Commitment Among the Industrial Women Workers:  
An Assessment

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KEY WORDS Working Conditions, Job-Satisfaction, Recruitment Procedure, Job Commitment.

ABSTRACT The issue of commitment assumes considerable importance in the context of labour-productivity and labour-recruitment. The index used for the calculation of male-labour commitment can not be used for the assessment of female labour commitment because the women workers get more influenced by the employment-conditions, employers’ attitude and behaviour, legislation, etc. Hence, we have advocated a composite indexmeasurement to assess the commitment level of women workers.

In this empirical study, we have used the composite index measurement for measuring the career commitment among the women workers of Kanpur and Delhi. Our findings suggest that majority of women workers found to be very committed to their career/occupation. This finding negates the existing notion that women workers are non-committed lot. Many studies have reported that women workers lack in commitment. Consequently, many women have lost their jobs. This loss can be negated if one can use the composite index of commitment as suggested by the author.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past two decades there has been a significant increase in the number of social scientists engaged in studies relating to industrial workers. However, most of these studies have not paid enough attention on the issues related to women workers. An attempt has been made here to fill in this gap by studying the aspect of job commitment among the industrial women workers of India. The issue of commitment assumes considerable significance in the context of increasing labour productivity. Often it is said that women workers are less committed than their male counterparts and consequently, many industries have stopped now hiring them. This may be true provided that the instrument to measure the commitment aspect is a fool-proof one.

There are certain problems in measuring the labour-commitment and those need a careful examination. For example, male labour commitment is normally calculated using statistical indicators like absenteeism and turnover (Rao, 1966; Sharma, 1974; UNESCO, 1980; Sharan, 1980). Those figures of turnover and absenteeism fail to tell us the exact reasons as to why do the workers remain absent. Hence, those statistical indicators are not valid indices of commitment especially to measure the women labour-commitment (the indicators must reflect the importance of attitudes, working conditions, employers’ behaviour, job-satisfaction, and management policies, etc.). It is often observed that women workers are not committed because of the employers’ behaviour, work conditions or labour policies. Therefore, their leaving a factory is involuntary. This, however, does not necessarily lead to the lack of commitment among women workers to their industrial career. This paper wishes to draw its attention on various aspects of working conditions, job-satisfaction, recruitment policies, labour legislation, etc. for developing a composite index to measure the extent of commitment among the industrial women workers of Kanpur and Delhi.

In the present study, only those aspects of working conditions are taken into consideration which are assumed to be of extreme importance for Indian manufacturing units. The sample size was limited to 1000 women workers working with different manufacturing units of Delhi and Kanpur. Care was taken to select only those units who had more than 25 workers on their rosters. The information was collected with the help of a structured interview schedule and through personal interviews of management personnel. The study was conducted during 1993-1996.

In the present study, “women workers’ commitment” is taken as a dependent variable while working condition, job satisfaction, recruitment, labour policies and their impact are taken as independent variables. We assumed that a worker would be more committed if she was fully satisfied with her working condition and manage-
ment behaviour, etc. In this paper, first we will discuss the working conditions linked with wages, benefits, promotional prospects, supervisors’ behaviour, job satisfaction, etc. and then we will have some discussion on labour legislation and its impact on women workers’ employment. Lastly we will have a look at the composite index of commitment in order to understand the extent of commitment among the women workers of the present study.

Within the industry, rural-urban migration has been one of the major sources of supply of women labour force in India (Sharan, 1985; Sheth, 1977; Gisbert, 1972; Lambert, 1963). Workers are exposed to a certain kind of environment and condition of work which they had not experienced while living in their villages. For example, tempo of work, noise of machines, lighting arrangements, performing work in an assembly-line arrangement, channels of communications, punctuality, etc. Therefore, for commitment, the objective conditions of work are linked with working hours, wages, benefits (leave bonus, etc.), insurance, promotional awareness, satisfaction with facilities, relationship with immediate bosses, etc. In this section, the objective conditions of work and job-satisfaction as perceived by the women workers have been discussed. It is hypothesised that women who are highly satisfied with their work condition might be more committed to their work.

**WORKING CONDITIONS**

The working conditions that we studied have been analyzed in terms of (a) wages, (b) benefits, (c) job security, (d) promotional prospects, (e) satisfaction with the amenities provided with in the work place, and (f) social relationship with immediate bosses.

