaction, in work or home by trying to find more satisfaction in the other. Dubin (1967) stated that industrial man seemed to perceive his life as having its centre outside work for his intimate relationships and for his feelings of enjoyment, happiness and worth. The theory of compensation provides

a plausible explanation of why some workers become more involved in their work when experiencing family problems. In general the theory of compensation views workers as actively seeking greater satisfaction from their family life as a result of being dis-satisfied with the other.

The most popular view of the relationship between work and family is that their effects spillover from one to another. Several researchers suggest that workers carry the emotions, attitudes, skills and behaviours that they establish at work into their family life and vice-versa. Spillover can be positive or negative (Belsky et al., 1985).

Traditionally research on work has been limited to the experiences of men and was often based on the assumption that work was or at least, should be their primary life interest; the theories of segmentation; compensation or spillover were similarly derived. By considering the experiences of women, at least one other process which typifies the relationship between work and home can be identified. This process is characterised by workers limiting their involvement in work or in family life, so that they can accommodate the demands of the

other. "Many women more involved in their family than their work may be more accurately viewed as having limited their involvement in work, in order to better accommodate family obligations. Thus the process of accommodation suggests a casual order the reverse of compensation, high involvement in one sphere leads to low involvement in the other, instead of vice versa" (Lambert, 1990; p.247).

When women go out for work they become more economically independent. There is an emerging differences between economically independent women and economically dependent women. Although both categories of women still have to survive in a male dominated world their interests as women may diverge because of their different relationships to that world. The contention that women's first responsibility is to her home and immediate family means that the cause woman take with respect to work, depends on the adjustments made between the organization of the economy and the prevailing family system.

The unidimensional view of woman as wives/mother also fosters the image of men as primary workers and the consequent notion that women's function in the labour

force temporarily as secondary earners when husband's earnings are reduced or they have lost their jobs (Ramanamma and Bambawale; 1987).

Apart from constraints at home employed mothers may also experience frustration at the workplace (Srinivasan and Ogale; 1987). Even if workers derive great pleasure from family life, the day-to-day responsibilities of maintaining a home may limit the amount of energy and time they can devote to work. Studies have begun to identify the impact of work on the personal lives of workers. In addition to family size the degree of family support appears to be an important factor affecting work home role conflict. As Kanter suggests, "family situations can define work orientations, motivations, abilities, emotional energy and the demands people bring to the workplace" (1977; p.54).

Inspite of all the stress and strain today it is a fact that more and more women are going out for work. The participation of women in the industrial labour force has become a major development all over the world.

Chapter II

FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

In principle the labour force of any country consists of persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour for the production of all goods and services accounted in the national income statistics. Labour force consists of male and female labour force all over the world eventhough the female labour force participation is low when compared to the male labour force participation.

A basic premise for investigating different aspects of female labour force participation is that the economic position of women in any society comes to be influenced by the extent of their involvement in income earning opportunities outside the household. Such involvement also happens to be closely linked to the process of economic growth taking place in the country concerned. Development brings with it a unique mode of structural transformation in the economy, which results in output and employment transcending to the more visible sectors of the economy. More specifically, it means that output and employment levels in the household based primary sector tend to be superseded by those in secondary and

tertiary sectors. The development of the labour market which follows also leads to changes in the employment status of the labour force, notably through a secular increase in the size and proportion of the category of employers vis-a-vis other categories such as own account workers and family workers. An important outcome of this growth process is that women's participation in economic activities, in so far as it takes place is likely to be captured with great accuracy in the labour force estimates of the developing countries (Jose, 1989).

Sometimes the activities of women are not counted. Boulding (1980) noted that women were seriously undercounted as part of the agricultural labour force. In a limited study of farm wives in three states (in USA) she found that the vast majority of the wives were engaged in activities such as driving tractors, caring for kitchen gardens, book keeping and feeding cattle.

D'Amico (1983) examined whether wife's labour force participation would be reduced if it placed them in competition with their husband's or it would be increased if participation would enhance the status of the family. Interactions in the family settings also appear to affect

women's labour force participation. For example, Chenoweth and Maret (1980) found that the husband's attitudes toward their wife's working were more important than the wife's own attitude in determining whether she would work or not.

Female Labour Force Participation in Developed Countries

United States of America

One of the notable features of American Labour Force is that it is growing. The growth is occurring both in terms of absolute numbers and in terms of the proportion of the adult population employed. Two factors contributed to this growth. The first is growth in population size. The second and more interesting factor is the greater labour force participation rate among women (Table 2.1). Even after marriage a large number of women are going out for work. In March 1963, there were 15,362,000 married women, in labour force. This represents a spectacular increase in less than two decades, from the 4,200,000 gainfully employed married women in 1940 who comprised only about 15 per cent of all married women to 36.1 per cent in 1963 (Phadnis and Malani, 1978; p.220). Thus married women are playing two roles that of home maker and that of an earner.

The likelihood of women's participation in labour force in U.S.A is experienced by their education and the

Table 2.1
Labour force participation rate in U.S.A (1880-1982)
(in percentages)

	Total non- institutional population 16 years or older (in thousands)	Total partici- pation rate	Men	Women
1880	36,762	47	79	15
1900	47,950	50	80	19
1920	82,739	50	78	21
1940	100,147	53	79	25
1960	124,517	56	79	35
1970	139,130	59	78	42
1980	169,886	64	79	52
1982	174,020	64	77	53

Source: Hall, Richard, Dimensions of Work, Sage Publications, New Delhi, 1986, p.16.

working experience of their mothers. There is ample evidence, today in U.S.A that more and more women are entering and staying in occupations that were of traditionally male. The participation rate has increased for both married and single women. It is also interesting that the participation rate among married women with children has increased as Table 2.2 reveals.

Table 2.2: Married women's labour force participation 1960-1980 (in percentages)

Presence and age of children	Wives' labour participation rates	
	1960	1980
Children under 6 years	19	45
Children 6 to 18 years	39	63
No children under 18 years	35	46
All wives	31	50

Source: Same as in Table 2.1, p.17.

Shaw (1985) found changes between 1966 and 1976 in U.S.A in the proportion of women in their late 30's who exhibited a strong attachment to the labour force. Fox and Hesse Biber (1984) reported the results of a 1980 Roper

organization survey that put the following question: "Are you working primarily to support yourself, to support your family, to bring in extra money, or for something interesting to do?" As seen in figure I, economic factors reign supreme, with 46 per cent reporting that they work to support themselves or their family and an additional 43 per cent working to bring in extra money. Only 14 per cent replied that they were working because they wanted something interesting to do. The economic contribution to the family by working wives is significant. Among wives who work full time, year round, their contribution to the family income approached 40 per cent of the total family income. For single women or divorced or separated women, work is the means of support. And since the divorce rate continues to climb, especially among young women, their economic motivation and necessity will continue to increase.

In U.S.A women are entering into jobs which require significant educational preparation and the increase in women's educational attainment achieved over the last few decades helped them much. "Fiftyfive million American women worked or were looking for work in 1988. Today women represent 45 per cent of all the working people

QUESTION: Are you working primarily to support yourself, to support your family, to bring in extra money, or for something interesting to do?

ANSWER:

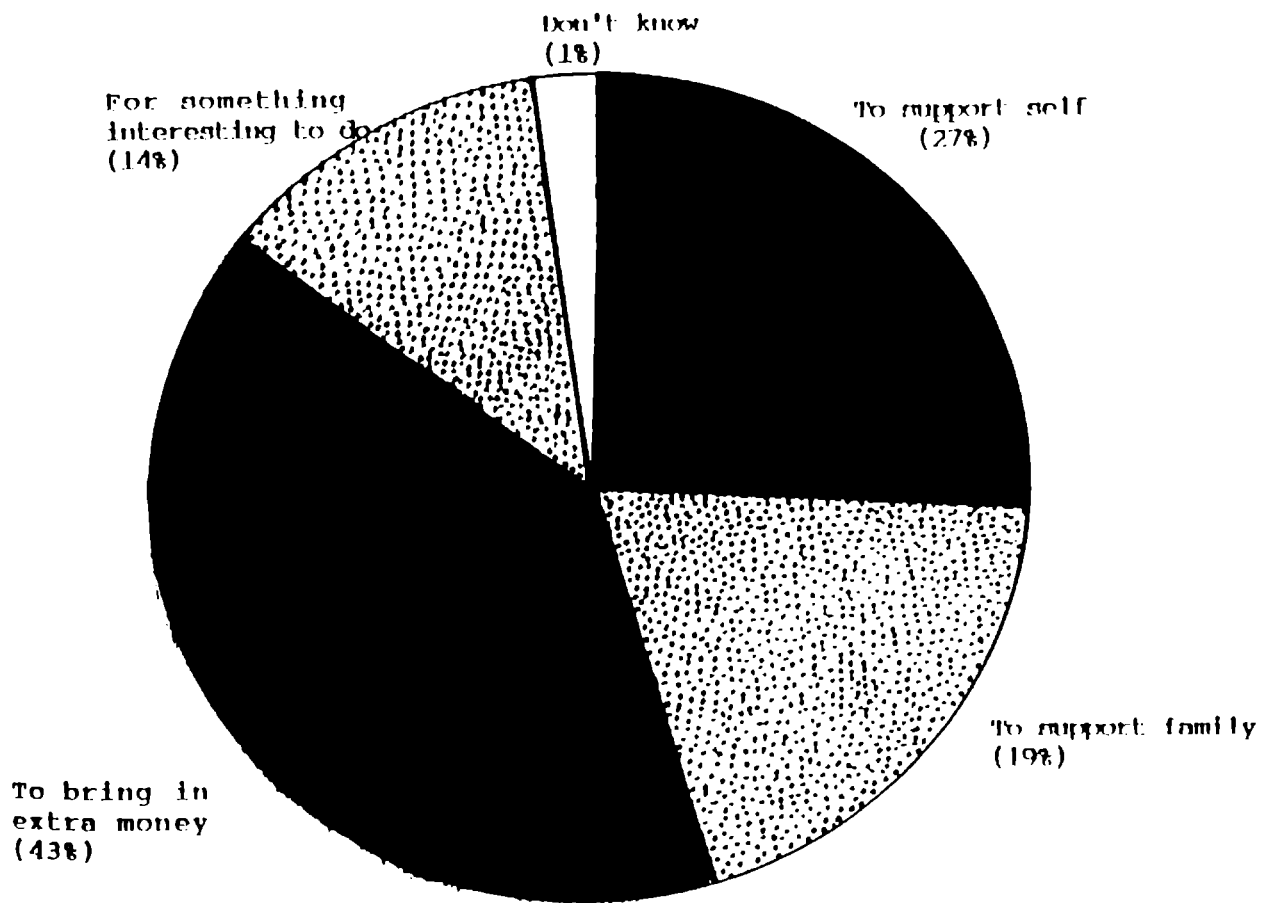


Figure 1

Source: Hall, Richard, H. Dimensions of Work, Sage Publications, New Delhi, 1986, p.169.

of the country, and the proportion is continuing to rise. Women represent more than half the work force of nearly a dozen industries, including such fast growing ones as health services, banking, legal services, insurance and retail trade. They have become an important element in the production capacity of this country and employers have become increasingly dependent on the female work force to achieve their production goals" (Norwood, 1990; p.16).

France

In France, one out of every three women work. In 1968 there were 712,380 active women. Of this 13.7 per cent were in agriculture, 25.9% in industry (secondary sector) and 60.4 per cent with tertiary sector. This sector includes commerce, transport and communication, administration, medical and social services, education, liberal professions, show business etc. The active feminine population was 34.9 per cent in March 1969 and 38.2 per cent in March 1970. Women thus comprise more than one third of the total active population in France (Phadnis and Malani, 1978).

U.S.S.R*

In Soviet Union, before the revolution the women were illiterates. "While women were denied opportunities

* This details were collected and written before the dis-integration of U.S.S.R.

to acquire any socially respectable profession, Russian capitalism drew upon them as a source of cheap factory labour. In 1913 women comprised 30 per cent of the labour force employed in heavy industries. Two-third of women workers were engaged in light industries (401.8 thousand out of 635.9 thousand) where the conditions of work were deplorable and wages extremely low" (Phadnis and Malani, 1978; p.175).

The change of the status of women in Russia took place against the background of Socialist Revolution. Women are being forced into production work and the status of family and society was changed through the process of rapid socialist industrialisation. Many programmes are being introduced for imparting training to the Soviet women. Since 1917 the role of women in production has been constantly increasing in Soviet Union. By 1970, women comprised 51 per cent of all the workers and officials employed in the country and 53 per cent of the collective farmers.

The Soviet State has taken into account that when drawing women into productive work, this will not include on their family obligations. To facilitate their work

outside the home a public system of care of mothers and children has been commissioned into service. According to Soviet Labour laws, women are not allowed to take to heavy work and also to work injurious to their health. Expectant mothers are transferred to lighter work while receiving their original salaries. Mothers are being provided with benefits. Besides the annual paid holidays an expectant mother will get an additional maternity leave (Phadnis and Malani, 1978).

Work Participation Rates Among Women--The Asian Experience

Empirical data from some countries in the Asian region which have experienced impressive economic growth in recent times, clearly testify the process of structural transformation in their labour markets. The high rates of economic growth brought distinct changes in the size and composition of the female labour force in Japan and South Korea. Some of these changes may be tested as follows: (1) Changes in the labour force status of women workers with significant increase in the relative share of employees as against family workers and own account workers; (2) Alterations in the industrial distribution of female labour force with secondary and tertiary sector workers registering a marked increase in their relative

Table 2.3
Male and female labour force participation in selected
Asian countries

(in per cent)

Sl. No.	Country	Year	Male	Female
1.	Bangladesh	1984-85	53.8	5.6
2.	China	1982	57.3	47.0
3.	Hong Kong	1986	61.9	39.6
4.	India	1981	52.7	19.8
5.	Indonesia	1986	50.7	32.6
6.	Japan	1987	60.9	39.1
7.	Korea Republic of	1987	47.8	32.3
8.	Malaysia, P.	1980	48.5	32.3
9.	Nepal	1981	58.2	32.4
10.	Pakistan	1984-85	51.7	5.8
11.	Philippines	1980	48.8	30.3
12.	Singapore	1987	59.5	36.3
13.	Sri Lanka	1985	52.7	25.4
14.	Thailand	1984	55.9	50.1

Source: Compiled from A.V. Jose (ed.), Limited Options,
International Labour Office, Switzerland,
1989, p.2.

share along with rapid decline in the share of primary sector and finally; (3) Changes leading to improved skill composition of the female labour force (Jose, 1989).

In Asian countries, low levels of female work participation rates are observed. On the whole it appears that countries in East and South East Asia are marked by relatively high work participation rates among women in comparison to countries in South Asia (See Table 2.3).

Japan

In Japan a large number of women work in the Japanese Shipyards, motor car factories, construction firms, watch making plants, textile mills, food processing industries, banks, TV and radio assembling units. Women constitute a third of national labour force. But their monthly earnings fall below those of men. Discrimination in respect of wages is common. Table 2.4 explains the women's labour force participation.

The occupational distribution of women employees in Japan varies with different types of employment. The percentage of women labourers are less (See Table 2.5).

The output and employment levels in the household based primary sector tend to be superseded by those in

Table 2.4
Japanese women in the labour force, 1968-1972
(15 years of age and over)

Year	Female population (in millions)	Labour force (in millions)	Labour force participation (per cent)	Per cent of total labour force
1968	40.00	20.03	50.7	39.6
1969	40.07	20.07	50.1	39.4
1970	40.60	20.24	49.9	30.3
1971	41.06	20.04	48.8	38.7
1972	40.48	19.18	47.8	38.2

Source: Phadnis, U. and Malani, I. (ed.) Women of the World, Illusion and Reality, Vikas Publishing House Pvt.Ltd., New Delhi, 1978, p.145.

Table 2.5
Occupational distribution of women employees
in Japan, 1972 (in per cent)

Occupation	Per cent
Clerical workers	31.1
Operatives	27.3
Service workers	13.6
Sales girls	10.4
Professional and technical workers	10.3
Labourers	3.9
Transport and communication workers	1.7
Executives and officials	0.8
Farmers and fishermen	0.7
Mining workers	0.2

Source: Same as in table 2.4, p.145.

secondary and tertiary sectors. It can be seen that economic growth, which occurred in Japan, brought distinct changes in the size and composition of female labour force (Jose, 1989). There occurred alteration in the industrial distribution of female labour force with secondary and tertiary sector workers registering a marked increase (Table 2.6).

In Japan, accelerated absorption of female labour within the secondary and tertiary sector of the economy was made possible by facilitating the mobility of labour from the household based sector consisting of agriculture and other allied activities. Economic growth and industrial development which took place in Japan generated abundant opportunities for the employment of women outside the agricultural sector.

Female Labour Force Participation in South Asian Countries

The women of South Asia together comprise, close to one-third of the world's female population. Although current growth rates in South Asia are less than those in Africa and have been declining, in recent decades, in a U.N. ranking of the ten most populous countries in 1985, India ranked second at 758.9 million, Bangladesh was ranked

Table 2.6

Female labour force characteristics in Japan

	1950	1960	1970	1980
1. Labour force as per cent of female population	32.5	36.0	38.9	36.3
2. Share of workers (per cent)				
Primary sector	61.2	42.6	25.8	13.4
Secondary sector	13.4	20.0	25.6	25.8
Tertiary sector	25.4	36.3	47.0	58.6
3. Share of workers (per cent)				
Employees	32.7	41.6	53.7	62.6
Self employed	11.2	13.4	13.6	11.3
Family workers	54.7	44.4	32.1	24.1
4. Share of workers (per cent) in age group 15-19	41.5*	48.9	35.7	18.8
5. Total fertility rate (TFR 1940 - 4.11)	3.7	2.0	2.1	--
6. Advancement ratio of girls from lower to upper secondary school	36.7	55.9	82.7	95.4

* figure refers to the year 1955

Source: A.V.Jose (ed.) op.cit., p.7.

Table 2.7
Total fertility rates

	1960's	1980's
Bangladesh	6.6	6.4
India	5.9	4.5
Pakistan	6.9	6.8
Nepal	5.7	6.3
Sri Lanka	5.4	3.9
Maldives	--	6.4 (1977)

Source: Kanesalingam (ed.), Women in Development in South Asia, Macmillan India Ltd., New Delhi, 1989, p.25.

eightth at 101.1 million. On an average, South Asian women marry at fairly young ages and start childbearing soon after. Though fertility rates of Sri Lanka and parts of India (mainly states in South) show a decline, the other countries have continued to support high fertility rates (Kanesalingam, 1989) (See Table 2.7).

The discrimination against female children is due to selective distribution of nutrition as well as health care. The high incidence of mortality amongst adult females in South Asia in the childbearing years reflects the enormous physical strain of frequent child bearing experienced by South Asian women. Recently the gap between the expectation of life of men and women has narrowed considerably (Kanesalingam, 1989), as shown in Table 2.8.

