
Management Concepts & Organisational Behaviour

Unit – I

Nature of Management - Social Responsibility Ties of Business - Manager and Environment Levels in Management - Managerial Skills - Planning - Steps in Planning Process - Scope and Limitations - Short Range and Long Range Planning - Flexibility in Planning - Characteristics of a sound Plan - Management by Objectives (MBO) - Policies and Strategies - Scope and Formulation - Decision Making - Techniques and Processes.

Unit-II

Organising - Organisation Structure and Design - Authority and Responsibility Relationships - Delegation of Authority and Decentralisation - Interdepartmental Coordination - Emerging Trends in Corporate Structure, Strategy and Culture - Impact of Technology on Organisational design - Mechanistic vs Adoptive Structures - Formal and Informal Organisation.

Unit – III

Perception and Learning - Personality and Individual Differences - Motivation and Job Performance - Values, Attitudes and Beliefs - Stress Management - Communication Types-Process - Barriers - Making Communication Effective.

Unit – IV

Group Dynamics - Leadership - Styles - Approaches - Power and Politics - Organisational Structure - Organisational Climate and Culture - Organisational Change and Development.

Unit – V

Comparative Management Styles and approaches - Japanese Management Practices Organisational Creativity and Innovation - Management of Innovation - Entrepreneurial Management - Benchmarking - Best Management Practices across the world - Select cases of Domestic & International Corporations - Management of Diversity.

The definition suggests:

- Management is a continuous process;
- Several interrelated activities have to be performed by managers irrespective of their levels to achieve the desired goals;
- Managers use the resources of the organization, both physical as well as human, to achieve the goals;
- Management aims at achieving the organisation's goals by ensuring effective use of resources in the best interests of the society.

It is evident that the emphasis is on achieving the objectives by using material, machinery, money and the services of men. These inputs are drawn from the environment in which the organization exists. Whether an organization is engaged in business or non-business, the various inputs are judiciously used to produce the outputs. The process involving the conversion of inputs into outputs is common to all organizations and is shown in figure 1.1



Figure 1.1: INPUT - OUTPUT MODEL

Depending on the nature of business or activity that a firm is engaged in, the output of the firm may be a physical product or service. Since a business organization is an economic entity, the justification for its existence lies in producing goods and services that satisfy the needs of the people. As could be seen in the figure, the organization draws several inputs from the environment, converts them into products or services and sends them back to the environment. Environment here means the larger system, i.e., the society in which the firm exists. Therefore, it goes without saying that how effectively the goods and services are produced is a matter of concern for any society, given the scarcity of resources. Effective management therefore plays a crucial role in this context.

and art are the two sides of a coin. Medicine, engineering, accountancy and the like require skills on the part of the practitioners and can only be acquired through practice. Management is no exception. As a university gold medalist in surgery may not necessarily turn out to be a good surgeon, similarly a management graduate from the best of the institutes may not necessarily be very effective in practice. In both the cases, the application of the knowledge acquired through formal education, requires ingenuity and creativity on the part of the practitioner. Correct understanding of the variables of the situation calls for pragmatism and resourcefulness.

Effective practice of any art requires a thorough understanding of the science underlying it. Thus science and art are not mutually exclusive, but are complementary. Executives who attempt to manage without the conceptual understanding of the management principles and techniques have to depend on luck and intuition. With a sound knowledge and the necessary skills to use such knowledge, they stand a better chance to succeed. Therefore, it may be concluded that *'management is both a science and an art'*.

Management as a Profession

These are the days when we hear a lot about professional managers and their contribution to the economic development of the nation. Therefore, it is appropriate to know whether management is a profession. McFarland gives the following characteristics of a profession:

- existence of an organized and systematic body of knowledge,
- formalized methods of acquiring knowledge and skills,
- existence of an apex level body with professionalization as its goal,
- existence of an ethical code to regulate the behaviour of the members of the profession,
- charging of fees based on service, and
- concern for social responsibilities.