**Wages**

Our findings on wages show that a large number of our respondents get very low wages. Table 1 indicates that 75 per cent of the total samples earned less than the average wage, i.e. Rs. 1160 per month, and only 25 per cent earned more than Rs. 1160 per month. It was further found out that the women workers working in public organizations are not better-off than their counterparts in the private firms. Almost all the women employed in private organizations earned the same as there is no wage difference in the two types of organizations. It is contrary to the assumption that government run firms pay better salary to their workers.

**Table 1 : Wages Received by the Respondents of Delhi and Kanpur Industrial Units [N=1000]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wages (in percentage)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Categories</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than Rs. 1160 p.m.</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than Rs. 1160 p.m.</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
(x^2 = 12.6, p<0.01)
\]

**Benefits**

It is observed that our respondents generally do not get any tangible benefits such as casual leave, earned leave, medical or maternity leave. In theory, they are always entitled to these benefits but seldom get them in reality. In respect of additional benefits, the situation is almost similar in Delhi and Kanpur. Since Delhi is the national capital, it was thought that the rules might to be more rigorously implemented. However, our respondents of Delhi too reported that they rarely get all those benefits. They mentioned that only permanent employees are allowed to have those benefits. Since they are not permanent employees, therefore, these advantages never come into practice.

If “wages” and “benefits” received are taken as reliable indicators of the working conditions, then there cannot be two opinions that the working conditions of the industrial women workers of Kanpur and Delhi are deplorably poor. This is not unique to our sample but is characteristic of industrial scenario all over India as has been revealed by other studies (Sheth, 1968; Nath, 1968). The women workers get neither adequate pay nor necessary fringe benefits which also explains why most of them are not committed, a point which is discussed later in this paper.

**Job Security**

No study of the working conditions of Indian women workers would be complete unless it
examines the extent of job security. By “job security” we refer to perceived job security, i.e. whether or not a woman worker feels that she has a stable and secure job. Our findings reveal that a very large majority of our respondents felt that their jobs are insecure. Table 2 shows that 80 per cent of the respondent workers felt insecurity in their jobs and only 20 per cent (all were from Delhi) felt that they have stable jobs.

The table shows a marked difference in perceived job security between Delhi and Kanpur units. It indicates that 20 per cent women workers working in Delhi perceived their jobs as stable ones against none from Kanpur. Why is this? When we probed further, we learnt that it is due to the methods of selection which are very different. In Delhi, unskilled and casual workers are recruited by jobbers or the older workers of the factory. In these selection the informal ties like caste and village play a vital role. While skilled workers are selected through careful selection process with the help of employment exchange. Since in selection informal ties are strong, therefore they cannot be terminated so easily. Thus, greater job security is found among the women workers of Delhi. While in Kanpur, most often the recruitment of unskilled workers is done with the help of contacts or contractors. Thus, these workers' job can be terminated very easily and therefore they have a feeling of insecurity while skilled workers get some skill-training for performing their jobs soon after their hiring and the skill-training involved extra-effort and expenses. Thus, the employers cannot afford to terminate the skilled workers for small reason and therefore greater security of jobs for them. This aspect is discussed with greater details in the section of “recruitment-procedure”.

Table 2: Job Security of the Respondents Working in Delhi and Kanpur Industries. [N=1000]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job security</th>
<th>Cities (in percentage)</th>
<th>Wage Categories</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>Kanpur</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insecured</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secured</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(χ² = 8.90, p<.01).

Promotion Prospects

Another important aspect of working condi-
tions is the promotion prospect as perceived by our respondents. Investigations revealed that promotion prospect is very bleak. Further findings show that there is little or no difference in the perceived promotion prospects among the women workers working either in Delhi or Kanpur. Of the total respondents, 89 per cent do not perceive any promotion prospects in their present jobs. Only 11 per cent of them reported that as per the regulations governing their service conditions there are some provisions of promotions. However, in reality, those promotion-regulations are never brought into practice. Majority of the respondents see no chance of their elevation in the foreseeable future. Some claimed that not a single promotion has taken place in their respective organizations in the past ten years or so. During our investigations, we came across only one case who has been promoted once. Based on this observation, it can be said that, promotions are not made as a routine and thus, most of the women workers never get any promotion in their jobs nor do they expect to get it in the near future.