The economic participation of women can be assessed through various indicators including activity rates, employment status, sectoral and occupational distribution of economically active women and representation of women across occupations and sectors.

The activity rate for rural women in India is double the rate prevailing in Pakistan and more than three times the rate prevailing in Bangladesh for a comparable

Table 2.8
 Maternal mortality rates and expectation of life of
 males and females (1965-1985) in South Asia

	Maternal mortality per 100,000 births 1980	Expectation of life at birth (years)			
		Males		Females	
		1975	1986	1975	1986
Bangladesh	600	45	51	44	50
India	500	46	57	44	56
Pakistan	600	46	52	44	51
Nepal	850	41	48	40	47
Sri Lanka	90	63	68	65	72

Source; Kanesalingam (ed.), Women in Development in South Asia, Macmillan Indian Ltd., New Delhi, 1989, p.28.

Table 2.9
Labour force participation rates, Pakistan

Year	Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1971-72	81.6	9.5	69.8	3.9
1974-75	79.8	7.6	69.0	3.6
1978-79	80.1	14.3	68.0	4.4
1982-83	78.2	13.4	68.0	4.4
1984-85	79.8	10.7	71.2	4.1

Source: Same as in Table 2.7, p.15.

period. In Pakistan, contrary to what would be expected in the phase of increasing industrialization urban participation rates between males and females actually increased. The period from 1978-79 to 1984-85 was marked by a significant shift towards greater capital intensity in Pakistan in agriculture and most noticeably in industry (Kanesalingam, 1989). The labour force participation rates in Pakistan can be seen from Table 2.9.

In Bangladesh also the female labour force participation rate is much low when compared to that of males (Table 2.10).

The vast majority of women workers are to be found in the rural and urban unorganised sector. Women workers, whether in the organised or unorganised sector, face several constraints which account for their low status as workers. Their lack of access to productive inputs such as raw material, technology, training and markets are major impediments (Kanesalingam, 1989) (Table 2.11).

Females comprise a high and rising portion of the occupational category of professionals and related workers.

Table 2.10

Labour force participation rate for males and females
aged 15 and above, Bangladesh

Year	Rural		Urban		All	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1974 Census	51.4	3.3	84.8	5.5	90.6	3.5
1981 Census	90.7	5.1	84.3	7.3	89.8	5.4
1983-84 LFS	91.9	7.3	87.5	12.0	91.2	7.4

Source: Same as in Table 2.7 p.39.

Table 2.11
Sectoral distribution of women in the labour force,
South Asia

	Agri- culture	Industry and non- agri- culture	Trade & services	Unemployed	Main acti- vity not clear
<u>Bangladesh</u>					
1974	70.0	4.2	2.2	3.7	--
1983-84	8.5	27.5	14.5	4.2	4.5
<u>India</u>					
1971	82.6	8.1	8.7	--	0.6
1981	57.5	6.6	6.7	--	29.2
1977-78	74.5	8.6	9.9	--	7.0
<u>Nepal</u>					
1971	98.0	0.5	1.3	--	1.3
1981	95.7	0.2	2.7	--	--
<u>Pakistan</u>					
1973	65.1	11.2	21.8	--	--
1981	36.0	17.0	35.0	7.5	4.5
<u>Sri Lanka</u>					
1971	42.6	8.7	13.7	31.0	4.0
1981	35.4	8.4	24.0	32.0	--
<u>Maldives</u>					
1977	40.0	43.8	7.1	--	9.0

Source: Same as in Table 2.7, p.40.

Their share in this group in India rose from 18 per cent in 1971 to 21 per cent in 1981. (Table 2.12).

In Nepal the census of 1952 recorded only four per cent literary. Of this eight per cent of men and only less than one per cent of the women population were literates. Most of the women unemployed in subordinate position are as stenos, secretaries, clerks and counter girls. These new avenues of employment opened for women, gave further incentive to their economic activity which stood at 40.5 per cent in 1952-54, as against 60.7 per cent of an economic population of males (Phadnis and Malani, 1978).

Indian Scene

After independence India has witnessed profound changes in almost every aspect of her life. One of the major consequences of the varied processes of change operating in the country has been the emancipation of women from their tradition-bound ethos. But still the status of women in India is inferior when compared to that of men. This can be clearly studied from the decreasing number of women as compared to men in the total population of the country or what the demographers call the sex rates.

Table 2.12
 Percentage of female workers in each occupation
 in South Asia

	Profess- ional and related workers	Admini- strative and mana- gerial workers	Clerical and related workers	Product- ion	Sales work- ers	Service work- ers
<u>Bangladesh</u>						
1974	5.9	1.5	1.1	4.7	1.2	23.1
1983-84	11.1	1.6	5.9	16.9	4.5	54.9
<u>India</u>						
1971	17.7	1.7	4.0	8.4	6.1	16.7
1981	20.6	2.5	6.4	12.7	6.7	18.0
<u>Pakistan</u>						
1973	9.0	4.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	10.0
1981	15.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	2.0	7.0
<u>Nepal</u>						
1971	7.3	12.3	10.0	13.7	12.1	23.6
1981	--	--	--	--	--	--
<u>Sri Lanka</u>						
1970	--	--	--	--	--	--
1981	47.1	9.7	22.6	13.0	7.6	19.7
<u>Maldives</u>						
1977	31.4	9.4	25.7	67.4	13.1	29.7

Source: Same as in Table 2.7, p.43

A study of the figures brought out by Indian Census Reports pointedly indicate the curious fact that decade after decade total number of women become less and less as compared to men. It can be understood from Table 2.13.

The trends of decline of women in the sex rates indicate the unhappy state of affairs of the status of women and health. The neglect of female health can be studied in patterns of life expectations of male and female.

The demographers put forward many reasons for this decline of sex ratio in all the states of India. In Indian society there is a marked preference for sons, there is a general neglect of female children and their health and consequently higher infant mortality of female children. Amongst lower caste and poor classes of people, women have to bear excessive child birth which have adverse impact on female health. It is also found that due to mental tensions in the in-laws' house young women commit suicide and there is high rate of suicide among young married women in India (Mehta, 1982).

Table 2.13

Sex ratio and growth of female population in India

(in millions)

Year	Total population	Male	Female	Females per 1000 males
1901	238	121	117	972
1911	252	128	124	964
1921	251	128	123	955
1931	279	143	136	950
1941	319	164	155	945
1951	361	186	175	946
1961	439	226	213	941
1971	548	284	264	930
1981	683	353	330	935
1991	843	437	406	929

Source: Various Census Reports

It can also be seen that centuries old traditions and superstitions against the girls' education in Indian culture have greatly blocked the progress of women's education. There is great disparity among the literacy rates of men and women in India.

Illiteracy amongst women is the greatest barrier against improvement in their status in employment. The great disparity of education of men and women has created sociological problems. The female literacy rate is 24.38 per cent according to 1981 Census Report, which is very low, when compared to the literacy rate of men.

Women's work as housewives is not considered as work at all. In the changing India, women work hard. The great majority of women in India are engaged in cultivation and agricultural work and they are not equally paid with men. The representation of women in agricultural labour is higher than that of household industries.

The female labour force participation in the country is declining (Census Reports). A large proportion

of the women workers belong to the category of unskilled workers. Lack of technical education for women is a great hindrance for women entering into industrial work. The sharpest change evident is the decline in importance of the two occupational categories, i.e., cultivators and household industry which comprise a major portion of the self-employed.

The work participation of women in the organised sector shows a slight improvement (Census Reports). In the organised sector besides public sector there are three main sources of employment: (i) factories; (ii) mines and (iii) plantations. In recent, metallurgy and mining women work as unskilled labourers. In newly emerging industries like engineering, electronics and pharmaceuticals which are increasingly employing educated women as skilled workers tend to limit their participation to a few processes where job involves dexterity of fingers in jobs which are repetitive and monotonous in nature. In textile industries also a large number of women workers are posted. The improvement of female employment in the organised sector

seems to be mostly in the public administration and services as well as in the small scale factory sector.

Kerala Scene

Kerala is the most advanced state in India in terms of the level of literacy both among men and women though it does not rank high in terms of per capita income, industrialization and urbanisation. The level of literacy has been increased as per the statistics of various Census Reports (See Table 2.14).

Kerala is a state in India where the number of females exceeds that of males as can be seen from the Census reports. A significant achievement of Kerala during the post independence period is the attainment of reduction in birth rate, infant mortality rate and increase in life expectancy of the population.

It may be noted that the work participation rate of women is low when compared to that of men (see Table 2.15). At the all India level and for Kerala state the total work participation rate has shown a steady increase since 1971. In Kerala, the male work participation rate

Table 2.14
Literacy rates in Kerala 1901-1991

Census year	Males	Females
1901	19.15	3.15
1911	22.25	4.43
1921	27.88	10.26
1931	30.89	11.99
1941	Not Available	
1951	49.79	31.41
1961	54.97	38.9
1971	66.62	54.31
1981	75.26	65.73
1991	94.45	86.93

Source: Various Census Reports

Table 2.15

Work participation rate in Kerala and India

	K E R A L A			I N D I A		
	Persons	Male	Famale	Persons	Male	Female
<u>1961 census</u>						
Total	33.31	47.2	19.71	42.71	57.08	27.94
Rural	33.97	47.42	20.88	45.03	58.17	31.39
Urban	29.57	45.98	13.00	33.48	52.4	11.09
<u>1971 Census</u>						
Total	29.12	45.00	13.49	33.09	52.61	12.31
Rural	29.53	45.29	14.08	34.04	53.62	13.44
Urban	26.99	43.51	10.42	29.34	48.82	6.68
<u>1981 Census</u>						
Total	30.53	44.89	16.62	36.77	52.65	19.76
Rural	31.25	45.23	17.72	38.87	53.81	23.18
Urban	27.42	43.41	11.76	30.00	49.07	8.32
<u>1991 Census</u>						
Total	32.05	47.81	16.9	37.68	51.56	22.73
Rural	32.67	48.02	17.94	40.24	52.5	27.2
Urban	30.34	47.22	14.00	30.44	48.95	9.74

Source: Various Census Reports of India

showed a fluctuating trend by a decline in the rate for 1981 and rise in 1991.

Electronics Industry in Kerala

Electronics is a fast growing industry in India. Electronics technology and industry have a tremendous potential for improving the standard of living and quality of life of people because of its versatility and easy adaptability. It offers most appropriate technological choices suited to Indian conditions for solving many of the socio-economic problems and to achieve the objectives of growth and employment. Electronics also plays, a dominant role in improving productivity in industry. Today the safety in the air, on the ground, on the rails, on roads, on the high seas, in factories and mines, depends heavily on electronics technology. Modern commerce and banking operations can hardly do without electronics any longer. The potential of electronics in educating the masses, in improving agricultural productivity and in health and medicine is large.

The electronics industry has grown through the joint efforts of public and private sector. The contribution of public sector units in overall production

of electronics is around 30%, that of small scale about 30-35 per cent and remaining 35-40 per cent is contributed by organised private sector units. Major part of strategic electronics and communications sector is reserved for production in the public sector. There are at present 11 central public sector units with 28 manufacturing plants. The break up of electronics output in 1990 between public and private sector can be seen from the table 2.16.

To encourage geographic distribution of the electronics industry in the seventies, states were engaged to establish electronics development corporations. In Kerala, for the past five years the growth rate of electronics industry was around 30% per year. However, in 1990 the growth rate has gone down to 10.7%. The total electronics production was Rs.8,878 crores in 1990-91 (Kumar,1992). Kerala stands 10th among the states.

In the state sector, Kerala State Electronics Development Corporation Ltd. (KELTRON) which was set up in 1973 is now a multi-unit multi-product organization which has nine manufacturing units under direct control, eight subsidiary companies, two associate companies together have a turnover of Rs.120 crores in 1990-91.

Table 2.16

Break-up of electronics output in 1990 between
public and private sector

Sector	Output percentage	No.of units
Public sector	31	101
Central	26	36*
State	5	65
Private	69	--
Organized	35	450
Small scale	34	2500

* Consisting of 11 Central Public Sector Units with 28 manufacturing establishment and 8 Departmental units.

Source: Guide to Electronics Industry in India, Dept. of Electronics, Govt. of India, New Delhi, 1992.

The major private sector companies in the state are:

1. British Physical Laboratories, Palghat
2. OEN India Ltd./OEN Micro System and OEN Connectors
3. Hendez Electronics
4. Transmatics Ltd.

As in many other states, the state Government of Kerala is providing special incentives like reduced sales tax, separate industrial areas for electronics, subsidy for setting up units in backward areas, financial participation either as joint sector unit or assisted sector unit etc., so as to encourage speedy development of this industry. Kerala is one of the few states which has tremendous potential for growth in the electronics field. The state government keeping this in mind, have identified electronics as one of the thrust areas for industrial development of the state and set up technopark for creating necessary infrastructure.

Employment

The electronics industry has a high potential for employment generation. The proportion of in-plant and

Table 2.17

State-wise production and share of each state:
Electronic Industry

Rank	State	Total in crores	Share %	Total No. of units	Employment
1.	Karnataka	1775.83	19.83	257	44000
2.	Uttar Pradesh	1679.21	18.92	159	37000
3.	Maharashtra	1424.54	16.07	671	56500
4.	Delhi	942.02	11.58	322	37000
5.	Andhra Pradesh	587.34	6.61	141	25000
6.	Tamil Nadu	568.88	6.41	249	13500
7.	Gujarat	393.08	4.43	182	15000
8.	Punjab	274.92	3.04	43	6000
9.	West Bengal	300.87	3.56	142	12000
10.	Kerala	266.35	3.05	74	9000
11.	Rajasthan	243.73	2.80	64	9200
12.	Haryana	162.8	1.85	59	7000
13.	Madhya Pradesh	130.14	1.44	39	6000
14.	Orissa	43.26	0.46	11	1700
15.	Goa	16.32	0.18	14	600

Source: Kumar, Suresh (Ed.), An Information Guide to Kerala's Industrial Scenario, Arya Fine Arts, Trivandrum, 1992, p.116.

white collar workers differs from one sector to the other as it depends on factors like the extent of industrial automation, the usage of sub-assemblies etc. Personnel in the category of scientists/engineers are required to look after the design and manufacture of tools and products, control of production, process control, plant installation quality control etc. Persons trained at the Industrial Training Institutes are required to work on the tool room and other precision machines and are also suitable for maintaining production machines. The semi-skilled workers are required to work on the assembly line operations. Thus, this is a sector which has the potential to employ a large number of people.

The employment in electronics in Kerala can be seen from the Table 2.17. Eventhough Kerala rank only tenth among Indian states there is ample potential for development of the industry as there is a ready supply of trained personnel and the keen interest of the government.

Chapter III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In recent years many writers have examined the role of labour force commitment in the economic development of a society. The industrial way of life is characterised by a complex of attitudes and behaviours and to the extent that a society's labour force lacks those attitudes and behaviours it can be accounted for its lack of economic development. The problem of commitment to work among industrial workers is related to the factory system of production which is an outcome of industrial revolution in the West.

Commitment to industrial work, organisation or place of work, job and management of the factory is incomplete and meaningless without workers taking an active part in the management of an organisation. Traditionally the 'doing' function of the workers has been kept separate from the management functions of the managers or owners because of the basic assumption that the interest of workers and managers is not only different but diametrically opposite to each other.

Increasingly in modern times, it is believed that labour is an important partner in the process of production. Organisational objectives cannot be achieved without the

worker assuming responsibilities beyond his traditional functions of production. Thus industrialisation requires not only proper recruitment and training of labour force, but also workers' commitment to industrial discipline.

Discussion of the problem of labour commitment in India can be traced back to the Royal Commission on Labour in India whose report appeared in 1931 (Royal Commission, 1931). It makes an outstanding event in the history of Indian labour relations. The Commission stated that Indian workers were woefully lacking in commitment to industrial employment. It was found that until 1925 there was an absolute shortage of labour in the factories. According to the Commission, the working class was neither sufficiently organised nor properly stabilised.

Against this, the Rege Committee observed in 1946 that the working class became more stabilised and organised (The Labour Investigation Committee, 1946). Its link or ties with the villages had been loosened. During this period there was greater concentration of working class population in industrial areas and this led to the rise of industrial proletariat in most cities. Workers were prepared to stick to the towns to a greater extent than before, to fight for their legitimate rights and to seek livelihood in urban rather than

in rural areas. This indicated that the commitment of industrial working force for the industries had increased.

Commitment has been described by various authors. As per the dictionary of Sociology "Commitment refers to a feeling of obligation to follow a particular course of action or to seek a particular goal. Because of this freedom of choice the number of alternatives in social action get limited" (Bhushan, 1989, p.34).

Participation of workers is important in the industrial labour force and hence Indrani Mukerjee says "Commitment refers to participation by workers in industrial employment on some permanent basis as measured by objective behavioural index. It involves both performance and acceptance of behaviour appropriate to an industrial way of life" (1985, p.33). In her study about the jute workers of West Bengal, she has stated that Jute workers' job commitment coexists side by side with their allegiance to rural household and village society. Both factory and field acted as complementary to each other.

Punekar and Babu (1978) observed that in the industrial context, commitment to industrial employment was the obligation to accept or support the ideology of mode of

production and the division of labour and the associated social institutions of industrialisation, such as trade union and labour market.

Commitment has been described as multidimensional in nature. According to Weimer Yoash (1982) it is the totality of internalised normative pressure to act in a way that meets organizational interests. Such pressures once established may have long term effects on behaviour, independent of rewards or punishments. Organizational identification and generalised values of loyalty and duty are viewed as its immediate determinants. Commitment was also shown to be a function of internalized normative beliefs. Weimer identified three types of commitment. When commitment was based primarily on generalised loyalty and duty it could be viewed as 'blind loyalty'. When value congruency plays a major role in determining commitment, it can be termed as 'moral obligation'. A balanced commitment type is obtained when each of the two dimensions contribute significantly to ultimate commitment. Commitment oriented selection focussed on assessment of values and beliefs and on the degree of their congruency with organizational values.

The commitment has been explained by Lodahl and Kejner (1965) in terms of attachment of values or goals by the

persons. It is described by them as internalisation of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work, in the worth of the person. The relationship between value orientation and commitment has been pointed out by Werkmeister (1967). According to him the act of commitment is simply a manifestation of the individual's own self and the value considerations leading to commitment reflect value standards that are basis to the individual's existence as a person.

An individual's willingness to work is also important in describing his commitment. Porter et al. (1974) were of the opinion that commitment reflected an individual's willingness to work towards and accept organizational goals. Thus commitment consists of (a) a belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values (b) willingness to exert effort towards organizational goal accomplishment and (c) a strong desire to maintain organizational membership.

