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ABSTRACT

The impact of global energy system on economic growth in India may be describe as most mechanical phenomenon of the global energy system based on our thought of economic and settlement growth, as well as development in government policy. The paper examines the relation between energy and economic growth and more generally the role of energy in economic production. It also identify the future looking statement with regards to global economic growth, population growth, energy consumption, policies for enable energy and sources of energy supply. This study is also based on commercially traded fuels like crude oil, petroleum product, natural gas, coal and nuclear energy traded in market with price playing locative role. The relationship between global energy system and economic growth has been a subject of greater inquiry as energy is considered to be one of the important driving forces of economic growth in all economies. The study suggests that it is the economic growth that ignite more demand for both crude oil and electricity consumption and it is only growth in coal consumption that cause economic growth.

KEY WORDS: Global energy, Economic growth, Population growth, Electricity, Crude oil.

Introduction

The paper examines the relation between energy and economic growth and more generally the role of energy in economic production. India and other countries are facing new threats and risk to the energy system, those issues are capturing gas resources, the depletion of oil, rapid increase in the energy demand and national policy to acquire resources in countries like India and other. The tendency in global technology, investment and policy leave us assured that energy production will be able to keep maintain. New energy forms such as shale gas and renewable energy will account for a significant share of the growth in global supply. Energy efficiency promise to improve the energy supply which is driven by global competition. The import dependency in Europe, China & India will increase. In future, India and other Asian countries will become the dominant energy importing region. Russia will remain the leading energy exporter and Africa will become an increasing important supplier. According to World Energy Outlook, the world carbon dioxide emissions will increase by 29% with all of the growth coming from the emerging economies. India is expected to exceed China as the leading source of energy demand of growth.

In Indian context this is also true that there has been an enormous increase in the global demand for energy in recent year as a result of industrial development and population growth. The International Energy Agency (IEA) predicted in report of 2008 that although drops in short petroleum demand due to high price have been observed in developed countries and are expected to continue 3.70% rise in demand by 2013 in developing countries. This projection has caused net rise in global demand of petroleum products during that period. Thriving economies such as China and India are quickly becoming large oil consumer on globe against all the supply of energy.

Review of Literature:

Perry (1975) further suggested that it is hard to believe that high-energy price can affect productivity and output growth, since it is only one of the many production components. This also support to the belief that the increase in price of energy would substitute labor for capital without affecting production and growth (Ebohon, 1996). Berndt and Wood (1975) argued that while energy and labor may be substitute, the complementary relationship between energy and capital raises its important for more than its cost. Implicitly the dynamic impact of this relationship for output and productivity underlines the important influence that energy has on economic growth. Okun (1974) evidenced that energy and labor, on the one hand and capital and labor on the other are substitutable. Thus, it is possible to compensate for an energy-induced decline in national income by substituting labor or capital. However, the magnitude of energy’s influence on the economy has been hotly debated by macroeconomists. Apostolicism (1990) concluded that capital and energy act more as substitute in the long-run and more as complements in the short-run.

Statement of the Problem:

Nothing is possible without energy, it is a basic requirement for economic growth and development of society. The energy sector is not only a key, but the key to progress on climate change. Mitigating climate change & moving towards a sustainable energy future is an obligation to future generation. But not only that, it is also a way to truly strength our economies and societies. Energy demand in India has expanded by two and half times since 1990, its rate of growth among the fastest in the global. So it’s necessary to evaluate and estimate of demand and supply of energy in the context of Indian Economy.

Objective of the study:

The paper examines the relation between energy and economic growth and more generally the role of energy in
economic production. It also identify the future looking statement with regards to global economic growth, population growth, energy consumption, policies for enable energy and sources of energy supply. It is also based on commercially traded fuels like crude oil, petroleum product, natural gas, coal and nuclear energy traded in market with price playing locative role. The study also analyse the establishment of availability, potential and demand of various energy resources, stimulation of economic development, improvement of energy sector, governance and administration of an energy sector and impact of energy production and utilization.

**Research Methodology:**
Research is an academic activity and as such the term should be used in a technical sense. According to Clifford Woody research comprises defining and redefining problems, formulating hypothesis or suggested solution: collecting, organizing and evaluating data, making deduction and reaching conclusion. The study is based on secondary data obtained from books, journals, reports, websites etc.

**Global Energy Source in Indian Scenario:**
India has enough energy resources to fuel continued economic growth and Industrialization. The national demand is derived using assumption on population growth, GDP growth and change in end user demand. In the same manner regional supply availability is assessed by fuel and other barriers are taken into consideration demand and supply schedules and prices are determined. This study is based on commercially traded fuels like crude oil, petroleum product, natural gas, coal and nuclear energy traded in market with price playing locative role. Fundamentally, these fuels lie at the heart of the process of economic development and the policy makers are interested in the industrial experience. The pattern of economic development, commercial energy intensity rises sharply as people and production activities are shifting from low energy intensive activities in agriculture to high energy intensive activities in industrial production, it then decline more gently, as economic activity is transferred to the less energy intensive service sector, with this pattern, and so the structural transformation of developing economies appears to be its main driver. The most of commercial energy is consumed in the residential sector and for basic need, such as cooking or heating.

Overall the onset of industrialization sees commercial energy consumption rising measured in per capita terms or relative to GDP. The consumption of economic activity tends toward the tertiary or service sector, driven by the changing structure of demand and higher income elasticity for service. A diminishing industry sector, the shift toward less energy intensive economic activity, by itself reduce the amount of energy required per unit of GDP for the economy as a whole. In addition technological progress will play a subtle role to the same effect. The effect of efficiency improvement in the industrial sector counter balance to some extent the effect of a growing share of this sector, as the industrial sector share in GDP finally became large and its expansion first slows and then start to decline, these efficiency improvement with in the industrial sector will outweigh the negative effect from the expansion of the industrial sector and hence start to contribute to an improvement of energy efficiency for society as whole. Finally, the composition of the industrial sector also is not but will shift from heavy and energy intensive sub-sector toward light manufacturing as the need for energy-intensive infrastructure and urbanization projects decline, thus again contributing to lowered industrial energy consumption per unit of output. India is the second largest commercial energy consumer in Non-OECD East Asia, comprising 19 percent of the regions total primary energy consumption, economic growth in India has largely been associated with increased energy consumption. While 60 percent of total energy needs in India are meeting by commercial energy sources, remaining 40 percent are comprised of non-conventional fuels. Over past few years, climate change has become one of the main concerns driving energy policy. Energy demand grows significantly with economic growth, this coupling various over time, depending on various other things. Technological progress, energy efficiency programmers and structural change contribute towards the variations in energy demand. India has achieved rapid and remarkable economic development in the past two decades and became the world’s tenth largest economy in 2011. The country thus, has emerged as one of the most dynamic economic power in the world. With nominal GDP of USD 1847 billion, India was the tenth largest economy in the world in 2011. In terms of purchasing power parity (PPP), with USD 3975 billion, India ranked third after the USA and China in 2011. However, India nominal per capita income of USD 1489 remained much lower than other large economies. The Indian economy has increased at average rate of approximately 7 percent. Since 2000 amid global economic recession in 2008, Indian economy quickly rebounded and grows over 9 percent between 2009 and 2010. Rapidly increasing energy demand and growing concern about economic and environment consequence call for effective and through energy governance in India. The ensuring the supply of adequate and reliable energy to the Indian population amid growing energy demand bolstered by economic growth. Energy security is driven by increasing dependency on imported fuels, which is crucial to meet the India’s huge energy demand. Increased import dependency also exposes the country to greater geopolitical risks and international price volatility. The Indian economy growth stagnated around 3.5 percent to 4 percent per year until major economic reform commenced in 1991 (PC, 1995). The economy has increased at an average rate of approximately 7 percent since 2000. Amid the global economic recession in 2008, the Indian economy quickly rebounded and grew over 9 percent between 2009 and 2010. The amount of energy India needs to sustain high economic growth of 8 to 9 percent per year over the next 25 years (until 2032) was addressed by looking beyond the traditional five year cycle to determine how India could best meet its enormous energy demand. Traditional setting the GDP growth rate has been the central objective although official target set in the five year plan...
are often under achieved. The average annual growth rate for the 11th plan (FYP 2007-12) is expected to be 8.2 percent compared to the official target of 9 percent, assuming FY 2011-12 growths at 8 percent (PC, 2012). However it was recently reported that the government consider 9 percent growth rate not feasible amid the global economic down turn and is now considering lowering the growth target to 8 to 8.5 percent (ET, 2012). The role of the states in meeting target in five year plans is important. Many focus areas in 12th five year plan, such as the power sector requires direct involvement and support from state government. In 2009, India had the third largest energy demand in the world after China and the USA and just ahead of Russia. As world energy outlook (WEO) 2011, shows Indian energy demand more than doubled from 319 million tons of oil equivalent (MTEO) in 1990, to 669 MTEO in 2009. Notably, India’s per capita energy consumption is still at a much lower than that of developed countries and even of some developing countries. The WEO 2011, for instance assuming that India’s GDP growth is on average 7.7 percent between 2009 and 2020. As the growth in energy demand outpaced domestic energy production India’s dependency on imported energy intensified. From 1990 to 2009 as total energy import increased from 34 MTEO to 236 MTEO. India’s import dependency increased from 11 to 35 percent. The largest sources of import increase were crude oil representing 70 percent of the total increase. India imported only 21 MTEO of crude oil in 1990, but it dependency on foreign crude oil was already high at 61 percent. The absolute volume of imported crude oil reached 162 MTEO or 81 percent of India’s crude oil demand in 2009. Natural gas import were zero in 1990 and increased to 10 MTEO or 21 percent of total natural gas demand in 2009. India’s dependency on imported oil will increase to 30 percent or 280 MT of oil demand in 2020. Increasing oil dependency is generally due to rising oil demand and stagnation domestic production. Increasing oil import has led Indian oil companies to invest in overseas oil assets. Oil import is typically of poor quality, with an average heating value of about 4500 Kcal/Kg, compared to over 6000 Kcal/Kg for most internationally traded oil.

COAL
Coal is the important & primary source of energy in India. Coal constitutes over 40 percent of India’s energy mix in 2009, 56 percent of installed power capacity and nearly 70 percent of generated electricity in 2002. Coal is a key main source of India’s energy supply this is a traceable to India’s vast coal capacity, as of 2010, India had the third largest hard coal reserve, after the USA and China (BGR 2011), India was also the world’s third largest coal producer and consumer in 2011 after China and USA and is expected to become the second largest consumer by 2025, surpassing the USA. With electricity demand dramatically increasing, so will demand for coal, yet the coal sector remains the most controlled and perhaps least efficient of all energy sector in India.

In 1990 India’s coal import rate was 3 percent and all imported coal was cooking coal, which is rare in India. In 2010 the absolute volume of India’s coal import reached 90 MT (Million Tones) or 14 percent of total coal demand grew fast due to the expansion of the steel and iron industry in India. For coal import, India spent nearly USD 9.3 billion in 2010 a considerable increased from 1990 when India spent USD 416 million on coal import. As of 2010 based on import volume, Indonesia was the largest source of imported coal, 49 percent followed by Australia with share of 28 percent and South Africa with 17 percent. WEO 2011 project that India’s dependency on imported coal will increase to 30 percent or 280 MT of coal demand in 2020. Increasing coal dependency is generally due to rising coal demand and stagnation domestic production. Increasing coal import has led Indian coal companies to invest in overseas coal. Indian coal is typically of poor quality, with an average heating value of about 4500 Kcal/Kg, compared to over 6000 Kcal/Kg for most internationally traded coal.

Coal Demand: India will become the second largest coal consumer around 2025 surpassing the USA with primarily coal demand more than tripling from 280 MT in 2009 to 618 MT in 2035.

Consumption: The power sector consumed over 73 percent of India’s coal in 2009, which increase notably from a share of 61 percent in 1991. The second largest consumer was the steel and iron industry, representing about 9 percent in 1991 and 6 percent in 2009.