Respondents’ Satisfaction with the Amenities

Table 3 shows the perceived satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the physical conditions and amenities provided within the units. Some differences are visible in the answer patterns of the respondents of both cities. As many as 84 per cent are dissatisfied with the physical conditions of their work places and only 16 per cent are satisfied. All the respondents of Delhi have come into the dissatisfied group, whereas all the satisfied consisted of Kanpur workers. This is a point which is worth noting. This answer pattern reflects the state of mind of the women workers. Often the workers who work in metropolitan and cosmopolitan cities want to have better working atmosphere. If their expectations are not fulfilled, they become dissatisfied. While workers coming from non-cosmopolitan areas do not expect such things, hence they are satisfied. This might be the difference because of which different kind of answer pattern was found between the respondents of Kanpur and the respondents of Delhi.

Further, answering to our various queries about the causes of their dissatisfaction, they
stated that the main reason for their dissatisfaction is their work duration which almost always exceeds 8 hours a day. They mentioned that sometimes they are required to work without any break, sitting on un cushioned stools all through the long working hours. This render their work more strenuous than it really is. In some industrial units, which we visited in the course of our field work, it is noticed that the assembly lines are too crowded as the space is inadequate and the rooms are quite stuffy. Absence of proper lighting arrangements and electric fans, at the assembly lines, has made the conditions still worse. The cumulative effect of these poor physical conditions has rendered the work unpleasant for them. Consequently, most of the respondents who worked in above units show high level of dissatisfaction and they keep on talking about changing their firms. This response can be construed as lack of commitment because of unsatisfactory physical facilities.

Table 3 : Respondents’ Satisfaction on the Amenities Provided With [N=1000]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of Reaction</th>
<th>Cities (in percentage)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>Kanpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>Nil</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

($\chi^2 = 21.24, p<0.001$ level).

Social Relationship with the Bosses

This is of crucial importance in industrial relations because industrial sociologists of “human relations” school argue that the relationship between the immediate bosses and the workers have a lasting impression on the latter’s motivation and morale and hence on job satisfaction and commitment (Schneider, 1969; Morris, 1965). The main view in this approach is that a worker always tends to place the supervisor or the immediate boss in a higher status category than his or her own. Interestingly enough, our findings, however, do not confirm this contention. The data presented in table 4 indicate that 82 per cent of the respondents have regarded their immediate bosses as equals and only 11 per cent have placed their bosses at a higher status level; interestingly enough, 7 per cent respondents have placed their bosses inferior to themselves in status.

The responses of the respondents of Delhi and Kanpur units show more or less a similar pattern. On probing further on the behaviour of immediate bosses or the supervisors towards them, the respondents expressed their satisfaction over the behaviour of their immediate bosses towards them. The response pattern, thus, indicates a positive and harmonious relationship between the workers and their bosses. However, our findings may not be true of all industries and particularly of male industrial workers of Kanpur, who have exhibited their animosity to bosses in the most violent manner (Sabewal, 1978).

Table 4 : Differential Assessment of the Immediate Bosses’ Status as Perceived by the Respondents [N=1000]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bosses’ Status</th>
<th>Cities (in percentage)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>Kanpur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

($\chi^2 = 8.24, df=2, p<0.01$ level)

PERCEIVED JOB SATISFACTION

In order to know the extent of job satisfaction found among the respondents, we wanted to find out the respondents’ attitude towards their present jobs. We enquired about their desire to continue in the present job and further we asked whether they are satisfied with their present jobs. Most of the respondents (90 per cent) showed ambivalent attitude to their present jobs and they never wished to continue in the present job for long time. Almost all of them expressed their preference for some other jobs. Their preferences are invariably for jobs with better emoluments and with better promotional prospects. Their career outlook and preferences are primarily determined by perceived monetary gains such as increments, promotions, supplementary benefits, etc. of which most of the respondents in our sample feel deprived of in their present jobs, although a few exceptions are there. Despite the large scale dissatisfaction with their present jobs, all the
respondents want to continue with their professional career. They just wish to have a change in the present job because it does not have much scope in future. This information is quite noteworthy, specially in the Indian social context. The stereotype image of Indian women is that they are not the real bread winners of the family, that they perceive their role as confined to kitchen and cradle, and that they are the least career-oriented, etc. Now, this image is being questioned. Validity of these stereotype roles is becoming unimportant. Almost all the respondents showed a keen desire to pursue their occupational career. Thus, they can never be termed as uncommitted workers.