A closer examination of management as a profession reveals that unlike medicine or law, management has to go a long way to attain universally acceptable norms of behaviour. There is no uniform code of conduct that governs the behaviour of managers. The apex level body, the All India Management Association (AIMA) or NIPM [National Institute

Decisional		
Entrepreneur	Searches the environment for opportunities and initiates action to bring about changes; supervises design of strategy and review sessions involving initiation or improvement of projects.	
Disturbance handler	Responsible for corrective action when organization faces unexpected disturbances and turbulence.	Strategy and review sessions involving disturbances and crises.
Resource allocator	Responsible for scheduling requests the allocation of for authorization; and organizational activities involving resource of all kinds; budgeting and the making or approval of programming of all significant organizational subordinates work.	
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organizations at major negotiations	Negotiation.

As Mintzberg points out, these roles are not independent of one another. Instead, they are interdependent. The interpersonal roles arise out of the manager's authority and status in the organization and involve interactions with people. These interpersonal roles make the manager a focal point of information, enabling and compelling the manager to assume and play the informational roles as an information processing centre. By playing interpersonal and informational roles, the manager is able to play the decisional roles; allocating resources, resolving conflict,

Towards Shareholders

Shareholders are the real owners of the business. In view of the several practical limitations for them in overseeing the day-to-day operations of the business, an organization must strive to provide:

- Security to their funds;
- A fair rate of return on their investment;
- Correct information about the operations of the company; and
- Proper appreciation of the value of their investment in the company by identifying new opportunities that contributes for the growth of the business.

Towards Creditors/Suppliers

Creditors or suppliers provide the necessary inputs to the business. Business has, therefore, certain responsibilities to them. Business can discharge its responsibilities towards this group by:

- Realizing the importance of maintaining good business relations with them;
- Meeting the payment obligations timely;
- Providing true and correct picture about the financial aspects of the company; and
- Helping them grow along with the growth of the company, etc.

Towards Government

Government provides various facilities for the development of business. Infrastructural facilities like roads, telecommunication, transport, banking, insurance are some of the facilities created by the government without which no business, worth mentioning can conduct its affairs smoothly. Therefore, business also in turn owes to the government in the following ways.

- Business enterprises should act like law-abiding citizens;
- Taxes and other duties should be paid timely and honestly;
- Compliance with the rules and regulations as stipulated by various laws of the land; and

- realizing the importance of maintaining good business relations with them;
- meeting the payment obligations timely;
- providing true and correct picture about the financial aspects of the company; and
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- Supplementing the government's effort in the developmental activities, etc.

Towards Society at Large

Any business organisation can exist as long as it enjoys societal sanction. If it fails to safeguard the interests of the society, the pressure from various segments of the society mounts up. Such a situation eventually provokes the government to invoke the regulatory mechanism. That is why, it is always desirable for the business to keep the government at bay. Some managements conduct their affairs in such a responsible way where government's intervention is not warranted. For instance, the origin of several laws governing the business organizations may be traced back to the failure of business organizations in protecting the interests of the various groups in the society. An organization can act in a socially responsible way by:

- properly deciding the product policies in line with the national priorities;

Lesson - 5 : Planning

Objectives

After reading this lesson, you should be able to:

- Understand The Principles And Purpose Of Planning;
- Explain The Steps In Planning;
- Describe The Strategic/Long Range Planning; And
- Distinguish Operational Planning From Strategic Planning.

Lesson Outline

- Objectives Of Planning
- Principles Of Planning
- Planning Process
- Characteristics Of Sound Plan
- Long Range And Short Range Planning
- Types Of Plans
- Review Questions

Planning is an important managerial function in that there is no choice between planning and no planning. The choice is only in regard to the method and techniques used to plan. It is anybody's knowledge that we plan many things in our day to day lives. We plan to go on a holiday trip, plan our careers, and plan our investments and so on. Organizations are no exception. Lot of planning is done by managers at all levels. Planning is the basic process by which we use to select our goals and determine the means to achieve them. Lot of information has to be gathered and processed before a plan is formulated. In other words, a plan is like a jigsaw puzzle. All the pieces have to be put together properly, so that they make sense.

problem with a rigid plan. But in a dynamic environment, to meet the unexpected changes, adequate flexibility has to be built into the plan. Otherwise, the plan itself becomes a limiting factor.