Import Dependency: The direct effect of soggy domestic coal production is the considerable increase of imported coal. India’s coal import has more than doubled over the last five year, which is significant in country where the public perception is that coal is abundant. Growing coal import dependency creates several major compilations. First that coal import are not easy due to limited supporting infrastructure as mentioned earlier, second different characteristics of coal typically allow Indian power plants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Gross Import</th>
<th>Export</th>
<th>Net Import</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-86</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>4.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995-96</td>
<td>8.87</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>8.78</td>
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<tr>
<td>2000-01</td>
<td>20.93</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>19.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>38.59</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>36.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>43.08</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>41.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-08</td>
<td>49.79</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>48.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-09</td>
<td>59.00</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>56.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>73.26</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>70.80</td>
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<tr>
<td>2010-11</td>
<td>68.92</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>64.51</td>
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<tr>
<td>2011-12</td>
<td>102.85</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>100.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-13</td>
<td>137.56</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>134.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Oil and Gas Sector:
Strengthen by rapid economic growth, India’s demand for oil and gas has been increasing evidential over the last two decades. In 2012, India is the world’s 4th largest oil consumer and is also the 4th largest importer (IEA, 2012). India’s gas demand was 65 BCM in 2011 and accounted for only 7 percent of India’s energy mix. India’s domestic hydro carbon reserve is relatively small resulting in increasing dependency on import and concern over energy security. Since the liberalization of the upstream sector and subsequent reforms in the downstream, the oil and gas sector is comparably more open and competitive than other energy sector in India. It is open to 100 percent FDI and a number of private and foreign private companies are actively operating. However, persisting issue remain unsolved, including a distorted pricing mechanism under-utilization of domestic resources and lack of investment from major international oil companies.

Oil Sector Supply: As of 2010, India had 0.8 billion tones of petroleum reserve, which accounted for approximately 0.3 percent of world reserve (BP, 2012). One recent discovery was made in Rajasthan by Crain India in 2009. India’s oil reserve are mostly located in western part of India. India’s domestic crude production has stagnated, growing very slightly from 0.7 mb/d in 1990 to 0.89 mb/d in 2011 at a CAGR of 1 percent. This is attribution to dealing production from mature oil wells, mostly ONGC field in Mumbai high off shore, and insufficient production from new field to offset the short fall. ONGC produced 62 percent of domestic crude oil, compared to oil with 10 percent and private / JV companies with 28 percent in FY 2011/12.

Import: To meet fast growing demand, India’s crude oil import is increasing strongly. In 1990, India imported only 37 percent of its oil demand. However, oil import were expected to reach 2.7 mb/d or 75 percent of demand in 2012, and 6.8 mb/d or 92 percent in 2035. Increasing reliance on imported crude oil has been a serious concern to Indian policy maker, both in terms of increasing energy in security and financial burden because of exposure to the fluctuation of international oil prices and exchange rate. It largest crude supplies are Saudi Arabia (18%) followed by Iran (11%), Nigeria (11%) and Kuwait (9%) in terms of imported volume in 2010(UN contrade, 2012).

Consumption: The transport sector is the largest consumer of oil in India, representing 50 percent of total demand, followed by agriculture (18%) and industry sector in FY 2011-12. LPG and gasoline each represent a 10 percent share, while naphtha has an 8 percent share (PPAC, 2012).
Table No.-2
Trend of trade in Crude Oil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Gross Import</th>
<th>Export</th>
<th>Net Import</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>16.25</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>16.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-86</td>
<td>15.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>15.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91</td>
<td>20.70</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>20.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995-96</td>
<td>27.34</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>27.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-01</td>
<td>74.10</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>74.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>99.41</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>99.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>111.50</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>111.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-08</td>
<td>121.67</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>121.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-09</td>
<td>132.78</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>132.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>159.26</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>159.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-11</td>
<td>163.60</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>163.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-12</td>
<td>171.73</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>171.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-13</td>
<td>184.80</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>184.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nuclear Power:
India has limited uranium reserve of 80000 tones or the world’s recoverable reserve. The resources are of low grade, however, and located in remote, insecure areas in the eastern states (Surendra, 2008). Based on India’s current uranium demand of 937 to the uranium R/P ratio would be about 85 years (WNA,2012). However India is known to have the world’s 4th largest thorium resources, which however require a complex process to convert it to fissile material (WNA,2012).

Conclusion:
The average quality of the Indian coal is not very high this necessity the import of high quality coal to meet the requirement of steel plants. There has been an increasing trend in the import of coal. Import of coal has steadily increased from 20.93 MTs during 2000-01 to 102.85 MTs during 2011-12. During the stated period, the quantum of coal export increased from 1.29 MTs during 2000-01 to 2.03 MTs during 2011-12. There was an increase of 49.24 percent in gross import and 56.29 percent in net import of coal in 2011-12 over the previous year. However there was a decline of 53.91 percent in export of coal during the same period. India is highly dependent on import of crude oil. Both gross and net import of crude oil has increased from 16.25MTs during 1980-81 to 171.73 MTs during 2011-12. There has been an annual increase of 4.9 percent during 2011-12 over 2010-1, as the net import increase from 163.60 MTs to 171.73 MTs. Although more than 70 percent of its crude oil requirement and part of the petroleum product is met from imports. India has developed sufficient processing capacity over the years to produce different petroleum products so as to become a net exporter of petroleum products. The export of petroleum product has increased from 0.04 MTs during 1980-81to 40.78 MTs during 2007-08. During 2011-12 export stood at 60.84 MTs, recording an increase of 2.98 from previous year The import of petroleum products has
increased from only 7.29 MTs to 15.00 MTs during 2011-12 although there are some fluctuations in the trend. However, there was a decline of 10.82 percent in import of petroleum products over the previous year. India has total reserve (proved & indicated) of 760 million metric tons of crude oil and 1330 billion cubic meters of natural gas as on 1.4.2012. Crude oil production during 2011-12 at 38.09 million metric tons is 1.08 percent higher than 37.68 million metric tons produced during 2010-11. Gross production of natural gas in the country at 47.56 billion cubic meters during 2011-12 is 8.92 percent lower than the production of 52.22 billion cubic meters during 2010-11.

A serious energy shortage and growing pressure on import have been in the Indian energy sector. In the middle of 2012, India power shortage led to massive rolling power cuts across the nation. Industries and businesses shut down and public protest followed, demanding better power supply. That the current power crisis in not a temporary problem in the power system, but rather a system of the entire energy sector reaching the tipping point is worrying. After a decade of unfinished liberalization of the energy sector, India is now standing at the crossroads with a need for the next phase of energy sector reform. Strong political is vital to address energy challenge.

Public perception should be shifted to accept that energy is not an entitlement, but a commodity, energy supply cannot be taken for granted and it requires sufficient resources to be delivered to consumers. India’s policy objective of inclusive development and affordable energy should be maintained. India is undoubtedly and irrevocably integrated into the global energy market. It relies on significant amount of energy from foreign source and as such, India is a price taker not a price setter. India can reduce its vulnerability to energy price fluctuation through a flexible and competent energy market, but it cannot isolate itself from price volatility. At the same time to expand its energy supply capacity to meet the rapidly growing energy demand of its people, India needs more investment. A significant portion of the required investment must come from foreign investors, for whom it concept with other countries. This implies the necessity of integrating India’s energy institutions and policies with global practice.

The Indian economy has experienced unprecedented economic growth over the last decade. Today India is the 9th largest economy in the world driven by a real GDP growth of 8.7 percent in the 5 years (7.5 percent over the last 10 years). In 2010 itself the real GDP growth of India was the 5th highest in the world. This high order of sustained economic growth is placing enormous demand on its energy resources. The demand and supply imbalance in energy is pervasive across all sources requiring serious efforts by government of India to augment energy supplies as India faces possible severe energy supply constraints. A projection in the twelfth plan document of the planning commission indicate that total domestic energy production of 669.6 million tons of oil equivalent (MTOE) will be reached by 2016-17 and 884 MTOE by 2021-22. This will be meet around 71 percent and 69 percent of expected energy consumption with the balance to be met from import, projected to be about 267.8 MTOE by 2016-17 and 375.6 MTOE by 2021-22. The share of coal and petroleum is expected to be about 66.8 percent in total commercial energy produced and about 56.9 percent in total commercial energy supply by 2021-22. The demand for coal is projected to reach 980 MT during the twelfth plan period, where domestic production is expected to touch 795 MT in the terminal year (2016-17). Even though the demand gap will need to be met through import domestic coal production will also need to grow at an average rate of 8 percent compared to about 4.6 percent in the eleventh five year plan. The share of crude oil in production and consumption is expected to be 6.7 percent and 23 percent respectively by 2021-22. In 2011-12, India was the 4th largest consumer in the world of crude oil and natural gas after the US, China and Russia. India’s energy demand continued to rise inspire of slowing global economy. Petroleum demand in the transport sector is expected to grow rapidly in the coming years with rapid expansion of vehicle ownership. While India’s domestic energy resource base is substantial the country relies on import for a considerable amount of its energy use, particularly for crude petroleum.

**Challenges:**

India has experienced impressive economic growth since its reforms in 1991. Since that time the country has witnessed a considerable reduction in poverty and vast improvement in the standard of living.

**Recommendations:**

The energy consumption in India is the fourth biggest after China, USA and Russia, India’s net import are nearly 144.3 million tones crude oil, 16 MTOE of LNG and 95 MTOE Coal totaling to 255.3 MTOE of primary energy which is equal to 42.9% of total primary energy consumption. India’s dependence on energy import is expected to exceed 53% of the country’s total consumption. India’s government energy policy should be based on encouragement and development of renewable sources of energy and increased focus on developing alternative sources of energy.

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Annexure I: Abbreviation Used
- PC: Planning Commission
- GDP: Gross domestic Product
- FYP: Five Year Plan
- ET: Economic Times
- WEO: World Economic Outlook
- MTEO: Million Tons of Oil Equivalents
- IEA: International Energy Agency
- MT: Million Tones
- Kcal: Kilo calorie
- IEA: International Energy Agency
- BCM: Billion Cubic Meters
- CAGR: Compound Annual Growth Rate
- MB/D: Million Barrel)/Day
- LPG: Liquid Petroleum Gas
- NELP: New Exploration Licensing Policy
- EQP: End Quantity Pricing
- E&P: Explore & Production

*****
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN THE CORPORATE WORLD:
A NEED OF THE HOUR

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ABSTRACT

Becoming the number one or the best performing organization in the market place has become the motto of all companies nowadays, irrespective of the sectors. Keeping this into consideration, corporates are searching for ways to enhance, expand and evolve into high growth companies. Practice of citizenship behavior by the employees is one such way of becoming the top performing organization thereby dealing with the ever increasing growth of competition among all firms. Over the last three decades, number of researches on organizational citizenship behaviour has revealed its significance in various forms arising from the basic helping nature shown by employees to peers to contributing to enhancing the service delivery mechanism and productivity for the organizations. The present study is an attempt to explore the theoretical aspects of OCB along with the implications it has over the corporate functioning.

Introduction

Organizational citizenship behavior is seen as a purely discretionary function without any rewards or perks associated. They are beyond the formal job descriptions laid out in front of employees. OCB refers to behaviors and gestures which are beneficial to the organization but they cannot be demanded as part of contractual obligations nor be associated as part of job requirements (Izhar, 2009). OCB may arise out of job satisfaction, organizational identification, job characteristics, organizational commitment, organizational justice, leader member relation etc. OCB may also arise out of an intrinsic motivation to satisfy one’s inner psychological requirements. Employees displaying citizenship behaviour are considered to be more cooperative and are focused on doing things which will benefit the organisation. They display a strong sense of reciprocity and are driven by the idea of collective growth and progress. Herein arises the need for corporates to understand the value employees can add to the productivity and efficiency of the companies. In this backdrop, the present paper will attempt to provide a theoretical understanding of OCB along with its antecedents and the implications it can have over the corporates.

Concept of OCB

The concept of organisational citizenship behaviour focuses on the display of extra role duties which an employee carries out from his own choice without any expectation of any reward or benefits. The behaviour is seen to be discretionary in nature carried out of free will with no intent of getting recognized, appreciated or rewarded. Since OCB is considered to be voluntary in nature all employees displaying citizenship behavior aim to maintain a smooth and cooperative working environment for all. Organ(1988) states that the behaviour of the employees is solely on the basis of “volunteerism”, so as to bring success and efficiency to organizational functioning with no expectation of any formal recognition or appreciation from the organization or supervisors.

Though the term OCB has seen definitional revisions over the time period but the major construct has remained unchanged throughout. Chester Bernard observed the phenomena of organizational citizenship behavior in the 1930’s and named it “extra-role behavior”, (Barnard, 1938). Katz (1964) used the term “citizenship” to represent the workers that showed “extra-role behaviors”. The concept of OCB was initially introduced by Bateman & Organ (1983), Smith, Organ & Near (1983). Then in 1988, Dennis Organ, a professor at Indiana University defined OCB as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization.