RECRUITMENT PROCEDURE

Many respondents casually mentioned about some problems at hiring level. Therefore, we probed further on the recruitment procedures of above industries. We learnt that normally such hiring is done through contacts only. No proper advertisement is sent when vacancy arises.

91 per cent of the total respondents said that they have secured their jobs with the help of contacts such as friends/relatives or some known persons. While only 9 per cent mentioned that they got their jobs through the Employment Exchange. It means that a very small percentage of women workers got their jobs through the proper and official channel of appointment. Consequently, potential women-workers generally contact persons who can get them a job (as reported by the respondents).

It further means that all those who got a job once through pulls or contacts would definitely like to keep their employers happy by any means so that they can be continuing with the jobs. Sometimes, this leads to worst kind of exploitation. This is not new or unique for our respondents as similar experiences were reported by various other studies (Datar, 1984; Sharan, 1985; Patel, 1988).

This kind of recruitment procedure suits absolutely well to the employers. This gives them a free hand to deal with the situation and an added advantage of getting the workers’ loyalty to themselves. Which is why they are always in favour of in continuation with existing procedure of hiring. For women workers this brings a very disastrous result. Some of the workers reported that they have to go through all kinds of harassment and humiliation for the sake of their jobs. They also mentioned that everybody cannot stand-up with the situation and therefore many of them prefer to stay back at home and do some odd jobs rather than going through such humiliation. Thus, it can be easily concluded that such humiliating conditions force the women workers to withdraw themselves from the work force or remain absent from their work units. Hence, the recurrence of absenteeism is observed in many industrial units.

Role of Industrial Labour Policies

On the issue of women-labour commitment, some of the employers, officials and the trade union leaders were asked to comment.

Most of the employers and the trade-union leaders were of the opinion that women are very sincere and committed workers. However, they are mostly hired as casual workers because of the changes brought into the labour legislations which involved additional expenditures. They pointed out that following changes introduced in the labour Acts have resulted into giving adverse effect on Women’s employment:

a) Ban on women workers to work in night shifts (in manufacturing industries).

b) Introduction of maternity leave for almost 4-5 months with full salary.

c) Additional physical facilities for women workers such as a toilet, a rest room, nurseries or chreches, etc.

The above changes were introduced in the Labour Act for creating better work atmosphere and better working conditions for the women. However, in practice those have totally brought different results. For example, leather and textile industries of Kanpur which used to hire a good number of women workers, have now stopped hiring them. On queries, the owners of these industries mentioned that they do not want to hire them because they cannot be asked to work in the night shifts and thus it would be impossible for employers to run the units in shifts. Hiring of women would bring additional economic burden on them because they may have to keep
3 sets of workers. One set (of women workers only) who will be working all the time in the day-shift while the other two sets which can work on rotation. Why should they go for this additional burden? Thus, they have stopped hiring women labour.

The other provision such as chreches, nurseries, maternity benefits involve additional expenditure on women employees. The employers openly stated that they do not like to incur this kind of extra expenditure. However, some of the employers said that they would like to hire women workers because they are sincere and honest but they are refrained from doing so because of the wrath of their association.

This trend is not confined to only in Kanpur or Delhi but more or less common all over the country. It is reported that unless the nature of job requires a tender handling, women are never hired in many of the industries because of the simple economics of production process (Ramanamma, 1987; Datar, 1984).

**EXTENT OF COMMITMENT**

There are several ways in which commitment could be measured and analyzed. The traditional method of calculating commitment was dependent on absenteeism and turnover and, therefore, it did not take the social background, migration of workers into account while examining the aspect of commitment. However, many studies have reported the flaws in this kind of assessment. Workers' values and workers' motivation to work are very much dependent upon the employers, the government policies and the selection-recruitment process alongwith their social background and working conditions. Therefore, we have tried to develop a composite measurement scale, for assessing the extent of commitment among women workers, comprised of the following indicators:

(i) Working condition such as wages, promotion, benefits, attitude of boss, etc.
(ii) Procedure of selection/recruitment
(iii) Job satisfaction
(iv) Continuity in employment

We assigned one point to positive answer to each of the four indicators and thus calculated the respondents' scores on a 4 point scale. Those who scored a zero, i.e. those who had given negative responses to all the four items were placed in non-committed group, those who scored up to 2 points on the scale were placed in moderately committed category and those scoring 3 to 4 points were considered as highly committed workers.