Reichers (1985) stated that commitment was a process of identification with the goals of an organization's multiple constituencies. Those constituencies may include top management, customers, unions and/or the public at large. Organizational commitment can be accurately understood as a collection of multiple commitments to various groups that comprise the organization. Organizational commitment and goal

commitment have been studied by various researchers. Several reasons have been given for the organizational commitment. Dubin et al. (1975) found a strong relationship between central life interests of workers and their commitment to the organization. They found that workers with central life interest in work have higher commitment to their work organization and a higher level of attraction to specific features of their systems compared to other participants with different central life interest orientations. These authors used a combined measure of organizational commitment reflecting the willingness of the individual to stay with the organization, a willingness to exert high levels of effort and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization.

Commitment is viewed by Buchanan (1974) as a partisan effective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values and to the organization for its own sake. This process of accepting organizational goals and values and integrating them into a system of personal goals and values is viewed as organizational identification. It is also observed that goals lead to commitment. Salancik (1977) argued that assigned goals lead to commitment because (a) assigning the goal implied that the recipient was capable of reaching the goal and (b) listening to the assignment without objection was itself a

form of consent. He also argued that behaviour or action was the ultimate proof of commitment. A person who is committed to a goal will try harder to achieve it. Supporting this viewpoint, Moore and Feldman (1960) argued that the committed worker needed less supervision and certainly less disciplinary supervision. He can be trusted to perform his tasks with a fair degree of competence and application. Finally committed worker behaves predictably in a crisis. The indicator of commitment that can be readily perceived is the behaviour of workers. Mowday et al. (1979) have distinguished between commitment as an attitude and commitment as a behaviour. Attitudinal commitment reflects the individual's identification with organizational goals and his/her willingness to work towards them. Behavioural commitment on the other hand is represented by what is termed attributional approach to commitment.

When goal commitment is explained, legitimate authority is considered as a key determinant of goal commitment. The relationship between goal commitment and authority was discussed by Barnard (1938). He was of the view that the source of authority did not reside in the superior, but in the acceptance of that authority by subordinates. According to him individuals must assert to authority and will do so if (a) they understand the communicated order, (b) and

they believe that the order is consistent with organizational objectives and personal interests and (c) if they are mentally and physically able to comply with the order.

Organizational commitment was also defined in terms of an individual's degree of identification and involvement in the work organization. According to Putti et al. (1989) intrinsic work values relate more closely to organizational commitment than either the global measure of work values or extrinsic work values. Work values which have been demonstrated to be related to commitment in the western industrial societies also hold true in the Asian context. Steers (1977) also stated that commitment to organization reflected the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in that organization. Thus the relationship between commitment and involvement are also discussed. Job involvement and organizational commitment have been used to predict general turnover and absenteeism. Blau (1987) in a study found that nurses with higher levels of job involvement and organizational commitment showed less unexcused absenteeism than nurses with lower levels of job involvement and organizational commitment.

Based on a study of blue collar workers Angle and Perry (1983) found that extrinsic aspects of work satisfaction

were more strongly associated with commitment than were intrinsic aspects of satisfaction. But Shore and Martin (1989) in a study showed that organizational commitment was more strongly related than job satisfaction with turnover intentions for the bank tellers. Their findings suggested that specific job attitudes were more closely associated with task related outcomes such as performance ratings, whereas global organizational attitudes were more closely associated with organization related outcomes like turnover intentions. Thyagi (1980) was of the opinion that the turnover of labour and casual work was not merely a result of lack of commitment on the part of the workers, but also of the employers' reluctance to bear the burden implied in hiring permanent labour. As industry expanded to include a wide variety of skilled and unskilled jobs, industrial work ceased to be the monopoly of migrants from villages. He stated that a vast majority of the workers in cities were limited to factory jobs.

The relationship between protestant ethics and commitment was also studied. Max Weber (1958) proposed that the protestant calvinistic faith had a spiritual thrust towards capitalism and was based on the assumption that work and financial success were the means to achieve not only personal goals but religious goals as well. Based on this Kidron (1978) noted that there were two types of commitment

i.e., calculative commitment and moral commitment. Moral commitment, namely the identification with goals and organizational values will be strongly related to the protestant ethic. Respondents with high protestant ethic tended to express low moral commitment. Calculative commitment which is one aspect of organizational commitment is the willingness of the individual to remain with a particular system. It is also found that respondents who expressed high moral commitment tended to have high calculative commitments as well. Those with low moral commitment, on the other hand had low calculative commitment.

According to Stevens et al. (1978) there are at least two distinct approaches in defining commitment, i.e., psychological approach and exchange approach. Commitment is the result of multiple forces including both psychological and structural (exchange) determinants, thus working toward an integration of the two approaches.

Factors affecting commitment

There are several attempts to explain the development of work commitment and factors affecting commitment. When side bets are made to an organization, the individual perceives, associated benefits as positive elements in an exchange and being reluctant to lose their benefits, is

more likely to stay with that organization. Then the individuals become organizationally committed, as Becker (1960) pointed out. He argued that commitment came into being when a person by making a side bet links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity. The basic idea in the side bets approach to commitment is that over a period certain costs and investments accrue that make it difficult for a person to disengage from his or her work. In their analysis of organizational and occupational commitment among federal and state forest and park rangers. Shoemaker et al. (1977) found that among federal rangers there were significant positive correlations between organizational commitment and age and length of service, but negative correlation with education. They also found that a measure of job satisfaction was the best predictor of both organizational and occupational commitment.

Employees' adjustment to work is not rooted in a single factor, either institutional or personal. Rather it is sustained by a set of complex interactions and interrelationships between work situation and personal attributes. Vaid (1968) in his Kota study pointed out that factors such as institutional factors (level of technology, ownership of enterprise etc.), job factors (wages, employment, conditions of work etc.) and socio-personal factors (caste,

education etc.) influence the adjustment of workers to industrial life. Commitment is used as value laden concept and it indicates a value orientation of the individual or of the group.

It was also found that there was positive relationship between organizational commitment and age, education, years of experience and marital status by Alutto et al. (1973), in a study of male and female nurses and teachers. In contrast to this finding, Ritzer and Trice (1969) found no relationship between either organizational or occupational commitment and the side bet factors of age, education, marital status, number of children and overall job mobility.

The relationship between rewards received by the individuals and their commitment was studied by Grusky (1966). He found some evidence in the fact that commitment was increased for people having overcome obstacles on the way to obtain organizational rewards. In their analysis of Roman Catholic Priesthood in the United States, Schoenherr and Greeley (1974) noted that commitment was a continuing process in which commitment resulted from a desirable net balance of rewards over costs realised by participating in the priest's role rather than an alternative feasible role.

Three major categories of determinants of commitment were pointed out by Lock et al. (1988), i.e., external factors, internal factors and interactive factors.

As Bhattacharya (1986) pointed out that, although there was no such technique to show the direct interrelationship between commitment and productivity and the long experience of managers and entrepreneurs, social scientists have revealed that these were substantially and progressively related phenomenon.

Researchers found that work technology to a larger extent determined the occupational status of the modern industrial worker. Sharma (1967) made an intensive study in an automobile factory in India. The study was proposed to investigate primarily the impact of work technology. The association between work technology and commitment to industrial work was studied. It was one of the objectives of the study to determine the relative importance of work technology vis-a-vis other factors affecting commitment to industrial work. It was found that one third of the craftsmen were highly committed to the industrial sector of employment, while only one tenth of the assemblers were so committed. As the industrial worker moved up in the occupational hierarchy,

his commitment to industrial work increased. Sharma concluded "as the findings show traditional Indian culture appears to present no serious obstacles to the workers in either accepting factory employment or in becoming committed to industrial work" (1967, p.48). Blauner (1967) was also of the opinion that work technology affected workers' commitment. Technology largely determines the occupational structure and skill distribution within an enterprise, the basic factors in advancement opportunities.

Levels of Commitment

The level of degree of commitment varies with the individuals. Moore and Feldman (1960) identified four types of workers: (1) The uncommitted worker - he is the person who is only a member of industrial society and accepts industrial employment to tide over some temporary difficulty and goes back to the village after working for a short time. (2) The semi committed worker or the partially committed worker - he is the one who looks at industrial employment as something permanent but at heart he is a villager and maintains his contacts with the village. (3) The committed worker - he is the one who has adjusted himself to the industrial way of life and who depends entirely upon industrial employment for his livelihood and does not have any link with the village. (4) The over-committed worker - the one who is permanently

attached to particular enterprises and a particular occupation. The link of worker with the village and his rural origin has now ceased to operate as a bottleneck to the adaptation of industrial way of life.

The link with the village and commitment of Indian industrial workers was pointed out by many authors. Charles Myres (1958) described the partial commitment of the Indian factory workers. They were pushed out of the village by shrinking economic opportunities but nonetheless maintained some continuing ties with the village because of the repellent push from cities. To have some periodic relief from the pressures of city life, they returned to their villages for recreation. The continuing family, religious and economic ties with the village contribute factors such as ill-health and absenteeism. This shows partial commitment. Myres says "the development of stable committed industrial labour force is therefore, more a consequence of managerial pulls than of pushes from the impoverished rural regions. In fact the push from the land can create a discontented industrial labour force, if nothing to adapt it to factory and urban requirements" (Myres, 1958, p.116). This concept of partial commitment is reflected in high rates of absenteeism but relatively moderate turnover. But Morris D. Morris (1960) after a careful examination of the labour force in Bombay

Cotton Mills and Jamshedpur Steel Plant, pointed out that there was a large element of distortion and exaggeration in the claim that Indian workers were uncommitted. The quantity of labour and degree of its commitment to industry were more a result of managerial policies and market forces than of the psychology of workers or their movement in traditional structures of caste, kinship and village.

Employers also play an important role in developing a committed labour force. S.C.Pant (1985) is of the opinion that in developing a committed labour force the main responsibility is that of employers. How employees solve the problem of commitment depends upon their attitudes to labour and to problems of uncommitted and semi-committed labour which depends on a large number of factors. Commitment is an attribute expected from the entire range of personnel in industry, including the clerical, technical and managerial categories. A worker cannot be expected to be committed unless management itself is committed. Ramaswamy and Uma Ramaswamy (1981) noted that after recruitment, labour commitment was the next major process in the development of a stable industrial work force. It was found that when high commitment was followed by negative consequences, commitment was generally decreased, but when low commitment was followed by negative consequences commitment was generally increased (Straw Berry,

1981). According to Randall (1987) it appeared that low levels of commitment was largely dysfunctional for both the individual and the organization. The advantages of moderate levels of commitment generally outweigh the disadvantages. At high levels of commitment it appears that the cost of commitment outweighs the advantages.

Romzek (1989) is of the opinion that the more committed the individuals feel toward their work organizations, the more they share a collective view of what is good for those organizations. Committed individuals should also be more satisfied with their career prospects within their organization. Highly committed employees trust that the organization will reward them in future with career prospects. It is also found by the author that employees with high levels of organizational involvement have psychological attachment to their work organization, but they are not necessarily excessively absorbed in their jobs nor are they workaholics. Katz and Kahn (1966) is also of the view that a moderate level of commitment do not mean unbounded loyalty to the firm, and at this level individuals avoid being swallowed by the system and able to fight for their identities as persons. Several correlates of high levels of commitment are pointed by Mortimer (1979). More committed workers are less likely to terminate voluntarily or to quit their work.

Mowday et al. (1979) suggested three stages in the development of organizational commitment: (1) pre-entry (anticipation), (2) early employment (initiation) and (3) middle to late career (entrenchment). Early commitment leads to improved job performance, which subsequently leads to higher levels of organizational commitment. Highly committed employees intend to remain with the organization and to work towards organizational goals. The dangers of overcommitment was shown by Whyte (1956) by publishing a major treatise entitled "The Organization Man". He described "The Organization Man" as a person who not only worked for the organizations but also belonged to it.

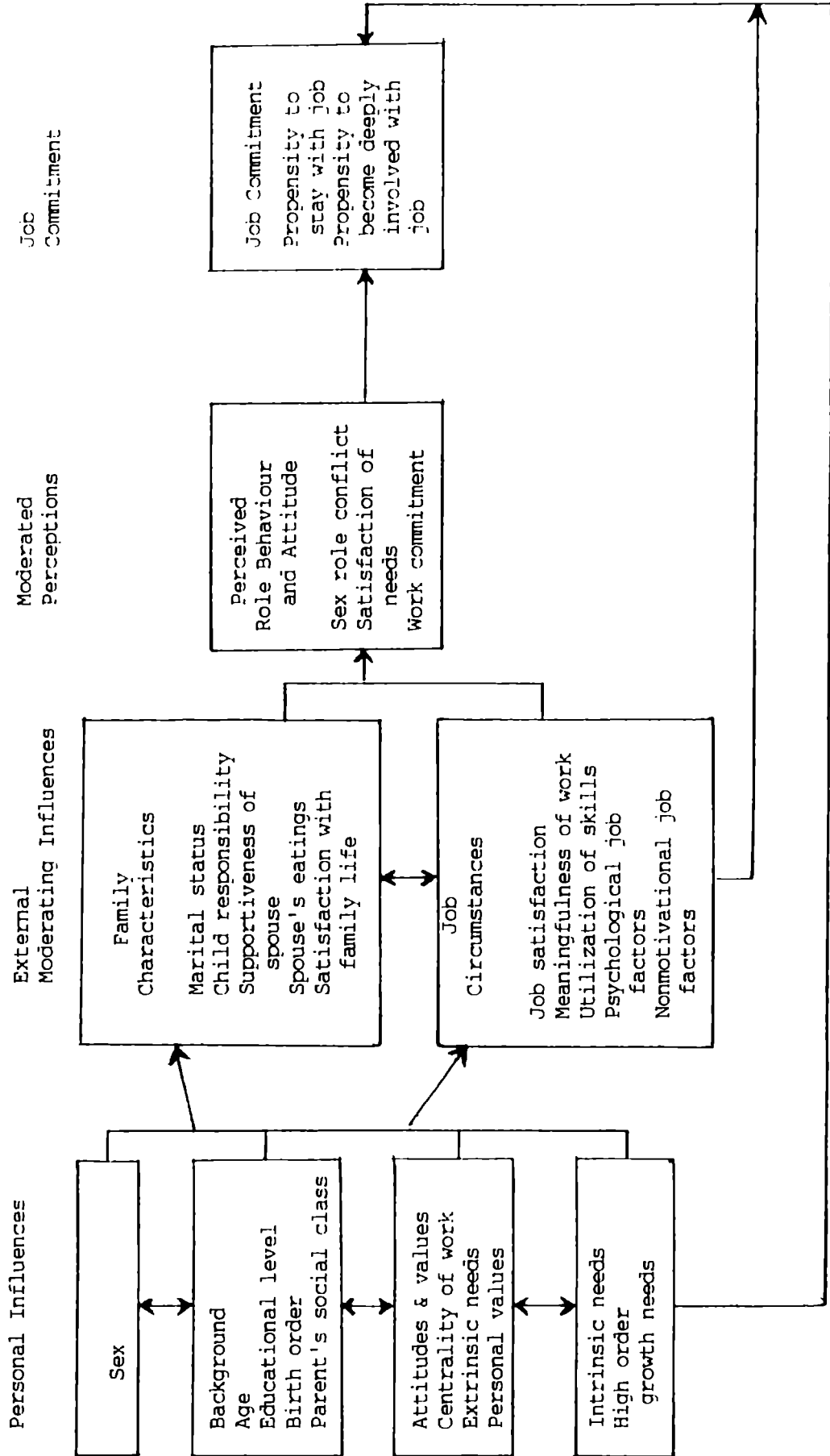
Richard D. Lambert (1963) in his study of workers of various factories of Poona is of the opinion that the workers are highly committed to the industrial occupation. Weiner and Vardi (1980) noted that as the employees' commitment to the firm was strengthened, individuals experience greater feelings of loyalty and duty to the organization.

Women and Commitment

Researchers also tried to find out whether commitment vary with sex difference. According to Chusmir Leonard (1982) women are such a large and growing segment of

the working population, they are of major concern to American enterprise. A theoretical model of the job commitment process is given by the author for explaining job commitment among both working men and women (Figure II). Three independent variables are major direct influences for job commitment for both sexes. They are: (1) sex role conflict, (2) satisfaction of needs, and (3) work commitment. Commitment to work is a major factor in explaining male and female job commitment. When a woman's growth need strength was high enough, she may be committed to work and her job, regardless of job circumstances or family characteristics. In the study by Nealia and Robert (1983) they empirically examined the extent of sex differences and position differences in commitment for a large and heterogeneous sample of actually employed men and women. The employees of social service organizations are studied. It is found that neither sex nor position was a critical determinant of organizational commitment. According to Shaw (1985) women in their late thirties exhibit a strong attachment to the labour force. The portion with a strong commitment increased faster than the proportion expressing a weak commitment. Among white women, this is attributed to lessened family responsibilities, increased previous work experiences and changing attitude towards women's roles. Among black women who had also lessened family responsibilities, they expressed a desire for increased

Figure 2
Theoretical Model of the Job Commitment Process



Source: Chusmir Leonard, H. "Job commitment and the organizational women", Academy of Management Review, Vol.1, No.4, 1982, p.597.

educational attainment and better health as well.

In a study among nurses, Gray (1989) finds that organizational commitment has significant negative relationships with feminist gender ideology and the extent to which work interference with family life. Variables such as the presence of children and the extent to which work interferes with family life are also found to reduce organizational commitment.

Eventhough there are a plethora of research studies by eminent scholars from the various disciplines, very little has been done in the case of the commitment of Kerala women industrial workers. Thus it is hoped that the present attempt will be a good start in this direction.

Chapter IV

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Statement of the Problem

Only very few have attempted to connect the commitment of work of women industrial workers to their role in the family. It is true that important contributions have been made to our knowledge of the inter-relatedness of work and home. The knowledge in this area is still rudimentary and conclusions are vague. Research has not yet identified the processes through which job and family characteristics intrude across the work/family nexus, let alone specified how these processes sort themselves out to determine the balance achieved between work and family. The impact of work on the personal lives of workers is far reaching, affecting not only the workers themselves but other members of the family as well. It is assumed that women workers somehow adjust their work and family responsibilities, but will tell upon their productivity.

The effects of work are not limited to the work place and that the problems and rewards of family life affect the ways in which workers experience their jobs.

Research has begun to identify the specific characteristics of jobs and households which have effects that extend beyond immediate sphere and help to determine how workers ultimately balance their work and family lives, however much remain to be learned. It is to be found out whether the commitment of work has any connection with family linkages and how they may vary with men and women workers, and it's effects on individual and family.

Although men and women may play different roles at work and home, they may be similarly affected by specific jobs and household characteristics, each may pay a price in terms of their well-being because of the unequal distribution of work both inside and outside the home.