It was seen essential for the growth and progress of the organisation. Katz and Kahn (1978) pointed out that organizational citizenship is important in organizations. In the words of Nemeth and Staw (1989), the display of citizenship behaviour is of extreme value to organizations and thus they can contribute to performance and competitive advantage. The display of citizenship behaviour has been seen as a socially desirable state of behaviour by the organization and individuals alike. The concept of OCB has been represented as a voluntary course of actions, indicating free willed behaviour. It is suggested that OCB can contribute to better coordination among the members leading to a positive working atmosphere along with a positive frame of mind among all employees.

Dimensions of OCB

Literature reveals a high amount of conceptual overlap regarding the forms of citizenship behaviors. More than 30
different forms of citizenship have been studied in theory. Out of all the different forms, the first form of citizenship behaviour has been introduced by Organ (1988), where he highlighted five specific categories of discretionary behavior and explained how each helps to improve efficiency in the organization. They are:

1. Altruism that takes into account the helping nature among the colleagues which typically is directed towards other individuals but contributes to group efficiency by enhancing individual performance as well.

2. Conscientiousness which focuses on dedication towards the organisation and that which goes beyond the specified duty hours.

3. Sportsmanship focuses on the amount of time spent on constructive activities in the organization.

4. Courtesy aims to communicate appropriate information, thus preventing problems through optimum utilization of time.

5. Civic Virtue as a whole emphasizes on promoting the interests of the organization.

Two other OCB dimensions were introduced by Williams and Anderson (1991). The first part which is of benefit to the entire organization in general (OCBO) and the other being of benefit to the individuals particularly (OCBI). Examples of OCBO included volunteering to serve on committees, and OCBI includes altruistic activities among the employees and interpersonal helping behaviour. Similarly Van Dyne, Graham et al., (1994), also spoke about different versions of OCB. Considering the overlap in OCB themes, Podsakoff et al., (2000) and Ozturk, (2011) introduced seven common dimensions which covered all the different aspects related to OCB. It includes helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development.

Factors affecting OCB

The most common predictors of OCB have been found to be job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Van Dyne and Ang, 1995), leadership behaviors and role perceptions (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Job satisfaction is often studied as a mediator variable in relation to OCB (Bateman & Organ 1983). Organ (1988), proposed that satisfied employees are more prone to engage in activities that are not formally required but ultimately benefit their organizations.

Some other researchers focused on employee attitudes and dispositions and leader supportiveness as antecedents of OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1994). According to meta analytic studies, the relationship shared between leader and employees predicts citizenship behaviour, the better the leader supportiveness the stronger OCB. Researches also found leader member exchange and interpersonal relationship to demonstrate strong influence on OCB. It is thus concluded that leader member exchange is one of the important predictors of OCB representing high degree of employee reciprocity. Studies conducted by Williams and Anderson (1991), found that when employees participate in organizational citizenship, this participation leads employees to have positive feelings about their jobs. Individual characteristics like conscientiousness, positive affectivity, agreeableness among the employees also influences OCB.

Researches found that organizational commitment not only makes an employee last longer in the organization without considering the situational variations, but it also helps him take part in organizational activities and successful performance of the organization. Justice and fairness perceptions (Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000) along with other components of attitude such as affective and cognitive constructs have been found to be strongly related to OCB. According to the study carried out by Chen and Francesco (2003) a significant positive effect of affective organizational commitment can be seen on altruism and general compliance. Organisational justice has been found to be directly and positively related to organizational support and OCB. When employees perceive the procedures of their organization as fair and just, they are more inclined to engage in OCB. Studies on social exchange by Blau (1964) consider the interpersonal relationship shared between subordinates and supervisors to be based on trust. Individuals with high collectivism and propensity to trust are more likely to believe they are a valued part of the organization, and therefore to reciprocate for it, they would engage in behaviors that ultimately would make a positive difference for the organization. Studies by Aryee et al. (2002) suggest that if employees recognize fairness in their organization, they will try to reciprocate with a positive work attitude. According to studies conducted by Kahn (1990), employee engagement was found to have a positive relationship with OCB. Highly engaged employees are not only expected to deliver superior performance but also to involve in behavior that goes beyond job requirements. One of the predictors to OCB is employee engagement that can bring about positive and constructive work behaviour among the employees (Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2010). Numerous researchers have also found that HR practices are strongly linked with OCB (Moorman, 1993; Deckop and Cirka, 1999) whereas psychological climate (Biswas, 2010) is the important antecedent of organizational citizenship behaviour. One of the findings by Turnley et al. (2003) spoke of a positive association between psychological contracts and employee performance. It was found that once employees started considering to have received more than expected from the organization the reciprocity element in them also increased.

Job satisfaction

Implication of OCB - The display of OCB by employees at the workplace is a consequence of the ‘feel good’ employees experience and the psychological contract shared between the subordinates and supervisors.
Employees engaging in OCB related behavior are generally not awarded with increase in salary, reward or increment and are neither appreciated in front of employees. But inspite of it there is a deep understanding that OCB elements does influence the effectiveness and efficiency of the organization. And therefore the concept of OCB has grown in importance so much over the years and it is now considered as one of the vital aspects for all round growth and prosperity of the organisation. Some of the implications OCB can have over the corporates are discussed below:

a. OCB helps in developing a cooperative and helpful attitude among the employees, thereby creating a favourable work environment which in turn reduces the degree of friction arising among the employees. Whenever clashes and conflicts are minimum a harmonious and peaceful working environment can be easily sustained.

b. Various studies have revealed that motivation plays a very important role in enhancing organizational performance and productivity. Intrinsic motivation arises out of a need to satisfy oneself internally so as to derive satisfaction. This may take various forms such as being sensitive towards others, working for extended hours with no overtime, helping a new co-worker to settle into the new workplace or simply behaving oneself in a good manner. Such voluntary acts of kindness and empathy has a huge influence over the entire workplace.

c. Employees displaying citizenship attributes have been found to be more productive in their jobs thereby contributing to the effectiveness and efficiency of the organization. Considering the current competitive scenario, organizations need employees who will go beyond their job descriptions.

d. Researches also speak of the influence of OCB by promoting the social and psychological framework playing in the organization thus supporting the task performance of employees.

e. Display of citizenship behaviour have also been linked with efficiency of operation, customer satisfaction, financial performance and growth in revenues (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006). It has also been linked to increased efficiency and profitability, doing things so as to satisfy customers along with coping to organizational uncertainties.

f. One of the important implications of having “extra role oriented” employees in the organization is that they put their best efforts in not engaging in any activity which damages the image and reputation of the company. They also show strong endurance and perseverance towards performing jobs along with spending extra time so to achieve objectives for the organization thereby displaying citizenship attributes.

Conclusion

One of the critical success factors in the present day scenario is the possession of the right type of human resource displaying the right kind of behavior irrespective of time and space or formal duty boundaries. It is in this context the role and significance of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour arises. Organizations have started realizing that their most valuable asset “the workforce” can make them uniquely different from all others. Effective functioning of the organization calls for employees who will do more than just their usual job duties and provide performance that is beyond expectations. Changes in the organization structure and technology along with a highly demanding set of customers have all increased the need for enhanced work performance by employees which exceeds
the prescribed job descriptions. This implies the requirement for having a continuously striving workforce committed towards building a positive work environment, and a improved nature of social relationships among colleagues without any expectation of getting rewarded all the time.

References

CRITICAL REVIEW OF FOOD SUBSIDY IN INDIA WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE OF CHHATTISGARH

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Introduction
Subsidy in India is center of discussion mainly due to its role in widening fiscal deficit of central and state governments. A subsidy, often viewed as the converse of a tax, is an instrument of fiscal policy. Derived from the Latin word 'subsidium', a subsidy literally implies coming to assistance from behind. However, their beneficial potential is at its best when they are transparent, well targeted, and suitably designed for practical implementation. Subsidy can alter relative prices and budget constraints and thereby affect decisions concerning production, consumption and allocation of resources. Subsidies in areas such as education, health and environment at times are justified on grounds that their benefits are spread well beyond the immediate recipients, and are shared by the population at large, present and future. Many times the cause of subsidies is not so clear-cut. Arising due to extensive governmental participation in a variety of economic activities, there are many subsidies that shelter inefficiencies, raise doubt to really help beneficiaries and lacks distributional credentials. However it is really difficulty for anyone to speak publically and mainly by populist governments under multiparty democracy to speak against evils of subsidies. Subsidies are expected to play important role in social uplift and improve living conditions of pro and below poverty line residents. Considering the cost of subsidies and their detrimental impact on public finances it is important to do cost benefit analysis and rationalize the mechanics of subsidies in India.

In the context of economic effects, subsidies have been subjected to an intense debate in India in recent years. Inadequate targeting of subsidies has especially been matter of discussion among common and elites alike. Food subsidy has been very popular in India and it has helped governments to survive and remain popular. Recently Food Security Bill has kicked off new debate focusing mainly benefits and costs associated with it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Chhattisgarh</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[1] Total Population (In Millions)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[2] % contribution to national population</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[3] Per Capita Net State Domestic Product (factor cost) (Rs) (for 2009-10)</td>
<td>25835</td>
<td>33731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[4] Inequality Adjusted Human Development Index Value (IHDI) (2011)</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[6] Poverty Headcount Ratio (% Of population)</td>
<td>48.7</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(Goebel and Brown, 1981). Another research has explained that Existence of human need is universal and nature of meet operating with an individual has significant influence on work attitude of workers (Tay and Diener, 2011). Chhattisgarh is a newly constituted state and raked as 23 (HDI = 0.38) among 23 surveyed states of India is clearly lagging in development index in comparison of other states (Economic survey, 2012). The table below provides a synopsis of economic and human development index indicators for Chhattisgarh state.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Source (cited from “Chhattisgarh Economic and Human Development Indicators”)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

A search for research publications on ‘food subsidies’ at online databases of academic information and indexing services returns merely some newspaper articles. No academic research article is listed at EBESCO indexing services carrying keywords ‘food subsidy’. Mellor and Johnston (1984) strongly recommended to broaden the food subsidy scheme and persuaded to utilize food subsidy in a manner that could contribute to boost growth and employment rather than using subsidy as tool for political benefits. Thoughtful targeting is claimed as most important factor for deriving benefits of targeting and long term development must be the underlying criterion for food subsidy (Ahmad and Mellor, 1988).

Researchers in their publications claimed that economist and researchers are defensive while writing on food subsidy and promote subsidy as tool for poverty alleviation (Timmer, 1995; Pinstrup-Andersen 1988). George (1997) in study on food subsidy and rice procurement system at Kerala found that poor and pro poor are found to be consuming more rice and also the procurement system had led to minimise the income disparity among farmers. Research in other parts of world has commented favourably on food subsidy and its role in poverty alleviation. Study in Latin America and Mexico (Kennedy, 1983, Lustig, 1986), SAARC countries like Bangladesh and Sri Lanka had also improved poverty and productivity of farm produce. Calegar and Schult (1988) and Gray (1982) through studies in Brazil, however found that food subsidy does reduce poverty in terms of nutrition consumption but it does not improves economic conditions of the beneficiaries. Senauer, Garcia, and Jacinto (1988) conducted study in Philippines and found that food subsidy seems to provide better nutrition to preschool and pregnant ladies conditioned with food availability to whole family. However again the efficiency of distribution was most critical factor in achieving any success and they found employment does not improved in that region among beneficiaries.

The above studies do not provide sufficient ground to conclude the linkage between food subsidy and work attitude, life style and its impact of employment of poor beneficiaries. Literature as discussed in the beginning shows a linkage between need fulfillment and work attitude. Hence study is imperative to establish the relation between food subsidy programs, work attitude, life style and employment of food subsidy beneficiaries.

3. Interdisciplinary Relevance of Studies on Food Subsidy

Subsidy given to any population has deep and pervasive effect on future of that country. It has social, economic, personnel and financial implication. The study encompasses issues pertaining to more or less each of the above mentioned disciplines. Although economic condition of people at large is improving and per capita income in India is raising but widening economic gap, popularly called ‘economic divide’ is a matter of concern. In case food subsidy has detrimental role on work attitude and employment, this could lead to social unrest and mass unemployment amounting to social and economic crisis.

4. International Status of Subsidy

Studies on impact of food subsidy have been conducted in eleven countries, several of which have been the site of more than one project. According International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), USA, research on food subsidies have had, and continue to have, significant impact at the country level. Moreover, the cumulative weight of the research has influenced how the development community regards food subsidy issues across the world.