v. Evaluate and revise

While building into the plans the required flexibility, you should not lose sight of the additional costs involved to buy such flexibility. You must also remember that flexibility in plans may not be possible always. For example, a plan for a petroleum refinery may not offer any flexibility because the machinery can hardly be used for any other purpose. Evaluation of the plan at regular intervals is necessary to make sure that it is contributing to the objectives. Like a pilot, who in the high skies checks the course to make sure that he is flying in the right direction and at the right altitude, the manager has to evaluate and review the plan. Such an exercise enables to initiate the corrective measures at the right time before it is too late. This depends on the accuracy of the information systems in the organization.

STEPS IN PLANNING

Though there may be a few variations in the exact procedure adopted by different organizations in planning, the following are the broad steps:

a. Setting of goals

Planning begins with decisions about what the organization wants to achieve during a specified period. The goals of an organization and various subunits have to be decided and spelt out in clear terms. It is always desirable to express the goals in quantitative terms for all the key areas of the business like production, profit, productivity, market share, employee relations, social responsibilities, etc. For instance, instead of saying that the objective of business is to achieve a fair rate of return on the investment, it may be given a quantitative expression, say, 10 or 15 percent return on the investment. The time frame in which the objectives have to be achieved must also be specified. Besides, adequate attention has to be paid to the resources required to achieve the objectives. Thus what to achieve, when, how and with what resources are a few important questions that should be answered at this stage.

Rules should not be confused with policies and procedures. Policies contain some operational freedom or discretion while rules allow no discretion in their application. Similarly, procedures though different from rules may contain rules regarding the do's and don't's. For example, there may be a procedure to attend to customer grievances in respect of post-sale service. The procedure may contain a rule that free service is available only for a period of two years after the sale.

Programs

A programme is a broad term which includes goals, policies, procedures, rules and steps to be taken in putting a plan into action. Terry and Franklin define program as *"a comprehensive plan that includes future use of different resources in an integrated pattern and establishes a sequence of required time schedules for each in order to achieve stated objectives"*. Thus, a programme includes objective, policies, procedures, methods, standards and budgets. For instance, launching Prithvi satellite is a program "Jawahar Rojgar Yojana" is a program. Program may be major or minor. For instance, a company may embark upon modernization program of the plant and machinery and other manufacturing systems in a big way. By all means such an effort is a major program. Similarly, a large organisation may start computerizing all its activities. On the other hand, the modernisation of small equipment in some section of the factory and computerization of a particular operation in a certain department may be considered as a minor program.

Budgets

A budget is a plan statement for a given period of time in future expressed in financial or physical units. Budget contains expected results in numerical terms. A budget is a quantitative expression of a plan. Organizational budgets vary in scope. Master budget which contains the consolidated plan of action of the whole enterprise is in a way the translated version of the overall business plan of the enterprise. Similarly, production budget represent the plan of the production department. Again, capital expenditure budget, raw material budget, labour budget, etc. are a few minor budgets in the production department. One of the advantages of budgets is they facilitate the comparison of actual results with the planned ones by providing yardsticks for measuring performance.

Review Questions

1. What is planning? Explain the objectives and principles of planning.
2. Explain the planning process.
3. Distinguish between long range and short range planning?
4. What are the different types of plans? Explain them.
5. "Failure to plan is planning to fail". Discuss.
6. Take any two Indian companies and examine how they have succeeded or failed due to poor strategic planning.
7. Identify and explain the strategic planning process in an MNC like Google drawing from the public domain.

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To quote George Odiorne, “MBO is a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organisation jointly identify the common goals, define each individual’s major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these resources as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members”.

Different goals are sought to be achieved by the introduction of MBO in organizations. MBO, as a management tool, thus, is so versatile that it is used;

- to integrate the organizational goals with the individual goals;
- as a motivational technique wherein individuals are driven towards the achievement of goals;
- to appraise the performance of managers; and
- to control the activities as they are performed.