The relative proportions of the three categories among the 1000 respondents are shown in table-5. It indicates that respondents of Delhi are relatively showing greater commitment to their career than the women workers of Kanpur. To some extent, the proportional percentage of non-committed workers is almost the same in both the cities, while a great difference is noticed among moderately committed workers of Kanpur and Delhi sample. Majority of the respondents of Kanpur units is found in moderately committed category, while majority of the respondents of Delhi units has shown high rate of commitment.

We further explored the reasons for this variance in answer pattern. After some constant probing we learnt that factors like aspiration and motivation are mainly responsible for variation showing differential trends.

The entry of workers into industry is, to some extent, determined by their aspirations, although a great majority of them do not seem to plan their careers from the beginning. Only when they are exposed to certain opportunities do they begin to think of an industrial career, and usually it is only after a few years of work that they develop aspirations (World Bank, 1992). There is evidence to show that skilled workers have more defined aspirations about their careers than the unskilled ones. Motivation and levels of aspiration not only differ according to the category of workers but they are always in a continuing process of flux and variation. Therefore they should be reckoned with. It cannot be taken for granted that once a women is favourably disposed to factory work and enters the job she becomes fully committed. Her experience in the job and chances of upward mobility are of primary importance.

There is a hierarchy among the workers within the factory. A worker's position or status is determined by her skill, experience, seniority, income and authority. The bureaucratic organization of the factory works through a system of communication linking different sections into
Table 5: Extent of Respondents' Commitment to their Jobs [N=1000]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Cities (in percentage)</th>
<th>Delhi</th>
<th>Kanpur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-Committed</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately Committed</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly Committed</td>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (in percentage)</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

($\chi^2 = 41.41, \text{df}=2, \text{p}<.01$)

which workers are grouped. Status and opportunities for upward mobility influence job satisfaction. Some studies (Sharan, 1985) of job satisfaction show that workers in the higher ranges of the hierarchy are normally more satisfied with their jobs than those in the lower ranges. However, lack of sufficient opportunities for upward mobility frequently frustrates workers, and their job satisfaction tend to be lower. This may result in workers leaving the factory and accepting jobs elsewhere.

Job satisfaction also depends upon other conditions of employment such as wages, allowance, provident fund, bonus and fringe benefits. Wages tend to be comparative, and significant differentials in wages cause, to some extent, instability of labour in a factory. Besides, there is also the practice of wooing workers by the other employers, especially in small scale industries. While the wage policy assures minimum wages to workers, suitable machinery has to be evolved to check the discrepancy in wages actually paid and those shown as having been paid in the registers. Monetary incentives such as provident fund, bonus and non-monetary benefits like sickness, maternity leave, accident insurance, and housing have made conditions of employment of workers more favourable to commitment. Assured of the minimum benefits, workers are on the lookout for more and varied benefits which several factories offer them in different degrees. This brings us to the consideration of job mobility of workers in relation to commitment.

It is often seen that workers change from one category to another within the factory or industry, and from one factory to another in the same category. The former is characterized as vertical and the latter as horizontal mobility. Mobility of workers is related, on the one hand, to the differentials in wages, benefits and opportunities and, on the other, to the aspirations, job satisfaction, skills of workers and the influence they command. When a worker leaves a factory, this is what is called "turnover" which is generally considered without question to be a bad thing as it hampers production, and to be indicative of lack of commitment. Such a notion is highly misleading for "turnover" includes cases of workers leaving the factory for many diverse reasons. When workers leave a factory, it cannot be presumed automatically that they return to their villages. They may leave because of retrenchment, termination of the period of contract for which they are employed, bad treatment from management, lack of promotion opportunities, better opportunities elsewhere and lack of adjustment to the factory environment. In many cases, workers' leaving a factory is involuntary. Often workers leave one factory only to join another. Therefore, as long as workers do not move from industrial jobs to non-industrial ones, it is misleading to use "turnover" figures as an index of lack of commitment.