5. Synopsis of National Status of Subsidy

Subsidies have proliferated in India for several reasons. In the context of their economic effects, subsidies have been subjected to an intense debate in India in recent years. Some of the major issues that have emerged in the literature are indicated below:

- Whether the magnitude and incidence of subsidies, explicit and implicit, have spun out of control; their burden on government finances being unbearable, and their cost being felt in terms of a decline of real public investment in agriculture.
- Whether agricultural subsidies distort the cropping pattern and lead to inter-regional disparities in development.
- Whether general subsidies on scarce inputs like water and power have distorted their optimal allocation.
- Whether subsidies basically cover only inefficiencies in the provision of governmental services.
• Whether subsidies like (food subsidies) have a predominant urban bias
• Whether subsidies are mistargeted
• Whether subsidies have a deleterious effect on general economic growth of sectors not covered by the subsidies
• Whether agricultural subsidies are biased against small and marginal farmers
• How should government services be priced or recovery rates determined
• What is the impact of subsidies on the quality of environment and ecology

Explicit subsidies of the Government:
The most important explicit subsidies administered through the Central Government budget are food and fertilizer subsidies, and until recently, export subsidies. These subsidies account for about 30% of the total central subsidies in a year and have grown at a rate of approx. 10% per annum over the period 1971-72 to 1996-97. The relative importance of different explicit subsidies has changed over the years. E.g., food subsidies accounted for about 70% of total Central explicit subsidies in 1974-75. Since then, its relative share fell steadily reaching its lowest of 20.15% in 1990-91. Thence onwards, it has risen steadily reaching a figure of 40% in 1995-96. Export subsidies have been on the decline except for the spurt in the late 1980’s, whereas the relative share of the food subsidies has been rising although in a cyclical pattern.

As a proportion of GDP, explicit Central government subsidies were just about 0.305 in 1971-72 they continued to increase steadily reaching a peak of 2.38% in 1989-90 after this during the reform years, the explicit subsidies as a proportion of GDP have continued to decline.

As per Economic Survey for the year 2004-05, the budget presented by then Finance Minister Pranab Mukherjee, the non-plan expenditure on subsidies for the next fiscal is projected at Rs. 1.43,570 crore, which is over 102 per cent more than the actual expenditure of Rs. 70,926 crore during 2007-08. India’s subsidy bill has jumped by more than 100 per cent during the four-year period ending 2011-12 to Rs 1.43 lakh crore mainly on account of rising outgo towards petroleum and food items.

6. Significance of Studies targeted on Food Subsidy
Trade and economic effect of subsidy is of importance from context of this research. A regulated price, which is substantially lower than the market clearing price, may reduce domestic supply and lead to an increase in imports. On the other hand, subsidies to domestic producers may enable them to offer internationally competitive prices, reducing imports or raising export and finally may have detrimental effect on employment.

Subsidies may also lead to perverser or unintended economic effects. They would result in inefficient resource allocation if imposed on a competitive market or where market imperfections do not justify a subsidy, by diverting economic resources away from areas where their marginal productivity would be higher. Generalized subsidies waste resources; further, they may have perversely distributional effects endowing greater benefits on the better off people. For example, a price control may lead to lower production and shortages and thus generate black markets resulting in profits to operators in such markets and economic rents to privileged people who have access to the distribution of the good concerned at the controlled price.

Subsidies have a tendency to self-perpetuate. They create vested interests and acquire political hues. In addition, it is difficult to control the incidence of a subsidy since their effects are transmitted through the mechanism of the market, which often has imperfections other than those addressed by the subsidy.

References:
options. Baltimore, Md., USA: Johns Hopkins University Press for IFPRI.


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INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES IN PUBLIC SECTOR AND PRIVATE SECTOR INDUSTRY-
A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Industrial peace is vital for national survival. We cannot afford loss of production, whether it is due to strikes or lockouts. But good industrial relations do not merely mean the absence of strikes and lockouts any more than good health means the mere absence of disease.

Industrial relations have caught the attention since the dawn of industrial civilization. Marked as an inevitable symptom of class struggle between the capital and labour, conflict currently is viewed as a behavioural problem caused by the managements and fomented by the workers and their unions.

After independence, industrial disputes have been common and frequent in India. On account of the Industrial Truce Resolution 1947 the number of industrial disputes came down temporarily. In 1951 the first five year plan stressed the need to develop closet collaboration between employers and employee through works committees at the plant level. The plan also stressed upon the need to encourage collective bargaining, mutual settlement and voluntary arbitration to the fullest extent.

In our present economic system, conflict between capital and labour is inherent even though we have adopted a mixed system i.e. having both public and private sector in relation to industrialization.

The private sector is much better as compared to public sector because private sector is almost showing over all declining trend in all the specified area, whereas public sector is fluctuating in nature that is private sector organisation are in much better position, no doubt mandays lost in private sector is higher than public sector but trend shows that private sector showing a declining trend whereas public sector showing increasing trend.

Introduction

Industrial peace is vital for national survival. We cannot afford loss of production, whether it is due to strikes or lockouts. But good industrial relations do not merely mean the absence of strikes and lockouts any more than good health means the mere absence of disease.

Industrial relations have caught the attention since the dawn of industrial civilization. Marked as an inevitable symptom of class struggle between the capital and labour, conflict currently is viewed as a behavioural problem caused by the managements and fomented by the workers and their unions.

Industrial disputes are organized protests against existing terms and conditions of employment. These disputes are symptoms of industrial unrest in a country. “Industrial Disputes means any dispute or difference between employers and employees, or between employers and workmen or between workmen and workmen, which is connected with the employment or non-employment or terms of employment or with the conditions of labour of any person” (Industrial Disputes Act. 1947 Sec 2 (K)). Industrial strife constitutes militant and organised protests against existing industrial conditions. They are symptoms of industrial unrest in the same way that boils are a symptom of a disordered body. (Patterson, 1948)

In our present economic system, conflict between capital and labour is inherent even though we have adopted a mixed system i.e. having both public and private sector in relation to industrialization. The system of social control over the private sector may minimize the exploitation of labour by the management to a certain extent. This is done through state intervention. Industrial conflicts which generate various types of industrial disputes both economic and non-economic become a major factor for a good and bad industrial relation system. In the Indian context it is tripartite in nature in as much as the role of the state has a considerable influence with regard to labour-management relations whenever it is found that their exist dispute between management and labour the state has come to interfere.

Industrial Disputes in India:

Industrial disputes were rare in India during the nineteenth century. But after the end of the First World War there was a sharp increase in the number of industrial disputes. The awakening of labourers due to nationalist movement, the growth of trade unionism, inflationary pressures resulting in the rise in cost of living and consequently the labourers demand for higher wages seem to be some of the major causes for unhealthy relations between employers and labourers during this period. The Great Depression also adversely affected the industrial sector of Indian economy. The employers tried to counteract the Depression by improving the techniques of production, retirement and wage-cuts with the result that industrial disputes increased considerably.

With the out break of the Second World War in 1939, the number of industrial disputes again increased sharply. Thereafter the period between 1943 and 1946 was comparatively free from strikes and lockouts on a large scale due to the various restrictions imposed by the Defence of India Rules, after Independence again the number of strikes and lockouts increased rapidly due to labourers discontent about their economic condition that resulted from considerable price-rise especially during the second five
year plan. As a consequence of this, industrial relations worsened in the country leading to industrial dispute.

After independence, industrial disputes have been common and frequent in India. On account of the Industrial Truce Resolution 1947 the number of industrial disputes came down temporarily. In 1951 the first five year plan stressed the need to develop closet collaboration between employers and employee through works committees at the plant level. The plan also stressed upon the need to encourage collective bargaining, mutual settlement and voluntary arbitration to the fullest extent. The second five year plan suggested in 1956 that the public sector undertakings should not as model employers by providing for comprehensive labour welfare measures. In 1958 a voluntary code of discipline was adopted by employers and trade unions.

The National Commission on Labour 1969 made several recommendations for healthy industrial relations. Subsequent five year plans and industrial policy resolutions have all stressed upon the need for industrial peace through mutual negotiations and voluntary measures.

Research Methodology:
(a) **Objective of the Study:** The prime objectives are that:
(i) Industrial dispute is existing or not.
(ii) How workers are associated with the industrial developments, in present scenario.
(iii) How industrial dispute is affecting the industrial production in public and private sector.
(b) **Scope of the Study:** We have to check whether industrial dispute is in progressive or not and how it is going to contribute the industrial sector as being the part of economy.
(c) **Period of Study:** For the purpose of study we shall consider to data from 2001 to 2012 which the overall information, regarding industrial dispute in current scenario.
(d) **Source of Information:** The study is based on mainly secondary data. The secondary source of information is based on literature, Govt. of India publication, annual reports, books periodicals and journals etc.
(e) **Significance of the Study:** The study will provide in detailed the impact of industrial disputes on various factor to make a sound strategy for future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Disputes</th>
<th>No. of Workers Involved ('000)</th>
<th>Mandays Lost ('000)</th>
<th>Value of Production Loss (Rs. in Crore)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>1071</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>3819</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>1357</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>4919</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>2752</td>
<td>1615</td>
<td>16546</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>2589</td>
<td>1588</td>
<td>36584</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>1810</td>
<td>1342</td>
<td>26400</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>688</td>
<td>23767</td>
<td>830.21(254)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>579</td>
<td>1079</td>
<td>26586</td>
<td>682.93(197)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>1816</td>
<td>30256</td>
<td>418.49(149)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>2072</td>
<td>23866</td>
<td>355.60(131)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>2914</td>
<td>29665</td>
<td>345.07(121)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>1810</td>
<td>20324</td>
<td>381.38(99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>725</td>
<td>27167</td>
<td>267.41(82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>1579</td>
<td>17433</td>
<td>302.80(50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>1626</td>
<td>13365</td>
<td>597.08(48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>1064</td>
<td>18044</td>
<td>140.86(51)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>14458</td>
<td>422.32(74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>1308</td>
<td>12876</td>
<td>468.97(88)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GOI, Labour Bureau, Indian Labour Year Book & GOI, Pocket Book of Labour Statistics various issue
Note: Figures in brackets indicate the number of cases to which the information relates.
It is evident from the above table that the number of disputes was increasing during 1951 to 1971 i.e. 1071 and 2752. After 1981 to 2005 it was showing decreasing trend i.e. 2589 to 389. Although it was fluctuating trend during 2006 to 2012 the number of strike was 4829 except the year 2003 where it was lowest i.e. 3206. Apart from this the value of production loss was highest in the year 2001 Rs. 830.21 crore whereas lowest number was Rs.140.86 crore during 2010. During 2001 to 2012 the trend was shown fluctuating. Now the mandays lost was shown decreasing during 2007 to 2009 i.e. 27164, 17433 and 13365 respectively. It was 18044, 14458 and 12876 during 2010 to 2012 it was also shown fluctuating trend. Apart from this the value of production loss was highest in the year 2001 Rs. 830.21 crore whereas lowest number was Rs.140.86 crore during 2010. During 2001 to 2012 the trend was shown fluctuating.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Disputes by Strikes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strikes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Workers Involved (000)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mandays Lost (000)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Source: GOI, Pocket Book of Labour Statistics various issues</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table-2 reveals that during the period 2001 to 2005 regarding the number of strikes was showing decreasing trend i.e. 372, 295, 255, 236 and 227 respectively, whereas total number of workers involved in the strikes was increasing order i.e. 489, 900, 1011, 1903 and 2723. As far as mandays is concerned it was shown that year by year, it is increasing i.e. 1079, 1816, 2072 and 2914 consecutively. Likewise number of mandays lost was shown fluctuating trend i.e. 1079, 1816, 2072 and 2914 respectively. It was 18044, 14458 and 12876 during 2010 to 2012 it was also shown fluctuating trend. The similar trend was also shown in mandays lost during this period. Thus, we can conclude that if we manage the total no. of workers involvement in the strike definitely mandays lost could be converted into working hours and will become the part of productive economy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Disputes by Lockouts and Gheraos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Workers Involved (000)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mandays Lost (000)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gheraos</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Workers Involved (000)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mandays Lost (000)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Source: GOI, Pocket Book of Labour Statistics various issue @- Less than 500</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from the table-3 that during 2001 to 2007 number of lockouts are showing decreasing trend i.e.302, 284, 297, 241,229, 187 and 179 respectively. Whereas it was shown fluctuating trend during 2008 to 2012 i.e. 181, 187, 165, 191 and 182. The total number of workers involved in lockouts during 2001 to 2012 was highest in 2001-2002 i.e. 199 whereas lowest was 66 in 2008. The trend was shown fluctuating during this period. Likewise total mandays lost was highest in the year 2003 i.e. 27050 whereas lowest i.e. 9117 in the year 2009. The overall trend was shown fluctuating during this period. It is also clear from the table that during 2001 to 2012 no case of Gherao was reported, which is a good sign and affect the dispute negatively.
Table 4: Distribution of Disputes by Causes in Percentage

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Indiscipline</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Wages &amp; Allowances</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Personnel</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Charter of Demands</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Others</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Bonus</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Non-Implementation of Agreements and Awards</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Retrenchment</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Standing Order/Rules/Service Conditions/Safety Measures</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Violence</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Workload</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Leave and Hours of work/Shift working</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Inter/Intra Union Rivalry</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Betterment of Amenities</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Lay-off</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>16 Ghanao</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Surplus Labour</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Suspension/Change of Manufacturing Process</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GOI, Indian Labour Year Book various issue

The table-4 shown that the during 2001-2012 ranking from 1 to 4 is the part of major causes of industrial dispute which consist, indiscipline, wages & allowances, personnel and charter of demands, second phase of ranking from 5 to 9 shows semi major causes of industrial dispute and third phase of ranking i.e. from 10 to 18 shows least major cause of industrial dispute. Therefore we can say if first phase of ranking is reduced to third phase of ranking then scenario will be different from earlier.