Objectives of the Study

The study is focused basically on connecting the work commitment and family life of women. In short, involvement in one role may become more difficult because of the involvement in the other role.

The study has examined the family responsibilities experienced by the women industrial workers. It was also determined to study the impact of relevant variables expected to affect their family responsibilities. This

include work related factors and personal factors. In order to study about the commitment and its impact on family life of the women it is necessary to ascertain the socio-cultural and economic disposition of the working women. So the study inter alia made an enquiry to reveal the following aspects also.

1. To describe the socio-economic background of workers employed in industrial organization. The main intend is to bring out the social background from which workers are drawn to the industrial organization.
2. To study about the responsibilities of women workers at home.
3. To find out workers' commitment to work in industrial organization.
4. To describe the commitment of women workers to the organization in which they are working.
5. To describe the satisfaction to work of the women workers.

Hypotheses of the Study

Hypothesis 1

There is significant difference between men and women workers with regard to commitment to industrial work.

Hypothesis 2

Women workers, with less family responsibilities are more committed to work than women workers with more family responsibilities.

Definition and Explanation of Major Concepts Used in the Study

Commitment: Commitment is an obligation to accept or support or involvement as a pledge or guarantee chiefly by implication or by implicative act or word. In this study commitment is taken as a feeling of obligation to follow a particular course of action or to seek a particular goal. (Bushan, 1989).

Organizational Commitment: For the purpose of the study organizational commitment is taken as to mean the feeling of attachment to and/or identification of organizational objectives with individual's goals.

Satisfaction: Satisfaction to work has been defined as an attitude which results from a balancing and summation of many specific likes or dislikes experienced in connection with the job. Job satisfaction is the employees' perception of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs.

Industrial work: The work in industry is defined as the effort or activity of an individual performed for the purpose of providing goods or services of value to others, it is also considered to be work by the individual so involved. (Hall, 1986).

Family Responsibilities: The literature survey helped to determine various factors that give responsibility for women at home. A good understanding of the process linking work and family life is given by Lambert (1992).

In this study the women workers of the two firms were considered. For the purpose of this study, the women workers with more family responsibilities are those who are married, having children and without any significant support from servants, neighbours or other members of the family for managing the household or doing all the household work such as cooking, washing, cleaning and maintaining home, purchasing, taking care of children etc. Those who do not get any support from servants, neighbours or other members of the family are considered as having less responsibility towards their family. Depending on the number of family members, a woman has to take care of her responsibility towards her home increases.

Universe of the Study

The proposed study was conducted on industrial workers of two electronic industries. The two industries employing substantial number of women employees are:

1. OEN India Ltd., Mulanthuruthy
2. Keltron Controls Division, Aroor.

Social Characteristics of Respondents

The study was conducted among the workers of two electronics industries of Kerala--The OEN India Ltd., Mulanthuruthy and Keltron Controls Division, Aroor.

The OEN India Ltd. was established in 1968 as a joint venture with OAK Industries Inc., USA (then OAK Electronelectrics Corporation--from which incidentally the name OEN is derived) to manufacture switches, relays and potentiometers. The main plant is at Mulanthuruthy, a distant suburb of Cochin in Kerala. OEN India Ltd., offers the most complete and comprehensive range of switches, relays and potentiometers. According to the management, product quality and reliability are given first preference for every product.

The company is governed by a board of directors headed by a Chairman. Operations of the company are

directed by the Managing Director/Executive Director who are wholetime directors. There are managers in charge of various Divisions. Engineering graduates and diploma holders are placed in supervisory/executive positions. Young people in the age group of 18-25 years are recruited as trainees.

The workers are appointed after successful training in various divisions of the company. The women workers mostly work in 'assembling' division. In this company, there are 296 workers--100 men and 196 women. Questionnaires were given to all the workers. One hundred and eightyseven questionnaires were filled up and received back. Of these 127 were from women and only 60 from men.

The workers from KELTRON Controls Division, Aroor, one of the manufacturing units of KELTRON were also included in this study. The Kerala State Electronics Development Corporation popularly known as KELTRON was established in 1973. Keltron was the first Electronics Development Corporation in the State sector in the country. Keltron brought an electronics revolution demonstrating that it is possible to implement sophisticated technology

into a rural scenario without unduly disturbing the local socio-cultural environment. Keltron is one of the few electronics corporations in the country with the widest span of electronic products starting from the basic electronic grade materials which integrate into components, the components into equipment and the equipments into systems.

Within the last 15 years Keltron has grown into a multi-unit, multi-product organizations which has nine manufacturing units under direct control, eight subsidizing companies, two associate companies and five joint sector companies. Providing employment to 4500 persons directly and to as many as 20,000 persons indirectly, Keltron is a dynamic Techno-Chemical network in electronics. There are 150 workers working in the Keltron Controls Division, Aroor. There are 130 men and 20 women. Questionnaires were given to all the workers and 93 nos. were received back.

Thus from both the units 280 filled up questionnaires were considered for analysing ie., 62.78%. Out of the 280 respondents 137 were males and 143 were females.

Out of the 280 respondents 44 respondents come under the age group of 21-30 years ie., 15.71%. But the majority comes under the group of 31-40 years ie., 178 respondents (63.6%) and 57 (20.4%) respondents belongs to the age group of 41-50 years.

Table 4.1: Age-wise distribution of respondents

Age group	No.of respondents	Percentage
21-30 years	44	15.7
31-40 years	178	63.6
41-50 years	57	20.4
51-60 years	1	0.3
Total	280	100.00

The respondents belonged to the three religious communities ie., Christian, Hindu and Muslim. Of the respondents, 60.4% belonged to the Christian community 37.8% of the respondents belonged to Hindu community and only 5 respondents (1.8%) belonged to the Muslim community. The religion-wise distribution of respondents can be seen from Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Religion-wise distribution of respondents

Religion	No.of respondents	Percentage
Christian	169	60.4
Hindu	106	37.8
Muslim	5	1.8
Total	280	100.00

It is seen that the majority of the respondents have passed S.S.L.C i.e., 66.4% and 16.8% have passed Pre-degree. There are respondents who have the additional qualification of I.T.I. Out of the total respondents 6.1% have the qualification of S.S.L.C and I.T.I and 3.2% have passed Pre-degree and I.T.I and 4.6% of the respondents are graduates. The educational level of respondents is given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Distribution of respondents according to educational level

Educational level	No.of respondents	Percentage
Below S.S.L.C	8	2.9
S.S.L.C	186	66.4
S.S.L.C. & I.T.I	17	6.1
Pre-degree	47	16.8
Pre-degree & I.T.I	9	3.2
Degree	13	4.6
Total	280	100.00

Of the total respondents 88.9% were married and living with their family.

Table 4.4: Marital status of the respondents

Marital status	No.of respondents	Percentage
Married	249	88.9
Unmarried	25	8.9
Widower	1	0.4
Widow	5	1.8
Total	280	100.00

Among one hundred and forty three women respondents 50.34% are having children with age less than five years. It is considered in this study that the responsibility of the women workers is increased with an increase in number of children.

It is also found that 127 women workers are working in private sector and out of 137 men respondents 77% persons are working in public sector. More women workers are working for the private sector.

Table 4.5: Sex-wise distribution of respondents in public and private sector

	Males	Percent- age	Females	Percent- age	Total
Private sector	60	21.4	127	45.4	187
Public sector	77	27.5	16	5.7	93
	137		143		280

The workers are again categorised depending upon the number of years of experience they have. More respondents come under the group of 11-20 years of

experience i.e., 139 respondents (49.64%) and 13.5% have the experience of 20 years and above.

Table 4.6: Distribution of respondents according to the number of years of experience

No.of years of experience	No.of respondents	Percentage
1-10	103	36.79
11-20	139	49.64
21 and above	38	13.57
Total	280	100.00

It is also found that majority of the respondents are the members of the trade union in their industry, i.e., 93.6% of the respondents have membership in the trade union.

Methodology

A number of books and journals were referred to clarify the concept of the commitment of industrial workers and their family responsibilities. Thus a survey of literature was conducted and the views of various authors and researchers were studied.

A pilot study was conducted with the following objectives: (a) to examine in general the scope for conducting the study; (b) to fix the universe of the study and select the sample; (c) to find out respondents' co-operation; (d) to find out what are the methods which can be used to collect accurate and relevant data.

Through the indepth review of available literature and the pilot study the questionnaire was prepared.

Pre-test of the Questionnaire

A pre-test was conducted to test the usefulness of the tools of data collection. After preparing the draft questionnaire a few respondents were interviewed for testing and ascertaining the effectiveness, relevance and applicability of the questions. Then the questionnaire was finalised after removing the unsuitable questions and modifying a few questions. The questionnaire was translated into Malayalam, as the respondents were workers.

Questionnaire

The first part of the questionnaire deals with the social aspects of the respondents. Questions regarding

age, religion, education, marital status etc. are asked.

The second part was to be filled up only by the women respondents. It measured the responsibility of women workers towards their family, household matters etc. The details regarding their family members and areas of responsibility of women respondents were asked.

In the third part of the questionnaire it was intended to measure the organisational commitment of workers. Commitment was measured using the Porter et al. (1974) scale. This scale measured the employees' loyalty to remain in the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization and also the acceptance of goals of the organization. The instrument contains 15 items and response was as follows: (A) strongly agree; (B) agree; (C) no comments; (D) disagree and (E) strongly disagree. There were negative and positive statements. There were 5 negative statements. For positive statements, 5 to 1 points were given to A, B, C, D & E respectively and for negative statements 1 to 5 points are given to the responses A, B, C, D & E respectively.

Fourth part was to measure the commitment to work. The instrument used in the present study was

developed by Indumati (1988) for her study. Thirty items were included. The items included were in the form of self-descriptive statements. The respondent was required to endorse or reject each item by marking 'True'/'False' response alternatives.

The fifth part of the questionnaire was to measure the satisfaction of the respondents regarding their work and work place. This was taken from the study 'Organizational Alienation: A Study with Special Reference to Kerala Water Authority' by T.V.Jacob (1990). Five responses were given for each statement as shown below:

- A Extremely satisfied
- B Well satisfied
- C Satisfied
- D Less satisfied
- E Least satisfied

For 'A' 5 points were given, for 'B' 4 points, for 'C' 3 points, for 'D' 2 points and for 'E' 1 point was given depending on the answers given by the respondents.

Analysis of Data

The collected data were analysed by using appropriate statistical techniques like chi-square, 't' test etc. The data collected were tabulated in a meaningful form. After analysis it was compared with the secondary data collected.

Significance of the Study

There have been many studies in India projecting the image of Indian industrial worker from several angles. Some of these have emphasised the inherent weakness of the Indian personality system owing to cultural inadequacies, others specially by the western oriented scholars have projected qualities of the Indian workers which are not present nor are found necessary by later studies. This group of studies concluded that the workers in India were not adaptive to industrial culture. It is said that they are either uncommitted or semi-committed. But recent studies rejected this myth. Even in most advanced countries of the world, conflicting group interests hamper the smooth functioning of the organization. In both developed and developing countries a problem of constant

adjustment to the work roles and norms continues to exist. A vast change has taken place in Indian society specially after independence.

In the context of these changes the problem of work commitment becomes significant for the success of planned change in India. However, nobody has attempted to study the commitment of Indian industrial women and linked with her role in the family. Accordingly, the general purpose of the study is to probe in greater depth the commitment of work of men and women industrial workers. It may be emphasized that the present study is a sociological study within the framework of work commitment as conceived in industrial sociology.

The study, it is hoped, will reveal the disposition of the Indian industrial female worker in the context of the accelerated industrial development of the nation. It will also provide guidelines for the policy makers, managers, trade union leaders and others interested in the developmental process to form their opinion in the furtherance of the industrial relation situation in Indian context. Above all, it will definitely open new vistas

for research in the area of women studies in the nation. The study of women industrial worker will help the students of sociology and also all thinking Indians to know the real conditions of women industrial workers. The socio-economic conditions of women reflect the health of a nation. Progress of women towards equality holds a barometer to the progress and development of the entire country.

Limitations of the Study

This study has also not without its own limitations. The data were collected from the two industries OEN India Ltd. and Keltron Controls Division. The OEN India is a private sector industry. The Management was a little reluctant in giving permission to approach the workers for giving the questionnaires, with the fear that the working time may be wasted. Hence the questionnaires were given during lunch break and respondents were asked to fill them at their convenience. They were collected after a few days. Some of them also expressed their doubt whether the filled up questionnaires will be shown to the management. It was assured by the researcher that the filled up questionnaire will not be shown to the management.

Plan of the Study

The first chapter is the introduction which gives the details regarding the entry of women into work outside home.

The second chapter explains the female labour force participation in developed and developing countries. A picture of labour force participation of India and Kerala, with details of electronic industry in Kerala are also given.

The third chapter is intended to explain the literature survey and the fourth chapter gives the design of the study. The fifth chapter explains the work commitment of women workers. The family responsibilities of women workers and their commitment to work is detailed in the sixth chapter. The seventh chapter is intended to explain the organizational commitment of women workers. The conclusion and the suggestions for the future research is given in the eighth chapter which is the last chapter.

Chapter V

WORK COMMITMENT AND WOMEN WORKERS

As information about commitment to work of the workers of industrial organizations, is significant from academic and practical points of view, an attempt is made to study the commitment of men and women workers in this chapter.

The first hypothesis of the study is as follows:

There is significant difference between men and women workers with regard to commitment to industrial work.

Work Commitment Questionnaire

The work commitment of 280 respondents from two electronic industrial units, OEN India Ltd., Mulanthuruthy and Keltron Control Division, Aroor is measured by a 30 item scale developed by Indumati (1986) with suitable modifications, in this study. Eventhough questionnaires were given to all the workers of the two industrial units, the usable ones returned were 280 (62.78%). The items included in the questionnaire are in the form of self descriptive statements, which include both positive and negative statements, to avoid response bias. While

scoring, a 'true' answer to a positively keyed statement is given one score and a 'false' answer is given zero score and for negatively keyed statements a 'true' answer is given zero score and a 'false' answer is given one score. The maximum score given is 30.

The collected data are edited, coded and entered into a master chart for statistical treatments. The mean values of work commitment of men and women workers are computed separately and the test of significance is also done. The mean value of the work commitment of men workers is 73.796 while the standard deviation is 10.115. The mean value of the work commitment of women workers is 76.340 and the standard deviation is 8.831. Table 5.1 depicts the details of analysis.

Table 5.1

Work commitment of workers

	Number	Mean	Standard deviation
Men workers	137	73.796	10.115
Women workers	143	76.340	8.831
		t value	-2.25

The 't' value is -2.25 which is significant at 0.05 level and which shows that there is statistically significant difference in the commitment of work, between men and women workers. It is also found that the women workers are more committed to work than the men workers, as revealed by the statistical tests.

By further analysis of data it has also been tried to find out whether variables such as age, religion, education, family income, years of experience and whether the organization where they are working comes under public sector/private sector have any association with the work commitment of women workers.

Age and Work Commitment

The women respondents are classified into three groups depending on their age as explained in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

Percentage-wise distribution of women workers depending on their age

Age group	No.of women workers	Percentage
21-30 years	10	7.0
31-40 years	95	66.4
41 years and above	38	26.6
Total	143	100

An overwhelming majority (66.4%) of the women workers come under the age group of 31-40 years and only 7% belongs to the age group of 21-30 years. Out of the total women respondents 26.6% belongs to the age group of 41 years and above.

By applying the chisquare test, the association between the age and work commitment of women workers, is tested and the chisquare value is found to be 9.253, which is not significant at 0.05 level. Thus it is found that there is no statistically significant association between the age and work commitment of women workers.

Religion and Work Commitment

On analysis, of data it is revealed that the women workers of the two electronic industrial units considered for this study, are from three religious communities ie., Christian, Hindu and Muslim. It has also been tested whether there is any association between the religion and commitment to work of the women workers.

Table 5.3 explains the percentage-wise distribution of women workers depending on their religion.

Table 5.3
Percentage-wise distribution of women workers
depending on their religion

Religion	No. of women workers	Percentage
Christian	102	71.3
Hindu	40	28.0
Muslim	1	0.7
Total	143	100

Of the total respondents 71.3% are from Christian community, while the representation from Muslim community is much less (0.7%). It is seen that 28% of women respondents are from Hindu community.

The association between the religion and work commitment of women respondents is also tested by the chisquare test, the value of which is found to be 2.118. The χ^2 value is not significant at 0.05 level. Hence no statistically significant association is found between the religion and commitment of women workers.

Education and Work Commitment

For the purpose of getting a detailed picture of the educational attainments of the women workers, further analysis of data has been done and the women respondents are classified on the basis of their educational qualifications. It is interesting to note that all women workers possess the qualification of S.S.L.C or above, while there are a few men workers who have not completed S.S.L.C. An overwhelming majority (79.72%) have the qualification of S.S.L.C. and 2.8% are graduates even though graduation is not at all required for their work in the industry. Some (17.48%) have the technical training, in addition to S.S.L.C, even though this is not insisted by the management earlier. Now the persons with the technical training course certificates are recruited as trainees. So among the women workers considered for this study only 17.48% have the I.T.I qualification. The percentage-wise distribution of women workers depending on their educational qualification is depicted in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4

Percentage-wise distribution of women workers depending on their educational qualification

Educational qualification	No.of women workers	Percentage
S.S.L.C	114	79.72
S.S.L.C and I.T.I	25	17.48
Degree	4	2.8
Total	143	100

The association between the education and work commitment of women workers is also tested by computing the chisquare test, the value of which is found to be 6.101. The χ^2 value is not significant at 0.05 level. The statistical analysis reveals that no significant association is found between the education and the commitment of women workers.

Family Income and Work Commitment

The family income of a worker is important in forcing a person to work. Out of total women respondents 70% intimated that they looked upon work as a measure of earning. Table 5.5 gives the details of distribution of women respondents by their family income. The largest (60.8%) proportion of women workers have the family income within the range of Rs.3001-5000, thus it is found that the majority are spread over in the middle group of the classification. Of the total women respondents only 11.9% have the family income within the range of Rs.5001 and above, while 27.3% have the family income within the range of Rs.1000-3000.

Again by applying the chisquare test, the association between the family income and work commitment

Table 5.5

Percentage-wise distribution of women respondents depending on their family income

Family income	No. of women workers	Percentage
Rs.1000-3000	39	27.3
Rs.3001-5000	87	60.8
Rs.5001 and above	17	11.9
Total	143	100

of women workers is tested. The χ^2 value is 7.083 which is not significant at 0.05 level, which indicates that there is no association between the family income and commitment to work of the women workers.