Drucker suggests that objectives are to be specified in the key result areas of business (KRAs). A key result area may be understood as one the performance of which, directly and vitally affects the success and survival of the business. Accordingly, for a manufacturing firm production, productivity, profitability, market share, social responsibilities, employer and employee relations, manager and worker development, development of physical resources constitute the important key result areas. It may be understood that the KRAs vary from business to business. Since MBO involves a systematic effort towards the achievement of objectives, utmost care has to be exercised in setting the objectives for all the key result areas.

Prerequisites of MBO

- MBO is not merely a goal-setting tool. It is a philosophy and has to be understood thoroughly by the managers concerned with achievement of objectives.
- Top management must be willing to implement the system wholeheartedly. Its support and encouragement are crucial for the success of MBO. The necessary democratic climate has to be created in the organisation for setting the goals in a realistic way.
- Goals have to be spelt out in specific and clear terms. To the extent possible, they must be made realistic because goals motivate employees towards better performance.

Reasons why MBO Fail

In spite of many advantages, MBO may not be considered as a panacea for all the evils of the organisation. The success of the program depends on several factors. If the program fails, it is largely due to the following reasons:

- Lack of top management involvement and support. For an MBO program to succeed, it must have the complete support of top management.
- Lack of understanding of the philosophy behind MBO. MBO program in some organizations meet the resistance of employees because it is imposed on them as 'control device' to curb their freedom.
- Difficulty in setting realistic and meaningful objectives. Some jobs and areas of performance cannot be quantified and hence are not amenable for objective evaluation.
- Increased time pressure. To use MBO program, managers must learn to establish priorities and use the time effectively.
- Lack of relevant skills. Managers may not have the requisite skills for identifying objectives, communication and interpersonal interaction such as counselling and receiving feedback.
- Lack of individual motivation. The rewards and incentives for superior performance have to be specified clearly. Ambiguity or uncertainty regarding the outcome of the efforts is one of the reasons for the non-performance.
- Poor integration with other systems. Objective setting and review phases must be performed in conjunction with other activities such as budgeting, forecasting and the like. Often managers are neither taught how to set the objectives nor familiarized with the various plans and policies of the organisation. In such cases, each department ends up going its own way, and the results are counterproductive to the overall organisation.

e. **Choice of the Right Policy**

This stage involves choosing the right policy from among the several policy options that suits the organizational objectives. The Corporate history, personal values and attitude of the management and the compulsions in the environment, if any, influence the choice of the policy.

f. **Policy Implementation**

Effective implementation of the policy requires designing suitable organisational structure, developing and motivating people to contribute their best, designing effective control and information systems, allocation of resources, etc. At times, policies may have to be revised in line with the changes in the environment. Further, Policies need to be monitored constantly during the implementation stage so that inadequacies if any, may be corrected at the appropriate time.

Major Areas of Policy Making

As mentioned earlier, policies are normally formulated for all the key areas of the business. Some of the important areas for which policies are required are discussed here.

Production

Out-sourcing has become the order of the day where in many companies are producing the components from other companies. Thus, in the area of production, make or buy decision is an important policy. For instance, automobile companies buy many accessories and parts from outside rather than making those parts themselves. This type of policy enables the organization to concentrate on the basic product. However, it depends largely on the resources of the organization and how well the companies maintain the relationships with the vendors.

Another important policy pertains to the *production run*. The volume of output depends on the production run. The demand for the product in terms of orders, costs of tooling, economies of scale are some of the factors that influence the production run. some companies choose to

produce them in order .while some companies may produce in anticipation of demand, during slack season, there are companies which produce some fill-in-products to make good use of facilities. Issues relating to innovation, new product development and diversification are the other important aspects which require policy direction.

Marketing

As the business world has become increasingly competitive, marketing has acquired tremendous importance in the recent times. Peter Drucker regards innovation and marketing as the two important functions for every business. The success of any organization therefore depends on how strong it is in these two basic functions. In the area of marketing, answers to such basic questions help in formulating the politics. The questions include;

1. Who are our customers and what do they buy?
2. Why do they buy our product?
3. What do we offer in relation to our competitors?
4. What supporting services do we offer?
5. What is the price to be charged?