Table 5: Disputes by Public Sector

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of Workers</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Days Involved ('000)</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>347</td>
<td>1099</td>
<td>1590</td>
<td>2039</td>
<td>1600</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>1734</td>
<td>1736</td>
<td>1548</td>
<td>771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages Lost (Rs.in Crores)</td>
<td>20.319 (1022)</td>
<td>24.53 (53)</td>
<td>39.35 (47)</td>
<td>82.52 (41)</td>
<td>79.09 (44)</td>
<td>128.75 (66)</td>
<td>9.59 (39)</td>
<td>55.50 (59)</td>
<td>53.14 (50)</td>
<td>94.19 (84)</td>
<td>54.81 (9)</td>
<td>71.57 (45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value of Production Loss (Rs.in Crores)</td>
<td>20.319 (85)</td>
<td>28.77 (36)</td>
<td>27.47 (22)</td>
<td>36.97 (22)</td>
<td>59.80 (19)</td>
<td>29.54 (9)</td>
<td>1.92 (2)</td>
<td>7.20 (6)</td>
<td>11.83 (5)</td>
<td>54.19 (14)</td>
<td>36.41 (15)</td>
<td>160.89 (31)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GOI, Pocket Book of Labour Statistics various issue

Note: Figures in brackets indicate the number of cases to which the information relates.
The table-5 divulge that number of disputes in public sector was highest during 2001 i.e. 139 whereas lowest was 38 during 2011. The overall trend was shown fluctuating during 2001 to 2012. Likewise the total number of workers involved was highest during 2005 i.e. 2039 whereas lowest was 252 during 2007. During 2001 to 2012 the trend was shown fluctuating.

**Table 6 : Disputes by Private Sector**

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Day or Less</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 1 upto 5 Days</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5 upto 10 Days</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10 upto 20 Days</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 upto 30 Days</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 30 Days</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GOI, Pocket Book of Labour Statistics various issue

The analysis of figures shows that during the year 2001 to 2012 maximum number of disputes was 535 during 2001 while lowest number of disputes in 2012 i.e. 304. The overall trend of disputes was fluctuating during 2001 to 2012. Likewise total number of workers involved was highest during 2005 i.e. 27343 while lowest was 11167 during 2011. The overall trend was also shown fluctuating.

**Table 7: Disputes by Duration in Percentage**

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Day or Less</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 1 upto 5 Days</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 5 upto 10 Days</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>5.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>More than 10 upto 20 Days</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 upto 30 Days</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 30 Days</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GOI, Pocket Book of Labour Statistics various issue

Similarly maximum wages lost was Rs. 203.19 crore during 2001 while lowest was Rs.9.59 crore during 2007. It was also shown fluctuating trend during the year 2001 to 2012. Likewise total value production loss was highest during 2001 i.e. Rs.203.19 crore whereas lowest was Rs.7.20 crore during 2008. The trend of value of production loss was fluctuating during 2001 to 2012 was shown fluctuating.

Conclusion:

Thus, we can conclude that if we manage the total number of workers involved in the strike definitely mandays loss could be converted into working hours and will become the part of productive economy. It is clear from the study that during the last three years no case of Gherao was reported, which is a good sign and affect the disputes negatively.

The analysis shows that indiscipline has caused severely and is still in increasing order during the year 2001 to 2012. The second important cause is regarding wages...
and allowances which are fluctuating in nature but overall it is in increasing order. The third cause is regarding personnel who are working and having the fluctuating is in nature but overall is in decreasing order and showing a good sign. Rarely the causes incurred by suspension, surplus labour happen which is approx. 0.2%. Therefore we can say that except the three major causes groups other causes can be manage within the organization.

Also mandays lost as well as involvement to workers and take up the whole issue of all types of problem than we would able to full fill the dreams which would be part of productive economy.

The study shows that overall performance of the private sector is much better as compared to public sector because private sector is almost showing over all deckling trend in all the specified area, whereas public sector is fluctuating in nature that is private sector organisation are in much better position, no doubt mandays lost in private sector is higher than public sector but trend shows that private sector showing a declining trend whereas public sector showing increasing trend. Therefore we come to the conclusion that disputes will remain part of industrial organisation but major emphasis to be given to reduce in totality causes and there effects in organised section.

References:
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2. GOI, Indian Labour Statistics various issue
3. GOI, Industrial Dispute in India various issue
4. GOI, Pocket Book of Labour Statistics various issue
9. www.labourbureau.gov.in

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“SIGNIFICANCE OF MOTIVATION AMONG THE WORKING PROFESSIONALS IN THE INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY (IT) SECTOR”

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2. Aditi Gaur
   Research Scholar, Department of Management - Career Point University, Kota (Rajasthan)

ABSTRACT

This research paper focuses on the significance of motivation among the working professionals in the IT Sector. It also highlights about how to drive the employees. Motivation is an effort that an individual puts into doing something for the attainment of a goal. So it is the responsibility of the organization to catalyze their workforce by as many ways as possible.

In our country, the motivation is gradually becoming of utmost concern. Everyone needs motivation to go ahead in not only their personal lives but in their professional lives as well. Motivation is the best manner to bring about confidence, enthusiasm and dedication among the working ones.

Key Words: Motivation, IT Sector, Working professionals.

Introduction

This study is based on the effectiveness of motivation among working professionals in the IT sector of India. 2.97 million professionals are employed in the IT Sector of India. The IT-ITeS sector, contributes about 8 per cent to the country’s economy. Acc. to Mr. Milind Deora (Former Minister of State for Communication & IT), “The Indian IT-ITeS industry has been progressively growing and is able to secure new projects from various foreign countries”. So from this point of view it is essential for the organizations to encourage their workers for best results.

In this era of technologies, the organizations should also adopt their technologies of motivation for further advancement. If any of the organization doesn’t adopt the proper motivational techniques then the performance of employee may decline and consequently there would be negative results. An individual’s motivation is influenced by biological, intellectual, social and emotional factors. A motivated human being in turn leads to a developing and successful life.

The definition of motivation starts with the root word, motive. Webster’s Dictionary defines motive as, something that causes a person to act. Therefore, motivation can be defined as, the act of providing motive that causes someone to act (Shanks, 24). In other words, according to Nancy Shanks, motivation causes someone to act and someone else cannot make someone motivated. It is the discretion of the person to decide if they are going to be motivated or not. Motivated and unmotivated are not opposites, but instead, there are determining factors that could cause someone to be unmotivated, such as life events and attitudes towards a specific job.

In the opinion of Gray and Starke, “motivation is the result of processes, internal or external to the individual that arouses enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action”. Hence it is vital to plan out the various means by which an employee can be motivated. In the current scenario, it’s very important to think on the points which give a surety that the employee will give its 100% at the workplace and this would become possible by “Motivation”.

Ways to drive the employees:

1. Motivation practices should not be only for a selective group of workers instead it should be for the entire workforce.
2. An appropriate induction programme should be organized at the workplace because the first impression is the last impression. This will prevent the very first day of the newly recruits to be awful and strengthens the chances of motivation on the part of the newly joined.
3. Encourage workers’ participation in management so that the workforce feels valued.
4. For an IT professional, its essential that regular training and development programmes should be organized by the respective organization so that the employee may raise up its motivational level in spite of losing his/her confidence.
5. Flexi time could prove to be a great motivational technique for IT employees so that they can effectively concentrate on their work without any sort of time boundation and also achieve a work-life balance.
6. Properly designed career development programmes are a good option for motivating and retaining the employees.
7. Boost up a clear communication system at all levels at the workplace.
8. Providing timely perks is an excellent way of driving the work force.

Besides all these, workplace amenities – like a gym, cafeteria, or daycare center – are nice incentives for employees to come to work and to stay focused on their projects.

People respond to educational incentives and a number of companies offer incentives that pay for additional education. They’re great because the workforce can become more expert in its work.
From the Society for Human Resources Management findings of what motivates employees, they believe that employers are able to get the best talent possible if they follow what motivates employees. Being able to use personal skills was ranked highly in what creates job satisfaction. Therefore, employers should make this a priority so that their employees are able to use their skills and abilities to their fullest (“2009 Employee Job Satisfaction”). This will give the employees the opportunity to feel that they are valued, as well as being used to their fullest potential. This will motivate them to do their best since they are working in their professional area. “The first challenge is to motivate employees to work toward helping the organization achieve its goals. The second is to motivate employees to work toward achieving their own personal goals” (Shanks, 23). A manager should make sure that they are meeting these two goals for their employees.

3. Significance of Motivation

The success of an organization depends on various factors and among those factors the most important one is the human factor. This factor can be more enhanced by motivating the employee then only the organization may forge ahead. Due to the work complexities of the IT professionals and increasing stress in their lives, the chances of errors in their work, loss of creativity and absenteeism are increasing. Moreover, this all adversely affects the productivity of the organization. So motivation is the best tool to enhance the productivity of the worker as well as nullify the negative impacts of stress.

Now-a-days, many IT based organizations have adopted several motivational techniques in order to raise the overall productivity & profitability. Using the concepts of various motivational theories also, the organizations have been successful in managing their workforce. This all has brought about a swift change and the workforce has become happier than ever before. Motivation also develops a sense of adjustment into a concern.

Motivation is a very important for an organization because of the following benefits it provides:

- Every organization needs physical, financial and human resources to fulfill the goals. It is through motivation that the human resources can be utilized by making full use of it. This can be done by building willingness in employees to work. This will help the organizations in securing best possible utilization of resources.
- The level of an employee does not only depend upon his qualifications and abilities. For getting best of his work performance, the gap between ability and willingness has to be filled which helps in improving their level of performance.
- The targets of the organization can be achieved when the following factors take place :-
  a. There is best possible utilization of resources,
  b. There is a co-operative work environment,
  c. The employees act in a purposive manner,
  d. When coordination and cooperation takes place simultaneously which can be effectively done through motivation.
- Motivation brings employees satisfaction. This can be done by framing an incentive plan for the employees. This could initiate the following things:
  * Promotion opportunities for employees,
  * Disincentives for inefficient employees.
  * In order to build a cordial, friendly atmosphere in a concern, the above steps should be taken. This would help in:
    * Effective cooperation which brings stability,
    * Disputes in employees will reduce,
    * The employees will be adaptable to the changes.
    * This will help in providing a smooth and sound concern in which individual interests will coincide with the organizational interests,
- The skills and efficiency of employees will always be advantageous to employees as well as employees. This will lead to a good public image in the market which will attract competent and qualified people into a concern. As it is said, “Old is gold” which suffices with the role of motivation here, the older the people, more the experience and their adjustment into a concern.

Thus, one can say that motivation is based on needs which are unlimited. Motivation is not only important for the existing employees but for the newly recruits also. The ultimate aim of the organization is to retain the new talent for they would be playing a crucial role in the near future. That’s why organizations choose motivation to satisfy the wants of the employees and thereby retaining them. In this regard, the attractive salary packages as a motivational technique have been successful in retaining the technocrats for a long time in the organizations.