Years of Experience of Women Workers and Work Commitment

It is stated that commitment is not a priori, but develops after a durable association with a particular occupation. Without experience commitment is difficult to develop because there is no substitute for experience as far knowledge of work and its other aspects are concerned (Gupta 1982). Seniority to some extent can be the indicator of work commitment. On the basis of data obtained, the respondents are again classified depending on

their experience of work in the present organization as explained in Table 5.6

Table 5.6
Percentage-wise distribution of women workers depending on their years of experience

Years of experience	No.of women workers	Percentage
1-10	20	14.0
11-20	96	67.1
21 and above	27	18.9
	143	100

By the years of experience it is meant that the number of years they have been working in the present organization. Majority of the women workers (67.1%) have the experience of 11-20 years, 18.9% have the experience of 21 years and above while 14% of the women workers have the experience of 1-10 years.

The value of the chisquare test is found to be 13.843 which is significant at 0.05 level. It is found that there is statistically significant association between the work commitment and years of experience of the women

workers in the organization where they are working. The length of service in the industrial units where they are working is associated with the work commitment of workers.

Public Sector/Private Sector and Work Commitment

Based on the nature of the organization where they are working, whether it comes under public sector or private sector, the women workers are again classified. Table 5.7 explains the percentage-wise distribution of women respondents based on the organization where they are working, comes under public sector or private sector. About

Table 5.7

Percentage-wise distribution of women workers depending on organization

Nature of organization	No. of women workers	Percentage
Public sector	127	88.8
Private sector	16	11.2
Total	143	100

An overwhelming majority (88.8%) work in the organization which comes under the private sector, while

11.2% of women respondents work in the organization that comes under private sector.

The association between the work commitment of women workers and where they are working i.e., public sector/private sector is tested by computing chi-square test, the value of which is found to be 8.832. The χ^2 value is found significant at 0.05 level, which reveals that there is statistically significant association between the work commitment and whether the organization comes under public sector or private sector. The work commitment of the women is associated with the nature of the organization where they are working i.e., whether it comes under public sector or private sector.

Analysis of Variance

It has been seen that the women respondents are classified depending on their age, religion, education, family income, years of experience and the organization where they are working comes under public sector or private sector as delineated above. The respondents are grouped under each class and on computation of analysis of variance, it is tried to find out if there is any pronounced variation between the groups towards work commitment. By age-wise

distribution of women respondents there are three groups ie., 21-30 years (10 workers), 31-40 years (95 workers) and 41 years and above (38 workers). By analysis of variance it is found that the calculated value of F-ratio (F, 2, 140) is greater than the tabled value at 5% level of significance which shows that the test is significant, indicating that there is pronounced variation between the groups with regard to work commitment (See Table 5.8).

The women respondents are also classified on the basis of family income. By analysis of variance the F ratio is found to be 0.433 which is less than the tabled value, showing non-significant variation at 0.05 level, between the groups. Table 5.9 explains the details of the analysis of variance which indicates that statistically no significant variation is found between the groups of women workers based on their family income with regard to work commitment. The women workers are distributed into three groups depending on their family income ie., those who have the family income in the range of Rs.1000-3000 (39 workers), Rs.3001-5000 (87 workers) and Rs.5001 and above (17 workers).

Table 5.8

Age and work commitment

----- ONE WAY -----

Analysis of variance					
Source	D.F.	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F ratio	F prob.
Between groups	2	52.571	26.285	3.898	0.022
Within groups	140	944.057	6.743		
Total	142	996.629			

Table 5.9

Family income and work commitment

----- ONE WAY -----

Analysis of variance

Source	D.F.	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F ratio	F prob.
Between groups	2	6.136	3.068	0.433	0.649
Within groups	140	990.492	7.074		
Total	142	996.629			

The analysis of data reveals that there is no variation between the three groups of women workers divided on the basis of family income, with regard to work commitment.

The women respondents are also classified on the basis of years of experience as delineated in the Table 5.6 which shows that there are three groups i.e., those having the experience of 1-10 years (20 women workers), 11-20 years (96 women workers) and 21 years and above (27 women workers). The group variation towards work commitment is tested and the F ratio is found to be 4.469 which is greater than the tabled value. Hence significant variation at 0.05 level is found. The analysis of data reveals the significant variation between the three groups of respondents based on the years of experience toward commitment. Table 5.10 explains the details of analysis.

Depending on the nature of organization where they are working, whether it comes under public sector or private sector, also the women workers are classified into two groups and the group variation is tested by the analysis of variance. The F-ratio is found to be 6.749 indicating the significant variation between the groups at

Table 5.10

Years of experience and work commitment

Source	Analysis of variance				
	D.F.	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F ratio	F Prob.
Between groups	2	59.804	29.902	4.468	0.013
Within groups	140	936.825	6.691		
Total	142	996.629			

0.05 level. There is variation between the groups divided on the basis of public sector/private sector, with regard to work commitment. (Table 5.11).

Satisfaction of Women Workers

As a part of the study of commitment of women workers, the satisfaction of women workers is also measured. Hoppock (1985) states that job satisfaction is any combination of psychological physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, "I am satisfied with my job".

In order to measure the job satisfaction of the workers of the two industrial units, the researcher used a 16 item scale developed by Jacob (1990) and a five point Likert type response format is used, as explained in chapter IV. While scoring the scale, one to five scores are assigned depending on the responses.

The collected data are analysed and the test of significance has been computed by 't' test. The mean value of the satisfaction of men workers is 58.714 and the standard deviation is 12.745. And the mean value of

Table 5.11

Public Sector/Private sector and Work commitment

Source	Analysis of variance			
	D.F.	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F ratio F Prob.
Between groups	1	45.522	45.522	6.748 0.010
Within groups	141	951.106	6.745	
Total	142	996.629		

Table 5.12
Satisfaction of women workers

	No.of cases	Mean	Standard deviation
Men workers	137	58.714	12.745
Women workers	143	59.169	12.028
t value -0.31			

satisfaction of women workers is 59.169 while the standard deviation is 12.028. Table 5.12 depicts the details of statistical tests, and the value of 't' test is found to be -0.31, which is not statistically significant at 0.05 level. The results on computation reveals that there is no significant difference in the satisfaction of men industrial workers and that of women industrial workers.

By further statistical analysis, the association between the satisfaction of women workers and variables such as age, religion, education,, family income, years of experience and whether organization comes under is public sector/private sector, has also been tried to find out. The classification of the women respondents depending on

Table 5.13

Chi square test for satisfaction of women workers
and variables

Variables	Chi square value	Whether significant at .05 level
1. Age	2.729	Not significant
2. Religion	3.991	Not significant
3. Education	14.68	Significant
4. Family income	3.148	Not significant
5. Years of experience	1.780	Not significant
6. Public Sector/ Private sector	5.407	Not Significant

their age, religion, education family income, years of experience and public sector/private sector has been delineated above. The association between these variables and satisfaction of women workers has been tested by applying chisquare test, at 0.05 level.

Among these variables only the education of women workers is found associated with the satisfaction of workers.

The chisquare value is found to be 14.68 which is significant at 0.05 level. The test reveals that there is statistically significant association between the education of women workers and their satisfaction to work. The chisquare test for testing the association between the other variables and satisfaction indicate the non-significant association, the χ^2 values are shown in Table 5.13.

Discussion

The findings of this study is in agreement with that of Angle and Perry (1981) who states that women are more committed to work than men. Stead (1978) states that women are committed to job as men and in terms of need to work two thirds of those women working are self supporting

and more than one third are the sole wage earners of their families. Arnott (1972) found that non-traditional beliefs regarding women's autonomy were positively associated with an interest in employment and similarly Bielby and Bielby's (1984) study of female university graduates revealed that insulation from traditional female role expectations led to a higher degree of work commitment and the proportion with a stronger commitment increase faster than the proportion expressing a weaker commitment. Yeandle (1984) found that among working women many mothers perceived their jobs as vital in maintaining their family's standard of living.

In contrast, with the findings of the present study, Nealia and Robert (1983) who examined the extent of sex differences, and position differences in commitment, for a large and heterogenous sample of actually employed men and women of social service organization, found that neither sex nor position was a critical determinant of commitment.

Research on women's job commitment by Chusmir (1986) found that although women had higher levels of sex role conflict than men, neither sex role conflict nor family pressure was found to be significantly related to

job commitment. It was also stated that women's commitment to work was affected by sex role conflict and such commitment was reduced by the conflicting demands of women's domestic and employment duties. Terborg (1977) argued that women in management professions often experienced 'role overload' which occurred when they undertook paid employment and at the same time had to maintain responsibility for most other domestic tasks including child bearing.

Women will always have more domestic chores to attend to than men and the effect of sex role socialization or commitment was studied by Huber (1982). He argued that women's traditional sex role socialization had emphasized the primary of domestic roles over careers, has predisposed them to aspire to low achievement of job and had equipped them with behaviour patterns that were inappropriate for successful vocations. Ritzer and Trice (1969) found no relationship between either organizational or occupational commitment and side bet factors of age, education, marital status, number of children and overall mobility.

Women always have to perform double roles. Authors like Terborg (1977) and Bhagat & Chassie (1981)

argued that women's commitment to work was affected by sex role conflict and such commitment was reduced by the conflicting demands of women's domestic and employment duties. Gray (1989) also stated that organizational commitment among a sample of female hospital nurses was negatively associated with feminist gender ideology and the extent to which work interfered with family life, was also found to reduce organizational commitment.

Some authors like Barnett and Baruch (1978) states that women have less positive self referent attitudes than men and that organizations should develop special training programme for women in order to prevent the undesirable outcomes such as poor performance or absenteeism.

The commitment to work is the nucleus of industrial development in all industries. In this study of workers of electronic industry it is found that the women workers are more committed to work than the men workers. It is also found that the years of experience and nature of organization (public sector/private sector) has been associated with their work commitment. The limited mobility at the work place, the difficulty to get another job and the

security and earning gives, may all affect the work commitment of women workers. There are many factors affecting the work commitment of workers.

The Keltron Controls Division comes under public sector and the men workers here expressed their fear about privatization policy and if it come into rule, excess workers may be sent away. While sharing the experiences the men workers of both the industrial units expressed their expectation of getting better jobs, than what they got. These all may affect the work commitment of men workers. There is no significant difference between men and women workers with regard to satisfaction.

Chapter VI

FAMILY RESPONSIBILITY AND COMMITMENT TO WORK

Emanicipation of women, the urge for self development and economic compulsion persuaded women for taking up industrial employment. The major responsibility of keeping the house rests with women in many households, even if she has taken up employment outside the house. When a women takes up the working role, she not only finds a change in her status within the family and outside but also takes upon increasing pressure to reconcile the dual burden of the two roles located in the different sectors of the society - in the house and at the work place. There is always some tension that exists between society's need for the family as a transmitter of status and value to the next generation and society's claim on its members for extra-family commitments. An understanding of the family responsibilities of women workers and its relation to their commitment to work is necessary for developing effective strategies. So an attempt is made to find out the family responsibilities of women workers, and to study whether it has any impact on the commitment to industrial work. In order to find out the above relation, the second hypothesis

of the study is tested and discussed in this chapter.

It is hypothesised that: the women workers with less family responsibilities are more committed to work than women workers with more family responsibilities.

Family Responsibilities of Women Workers

In this study the women workers of the two industrial units were considered. For the purpose of this study, the women workers with more family responsibilities were considered as those who were married, having children and without any significant support from servants, neighbours or other members of the family for managing the household and doing all the household work such as cooking, washing, cleaning, maintaining home, purchasing, taking care of children, teaching children at home etc. by themselves. Depending on the number of family members, who were to be taken care of, the responsibility of the woman increased. When there were more children it meant more responsibility.

The women workers who had less work at home and got significant support from their family members or

servants or neighbours were considered as having less responsibilities at home.

Questionnaire for Measuring the Family Responsibilities

The questionnaire for measuring the family responsibilities of women workers is formulated for collecting the relevant data and the items included in this part are selected after a detailed study about the factors which give responsibilities to a woman towards, her home. The scores/points are assigned for the items which show the responsibility of a woman respondent towards her home and those who have more responsibilities towards their home get more scores.

Each woman respondent was asked to mention her place of stay and four alternative answers were given i.e., (a) with the family; (b) with the relatives; (c) in the hostel; (d) as a paying guest. Those who responded that they were staying with the family got two scores and those who responded that they were staying with the relatives got one score. If the women respondent stated that they themselves were the heads of their families, again they were given one score.

Depending on the number of children each woman, had, scores were given ie., for example one score for those having one child, two scores for those having two children etc. and those who had girl child were given one additional score, because girl child meant more responsibility. For each member of the family who was dependent on the women respondent, one score was given.

The respondents were also asked whether they had any full time servants for helping them in their household work and if the response was negative, a score was given. If they did not have any part time servant, one more score was given, and if the respondents did not get any help from family members also one score was given.

The areas where the direct responsibility of woman, required were given and the respondents were asked to give their responses according to their responsibilities they had at home. Depending on the number of items, they dealt with directly at their house, scores were given.

Women Workers with more Family Responsibilities and Women Workers with less Family Responsibilities

The total scores assigned to each women respondent has been computed and the total respondents were classified into two groups, depending on the scores they received and after finding the median ie., women respondents with more family responsibilities and women respondents with less

family responsibilities. As more persons got the same score ie., the value of the median, 84 respondents came under the first group (women with less family responsibilities) and 59 respondents came under the second group (women with more family responsibilities) as depicted in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1
Classification of women workers depending on their
family responsibilities

	Number	Percentage
No. of women workers with less family responsibilities	84	58.74
No. of women workers with more family responsibilities	59	41.26
Total	143	100.00

Work Commitment and Family Responsibilities of Women Workers

A 30 item scale developed by Indumati (1986) as described in chapter IV was used to measure the work commitment of respondents. The mean value of the scores

for the work commitment of the two groups i.e., women workers with more family responsibilities and women workers with less family responsibilities were computed separately and for testing the significance of difference between the mean values of the two groups, regarding their commitment to work, 't' test was computed. Table 6.2 presents an analysis of these details.

Table 6.2

Commitment to work and family responsibilities of women workers

	Number	Mean	Standard deviation
Women workers with less family responsibilities	84	76.151	9.547
Women workers with more family responsibilities	59	76.610	7.767
	t value	-0.31	

The mean value for the work commitment of the women workers with more family responsibilities is 76.61 and the standard deviation is 7.767, while the mean value for women workers with less family responsibilities is 76.151 and the standard deviation is 9.547. In order to

test whether the mean values differ significantly or not 't' test has been completed, the value of which is found to be -0.31.

It has been found that there is no statistically significant difference in the commitment of work between the two groups of women respondents, i.e., women workers with more family responsibilities and women workers with less family responsibilities. Both the groups, whether women having more family responsibilities or less family responsibilities do not have any difference in their commitment to work at the workplace. The commitment to work of women at the workplace is not affected by their responsibilities or duties at home.

Satisfaction to work and Family Responsibilities of Women Workers

As a part of the study of commitment to work, the satisfaction of two groups of women workers is also studied and which has been assessed by a five point scale developed by T.V.Jacob (1990) as described in chapter IV. The satisfaction to work is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. Those attitudes which are

related to work and are concerned with wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, recognition of work, advancement opportunities, recognition of ability fair evaluation of work, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment of employer and similar other items (Blum & Naylor 1968).

The fifth part of the questionnaire is intended to measure the satisfaction of the workers, which include sixteen items with a five point response format and with a maximum score of 80. The significant difference between the mean values for the two groups has been tested by computing 't' test and the details are explained in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

Satisfaction to work and family responsibilities
of women workers

	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Women workers with less family responsibilities	84	57.768	11.776
Women workers with more family responsibilities	59	61.165	12.201
		't' value -1.67	

The mean value for the satisfaction to work for the group of women workers with less family responsibilities is 57.768 while the standard deviation is 11.776. It has been found that the mean value for the other group i.e., women workers with more family responsibilities is 61.165 and the standard deviation is 12.201. On computing the test of significance the 't' value is found as -1.67 which is not significant at 0.05 level. Thus it is found that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups of women workers with regard to their satisfaction to work. No difference is found in the satisfaction of women workers with more family responsibilities and that of women workers with less family responsibilities.

The satisfaction to work at the workplace is determined by many factors. As no statistically significant difference is found in the satisfaction of two groups of women workers, it can be concluded that the women workers' satisfaction at the workplace is not being affected by the responsibilities at home. The satisfaction is influenced by some other factors.

The relevant information revealing the nature of family responsibilities of women workers has been gathered

by the questionnaire, for testing the second hypothesis. The responses of the group of women workers with more family responsibilities on analysis, show the nature of household work they have to do and which give them more responsibilities toward their home. More family members who are to be taken care of, by the women respondents indicate more responsibilities of this group and almost all household chores such as cooking, cleaning, maintaining home, washing and teaching children at home etc. are being done by themselves. Neither the family members helped them nor they get any significant support from neighbours or others. Full-time or part-time servants are also not been employed by these women due to financial stringency which compels them to limit their expenditure. Still they find time to attend to the needs of their husbands and children as manifested in their response to the question, "Did you get enough time to attend to your children during illness"? Almost 75% of the respondents of the group with more family responsibilities intimated that they got time, which showed their eagerness and commitment towards the family members. It is also interesting to note that, eventhough they have mere responsibilities at home, they try to fulfill it and are satisfied with it. This is again revealed by the positive response of 70% of women

respondents of this group for the question, "Are you satisfied in attending to husbands' and children's need"? They stated that they did not get leisure time for watching TV or listening to radio in their routine day-to-day life.

The other group of women respondents, those with less responsibilities have to attend less household matters and have lesser number of family members who are dependent on them. The family members are helpful and they have either full-time or part-time servants for extending help in fulfilling their day-to-day household work.

The commitment to work and satisfaction of the two groups of women workers has not been influenced by the activities of home or their responsibilities towards home as delineated above, as no significant difference has been observed between these two groups by the statistical tests.

Discussion

There is growing literature which links work and family life and some researchers rely on 'segmentation' theory to characterize the process by which work and family are linked. According to this theory, work and home are segmented and independent and they do not affect each other

(Blood & Wolfe 1960). This is in tune with the findings of the present study, which shows that there is no difference in the commitment of work and satisfaction of women workers with more family responsibilities, and that of women workers with less family responsibilities.

But some researchers find strong ties between work and home and when economic necessity forces a woman to take up employment outside the home, this is usually accepted as being an extension of her family duties and according to Fuchs (1971) "it is chiefly interpreted as an additional task within the range of tasks of married women", (p.496). It is a temporary extension of her family role because she is temporarily earning money needed by the family. He found strong ties between high work commitment and family structure and a positive relationship between her degree of work commitment and marital status was also noted. It is observed that married women with children have more responsibilities and they view themselves as committed to work. Haller and Rosenmayr (1971) state that the longer the women are married, the more work committed they are.

Research by Rapoport and Rapoport (1971) found that working women without children were less committed to

work than those with children. They also contend that many highly committed women were very happy with their marriages.