In this connection, another index, i.e. absenteeism, may be critically examined too. Absenteeism is also considered as indicative of lack of commitment of industrial labour force. The figures available do not usually distinguish between workers who have gone on leave and those who remain absent without permission for a sufficiently long period. It is also necessary to know why women workers remain absent. They remain absent for a variety of reasons. Sometimes they find that work-condition is very humiliating and thus they want to avail leave; and if leave is not granted, they go without permission. If they are not taken back to work on their return, they seek jobs elsewhere. Sometimes workers remain absent only to work elsewhere for higher wages. Therefore, absenteeism which does not result in the movement of workers away from their industrial career should not be taken as an index of lack of commitment.

One of the important factors that helps the process of commitment of the labour force is amiable labour management relations. It is often said that the latter are characterized by a high degree of paternalism which is against the principle of rationality, the all-pervasive element of economic development. But paternalism need not
always be considered as unfavourable to fulfil some of their social obligation. Workers coming from rural areas are used to the traditional idioms of ma-baap (parents) and patron-client relations. These relations also act as a source of social security to workers in a strange environment. They frequently face financial problems, especially when a member of their family falls sick, or when they have to fulfill some of their social obligations. On such occasions the management may render necessary assistance. Even when the formal organization of a firm does not permit such “irregular” practices of advancing money, an advance may be made towards a permissible item of expenditure, but only to the person in need of it. Workers enjoy the warmth of patronage of the management, who in turn expects implicit loyalty and hard work from the former.

A high degree of personal and intimate relations between labour and management is a characteristic feature of industrialized nation like Japan. Abegglen (1959) points out that workers’ commitment to an industry is a lifelong commitment and loyalty is valued more than “mere” efficiency. This implies that personal relations in industries do not act as impediments either to labour productivity or commitment.

EXTRA-FACTORY LIFE

The extra-factory life of workers forms an important area of labour commitment. It includes their living conditions, pattern of consumption and style of life, and the connections they maintain with their native places.

Adjustment to urban living conditions is complementary to the process of labour commitment. It is often noticed that workers belonging to a particular region, village and caste tend to live together in industrial cities. There is a process of accretion on these lines in specific localities. Such “ghettos” help the absorption of immigrants in an alien environment and familiarize them with it. Development of slums near the factories is another illustration of a similar need which they serve. When a factory is situated near villages, workers seek accommodation there, using their caste, village and friendship ties. The presence of villages on the fringe of a factory also helps to smoothen adjustment of workers to the new urban environment as there is an element of continuity between their rural background and the new place of residence. Besides solving problems of accommodation and providing a familiar social environment, such living conditions help minimizing expenditure to suit their income and other financial commitments. The government’s policies in regard to housing and slum clearance should take into consideration the social functions of “slums” and provide better alternative conditions in which these advantages continue to exist.

CONCLUSION

Above discussion suggests that labour commitment may be seen as a process of adjustment of women workers with their social life. The process of adjustment has been relatively smooth in India as it has been favoured by many aspects of the traditional social system. There was a tradition of high craftsmanship, especially in handloom weaving which was grafted on the older textile industry. Similarly, there was a tradition of women being involved in farm activities along with their men folks which favoured the process of adjustment of industrial labour force.

The problem of commitment seems, to a certain extent, an artificial one created by using wrong indices like “turnover” and “absenteeism”. This is also due to the exaggerated stereotype image of the women-workers by making them wholly responsible for lack of commitment ignoring the part played by management. Therefore, the assessment of commitment has become very faulty. As mentioned earlier, the figures of turnover and absenteeism give no indication as to what the women workers do after they leave the factory or when they remain absent. Hence, they are not valid indices of lack of commitment. The assessment of commitment has to be linked with work conditions, recruitment procedures, labour policies and extra-factory life. As we have discussed, many a time workers’ leaving a factory is involuntary. This, however, does not confirm the lack of commitment of workers to their industrial career. Like-wise, because of some labour legislation if women are not hired, then
this does not reflect on their commitment part. Public labour policy plays a significant role, either directly or indirectly, in the process of labour commitment in many ways. Certain policies serve to create opportunities and conditions for a steady supply of trained labour force. There are others which seek to provide workers with adequate conditions of work, security, welfare, housing and a number of other benefits. All these measures directly act as incentives and make industrial employment more attractive. The policies which aimed at promoting healthy relations between labour and management and providing greater security create conditions favourable to commitment. Therefore, one needs to have a relook at the industrial labour policies which are meant especially for women-workers. It should not happen that the policies in stead of providing them better work-conditions, prevent them from entering into the work-force.

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