Just as one needs air for survival likewise the organization needs motivation for its survival. Motivation is a never ending indispensable part and it should always be given privilege because it is the one which is going to “make” the organization otherwise be ready for the “break” of the organization.

4. Literature Review

When reviewing the literature on motivation, the first and foremost fact is that most of the literature appears in various books and websites and the priority should be given to such literature for implementing it as strongly as possible. Prior research suggests that most organizations implement motivational techniques to encourage their employees. For higher levels of engagement throughout the organization the authorities should be decisive regarding the needs of the workforce.

When motivating employees, there are two main ways: financial motivation and non-financial motivation. A McKinsey Quarterly study found that seventy percent of organizations say that they use or plan on using a motivation program (Dewhurst, Guthridge, and Mohr). Many managers still believe that money is everything. Through research, it is shown that for most people non-financial rewards or recognition serve as a better motivator than money. Rewards, financial or non-financial, can be achieved independently or as a group. There are positives and negatives to groups
in the workplace. Group rewards can be positive because the employees have a common bond together, the teams are more likely to be more productive, and communication between employees and upper management increases due to the team atmosphere. There are also some disadvantages which include: high performers are discouraged by working with low performers, there is a higher likelihood of conflict, and there can be more pressure on people when others are not completing their work (Doyle).

Rutherford (1990) reported that motivation formulates an organization more successful because provoked employees are constantly looking for improved practices to do a work. Motivation is “a basic psychological process which explains why employees behave the way they do in the workplace” (Kanungo and Mendonca 1995 p.16) Motivation is “the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need” (Robbins 1996, p.212). Motivational techniques can be decided not only by the supervisors but also by the top authorities of the organization also. The main objective of motivation is to form such circumstances in which an employee works with more passion and thus the employee itself, its organization and ultimately the nation is benefited.

Researchers have given various significant theories on how to motivate the workforce which can be implemented by the organizations. According to McClelland (1961), certain intrinsic motives like need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation also motivates the workers. Researchers have found that performance increases when specific, rather than vague, goals are set. People are motivated by intentions to work toward a goal (Locke 1968). Frederick Taylor and his scientific management associate described money as the most fundamental factor in motivating the industrial workers to attain greater profitability and higher efficiency and motivated by intentions to work toward a goal (Locke 1968). Respect is another motivational factor so give the employees due respect. This would really help out.

It is well said by Jimmy Dean that:

“I can’t change the direction of the wind, but I can adjust my sails to always reach my destination.” This saying really is of worth and the organizations of the IT sector must adjust their climate by motivating the workforce to reach its ultimate ambition.

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Health is a major concern for IT professionals as they spend a massive amount of time in their work so, on the part of the organization, health counseling should be provided to each and every employee of the concerned organization on a yearly basis for their benefits. This would really prove to be a supporting motivational tool.

If there is a lot of work burden, there are chances that the employee can soon become disillusioned and lose motivation. Hence it’s essential to have concern that the workload is not touching the abnormal limits.

Conflict in the workplace is really inimical. This will reduce the efficiency of the employee which will ultimately lead to the reduced efficiency of the organization as well. So proper conflict management ways should be adopted in this regard.

If there is rater’s biasness in the performance appraisal of an employee then the chances of demotivation becomes manifold.

Respect is another motivational factor so give the employees due respect. This would really help out.
CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT IN BANKING SECTOR

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ABSTRACT

Customer Relationship Management has emerged as a popular business strategy in today’s competitive environment. It is a discipline which enables the companies to identify and target their most profitable customers. In the banking field a unique ‘Relationship’ exists between the customers and the bank. But because of various reasons and apprehensions like financial burdens, risk of failure, marketing inertia etc., many banks are still following the traditional ways of marketing and only few banks are making attempts to adapt CRM. It is with this background, the researcher has made a modest attempt towards the idea that CRM can be adapted uniformly in the banking industry for betterment of Banking Services. The lack of understanding on Customer Relationship Management (CRM) is always a concern among the service providers especially banks. Banks have their own way of managing their relationships with the customers. However, the perception of customers on CRM practices among banks should also be taken into consideration.

Introduction

Today, customers have more power in deciding their bank of choice. Consequently, keeping existing customers, as well as attracting new ones, is a critical concern for banks. Customer satisfaction is an important variable in evaluation and control in a bank marketing management. Poor customer satisfaction will lead to a decline in customer loyalty, and given the extended offerings from the competitors, customers can easily switch banks. Banks need to leverage effectively on their customer relationships and make better use of customer information across the institution.

Competition in the financial services industry has intensified in recent years, owing to events such as technology changes and financial industry deregulation. Conventional banking distribution has been gradually supplemented by the emerging use of electronic banking. Many bank customers prefer using ATMs or a website rather than visiting a branch, while technology has also reduced barriers to entry for new customers.

CRM - A powerful Tool

CRM is a powerful management tool that can be used to exploit sales potential and maximize the value of the customer to the bank. Generally, CRM integrates various components of a business such as sales, marketing, IT and accounting. This strategy may not increase a business’s profit today or tomorrow, but it will add customer loyalty to the business.

In the long term, CRM produces continuous scrutiny of the bank’s business relationship with the customer, thereby increasing the value of the Customer's business. Although CRM is known to be a relatively new method in managing customer loyalty, it has been used previously by retail businesses for many years.

The core objective of modern CRM methodology is to help businesses to use technology and human resources to gain a better view of customer behavior. With this, a business can hope to achieve better customer service, make call centres more efficient, cross-sell products more effectively, simplify marketing and sales processes, identify new customers and increase customer revenues.

As an example, banks may keep track of a customer’s life stages in order to market appropriate banking products, such as mortgages or credit cards to their customers at the appropriate time.

The next stage is to look into the different methods customers’ information are gathered, where and how this data is stored and how it is currently being used. For instance, banks may interact with customers in a countless ways via mails, emails, call centres, marketing and advertising. The collected data may flow between operational systems (such as sales and stock systems) and analytical systems that can help sort through these records to identify patterns. Business analysts can then browse through the data to obtain an in-depth view of each customer and identify areas where better services are required.

Car and Banks

One of the banks’ greatest assets is their knowledge of their customers. Banks can use this asset and turn it into key competitive advantage by retaining those customers who represent the highest lifetime value and profitability.

Banks can develop customer relationships across a broad spectrum of touch points such as at bank branches, kiosks, ATMs, internet, electronic banking and call centres.

CRM is not a new phenomenon in the industry. Over the years, banks have invested heavily in CRM, especially in developing call centres, which, in the past, were designed to improve the process of inbound calls. In future, call centres will evolve to encompass more than just cost reduction and improved efficiency. According to Gartner Group, more than 80 per cent of all US banks will develop their call centres as alternative delivery channels and revenue centres, to be used for the delivery of existing products and services. But to be successful, a bank needs more than the ability to handle customer service calls. It needs a comprehensive CRM strategy in which all departments within the bank are integrated.

Objectives of Crm in Banks

CRM, the technology, along with human resources of the banks, enables the banks to analyze the behavior of customers and their value. The main areas of focus are as
the name suggests: **customer, relationship, and the management of relationship** and the main objectives to implement CRM in the business strategy are:

- To simplify marketing and sales process
- To make call centers more efficient
- To provide better customer service
- To discover new customers and increase customer revenue
- To cross sell products more effectively
- The CRM processes should fully support the basic steps of **customer life cycle**. The basic steps are:
  - Attracting present and new customers
  - Acquiring new customers
  - Serving the customers
  - Finally, retaining the customers

In today’s increasingly competitive environment, maximizing organic growth through sales momentum has become a priority for Banks and Financial institutions. To build this momentum banks are focusing on Customer relationship management initiatives to improve

- Customer satisfaction and loyalty
- Customer insight/ 360º view of customer
- Speed to market for products and service
- Increase products-to-customer ratio
- Improve up sales and cross sales
- Capitalizing on New market opportunities

The idea of CRM is that it helps businesses use technology and human resources gain insight into the behavior of customers and the value of those customers. If it works as hoped, a business can: provide better customer service, make call centers more efficient , cross sell products more effectively, help sales staff close deals faster, simplify marketing and sales processes, discover new customers, and increase customer revenues .It doesn’t happen by simply buying software and installing it. For CRM to be truly effective, an organization must first decide what kind of customer information it is looking for and it must decide what it intends to do with that information.

For example, many financial institutions keep track of customers’ life stages in order to market appropriate banking products like mortgages or IRAs to them at the right time to fit their needs. Next, the organization must look into all of the different ways information about customers comes into a business, where and how this data is stored and how it is currently used.

One company, for instance, may interact with customers in a myriad of different ways including mail campaigns, Web sites, brick-and-mortar stores, call centers, mobile sales force staff and marketing and advertising efforts. Solid CRM systems link up each of these points. This collected data flows between operational systems (like sales and inventory systems) and analytical systems that can help sort through these records for patterns. Company analysts can then comb through the data to obtain a holistic view of each customer and pinpoint areas where better services are needed.

In CRM projects, following data should be collected to run process engine:

1) Responses to campaigns,
2) Shipping and fulfillment dates,
3) Sales and purchase data,
4) Account information,
5) Web registration data,
6) Service and support records,
7) Demographic data,
8) Web sales data.

**Step to Follow**

The following steps minimize the work regarding adoption of CRM strategy. These are:

- Identification of proper CRM initiatives
- Implementing adequate technologies in order to assist CRM initiative
- Setting standards (targets) for each initiative and each person involved in that circle
- Evaluating actual performance with the standard or benchmark
- Taking corrective actions to improve deviations, if any

Customer Relationship Management is concerned with attracting, maintaining and enhancing customer relationship in multi service organizations. CRM goes beyond the transactional exchange and enables the marketer to estimate the customer’s sentiments and buying intentions so that the customer can be provided with products and services before the starts demanding. Customers are the backbone of any kind of business activities, maintaining relationship with them yield better result.

**Customer Behavior Patterns**

For example, in the financial sector, early beneficiaries of successful CRM strategies have been the banks. These organizations use data warehousing and data mining technologies to learn from the millions of transactions and interactions with their customers, and to anticipate their needs. The patterns of customer behavior and attitude derived from this information enable the banks to effectively segment customers on pre-determined criteria. Detailed customer data can provide answers to the following questions:

- Which communication channel do they prefer?
- What would be the risk of leaving the bank to go to the competition?
- What is the probability the customer will buy a service or product?

This knowledge assists financial institutions with CRM solutions in place to develop marketing programs that respond to each customer segment, support cross-selling and customer retention programs and enables the staff to understand how to maximize the value of each customer’s interaction.
CRM applications provide functionality to enhance customer interactions. Banks known for its high level of customer service might use this characteristic as a starting point for implementing a CRM application. Another company may be very good at targeting profitable customers. Each bank should seek a niche on which to develop its CRM strategy.

**Customer Data**

A common problem many organizations share is integrating customer information. When information is disparate and fragmented, it is difficult to know who the customers are, and the nature of their associations or relationships. This also makes it difficult to capitalize on opportunities to increase customer service, loyalty and profitability. For example, knowing that other family members are also customers provides an opportunity to up-sell or cross-sell products or services, or knowing that a customer uses several sources of interaction with a supplier can also provide opportunities to enhance the relationship.

The creation and execution of a successful CRM strategy depends on close examination and rationalization of the relationship between an organization’s vision and business strategy. Building toward a CRM solution and evaluating the use of customer data requires analysis and alignment of the following core capabilities:

- Customer value management
- Prospecting
- Selling
- Collection and use of customer intelligence
- Customer development (up-selling and cross-selling)
- Customer service and retention
- Protection of customer privacy

Successful CRM implementations result from the capability of the organization and its employees to integrate human resources, business processes and technology, to create differentiation and excellence in service to customers, and to perform all of these functions better than its competitors. The current economic context and financial crisis has most probably led many financial services institutions to refocus their CRM strategies with the customer relationship being more than ever the key to profitability of a retail activity. These institutions have to design a new approach to regain and reassure customers. Even if they have only started building a “how to win back trust” strategy, there is a general movement towards “refocusing on the customer” for the “post-financial” crisis phase.

Irrespective of whether it is a public sector bank or a private sector bank; a regional rural bank or a foreign bank all banks commonly store details of tens of thousands of customers and prospects - both in a corporate database and in discrete documents on the desktops of individual bank staff. Retrieving customer data to support targeted marketing activities in this environment has traditionally involved sorting hard copy by hand, which is time-consuming, inaccurate, and increasingly cost-prohibitive.