Kanter (1977) and Piotrkowski (1979) pointed out that autonomy to choose and schedule work methods also enabled workers to meet family responsibilities better and to enjoy family life. Kanter (1977) suggested, "family situations can define work orientations motivations, abilities, emotional energy people bring to the work place" (p.54). It has been observed that women perform better than men when faced with the opportunity for promotion.

It was also observed that commitment was related negatively with women's duties at home. Sex role conflict experienced by women workers as a reason for low level of work commitment (Shimmin, 1984). It was stated that commitment was reduced by the conflicting demands of women's domestic and employment duties.

Some researches were of the view that the family responsibilities of women workers directly interfere with their work outside home. Lambert (1990) stated that the household responsibilities of workers may directly

interfere with their job involvement and satisfaction. Even if workers derived great pleasure from family life, the day-to-day responsibilities of maintaining home and caring for children might limit the amount of energy and time they could devote to work. Supporting this viewpoint Crouter (1984) stated that young children in the home could conflict with the demand of one's work and this was occurred even when one was very satisfied with parenthood and family life.

Traditionally research on work has been limited to the experiences of men and is often based on the assumption that work is or at least should be their primary life interest. By considering the experiences of women at least one other process which typifies the relationship between work and home can be identified ie., accommodation. According to Lambert (1990), "this process is characterized by workers limiting their involvement in work, or in family life, so that they can accommodate the demands of the other" (p.246). Many women more involved in their family than their work may limit their involvement in work in order to accommodate family obligations. High involvement in one sphere leads to low involvement in the other.

It is also suggested that workers carry the emotions, attitudes, skills and behaviour that they

establish at work into their family life (Piotrkowski 1979). Thus spillover can be positive or negative. Certain jobs and family characteristics spill over by directly affecting the other sphere.

Some women try to reduce the family responsibilities so as to involve more in work. Schwartz (1989) points out that there is the tendency for professional women to postpone having children or not to have any at all. Thus the family responsibilities is reduced to get more involvement in the work outside.

The data revealed that majority (70%) of the women workers are looking upon work as a measure of earning and they come out for work with economic necessity as their motivation. It has been found that the commitment of women workers has not been affected by their family responsibilities at home, which is in contrast to findings of some of the previous researchers. The women with more family responsibilities have to perform more household work, then the other group, such as cooking, washing, cleaning, maintaining home etc. But the commitment to work is affected by some other factors. The satisfaction of the two groups of women workers is also not being affected by

the family responsibilities or duties at home, no matter whether the responsibilities toward home are more or less. It may be the feeling of security work gives the women workers, as it is looked upon by them as an important source of earning as indicated by their responses. Usually the directors/management of the industrial organizations are a little reluctant to recruit women workers considering the fact that they will have more family responsibilities and it may affect their commitment towards work and satisfaction at the workplace. But in this study it has been revealed that the commitment and satisfaction are not being influenced by their responsibilities towards their home.

Chapter VII

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND WOMEN WORKERS

Apart from work commitment, the organizational commitment of workers is very much important in the well functioning of any industrial organization. In recent years, the concept of 'Organizational Commitment' has received much attention from academicians and practitioners alike. Practitioners in the world of management are interested in maintaining and enhancing the organizational commitment of their employees in the hope that this would somehow improve job performance and organizational effectiveness or at least reduce tardiness and absenteeism. Research upon organizational commitment has been growing over the last few years as shown in chapter III.

An attempt is made to study the organizational commitment of 280 workers of the two industrial units ie., OEN India Ltd. and Keltron Controls Division, Aroor,

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Porter's (1974) scale is used for this study for measuring the organizational commitment of men and women

workers of the two selected industrial units, as described in chapter IV. Porter et al. defined organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. And commitment consists of (a) a belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values (b) the willingness to exert effort towards goal accomplishment and (c) a strong desire to maintain organizational membership. The scale consists of 15 statements and for the purpose of this study, the researcher has taken all the fifteen statements with suitable modifications. Some of the statements are positive, some are negative and the negatively phrased statements are reversely scored to reduce response bias. A five point response format was employed, with a maximum score of five points and with a minimum score of one point. By analysing the data, the mean values of the organizational commitment of men and women workers are computed separately. For testing the significance of difference of mean values of the two groups 't' test is also done. The details are given in the Table 7.1. The mean value of the organisational commitment

Table 7.1
Organizational commitment of workers

	Number	Mean	S.D
Men workers	137	70.745	10.175
Women workers	143	74.555	9.471
		't' value - 3.25	

of men workers is 70.745 and the standard deviation is 10.175. The mean value of organisational commitment of women workers is 74.555, while the standard deviation is 9.471. It is found that there is significant difference in the commitment to organization, of men and women workers. The women workers are more committed to the organization than the men workers, and there is statistically significant difference in the organizational commitment of men and women workers.

Organizational Commitment and Certain Variables

The association between certain variables of the women workers such as age, religion, education, family, income, years of experience, whether public sector or private sector with the organizational commitment has also been studied.

Age and Organizational Commitment

The women workers are classified into three categories depending on their age. Of the total respondents ie., 66.4% belongs to the age group of 31-40 years and 26.6% of women respondents belong to the age group of 41 years and above. Only 7% belong to the age group of 21-30 years. The association between the age and organizational commitment of women workers is tested. Applying chisquare test the value is found to be 0.923 which is not significant at 0.05 level.

The association between the age of the women workers and their organizational commitment is not statistically significant.

Religion and Organizational Commitment

The association between religion of the women workers and organizational commitment is also tested in the present study. The women respondents selected were from three religious communities ie., Christians, Hindus and Muslims. The majority is from the Christian community ie., 71.3% and 28% belongs to the Hindu community and there is only one respondent from the Muslim community. The chisquare value is 1.077 which is not significant at 0.05 level.

There is no statistically significant association between religion and organizational commitment of the women respondents.

Education and Organizational Commitment

Level of education is an achievement-based characteristic of the worker. The literacy rate of the women in Kerala is high, when compared to other states and this has been manifested among the industrial workers also.

All the women workers in this study have passed S.S.L.C or above. There are even some respondents who have the qualification of degree, not required for their job. Majority of the women workers ie., 79.72% have the qualification of S.S.L.C and 2.8% are graduates. The association between the organizational commitment and the education of workers is studied, and by applying chisquare test the value is found to be 96.284 which is significant at 0.05 level.

The association between the education of the women workers and their commitment to the organization is statistically significant. The education of the women respondents is associated with their organizational commitment. The organizational commitment is being associated by the education of the women respondents in this study. The women workers are educated and some have I.T.I qualification also.

Years of Experience and Organizational Commitment

The number of years a worker spends in an organization may or may not influence his/her commitment to the organization. The women respondents depending on their years of experience in the organization where they are

working are classified into three groups ie., those who work for one to 10 years, those who work for 11-20 years and those who work for 21 years and above. Majority of the women respondents ie., 67.1% have the experience of 11-20 years and 18.9% have the experience of 21 years and above and 14% have the experience of 1-10 years.

The association between the years of experience of the women workers and their organizational commitment is also tested by applying the chisquare test. There is no statistically significant association between the years of experience and their organizational commitment. The chisquare value is 2.129 which is not significant at 0.05 level.

Family Income and Organizational Commitment

Majority of women respondents (70%) take up the job as a means of earning which might enhance their family income. The women workers were again classified depending on their family income. For the majority of the women respondents ie. 87 of the respondents, the family income falls between Rs.3001-5000 and 39 have the family income in between 1000-3000 and 17 have the family income of Rs.5001 and above. By applying the chisquare test, the

value is found to be 2.034 which is not significant at 0.05 level.

No statistically significant association is found between the family income of the women workers and their commitment to the organization. Their organizational commitment is not being associated with their family income.

Public Sector/Private Sector and Organizational Commitment

The workers from two industrial units are considered for this study i.e., OEN India Ltd., which comes under private sector and Keltron Controls Division, Aroor which comes under public sector. Majority of the women workers are working for the private sector i.e., 88.8%.

The association between the organizational commitment and the nature of the organization i.e., whether public sector or private sector was tried to find out by applying the chi-square test. The chi-square value is 1.50 which is not significant at 0.05 level.

It is found that there is no statistically significant association between the organizational commitment and the nature of the organization where they are working.

The women workers of the two electronic industrial units in this study, are found more committed to the organization than the men workers. The statistical tests show that there is significant difference in the commitment to organization of women workers and that of the men workers. Majority of the women workers do not like to leave the organization where they work. This can be indirectly inferred by another finding in this study ie., for the question, 'would you like to leave this organization for another job, if available? 94 per cent of the women respondents responded that they would not leave the organization. The reasons for leaving the organization were also given ie.,

- a) the higher salary
- b) for better conditions of work
- c) if it is nearer home
- d) for getting co-operation of superior/
subordinates/colleagues.

But inspite of all these facts, they like to stick on to the organization where they work. Even if another job in another organization with better salary and better conditions of employment are provided also they do not want

to leave the organization. The goals and values of the organization are more acceptable to the women workers than men workers.

The association between the variables, age, religion, education, family, income, years of experience and whether public sector/private sector and the organizational commitment of women workers were also tested and is found that there is association between the education of the women workers and their organizational commitment. The organizational commitment of the workers is being associated by their education. The other variables such as age, religion, years of experience, family income, public sector/private sector do not have any association with the organizational commitment of women respondents.

Organizational Commitment and Family Responsibilities of Women Workers

The organizational commitment of two groups of women respondents ie., women workers with more family responsibilities and those with less family responsibilities was also measured using Porter et al. (1974), scale as explained in chapter IV.

The scores are given for the responses and the mean values of the scores for the organizational commitment of the two groups ie., women workers with more family responsibilities and those with less family responsibilities are computed separately. The 't' test is administered to test the statistically significant difference between the mean values of organizational commitment of the two groups of women workers.

Table 7.2

Organizational commitment and family responsibilities of women workers

	Number	Mean	Standard deviation
Women respondents with more family responsibilities	59	74.87	9.756
Women respondents with less family responsibilities	84	74.33	9.318
t value = -0.33			

The mean value for the organizational commitment of women workers with more family responsibilities is 74.87 and standard deviation 9.756. The mean value of the organizational commitment of those having less family

responsibilities is 74.33 and the standard deviation is 9.318.

As far as organizational commitment is concerned, there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups of women respondents i.e., women workers with more family responsibilities and women workers with less family responsibilities. It does not make any difference in their organizational commitment by the fact that they have more responsibilities or less responsibilities towards their home. Their commitment to the organization is not being affected by their mode of responsibilities at home. The responsibilities they have at home do not affect their organizational commitment.

The organization pays remuneration and other allowances to the workers for their work and the workers work for attaining the goals and values of the organization but there is difference in the commitment of men and women workers. Organizational commitment was also defined as a state in which the employee identifies with particular organization and its goals he/she wishes to maintain membership in the organization in order to facilitate its goals.

The commitment to the organization, of two groups of women respondents (ie., women workers with more family responsibilities and women workers with less family responsibilities) is not being affected by their responsibilities at home.

Discussion

In this study of workers of the two industrial units, it has been found that the women workers are more committed to the organization than the men workers. The organizational commitment has been a popular research topic among organizational sociologists, industrial psychologists and labour relations specialists. Much of the early research was directed on organizational commitment of men workers and studies on organizational commitment of women workers were less when compared to that of men workers. The results of this study is partially supported by the findings of Aranya and Jacobson (1975) who found that parental responsibility is linked with maintaining stable patterns of employment. They argued that the responsibility of parenthood increased the importance of maintaining consistent employment and therefore increased an employees' organizational commitment and the women

workers are more committed to organization. Majority of the research findings suggest negative relationship between organizational commitment and gender ideology. Bhagat and Chassie (1981) explored the effects of sex role conflicts among a sample of working women among different occupational groups. These authors operationalized sex role conflict by assessing the effect on organizational commitment of role stress, the number of working hours, the number of dependent children being cared for and the number of social and work-related roles. They found that role stress as measured by the discrepancy between actually and preferred time spent in various roles, had a significant negative relationship to organizational commitment. Research by Shimmin's (1984) study on female factory workers also found that the double burden of home and work created significant psychological and physical problems for women employed in manufacturing and left them with ambivalent and fatalistic attitudes concerning their work. This negative relationship is also in consistent with Terborg's (1977) finding that states because women tend to maintain their domestic commitments even when they are employed outside the home, they therefore experience 'role' overload which has negative influence on organizational commitment. Gray (1989) in her study on nurses, found that nursing work

creates a significant interference with family life for many nurses and that this has a negative impact on their degree of organizational commitment. Supporting this view, Brief & Aldag (1980) also found a negative relationship between the presence of children and commitment to work.

Ritzer and Trice (1969) are of the opinion that the professional is a worker who is committed to her occupation and not to the employing organization. They argue that a negative relationship exists between professionalism and commitment to the organization. The explanation for the negative relationship between feminist gender ideology and organizational commitment has been given by some other researchers also. Researchers like Reeder and Mauksch (1979) argue that nursing has problems with organizational commitment as expressed in high levels of employee turnover. Herbiniak and Alutto (1972) have also found that indications of professionalism for nurses such as education and educational aspiration have negative effects on nurses' organizational commitment.

Nealia (1983) in her study examined sex and position as predictors of organizational commitment and found that contrary to previous research neither sex nor

position was a critical determinant of organizational commitment.

In contrast to some of the research findings about the organizational commitment and women, it is found that the women industrial workers are more committed to the organization than the men workers. Earlier it was considered that sex differences were important in determining organizational commitment. Eventhough there may be difference in the work patterns, it is in vogue to argue that sex differences are important and pervasive in work organizations and that managers should develop different programmes or strategies for dealing with women-- if they intend to use female workers to their fullest capacity.

Organizational commitment is viewed as the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests (Weinner 1982). The committed individuals may exhibit certain behaviours at the work place even if whatever responsibilities they have at home. In this study the women are found more committed to the organization than men and hence it is again tested to see whether there is any

significant difference in their organizational commitment, between the women workers with more family responsibilities and women workers with less family responsibilities. On analysis of data, it is found that there is no statistically significant difference between the women workers with more family responsibilities and women workers with less family responsibilities. Usually it is argued that the women with more responsibilities or problems at home, will not be committed enough to the organization also and it may hamper the development of the organization. But in this study about the women workers of the two electronic industrial units there is no difference in the commitment to organization, between the women with more family responsibilities and women with less family responsibilities contrary to many of the research findings, which suggest that domestic relations variables such as the presence of children and the extent to which work interferes with family life may reduce organizational commitment. In this study, it is also revealed that organizational commitment is not being affected by the family responsibilities of women workers.

Today the managements are interested in maintaining and enhancing the organizational commitment of

their employees in the hope that this will somehow improve work efficiency and organizational effectiveness of their industries. Thus organizational commitment is very much important in the development or progress of any industry. As women are committed to the organization where they work, they can be recruited by the management without any reluctance and training may be given to them also as education of the women is significantly associated with the organizational commitment.

Chapter VIII

CONCLUSIONS

The commitment of workers is a crucial problem faced by all societies engaged in the process of industrialization. Commitment is a process which relates individual necessities to social obligations and it is considered to be important for peaceful and productive work performance in an organization. It is difficult to generalize any specific process which prompts a person to commit himself to a particular line of action and sustains him in it.

Electronics industry has received considerable attention and its importance and relevance is very much recognized now. In respect of employment generation also, electronic industry can contribute much in a state like Kerala. In the two electronic industrial units under study, ie., OEN India Limited and Keltron Controls Division, Aroor, there are women employed as workers in the various divisions.

More women are entering into the electronic industry in Kerala. The commitment of workers is very much essential for the smooth functioning of any industry. Hence

it is intended to study about the commitment of workers in electronic industry, as it is a fast growing industry and as no serious attempt has been made to study about the commitment of women workers of industrial organizations in Kerala. Kerala is a state where women's literacy is high and more women are entering into various industries now.

Earlier studies which have investigated the phenomenon of commitment partly or fully, generally defined it in terms of absenteeism severance of ties with villages, labour turnover, incidents of indiscipline etc. In this study commitment is defined as a feeling of obligation to follow a particular course of action or to seek a particular goal.

Major findings of the study

A total of 280 respondents were considered for this study, from two electronic industries of Kerala ie., (1) OEN India Limited and (2) Keltron Controls Division, Aroor. The data were collected by administering a pretested questionnaire to all the industrial workers of these two industrial establishments.

Majority of the respondents, i.e., 63.6% belongs to the age group of 31-40 years and 20.4% belongs to the age group of 41-50 years. The respondents under study, belongs to three religious communities. Majority are christians i.e., 60.4% and 37.9% of the respondents are Hindus. An impressive percentage (66.4%) have passed SSLC and there are also respondents (4.6%) who have passed the degree course eventhough this is not required for their job.

Regarding the marital status of the respondents 88.9% were married and living with their family. There are 187 workers employed in OEN India Ltd. which is a private sector concern and 93 workers are there in Keltron Controls Division, Aroor which comes under public sector.

Out of the total respondents considered for the study 143 workers (51.07%) are women. Among the women workers an overwhelming majority come under the age group of 31-40 years, and only seven percent belong to the age group of 21-30 years, while 26.6% belong to the age group of 41 years and above. In other words, a major proportion of women workers are above 30 years of age.

Majority (67.1%) of the women workers have 11-20 years of experience of working in the present industrial unit, while 18.9% of women workers have worked for 21 years and above. It may also be noted that only 11.9% of the women workers have the family income in the range of Rs.5,001 and above.

In this study it is found that women workers are more committed to work than the men workers, of the electronic industrial units. Significant difference is found in the commitment of women workers and that of the men workers. By further analysis of data it has also been tried to find out whether variables such as age, religion, education, family income, years of experience and public sector/private sector have any association with the work commitment. Significant association is found between the years of experience of women workers and their work commitment. The length of service of women workers in the present organization where they are working is considered.

The other variables such as age, religion, education and family income have no association with their work commitment.

On further analysis of variance (ANOVA) the variation between the groups under certain variables is tried to find out. Variation is found among the groups of women respondents, based on their age, to work commitment. But no variation among the groups, classified on the basis of family income, is found by the statistical tests. Depending on years of experience women workers have in the present organization, respondents are again classified into three groups and variation is found between these groups with regard to work commitment. Variation is also found among the groups of women respondents based on the nature of the organization where they are working, ie., in public sector or private sector.

Future research is necessary to find out the significant difference in work commitment between the groups, which will help the management and policy makers to formulate policies or strategies for increasing the commitment of workers.

As a part of the study of commitment to work, the satisfaction of the workers was also measured and found that

there was no significant difference between the satisfaction of men workers and that of women workers. Education is found significantly associated with the satisfaction of women workers. The other variables such as age, religion, family income, years of experience, public sector/private sector are not found associated with the satisfaction of the workers. Women have dual roles to perform, at the work place and at home and they are found to be more committed to their work at the work place. Compared to men majority of the women workers do not get leisure time at home for watching TV or listening to radio or to go for a cinema in their normal routine life.

The women respondents are grouped into two, depending on their family responsibilities ie., women with more family responsibilities and women with less family responsibilities. No significant difference is found between these groups with regard to their work commitment. Work commitment is not being affected by their family responsibilities. No significant difference is found between the satisfaction of women workers with more family responsibilities and that of women workers with less family responsibilities.

It has also been revealed that women workers are more committed to organization than the men workers. Significant difference is seen in the organizational commitment of men workers and that of women workers. But no significant difference is found between the organizational commitment of women workers with more family responsibilities and that of women workers with less family responsibilities. Organizational commitment of women workers is not being affected by the responsibilities toward home. Education is found significantly associated with the organizational commitment of women workers.

Eventhough more women are entering into the industrial field, due recognition and deserving promotions are denied to them. Their commitment can be increased by giving them due recognition and other benefits/rewards. If women are enabled to perform the family responsibilities better for eg., taking care of their children by starting employer supported child care and providing financial help to the children's education etc., its effects may spill over into family life indirectly through workers' added satisfaction with the work place, which is responsive to

their personal needs. Studies on commitment have also shown that the rewards along with other incentives can enhance commitment (Putti et al., 1989). Thus organizations can combine rewards with other incentives and strategies used by management to enhance commitment of both men and women workers. If work place policies help women to balance work and family responsibilities better, they will be more committed and perform their work efficiently and work towards the development of their organization more honestly. The policy makers may take these facts into consideration while making decisions and formulating strategies. It may also be noted by the management while making recruitment in the industries, that women are more committed to work.

Commitment to work and organization is very much essential for the healthy functioning of any organization. Hence it may be appropriate for the future researchers to study about the level of commitment of men workers and variables affecting it. The men workers who have higher educational qualifications may expect better jobs. It may be a reason that can be attributed to the less commitment of men workers. So the relation between the commitment and educational level of men workers may be an area for further

research.

It is also found in this study, that the work commitment of workers is not being affected by the family responsibilities. There is no difference in the work commitment of women workers with more family responsibilities and that of women workers with less family responsibilities. The women workers may experience stress and strain due to their double roles, and further research is necessary in this direction.

Today electronics has its impact on education, industry, medicine, travel and transport, communication etc. Another important direction for further research is to find out whether the increased commitment to industrial work and commitment to organization can lead to increased production. The factors affecting the work commitment of men workers may also be studied. Studies may also be conducted to correlate commitment with profitability and productivity.

The results of this study suggest that the women workers in electronic industries should not be neglected as increasing number of women are now entering into the

industrial field and they play a vital role in the development of the industry.

It is hoped that the study will open new vistas of research on women and their disposition in other type of industries, that will definitely benefit the smooth performance of the modern industrial society.

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I

Please put a tick mark (✓) wherever necessary and kindly fill in the necessary information in the space provided below:

The information will be kept confidential and will be used for research purpose only.

1. Name

Male () Female ()

2. Address

3. Age

4. Religion

5. Caste

6. Educational qualifications:

- (1) Below SSLC ()
- (2) SSLC ()
- (3) Pre-degree ()
- (4) Degree ()
- (5) Post-graduate ()

7. Marital status

- Single ()
- Married ()
- Widower ()
- Widow ()
- Divorced ()

8. Your house is located in

- (1) Panchayat ()
- (2) Municipality ()
- (3) Corporation ()

9. Address of
organization
10. Name of section in
which you are working
11. Your designation
12. Distance of your place of
stay from the organization
13. Arrival time in the office
14. Do you find it difficult to Yes ()
be punctual at the office? No ()
15. State whether the post is Temporary ()
temporary or permanent? Permanent ()
16. Nature of work you are Skilled ()
doing at present Semiskilled ()
Unskilled ()
17. Total monthly income Rs.
18. Number of years of service
in the present job
19. Period of work:
Day time ()
Night shift ()
Specified work period
(Please specify the time)
20. Reasons for taking up the
job (indicate priority)
- (a) for an earning ()
(b) to supplement the income ()
(c) to improve the status in the society ()
(d) as a time pass ()
(e) for mental satisfaction ()

21. Are you compelled to take more leave than eligible leave? Yes ()
No ()
22. If the answer is 'Yes' what are the reasons?
(1) Due to illness ()
(2) Due to the illness of husband or children(()
(3) If any other, please specify ()
23. State whether the present job is your first or subsequent job: First ()
Second ()
Third ()
24. In the present organization is it your first job or subsequent promotion job? First job ()
Promotion job ()
25. How many promotions you got in the present organization?
26. How did you get this job in this organization?
(1) By own effort ()
(2) By the effort of relatives/friends ()
(3) job offered by the company by their initiative ()
27. Trade Union Interest
- Are you a member of any trade union? Yes ()
No ()
28. If yes, in what capacity? President ()
Secretary ()
Treasurer ()
Committee Member ()
Ordinary Member ()

29. Would you like to leave this organization for another job if available?
- | | |
|-----|-----|
| Yes | () |
| No | () |
30. If 'Yes' for what reason?
- (a) for higher salary ()
 - (b) for better conditions of work ()
 - (c) if it is nearer home ()
 - (d) for getting co-operation of superior/subordinates/colleagues ()
 - (e) any other, please specify ()
31. Do you have sufficient leisure time after your household responsibilities?
- | | |
|-----|-----|
| Yes | () |
| No | () |
32. If 'Yes' how do you spend your leisure time?
- (a) listening to radio ()
 - (b) watching TV ()
 - (c) going to cinema ()
33. Do you feel that too much social obligation such as attending family, relatives etc. are putting a strain on your busy life
- | | |
|-----|-----|
| Yes | () |
| No | () |
34. If 'Yes' specify the nature of your social obligation
- (a) social visit ()
 - (b) visiting other families ()
 - (c) Management of family properties ()
 - (d) attending, supporting, personal attention to family members ()
 - (e) attending to the relatives, who are not well ()
 - (f) visit of friends to your home ()

35. Apart from social obligation
and personal leisure time activities
what are the social activities?

- (a) participation in social clubs ()
- (b) occasional picnics with family or friends ()
- (c) visit to distant places for site seeing and
social pleasure ()
- (d) social visits to friends ()
- (e) any other, please specify ()

PART II

FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES

Instructions: Kindly fill in the necessary information in
the space provided below:

1. Your place of stay (a) with the family ()
(b) with relatives ()
(c) in the hostel ()
(d) as a paying guest ()

2. If staying with the family
do you stay in your own
house or a rented one?

3. Who is the head of the
family?

4. Are you married or not?

5. If married, occupation of your husband

6. Number of children (Specify their age & sex)

7. The age of the youngest child

8. Please give the details of family members:

Sl.No.	No. of members	Relationship with them	Educational qualifications
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Income of each	Marital Status	Whether dependend on you Yes/No
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9. Total monthly income of the family

10. Do you have a full time servant Yes ()
 No ()

11. If 'no' do you employ part-time servants to manage household responsibilities Yes ()
 No ()

12. Do your family members help you in family affairs? Yes ()
 No ()

13. What are the areas of your direct responsibility?

- (a) Kitchen work ()
- (b) Purchase of provision/vegetables or other items ()
- (c) Education of children at home ()
- (d) Managing social relations/social visit/social gathering ()
- (e) Managing financial matters ()
- (f) Cleaning clothes and maintaining home ()
- (g) Only general supervision of work ()
- (h) Any other, please specify:

14. Do you get enough time to attend to your children during illness?

Yes ()
No ()

15. Are you satisfied in attending to husband's and children's needs?

Yes ()
No ()

PART III

MEASUREMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

The following statements relate to your commitment towards your organization. Kindly be frank and honest in your opinion.

For each question five answers are given as shown below:

- A Strongly agree
- B Agree
- C Undecided
- D Disagree
- E Strongly disagree

Mark your answers in the columns shown against each statement. Your answers will be kept confidential and used for research purpose only.

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this organization successful ()
2. I talk about this organization to my friends as a great place to work for ()
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization ()
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization ()

5. I find that my values and the organizations' values are very similar ()
6. I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization ()
7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work is similar ()
8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance ()
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me leave this organization ()
10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization ()
11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking on with this organization indefinitely ()
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies and programmes ()
13. I really care about the fate of this organization ()
14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work ()
15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part ()

PART IV

MEASUREMENT OF WORK COMMITMENT

Please read the statements and if it is true in your case, put 'true' and if it is false in your case put 'false'

1. I am not too much involved in my work ()
2. I am committed to my work ()
3. I do not dodge on my work ()
4. I feel highly satisfied on completion of an assignment ()
5. I like appreciation when I am on my work ()
6. My work gives me enough satisfaction ()
7. I am conscious about time when I am engaged in my work ()
8. I do not hesitate to work long hours to complete an assignment ()
9. I do not realise my potentialities while attending to my work ()
10. I consider my work as my asset ()
11. I do not value my work as an important one ()
12. My pay alone does not determine the satisfaction in my work. ()
13. I keep punctuality in my work ()
14. I do not try to do my work as perfect as possible ()
15. I consider my immediate superior as partner in my work ()

16. I waste my time while attending to my work ()
17. I do not take leave - all my eligible leave for its own sake ()
18. I exercise self control while doing my job to avoid external distractions ()
19. Sometimes I imagine of the achievements that my job may lead to ()
20. I got easily distracted in my job in my strong likes and dislikes ()
21. My work is quite interesting ()
22. I do not bother much for the improvement of my work method and strategies in my work ()
23. Often I am prepared to deviate from the existing rules to achieve the actual goal in assignment entrusted to me ()
24. I do not waste materials while attending to my work ()
25. I feel proud of my work ()
26. My work is a source of pleasure to me ()
27. I do not feel a sense of responsibility in doing my work ()
28. I do not gossip while I am working ()
29. I compare myself with others while attending to my work ()
30. I always mind only my business while attending to my work ()

PART V

MEASUREMENT OF SATISFACTION

Given below are some of the policies and programmes of your Company. Five answers are given as shown below:

- A Extremely satisfied
- B Well satisfied
- C Satisfied
- D Less satisfied
- E Least satisfied

Mark your answer in the column shown against each statement.

1. Sense of security in my work ()
2. Organizational policies and practices ()
3. The salary and other compensation I receive to maintain a reasonably good living ()
4. Benefit plans such as retirement, medical and so on ()
5. Promotion possibilities ()
6. Working conditions such as lighting, noise office space and so on ()
7. Nature of work ()
8. Appreciation and recognition of work performance ()

9. Opportunities for advancement or growth ()
10. Technical competence of my immediate superior ()
11. The behaviour style of my immediate superior ()
12. Freedom and autonomy in work ()
13. Nature of responsibility in my job ()
14. Opportunity for learning new skills and knowledge ()
15. General feeling about my job ()
16. Respect I receive for my work ()

APPENDIX II

QUESTIONNAIRE

പാർട്ട് I

താങ്കളുടെ സംബന്ധിച്ചുള്ള ചില ചോദ്യങ്ങൾക്ക് താഴെ ചോദ്യങ്ങൾ ഉപരിയിൽ നൽകിയ വിവരങ്ങളുടെ അടിസ്ഥാനത്തിൽ ഉത്തരങ്ങൾ തന്നെ ചോദ്യങ്ങളുടെ നേരെ കഴിയുക. അതോ ഇല്ലാത്ത സ്ഥലത്ത് (✓) അടയാളം ഉപയോഗിച്ച് നിങ്ങളുടെ ഉത്തരങ്ങൾ രേഖപ്പെടുത്തുക. ഈ വിവരങ്ങൾ രഹസ്യമായി സൂക്ഷിക്കുന്നതും ഗവേഷണാവശ്യങ്ങൾക്കായി മാത്രം ഉപയോഗിക്കുന്നതുമാണ്.

1. പേര്

പുരുഷൻ () സ്ത്രീ ()

2. മേൽ വിവരങ്ങൾ

3. വയസ്സ്

4. മതം

5. ജാതിവിഭാഗം

6. വിദ്യാഭ്യാസം നേടിയ സ്ഥലങ്ങൾ

- 1. എസ്.എസ്.എൽ.സി. താഴെ ()
- 2. എസ്.എസ്.എൽ.സി ()
- 3. പ്രീഡിഗ്രി ()
- 4. ബിരുദം ()
- 5. ബിരുദാനന്തര ബിരുദം ()

7. വൈവാഹിക പദവി

ഃ അവിവാഹിതൻ () വിവാഹിതൻ ()
 വിധവ () വിവാഹമോചിതൻ ()
 വിഭാഗം ()

8. താങ്കളുടെ വീട് സ്ഥിതി ചെയ്യുന്നത് :
 (ഇല്ലാത്ത താമസിക്കുന്നത്)

- പഞ്ചായത്ത് ()
- മുനിസിപ്പാലിറ്റി ()
- കോർപ്പറേഷൻ ()

- 9. നിങ്ങളുടെ സ്ഥാപനത്തിന്റെ മേൽവിലാസം.
- 10. നിങ്ങൾ ജോലി ചെയ്യുന്ന വകുപ്പ്/വിഭാഗം.
- 11. നിങ്ങളുടെ ഉദ്യോഗപ്പേര്.
- 12. നിങ്ങൾ കാരുണ്യം നൽകുന്ന സ്ഥലവും ജോലി ചെയ്യുന്ന സ്ഥാപനവും തമ്മിലുള്ള ദൂരം.
- 13. ഒരംഗീകരിച്ചിട്ടുള്ള സമയം.
- 14. കൃത്യമായത് ഒരംഗീകരിച്ചിട്ടുള്ളതാണെന്ന് നിങ്ങൾക്ക് സൂചിപ്പിക്കുക. അനുഭവപ്പെടാറുണ്ടോ? : ഉണ്ണ് () ഇല്ല ()
- 15. നിങ്ങളുടെ ഉദ്യോഗം സ്ഥിരമോ താൽക്കാലികമോ? : സ്ഥിരം () താൽക്കാലികം ()
- 16. നിങ്ങളുടെ ജോലിയുടെ സ്വഭാവം : വൈദഗ്ധ്യം വേണ്ടത് () അർദ്ധവൈദഗ്ധ്യം വേണ്ടത് () വൈദഗ്ധ്യം വേണ്ടതല്ല ()
- 17. മരണമരണം.
- 18. ജോലിയിൽനിന്നും എത്ര വർഷമായിട്ടുണ്ടുണ്ട്?
- 19. ജോലിയുടെ സമയം (സമയം കാണിക്കുക) പകൽ () രാത്രി ()
- 20. നിങ്ങൾ ഈ ജോലി ഏറ്റെടുക്കുവാൻ കാരണം : a) ജീവിതത്തിന് വേണ്ടി () b) വരുമാനം കൂട്ടുവാൻ () c) സമൂഹത്തിൽ നിങ്ങളുടെ പങ്കിടാൻ () d) സമയം ചിലവഴിക്കാൻ () e) മനഃസന്തുഷ്ടി വേണ്ടി ()
- 21. അർഹപ്പെട്ടതിനേക്കാൾ കൂടുതൽ ജോലി ചെയ്യാൻ നിങ്ങൾ സാധിക്കാറുണ്ടോ? : ഉണ്ണ് () ഇല്ല ()
- 22. ഉണ്ടെങ്കിൽ എന്താണ് അതിന് കാരണം? : a) നിങ്ങൾക്കുണ്ടാകുന്ന അസുഖം () b) ഭർത്താവിന്റെയും/ഭാര്യയുടെയും കഴിവുകളുടെയും അസുഖം () c) മറ്റെന്തെങ്കിലും (വ്യക്തമാക്കുക) ()
- 23. ഇത് നിങ്ങളുടെ അടുത്ത ജോലിയാണോ പിന്നീട് കിട്ടിയ ജോലിയാണോ? a) അടുത്ത () b) അടുത്ത () c) അടുത്ത ()

24. ഈ സ്വരഘനത്തിൽ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് കിട്ടിയ സദൃശ്യത്തെ ജോലിയാണോ പ്രദോഷൻ കിട്ടിയ ജോലിയാണോ?
- a) അപ്രത്യേക ജോലി ()
 b) കയറം ലഭിച്ചത് ()
25. ഈ സ്വരഘനത്തിൽ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് എത്ര ഉദ്ദേശ്യഗുണങ്ങൾ ലഭിച്ചിട്ടുണ്ട്?
26. ഈ സ്വരഘനത്തിൽ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് ഈ ജോലി ലഭിച്ചതെന്തെയാണ്?
- a) സ്വന്തം പ്രയത്നം മൂലം ()
 b) അധ്യാപകൻ/സ്കൂൾ അധ്യാപകൻ പരിശ്രമം മൂലം ()
 c) സ്വരഘനം മുൻകൈയെടുത്ത് ജോലി നൽകിയത് ()
27. ഏതെങ്കിലും നഗരസഭയിൽ സംഘടനയിൽ നിങ്ങൾ അംഗമാണോ?
- a) അതെ ()
 b) ഇല്ല ()
28. അംഗമാണെങ്കിൽ സംഘടനയിൽ നിങ്ങളുടെ സ്വരം
- a) പ്രസിഡൻ്റ് ()
 b) സെക്രട്ടറി ()
 c) ജോർണൽ സെക്രട്ടറി ()
 d) ട്രഷറർ ()
 e) കമ്മിറ്റി അംഗം ()
 f) സാധാരണ അംഗം ()
29. a) മറ്റൊരു ജോലി തരപ്പെടാൻ ഇല്ലാത്തതല്ലെന്ന് ജോലി ഉറപ്പാക്കിയാണോ നിങ്ങൾ അയച്ചത്?
- b) ഇല്ലെങ്കിൽ കാരണം
- a) മറ്റ് ()
 b) ഇല്ല ()
 c) ഉയർന്ന സ്വരം നല്ലൊരു കാര്യം ()
 d) ജോലി ചെയ്യാനുള്ള നല്ല പരിതസ്ഥിതി നല്ലൊരു കാര്യം ()
 e) വിടാനുള്ള നല്ലൊരു കാര്യം ()
 f) മേലധികാരികൾ/സഹപ്രവർത്തകർ സ്വരം നല്ലൊരു കാര്യം ()
 g) മറ്റൊരു തരം (കാരണം കാണിക്കുക) ()
30. വിദ്യാർത്ഥികൾ ജോലി ചെയ്യാൻ കഴിയുന്നതല്ലെന്ന് നിങ്ങൾക്ക് അറിയാതെ നഗരസഭയിൽ കിട്ടിയിട്ടുണ്ടോ?
- a) മറ്റ് ()
 b) ഇല്ല ()
31. ഇതെങ്ങനെയാണ് നിങ്ങൾ ചെയ്യാനായത് വിനിയോഗിക്കാൻ?
- a) റെസിഡൻ്റ് കൗൺസിലർ ()
 b) ടി.വി.കോൺസിൽ ()
 c) സിനിമയ്ക്ക് പൊക്കം ()