Hence the banks devise software, which would mitigate this task of customer relationship management solution, to take full advantage of their valuable customer data. It also provides a way to quantify a campaign’s success and aids in planning future marketing strategies, better workflow tracking and management, considerable increase in the speed of the marketing campaign planning process, greater cost efficiency with improved ROI, easy monitoring of multiple marketing campaigns and improved workflow management.

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A STUDY ON MAJOR GAPS BETWEEN H.R. PRACTICE AND THE SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH IN THE AREA OF EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION:

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ABSTRACT

Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job and job experiences. The happier the individual, the higher is level of job satisfaction. It is assumed that positive attitude towards work and greater organizational commitment increases job satisfaction which in return enhances performance of the individual. This article identifies three major gaps between HR practice and the scientific research in the area of employee attitudes in general and the most focal employee attitude in particular job satisfaction: (1) the causes of employee attitudes, (2) the results of positive or negative job satisfaction, and (3) how to measure and influence employee attitudes. Suggestions for practitioners are provided on how to close the gaps in knowledge and for evaluating implemented practices.

Introduction

“Happy employees are productive employees.” “Happy employees are not productive employees.” We hear these conflicting statements made by HR professionals and managers in organizations. There is confusion and debate among practitioners on the topic of employee attitudes and job satisfaction even at a time when employees are increasingly important for organizational success and competitiveness. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to provide greater understanding of the research on this topic and give recommendations related to the major practitioner knowledge gaps. As indicated indirectly in a study of HR professionals (Rynes, Colbert, & Brown, 2002), as well as based on our experience, the major practitioner knowledge gaps in this area are: (1) the causes of employee attitudes, (2) the results of positive or negative job satisfaction, and (3) how to measure and influence employee attitudes. Within each gap area, we provide a review of the scientific research and recommendations for practitioners related to the research findings. In the final section, additional recommendations for enhancing organizational practice in the area of employee attitudes and job satisfaction are described, along with suggestions for evaluating the implemented practices. Before beginning, we should describe what we mean by employee attitudes and job satisfaction. Employees have attitudes or viewpoints about many aspects of their jobs, their careers, and their organizations. Attitude is termed as a hypothetical construct that represents an individual’s like or dislike for any behavior (Mowday, Porter, and Steers 1982 in Ahmad et al, 2010). A simpler definition of attitude is a mindset or a tendency to act in a particular way due to both an individual’s experience and temperament. How people behave at work often depends on how it feels about being there. Therefore, making sense of how people behave depends on understanding their work attitudes.

Gap 1 The Cause of Employee Attitude

The first major practitioner knowledge gap we will address is the causes of employee attitudes and job satisfaction. In general, HR practitioners understand the importance of the work situation as a cause of employee attitudes, and it is an area HR can help influence through organizational programs and management practices. However, in the past two decades, there have been significant research gains in understanding dispositional and cultural influences on job satisfaction as well, which is not yet well understood by practitioners. In addition, one of the most important areas of the work situation to influence job satisfaction is the social environment of the workplace. Bad attitudes in the workplace might include laziness, tardiness, rudeness, rumor mongering or any other attitude or activity that lowers overall morale. Negative attitudes could be due to personal problems. For example, an employee might be having trouble at home that influences her behavior at work. Bad attitudes also can result from workplace events, such as a firing, pay decreases or other small-business problems.

Cultural Influences

In terms of other influences on employee attitudes, there is a small, but growing body of research on the influences of culture or country on employee attitudes and job satisfaction. The continued globalization of organizations poses new challenges for HR practitioners, and the available research on cross-cultural organizational and human resources issues can help them better understand and guide practice (Erez, 1994; House, 1995; Triandis, 1994).

The most cited cross-cultural work on employee attitudes is that of Hofstede (1980,1985). He conducted research on employee attitude data in 67 countries and found that the data grouped into four major dimensions and that countries systematically varied along these dimensions. The four cross-cultural dimensions are: (1) individualism-collectivism; (2) uncertainty avoidance versus risk taking; (3) power distance, or the extent to which power is unequally distributed; and (4) masculinity/femininity, more recently called achievement orientation. For example, the United States was found to be high on individualism, low on power distance, and low on uncertainty avoidance (thus high on
risk taking), whereas Mexico was high on collectivism, high on power distance, and high on uncertainty avoidance. The four dimensions have been a useful framework for understanding cross-cultural differences in employee attitudes, as well as recognizing the importance of cultural causes of employee attitudes. In terms of practical recommendations, an awareness of, and, whenever possible, adjustments to, cultural factors that influence employee attitudes and measurement are important for HR practitioners as employee attitude surveys increasingly cross national boundaries. Decreased Performance Bad attitudes spread, which is why you must address the issue quickly. A single person’s bad attitude can have a huge effect on the operation of your business. For example, if one employee begins complaining, his discontent might spread to other workers. Bad attitudes also can trickle downward. A cranky manager can ruin the workplace atmosphere for everyone he supervises. Pervasively negative attitudes can have a detrimental effect on performance, causing employees to become apathetic and despondent. Mistakes might occur more often, and output will likely slow.

Unhappy Customers

If your customers encounter bad attitudes from your employees, they won’t come back. Customers don’t want to deal with snippy or rude representatives, and employee apathy leads to blown project deadlines and incomplete fulfillment of orders. Monitoring the performance of employees who deal directly with customers might head off some trouble, but a more effective approach is to deal with the underlying causes of the discontent to raise the morale of the entire workplace.

Identification

Sometimes, one person is the clear cause of an organization’s problem. Other times, you must identify underlying causes for general discontent. For example, if you enforce unreasonable deadlines for projects, meaning employees must work overtime to meet your expectations, you can expect resentment to build. Though you should expect the best from your employees, pushing them too hard will test their loyalty and might be bad for morale and employee retention. Other possible causes of bad attitudes include employee perceptions concerning the financial health of your business, insufficient support from management or a feeling that hard work goes unappreciated.

Considerations

Ask for regular employee feedback so you can stay ahead of the curve. Act quickly and decisively to nip negative attitudes in the bud. For example, if an employee consistently voices unreasonable complaints, take that person aside for a private discussion. Try to come to an equitable resolution but warn the employee you won’t tolerate negative influences in your business. Dealing with systemic problems is more difficult but worth it in the long run if it improves employee morale. High morale has been shown to lead to better performance and happier customers. For example, invite employee feedback concerning workloads when determining project deadlines.

Dispositional Influences

Several innovative studies have shown the influences of a person’s disposition on job satisfaction. One of the first studies in this area (Staw & Ross, 1985) demonstrated that a person’s job satisfaction scores have stability over time, even when he or she changes jobs or companies. In a related study, childhood temperament was found to be statistically related to adult job satisfaction up to 40 years later (Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986).

For example, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggest that disposition may influence the experience of emotionally significant events at work, which in turn influences job satisfaction. Similarly, Brief (1998) and Motowidlo (1996) have developed theoretical models in an attempt to better understand the relationship between dispositions and job satisfaction. These various research findings indicate that there is in fact a relationship between disposition or personality and job satisfaction. Even though organizations cannot directly impact employee personality, the use of sound selection methods and a good match between employees and jobs will ensure people are selected and placed into jobs most appropriate for them, which, in turn, will help enhance their job satisfaction.

Gap 2 The Result of Positive or Negative Job Satisfaction

A second major practitioner knowledge gap is in the area of understanding the consequences of job satisfaction. We hear debates and confusion about whether satisfied employees are productive employees, and HR practitioners rightfully struggle as they must reduce costs and are concerned about the effects on job satisfaction and, in turn, the impact on performance and other out comes. The focus of our discussion in this section is on job satisfaction, because this is the employee attitude that is most often related to organizational outcomes. Other employee attitudes, such as organizational commitment, have been studied as well, although they have similar relationships to outcomes as job satisfaction.

Increasingly, studies have found proof that job satisfaction has a significant effect on job performance. For example, Christen, Cryler and Soberman (2005) in a paper titled “Job satisfaction, Job performance and effort” explained how job performance is related to job satisfaction. They found a significant positive effect of job performance on job satisfaction. It was noted that a positive effect of job performance on job satisfaction also has important implications for a firm that wants to motivate and retain talented employees (Soberman, et.el, 2005). It implies that actions to increase job performance can also increase the job satisfaction of employees. As a result, benefits such as reduced turnover and less absenteeism (the result of higher job satisfaction) may be useful in justifying the cost of a policy even when this policy is primarily directed to improving job performance. Cummings (1970) identified three major points concerning the relationship between job satisfaction and performance. Satisfaction causes performance, performance causes satisfaction and rewards cause both performance and satisfaction. Also,
Pushpakumari pointed that Korhauuser and Sharp (1976) have conducted more than thirty six studies to identify the relationship between satisfaction in industrial sector, for which many of the studies have found that a positive relationship existed between job satisfaction and performance. Ayem and Popoola (2007) in their paper titled “Work motivation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment of Library Personnel in Academic and Research Libraries in Oyo state, Nigeria”, found in their study that correlation exists between perceived motivation, job satisfaction and commitment, although correlation between motivation and commitment was negative. Nadia (2011) viewed that Employee motivation and job satisfaction cannot be isolated, but they complement each other and respond to organizational variables like productivity and working conditions. Employee and job satisfaction depends on people’s insight and behavior at the work place which is driven by a set of intrinsic, extrinsic needs and by their view of numerous job related and organization related attitudes. Meggison, Mosley & Pietri (1982) stated that people experience job satisfaction when they feel good about their jobs, and that this feeling often relates to their doing well, or their becoming more proficient in their professions, or their being recognized for good performance. Employee motivation is an innate force shaped and maintained by a set of highly individualistic factors that may change from time to time, depending on the particular needs and motives of an employee (Wanda and Rene). Organizational effectiveness depends on how organizations manage their employees (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007).

Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

The study of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has a controversial history. The Hawthorne studies, conducted in the 1930s, are often credited with making researchers aware of the effects of employee attitudes on performance. Shortly after the Hawthorne studies, researchers began taking a critical look at the notion that a “happy worker is a productive worker.” Most of the earlier reviews of the literature suggested a weak and somewhat inconsistent relationship between job satisfaction and performance. A review of the literature in 1985 suggested that the statistical correlation between job satisfaction and performance was about .17 (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Thus, these authors concluded that the presumed relationship between job satisfaction and performance was a “management fad” and “illusory.” This study had an important impact on researchers, and in some cases on organizations, with some managers and HR practitioners concluding that the relationship between job satisfaction and performance was trivial. However, further research does not agree with this conclusion. Organ (1988) suggests that the failure to find a strong relationship between job satisfaction and performance is due to the narrow means often used to define job performance. Organ argued that when performance is defined to include important behaviors not generally reflected in performance appraisals, such as organizational citizenship behaviors, its relationship with job satisfaction improves. Research tends to support Organ’s proposition in that job satisfaction correlates with organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ & Ryan, 1995). In addition, in a more recent and comprehensive review of 301 studies, Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001) found that when the correlations are appropriately corrected (for sampling and measurement errors), the average correlation between job satisfaction and job performance is a higher .30. In addition, the relationship between job satisfaction and performance was found to be even higher for complex (e.g., professional) jobs than for less complex jobs. Thus, contrary to earlier reviews, it does appear that job satisfaction is, in fact, predictive of performance, and the relationship is even stronger for professional jobs.

Job Satisfaction and Withdrawal Behaviors

Numerous studies have shown that dissatisfied employees are more likely to quit their jobs or be absent than satisfied employees (e.g., Hackett & Guion, 1985; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Kohler & Mathieu, 1993). Job satisfaction shows correlations with turnover and absenteeism in the .25 range. Job dissatisfaction also appears to be related to other withdrawal behaviors, including lateness, unionization, grievances, drug abuse, and decision to retire. Hulin et al. (1985) have argued that these individual withdrawal behaviors are all manifestations of “job adaptation” and have proposed that these individual behaviors be grouped together. Because the occurrence of most single withdrawal behaviors is quite low, looking at a variety of these behaviors improves the ability for showing the relationship between job attitudes and withdrawal behaviors (Hulin, 1991). Rather than predicting isolated behaviors, withdrawal research and applied practice would do better, as this model suggests, to study patterns in withdrawal behaviors—such as turnover, absenteeism, lateness, decision to retire, etc together. Several studies have supported this, showing that when various withdrawal behaviors are grouped together, job satisfaction better predicts these behavioral groupings than the individual behaviors. Based on the research that shows job satisfaction predicts withdrawal behaviors like turnover and absenteeism, researchers have been able to statistically measure the financial impact of employee attitudes on organizations (e.g., Cascio, 1986; Mirvis & Lawler, 1977). Using these methods can be a powerful way for practitioners to reveal the costs of low job satisfaction and the value of improved employee attitudes on such outcomes as absenteeism and retention.