32. ബന്ധുക്കളുടെ / സുഹൃത്തുക്കളുടെ കാര്യങ്ങൾ അന്വേഷിക്കുക മുതലായ സാമൂഹിക ക്ഷേപാടുകൾ നിങ്ങളുടെ തിരക്കേറിയ ജീവിതത്തിൽ വിഷമകരമായി തോന്നാറുണ്ടോ? ഉദ്ദേശ്യം ()
 ഇല്ല ()

33. താങ്കളുടെ സാമൂഹിക ക്ഷേപാടുകളുടെ സ്വഭാവം എങ്ങനെയാണെന്നാണ്? :
 എ) സാമൂഹിക സന്ദർശനം ()
 ബി) കുടുംബ സന്ദർശനം ()
 സി) കുടുംബ സ്വന്തങ്ങൾ നോക്കി നടന്നുവരുന്നത് ()
 ഡി) കുടുംബാംഗങ്ങളുടെ ശ്രദ്ധിക്കൽ, പരിചരണം (മരണാപിതാക്കൾ, ബന്ധുക്കൾ) ()
 ഇ) ഹോസ്പിറ്റലിലുള്ള / കിടപ്പുമരുന്നില്ലാത്ത ബന്ധുക്കളെ പരിചരിക്കുന്നത് ()
 എഫ്) താങ്കളുടെ വീട്ടിലേയ്ക്ക് ബന്ധുക്കളുടെ / സുഹൃത്തുക്കളുടെ സന്ദർശനം ()

34. സാമൂഹിക ക്ഷേപാടുകളും ഒഴിവു സമയപ്രവൃത്തികളും കൂടാതെ നിങ്ങളുടെ സാമൂഹിക പ്രവർത്തനങ്ങൾ എങ്ങനെയാണെന്നാണ്?
 എ) സാമൂഹിക ക്ലബ്ബുകളെ പങ്കെടുക്കൽ ()
 ബി) സുഹൃത്തുക്കളുടെയും / കുടുംബാംഗങ്ങളുടെയും ഒപ്പം ഉടയ്ക്കി നടന്നുവരുന്ന വിനോദയാത്ര ()
 സി) സ്ഥലം കാണാനും സന്ദർശിക്കാനും വേണ്ടി ദൂരസ്ഥലങ്ങളിലേയ്ക്ക് നടന്നുവരുന്നയാത്ര ()
 ഡി) സുഹൃത്തുക്കളുടെ ഇടയിൽ നടന്നുവരുന്ന സാമൂഹിക സന്ദർശനം ()
 ഇ) വേറെ എന്തെങ്കിലും കാരണം ഉണ്ടെങ്കിൽ കാണിക്കുക ()

9. കടുഞ്ചേരിയിലെ നഗരസഭയുടെ നഗരസഭാ
10. നിങ്ങളുടെ മുഴുവൻ സമയ ജോലി
അനുഭവമെന്താണ്? ഉണ്ണി / ലല്ല
11. വിദ്യാലയങ്ങളിൽ സഹായിമാർക്ക് പാർട്ടി ടൈം (ഭാഗികമായി) ജോലി ചെയ്യാനുള്ള അവസരമുണ്ടോ?
12. നിങ്ങളുടെ കടുഞ്ചേരിയിലെ കടുഞ്ചേരി
കാലങ്ങളിൽ നിങ്ങളുടെ സഹായി
മാരുടെ പേര്?
13. ഏതെങ്കിലും തരത്തിലുള്ളതാണ് നി
ങ്ങളുടെ നേരിട്ടുള്ള ഉത്തരവാ
ദിത്വം ഉണ്ടോ?
- a) ജനറൽ ജോലി ()
- b) പലപ്പോഴും/പലപ്പോഴും ()
- c) വിവിധ കലകളിലെ പങ്കാളിത്തം ()
- d) സാമൂഹിക സേവനങ്ങൾ/സാമൂഹിക
സംരക്ഷണങ്ങൾ/ഒരുമയുടെ ഇവ
കൈകാര്യം ചെയ്യൽ ()
- e) സാമ്പത്തിക കാര്യങ്ങൾ
കൈകാര്യം ചെയ്യൽ ()
- f) വനിതാ കഴിവുകളും വിദ്യാ
ലയങ്ങളിലെ പങ്കാളിത്തം ()
- g) ജോലിയുടെ പൊതുവായ
മേൽനോട്ടം മാത്രം ()
- h) വേറെ ഏതെങ്കിലും ഉത്തരവാ
ദിത്വം ()
14. നിങ്ങളുടെ കർമ്മനിർമ്മാണപരമായ
ജോലി പരിചരിക്കാൻ സാധ്യമായ
മറ്റെന്തെങ്കിലും മാർഗ്ഗങ്ങളുണ്ടോ? ഉണ്ണി ()
ലല്ല ()
15. നിങ്ങളുടെ ജോലിയിൽ കഴിയുന്നത്ര
സഹായങ്ങൾ നിന്നുവേണ്ടുന്നതിൽ
നിങ്ങൾ സഹായം തേടാമോ? അതെ ()
ലല്ല ()

പാർട്ടി III

വാഗ്ദാനം പറ്റുന്ന പ്രസ്താവനകളോട് താങ്കൾ എത്രമാത്രം യോജിക്കുന്നു എല്ലത്തിൽ വിധേയമാകുന്നു എന്ന് രേഖപ്പെടുത്തുക. ഓരോ പ്രസ്താവനയുടെയും നേരെ 'അ', 'ബി', 'സി', 'ഡി', 'ഇ' എന്നിങ്ങനെ ഉത്തരങ്ങൾ നൽകിയിരിക്കുന്നു.

അ 'ശക്തിയോടെ യോജിക്കുന്നു' എന്നതിനെയും

ബി 'യോജിക്കുന്നു' എന്നതിനെയും

സി 'പ്രശ്നം അഭിപ്രായം ഇല്ല' എന്നതിനെയും

ഡി 'വിധേയമാകുന്നു' എന്നതിനെയും

ഇ 'ശക്തിയോടെ വിധേയമാകുന്നു' എന്നതിനെയും സൂചിപ്പിക്കുന്നു.

ഓരോ പ്രസ്താവനയ്ക്കും ശ്രദ്ധിച്ചു വായിച്ചതിനുശേഷം നിങ്ങളുടെ ഉത്തരം അതിന്റെ നേരെ രേഖപ്പെടുത്തുക. എല്ലാ പ്രസ്താവനകൾക്കും സത്യസന്ധമായി ഉത്തരം നൽകുക. നിങ്ങളുടെ ഉത്തരങ്ങൾ കൈപ്പറ്റിയ സൂക്ഷിക്കുന്നതും ഗവേഷണപരമായ വശ്യങ്ങൾക്കുവേണ്ടി മാത്രം ഉപയോഗിക്കുന്നതാണ്.

- 1. ഈ സ്ഥാപനത്തിന്റെ നടത്തിപ്പ് വിജയപരമാക്കുവാൻ സാധാരണ പ്രതിക്ഷിപ്തനായിരിക്കേണ്ട പരിശ്രമങ്ങൾക്കും തോൽവിയുമാണ്. ()
- 2. ജോലി ചെയ്യുവാൻ ഹിററിയോ യോജിച്ച സ്ഥലമാണ് ഈ സ്ഥാപനമെന്ന് ഹിററി സൂചിപ്പിക്കുകയോട് തോൽവിയുമാണ്. ()
- 3. ക്രമസംഹാരം അന്തർഗതമാകുന്നു. എന്നിവിടെ സ്ഥാപനം തോൽവിയുമാണ്. ()
- 4. ഈ സ്ഥാപനത്തിൽ ജോലി ചെയ്യാൻ വേണ്ടി എത്രയും ജോലിയും തോൽവിയുമാണ്. ()
- 5. തോൽവിയുമാണ് മുഖ്യമായും സ്ഥാപനം നിലകൊള്ളുന്ന മുഖ്യമായും സാമൂഹ്യം. ()
- 6. തോൽവിയുമാണ് ഈ സ്ഥാപനത്തിന്റെ ഭാഗമാണെന്ന് മനസ്സിലാക്കുന്നതിന് പറ്റാത്തവിധം അതിനോടുള്ള തോൽവിയുമാണ്. ()
- 7. ഇത്തരം ജോലിയാണെങ്കിൽ വേറെ സ്ഥാപനത്തിലും തോൽവിയുമാണ് ചെയ്യാൻ തയ്യാറാണ്. ()
- 8. ഈ സ്ഥാപനം ജോലി സംബന്ധമായ പ്രവർത്തനങ്ങൾ വഴി എന്നിവയെ ഹിററിയും നല്ലതിനെ പുറത്തു കൊണ്ടുവരുന്നതിന് സഹായിക്കുന്നു. ()

- 9. എൻ്റെ ഇന്നത്തെ സാഹചര്യത്തിൽ എനിക്കി സ്ഥാപനം വിദ്യുപോക്ഷേപങ്ങൾ ഉണ്ടാവുന്നതു് വളരെ വിരളമായിരിക്കും. ()
- 10. ഈ സ്ഥാപനം തിരഞ്ഞെടുക്കുന്നതിൽ എനിക്ക് അതിവേഗ സൗകര്യം ഉണ്ടു് ()
- 11. ഈ സ്ഥാപനത്തിൽ തന്നെ അനിശ്ചിതമായി തുടരുന്നതിനുള്ള കൂടുതലൊന്നും എനിക്ക് തോന്നുന്നില്ല. ()
- 12. ഈ സ്ഥാപനത്തിൻ്റെ പരിപാടികളും രീതികളുമായി യോജിക്കാൻ എനിക്ക് പലപ്പോഴും സുദ്യോഗ്യനു്. ()
- 13. ഈ സ്ഥാപനത്തിൻ്റെ ഭരണിയെക്കുറിച്ച് ഞാൻ യഥാർത്ഥത്തിൽ ശ്രദ്ധാപൂർവ്വമാണ് ()
- 14. എന്ന് സംബന്ധിച്ചിടത്തോളം ജോലി ചെയ്യാൻ കഴിയുന്നതിൽ വെച്ച് ഹൃദയം നല്ല സ്ഥാപനമാണ് ഇതു്. ()
- 15. ഈ സ്ഥാപനത്തിനുവേണ്ടി ജോലി ചെയ്യാൻ തീരുമാനിച്ചതു് തീർച്ചയായും എൻ്റെ ഭാഗത്തു നിന്നുള്ള തെറ്റാണ്. ()

പാർട്ട് IV

താഴെ കാണിച്ചിരിക്കുന്ന പ്രസ്താവനകൾ നിങ്ങൾക്ക് ജോലി യോടുള്ള അർപ്പണ മനോഭാവത്തെ കാണിക്കുന്നു. ഭാരതീയനായ ഉപന്യസകൻ നൽകാൻ ശ്രമിക്കുക. ഓരോ പ്രസ്താവനയോടും നിങ്ങൾ യോജിക്കുന്നവകിൽ അതിന്റെ നേരെ 'ശരി' എന്നും വിരോധിക്കുന്നവകിൽ 'തെറ്റ്' എന്നും അടയാളപ്പെടുത്തുക.

1. ഞാൻ എന്റെ ജോലിയിൽ അല്പാല്പം കൃത്യത ഇരിക്കുന്നതല്ല ()
2. ഞാൻ എന്റെ ജോലിയോട് അർപ്പണ മനോഭാവമുള്ളതാണ് ()
3. ഞാൻ എന്റെ ജോലിയിൽ നിന്ന് ഒഴിഞ്ഞു മാറ്റുന്നില്ല. ()
4. എന്റെ ദൗത്യ പൂർത്തിയാക്കുന്നതിൽ ഞാൻ തൃപ്തനാണ്. ()
5. ഞാൻ ചെറുതെ ജോലി കൊടുക്കുമെന്ന് കേൾക്കുന്നത് ഞാൻ ഇഷ്ടപ്പെടുന്നു. ()
6. എന്റെ ജോലി എന്നിച്ച് മതിയായ സങ്കല്പനമില്ല. ()
7. ജോലിയിൽ വ്യക്തതയോടെയും സ്വാർത്ഥതയോടെയും സമയം കഴിയില്ലാതെ ജോലി ചെയ്യണമെന്നാണ്. ()
8. എന്റെ ജോലി തീർക്കാൻ കൂടുതൽ സമയം ചെലവഴിക്കേണ്ടിവന്നാലും എന്നിച്ച് സന്തോഷമില്ല. ()
9. ജോലി ചെയ്തുകൊണ്ടിരിക്കുമ്പോൾ എന്റെ കഴിവിലെത്താതെ ഞാൻ അനുഭവിക്കുന്നു. ()
10. ഞാൻ എന്റെ ജോലിയെ ഒരു തൃപ്തകരമായ കാര്യമായി കരുതുന്നു. ()
11. ഞാൻ എന്റെ ജോലി എത്ര പ്രയാസപ്പെട്ടാലും അത് ചെയ്യാൻ കരുതുന്നില്ല. ()

- 12. ()
- 13. ()
- 14. ()
- 15. ()
- 16. ()
- 17. ()
- 18. ()
- 19. ()
- 20. ()
- 21. ()
- 22. ()

- 2 2 . **എന്റെ അധ്വാനിച്ചിരിക്കുന്ന ദേവനിയുടെ യഥാർത്ഥലക്ഷ്യം നേടുവാൻ നിയമങ്ങൾ മറികടന്നവർക്ക് ഞാൻ മിഴിവുകൊടുക്കുന്നതുമാകുമല്ലോ.** ()
- 2 4 . **ദേവനിയോടടുത്തുവന്നു വിഭവങ്ങൾ ദേവനിയെക്കുറിച്ചു എന്റെ പ്രവർത്തന രീതികൊണ്ട് ഞാൻ നഷ്ടപ്പെടുത്താനില്ല.** ()
- 2 5 . **എന്റെ ദേവനിയെക്കുറിച്ച് എനിക്ക് അറിയാനുള്ളതൊന്നും.** ()
- 2 6 . **എന്റെ ദേവനിൽ എനിക്ക് സമാധാനത്തിന്റെ ഉറവിടമാണ്.** ()
- 2 7 . **തികഞ്ഞു കയ്യടയ്ക്കുന്നവർക്കെതിരെ ഞാൻ ദേവനിയെക്കുറിച്ചു പറയുന്നതു്.** ()
- 2 8 . **ഞാൻ ദേവനിയെക്കുറിച്ചു പറയുന്നവർക്ക് വെറുതെ സംസാരിക്കാനില്ല.** ()
- 2 9 . **ഞാൻ ദേവനിയെക്കുറിച്ചു പറയുന്നവർക്ക് എന്റെ പ്രവർത്തനം അതേ ദേവനിയെക്കുറിച്ചു പറയുന്നവർക്കെതിരെ പ്രവർത്തിക്കാനായി താമസമില്ലാതെ ചെയ്യുമല്ലോ.** ()
- 3 0 . **ദേവനിയെക്കുറിച്ചു പറയുന്നവർക്ക് ഞാൻ എന്റെ കാര്യം താമസമില്ലാതെ പറയാനുള്ളതല്ല.** ()

പാർട്ട് V

ഓരോ കോണിയിലിരിക്കുന്ന ഓരോ കോണിയിൽ താഴെപ്പറഞ്ഞവയെല്ലാം
 തൃപ്തികരമാണെന്ന് പറയുക .

- എ 'വടവെ തൃപ്തിയുണ്ട്' എന്നതിനെയും
- ബി 'നല്ല തൃപ്തിയുണ്ട്' എന്നതിനെയും
- സി 'തൃപ്തിയുണ്ട്' എന്നതിനെയും
- ഡി 'കറച്ച് തൃപ്തിയുണ്ട്' എന്നതിനെയും
- ഇ 'തിവെ കറച്ച് തൃപ്തിയുണ്ട്' എന്നതിനെയും സൂചിപ്പിക്കുന്നു .

ഓരോ പ്രശ്നാവസ്ഥയും തോന്നിപ്പോകുന്നതോടുകൂടി നിങ്ങളുടെ ഉത്തരം
 ഓരോ സിദ്ധാന്തവും നേരെ എഴുതുക .

- 1 . ജോലിയിലുള്ള സുരക്ഷിതത്വം ()
- 2 . സ്വതന്ത്രതയ്ക്കായി പൊതുവായുള്ള പ്രവർത്തനത്തിലേക്കുള്ള ()
- 3 . മെച്ചപ്പെട്ട ജീവിതരീതി നിലനിർത്തിക്കൊണ്ട് ലഭിക്കുന്ന ശമ്പളവും മറ്റ് ആനുകൂല്യങ്ങളും . ()
- 4 . റിട്ടയർമെന്റിനും ചികിത്സയ്ക്കുമുള്ള ആനുകൂല്യങ്ങൾ മുതലായവ ()
- 5 . പ്രമോഷനുള്ള (ജോലി ചെയ്തവർക്കുള്ള) സാക്ഷ്യപത്രങ്ങൾ ()
- 6 . വെളിച്ചം, ശബ്ദം, ഓഫീസ് സ്ഥലസൗകര്യം മുതലായ ജോലി ചെയ്യാനുള്ള പരിതസ്ഥിതികൾ ()
- 7 . ജോലിയുടെ സ്വഭാവം ()
- 8 . ചെമ്പൻ ജോലിയുടെ പ്രവർത്തനത്തെക്കുറിച്ച് പ്രശ്നങ്ങളും അംഗീകാരവും ()

- 9. പുരോഗതിക്കും സ്വയം വെർച്യൂഷനും
വേദം അവസരങ്ങൾ ()
- 10. ഹൈന്ദവ ശൈലിയിൽ മൂലകളിലുള്ള മെറ്റാഫോറുകൾ
സ്വന്തം സാമൂഹിക പരിഷ്കരണം ()
- 11. ഹൈന്ദവ മെറ്റാഫോറുകൾ സ്വന്തം പെരുമാറ്റം
രീതി ()
- 12. മോചനത്തിലുള്ള സ്വാതന്ത്ര്യവും പരസ്പരബോധവും ()
- 13. ഹൈന്ദവ മോചനത്തിലുള്ള ചുമതലാബോധം ()
- 14. പുതിയ മോചന പരിഷ്കരണം തന്നെയും,
കുറിയും നേടാനുള്ള അവസരം ()
- 15. മോചനത്തിന്റെയും കർമ്മങ്ങളുടെ പരസ്പരബോധം
ബോധം ()
- 16. കർമ്മങ്ങളുടെയും ബോധം ()

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