Gap 3 How To Measure and Influence Employee Attitudes

The third major practitioner knowledge gap is in the area of how to measure and influence employee attitudes. There are a number of possible methods for measuring employee attitudes, such as conducting focus groups, interviewing employees, or carrying out employee surveys. Of these methods, the most accurate measure is a well-constructed employee attitude survey. Thus, we first provide an overview of the major research on employee attitude surveys. To positively influence employee attitudes, understanding of some of the research already discussed is
important. In addition, knowledge of important considerations for analyzing employee survey results is essential for taking appropriate steps to improve attitudes. Finally, practitioners often use survey feedback discussion meetings as a means for acting on employee attitude surveys the final part of this section addresses research related to this topic and the most important ways to support action. Organization health is a reflection of the attitudes of your employees. Employee attitudes and opinions revolve around the four pillars of strength in your organization: Communication, Culture, Compensation, and Commitment. A comprehensive survey of these factors can boost the value of your employee capital and direct your employees toward fulfilling your strategic organizational goals.

Employee Attitude Surveys

Two major research areas on employee attitude surveys are discussed below: employee attitude measures used in research and facet versus global measures. The areas discussed are not meant to provide knowledge of all relevant considerations for designing employee surveys, but rather provide background on the research and an overview of some major areas of study. In the research literature, the two most extensively validated employee attitude survey measures are the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The JDI assesses satisfaction with five different job areas: pay, promotion, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. The JDI is reliable and has an impressive array of validation evidence. The MSQ has the advantage of versatility long and short forms are available, as well as faceted and overall measures. Another measure used in job satisfaction research (e.g., Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, in press) is an updated and reliable five-item version of an earlier scale by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). All of these measures have led to greater scientific understanding of employee attitudes, and their greatest value may be for research purposes, yet these measures may be useful for practitioners as well. In practice, organizations often wish to obtain a more detailed assessment of employee attitudes and/or customize their surveys to assess issues unique to their firm. There are two additional issues with measuring employee attitudes that have been researched and provide potentially useful knowledge for practitioners. First, measures of job satisfaction can be faceted (such as the JDI)—whereby they measure various dimensions of the job while others are global or measure a single, overall feeling toward the job. An example of a global measure is “Overall, how satisfied are you with your job?” If a measure is facet-based, overall job satisfaction is typically defined as a sum of the facets. Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) found that the reliability of single-item measures of job satisfaction is .67. For the G M. Faces scale, another single-item measure of job satisfaction that asks individuals to check one of five faces that best describes their overall satisfaction (Kunin, 1955), the reliability was estimated to be .66. Therefore, respectable levels of reliability can be obtained with an overall measure of job satisfaction, although these levels are somewhat lower than most multiple-item measures of job satisfaction. Based on the research reviewed, there is support for measuring job satisfaction with either a global satisfaction question or by summing scores on various aspects of the job. Therefore, in terms of practice, by measuring facets of job satisfaction, organizations can obtain a complete picture of their specific strengths and weaknesses related to employee job satisfaction and use those facet scores for an overall satisfaction measure, or they can reliably use overall satisfaction questions for that purpose.

Measuring Employee Attitude

Organizations are increasingly interested in retaining right talents while targeting for new talents; measuring employees attitude provides an indication of how successful the organization is in fostering a conducive environment which nurtures great attitude among employee’s towards their Job and company. Because attitude is basically a psychological state, care should be taken in the effort of quantitative measurement, although a large quantity of research in this area has recently been developed. The usual measures of employee attitude involve an employee attitude survey with a set of statements using a Likert Technique or scale. The employee is asked to evaluate each statement in term of their perception on the performance of the organization being measured.

The following are a few typical Questions asked in Employee Attitude Survey:

- Please describe your position with the company.
- How long have you worked for this company?
- I have ready access to the information I need to get my job done.
- I am familiar with the mission statement put forth by my department.
- I agree with the mission statement put forth by my department.
- I am involved in decision making that affects my job.
- Management has created an open and comfortable work environment.
- I know my job requirements and what is expected of me on a daily basis.
- I have received the training I need to do my job efficiently and effectively.
- Training is provided to enable me to do my job well.
- Management recognizes and makes use of my abilities and skills.
- I am treated with respect by management and the people I work with.
- I am encouraged to develop and more efficient ways to do my work.
- Employees work well together to solve problems and get the job done.
- Management is flexible and understands the importance of balancing my work and personal life.
- I would recommend others to work for this company.
- What changes, if any, do you feel need to be made in your department to improve working conditions?
What changes, if any, do you feel need to be made in the company to improve working conditions?

The surveys of this type provide an understanding of how the employee perceives the organization. Employee attitude surveys measure your employee's opinions on most of the aspects of an workplace including:

- Overall satisfaction
- Management/employee relations
- Corporate culture
- Career development
- Compensation
- Benefits
- Recognition and rewards
- Working conditions
- Training
- Staffing levels
- Safety concerns
- Policies and procedures

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The Sample:

Changes in attitude, degree, or direction demand measuring techniques of established, reliable, and valid variety. Accordingly, psychologists and other social scientists devote much time and attention to sampling techniques and instrument construction so that attitudes can be measured accurately. The results of any attitude measurement have to be generalized against or compared with a population with known characteristics. Predictions are possible when the group included for measurement is typical of the population being studied. Kish (1953) describes simple random sampling, probability sampling, area sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling, among others. In drawing a simple random sample, the size of the population, such as the number of employees, is known and a number is assigned to each. Those interviewed will be the total decided and those whose numbers were drawn by chance as if out of a hat. Area sampling selects its respondents from boundaries that are defined and identifiable. Most often the respondents in area sampling are identified with dwelling units within the area. Stratified sampling divides the population into subpopulations called strata. From each strata a sample is selected. For example, subsamples might consist of product users versus nonusers, or teen-age males and teen-age females, or almost any variable in the characteristics of a population about which one hopes to obtain data leading to a solution of the problem investigated.

Cluster sampling requires the selection of respondents from defined groups or areas. Selecting a sample from five cities, eight blocks, three classes of general psychology students, or any other selected and defined segment of a population is the essence of cluster sampling. Regardless of the method of sampling and the statistical refinements introduced to reduce sampling errors, the ultimate value of the sample obtained depends upon the quality and integrity of the interviewers. One cannot hope to obtain an adequate sample without paying great attention to the briefing, supervising, and auditing of field interviews.

Six methods of measuring attitudes describing which one should be used will often depend on the person or group upon whom the decision rests. The methods are:

1. Impressionistic Method:

The impressionistic method is non-statistical in that it does not lead to quantitative knowledge. It is based upon the observation of behavior and attitudes. From the point of view of science, it is the least desirable of the six methods but because it is a method whereby attitude measures attitude, it is the most widely used.

2. Guided Interview:

The second method of measuring attitudes, the guided interview, is a purposeful conversation in which the interviewer tries to obtain honest and complete answers to a specific number of questions. Like all interviews, it has the advantage of face-to-face contact. This type of interview is used most frequently in industry when considering an applicant for a job. In addition, an employer or his representative may use it in handling group complaints of workers. However, it has not been used very often in determining employee attitudes.

3. Unguided Interview (Non-directive):

The third method of determining employee attitude is the unguided interview or the nondirective interview. Although there are differences between the two terms, for purposes of industrial psychology they can be considered similar. The unguided interview is characterized by the free nature of the discussion and by the fact that it is the person interviewed who really defines its limits. There are no specific questions that the interviewer must ask; his main concern is to probe and establish the emotional content of the interview.

4. Questionnaire:

The fourth method, the questionnaire, lends itself to the mass-production technique of determining employee attitudes. In some respects there is more similarity than difference between this method and the guided interview. For example, the study by Stanger, Rich, and Britten (1941) might just as well have been a questionaire study. The fact that eight minutes is reported as the length of the interview means that they went at a very rapid pace. However, it may be that these authors referred to question the workers in their homes because they felt they would get more honest answers. It is also possible that they wanted workers from various plants, or were afraid they would not be given permission to conduct their survey at the plant.
5. Attitude Scales:

The fifth and best method of formally measuring employee attitudes is through the use of attitude scales. As the name implies, an attitude scale is a kind of “psycho-logical yardstick” which can be used to measure attitudes in a quantitative manner. There are a number of different techniques available for constructing good attitude scales. Also, attitude scales can themselves be grouped into different classes, depending upon their rationale.

6. Indirect Method:

The sixth method of attitude measurement has been described as the indirect method (Weschler and Bernberg, 1950). It is intended to provide a more free rein of expression. The objective is to explore the “deeper levels rather than to deal only with the manifest verbal content.” This method deliberately attempts to conceal the intent of the measurement and allows the experimenter to observe and measure without producing an effect on the attitude itself. Varieties of techniques have been included within this category: word associations, sentence completions, or picture and story theme completion.

How To Close the Gaps and Evaluate the Effectiveness of Practice

Throughout this article, as we discussed the relevant research for each of the three knowledge gaps, we provided suggestions for closing the gaps. In this section, we offer some final suggestions, as well as ideas for evaluating the effectiveness of implemented practices. One important way to close the gap between research and practice is to be better informed about the research. Given the demands on HR practitioners’ time, this is a difficult task, yet one that is increasingly expected of HR professionals. Today, organizations need more from HR than someone to administer the tactical aspects of an employee survey and to check that managers are holding feedback discussions and have action plans. Organizations need HR practitioners who know how to develop effective and research-based employee attitude measures, understand and derive valuable insights from the data, and use the results to improve employee attitudes and job performance and help lead organizational change. Another suggestion relates to improving knowledge of basic statistics. The need to measure, understand, and improve employee attitudes is essential for organizations of today. Yet, without the numeric comfort needed to fully understand and discuss employee attitude measurements, what they mean, and how they relate to other business measures, HR cannot be at the table to assist with achieving this goal. In terms of evaluating the practices discussed in this article, the most rigorous and defensible methods are to apply return on Investment (ROI) principles. These involve defining the objectives of a program such as employee attitudes that predict organizational performance and improve employee attitudes and job satisfaction and then evaluating, through appropriate research designs and measurements, whether these objectives were met. Approaches for carrying out ROI and cost-based evaluations are described in the literature (e.g., Cascio, 1986). These evaluation approaches are the most rigorous, yet can be resource and time-intensive. In terms of more straightforward suggestions for evaluating the practices implemented, we offer the following questions that HR practitioners can ask themselves: “Do we have an employee attitude survey that measures areas important for employee job satisfaction as well as organizational success?” “How do we know this and make this case to line management?” “Is the survey routinely used as part of decision making?” “Is the survey a respected source of information?”

About the people side of the business? “ Am I at the table with line management using the survey insights for needed action and organizational change?” “Can I discuss these measures in light of other key business measures?” These may be new evaluation criteria for many HR professionals who have traditionally evaluated themselves in areas such as attitude survey response rates, timeliness of action plans submitted by managers, and the number of reports distributed. In the end, the evaluation of the practices implemented should consider these two important points: Are measures of employee attitude used as important information for the business? Ultimately, do employee attitudes and job satisfaction move in the desired direction?

Conclusions and Future Directions

The field of industrial/organizational psychology has a long, rich, and, at times, controversial history related to the study and understanding of employee attitudes and job satisfaction. Some of this research is very specific and aimed primarily at other researchers, while other publications provide practical guidance on understanding, measuring, and improving employee attitudes (e.g., Edwards & Fisher, 2004; Kraut, 1996). One likely future direction of employee attitude research will be to better understand the interplay between the person and the situation and the various internal and external factors that influence employee attitudes. In particular, a better understanding of the role of emotion, as well as broader environmental impacts, is needed and has been largely overlooked in past research. There is significant impact of job satisfaction on performance of employees in organizations. Satisfied specialists have a tendency to less non-appearance to work than low fulfilled laborer. High satisfaction of employees leads to less turnover of employees. High satisfied employees have tendency of high production than low satisfied workers. The overall performance of employees depends on the nature of their satisfaction to the job. In addition, ongoing research will provide more in-depth understanding of the effects of employee attitudes and job satisfaction on organizational measures, such as customer satisfaction and financial measures. Greater insights on the relationship between employee attitudes and business performance will assist HR professionals as they strive to enhance the essential people side of the business in a highly competitive, global arena.
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