Appropriate answer to these questions help in deciding the product, pricing, distribution, and promotional policies of the firm. Among these, pricing policy is our utmost significance. Issues related to how to face the competition are resolved with a sound pricing policy. For instance, weather to indulge in price competition or non-price competition are the two basic issues in this regard. In the former case the firm meets competition by cutting the prices while in the later, competition is met by promotion, advertising, and after sales service, etc. the emphasis is on non-price variables.

Finance

Financial aspects normally set the limits to the expansion of the business. The required funds for the business may be furnished by the owners or borrowed from outside sources. The actions of management with regard to procurement, utilization and distribution of funds are guided by the broad politics laid down for the management of funds.

Disadvantages:

- Functional departmentation is often found to be inadequate to meet the growing needs of the business, particularly as the organization expands or diversifies its activities;
- Further, decision-making becomes slow as the functional managers have to get the approval of the headquarters;
- It is also difficult to determine accountability in a functional structure. If a product fails, the question as to who is responsible cannot be easily answered; and
- Functional managers tend to develop narrow perspective and lose sight of the bigger picture. Members of each department feel isolated from those in other departments. For example, manufacturing department may be obsessed with cost reduction and meeting the delivery dates neglecting the quality control. As a result, marketing department may be flooded with complaints.

Product/ Market Departmentation

As organizations are not static, they grow in size either by broadening its product line or by expanding geographically. Further, as the size of the organization increases, some of the disadvantages become more apparent. The organization is rather forced to look for other models in tune with their requirements. In such situations, managements opt for various other types of departmentation, in order to have the right focus on the product or market or the process. Three patterns are adopted generally by organizations depending on the specific requirements to overcome the limitations of functional structure. They are product, territorial and customer departmentation.

i. Product Departmentation

One of the most common ways in which businesses grow is by expanding the product mix. If the organization is successful in expansion, several product lines may attain such high sales volume that each product category or line may be a separate division. Large organizations like Kirloskar, Hindustan Unilever, Godrej have managed such expansion of product lines effectively by creating separate departments or divisions for the various products. Under product departmentation, a single manager,

often referred to as the product manager, is delegated authority over all activities required to produce and market that product. The focus in the product departmentation, therefore, shifts on to the product and all the activities related to the production and marketing of the product. As against functions in the functional departmentation, basic products or services become the primary or major departments in the product departmentation as could be seen in the following figure.

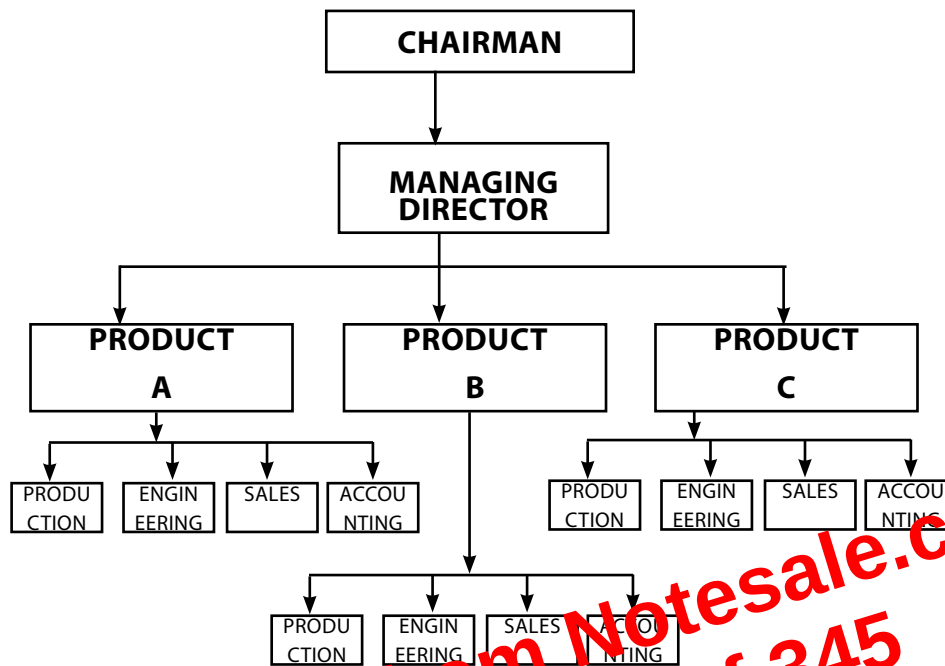


Figure 9(c) Structure of Product Departmentation

Advantages:

- Product departmentation places emphasis on the basic products, the success of which is critical to the survival of the organization;
- Since all revenues and costs are assigned to a particular product, cost centres can be established. High profit areas can be encouraged and low/unprofitable product lines can be dropped. Thus, responsibility for cost reduction and profits can be established at the division level;
- Proper coordination of all functional areas can be achieved as all the functional managers work as a team under close supervision of the product manager. Since the department or division is multifunctional, it often operates like an independent division or company within the large company;
- Enables quick-response to changes in environment as compared to functionally organized firm;

- There is a possibility of under utilization of facilities and employees specialized in terms of customer groups. Small organizations particularly cannot afford the expenditure involved because some amount of duplication of the facilities is inevitable.

iii. Territorial Department mentation

The process of creating departments along the geographical areas that the enterprise serves is termed territorial departmentation. This method is adopted when an organization operates in different geographical areas, each with distinct needs and dynamics. Territorial Departmentation makes it easier for the organization to cope with variations in laws, local customs and customer needs. Public utilities like transport companies, insurance companies, etc., adopt territorial departmentation. Similarly, a large scale organization operating both in domestic and international markets may have separate departments for both the markets. Again, different departments or divisions may be created for different regions of the world. Many multinational companies organize their global activities with regional headquarters in different regions of the world.

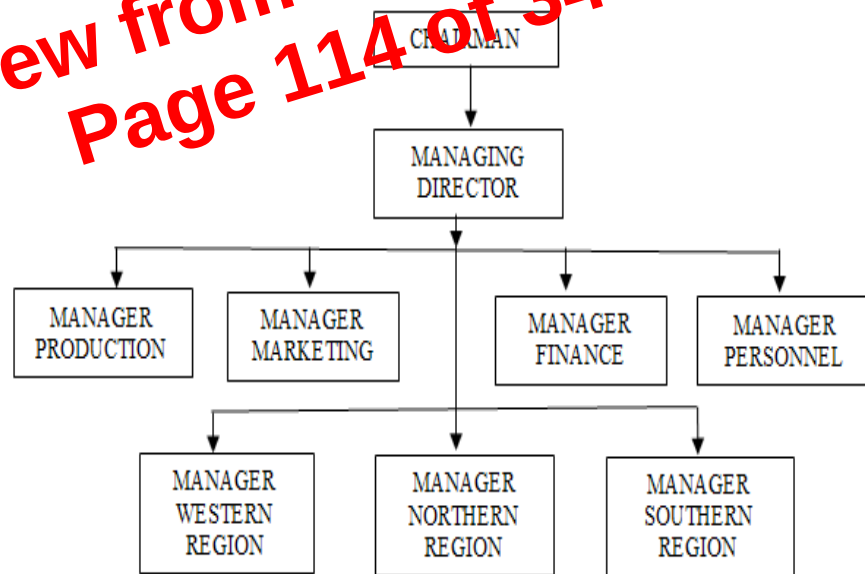


Figure 9.8: Structure of Territorial Department mentation

The Matrix Structure

The matrix structure is a hybrid organization form, containing of characteristics of both project and functional structures. In consumer goods industries, it could contain the characteristics of both product and functional departments. This structure allows operational responsibilities to be divided into two parts. One part contains all the responsibilities associated with the management of an independent business and it's given to an individual who is called "business manager" or "product manger". The other part contains all the responsibilities related to the management of resources needed to get the job done. The person responsible for these is the "functional manager" or "resource manager" in charge of the functions like production, marketing, finance, personnel and so on. The matrix is built around a cooperative relationship between the project/ product manager and the functional/ resource manager. Thus, project staff members in a matrix structure have a dual responsibility. First, they are responsible to the head of their line superior and will continue to be so. But the project manager exercises what is called project authority over the project staff. Figure presents these dual responsibilities in a matrix form of organization.

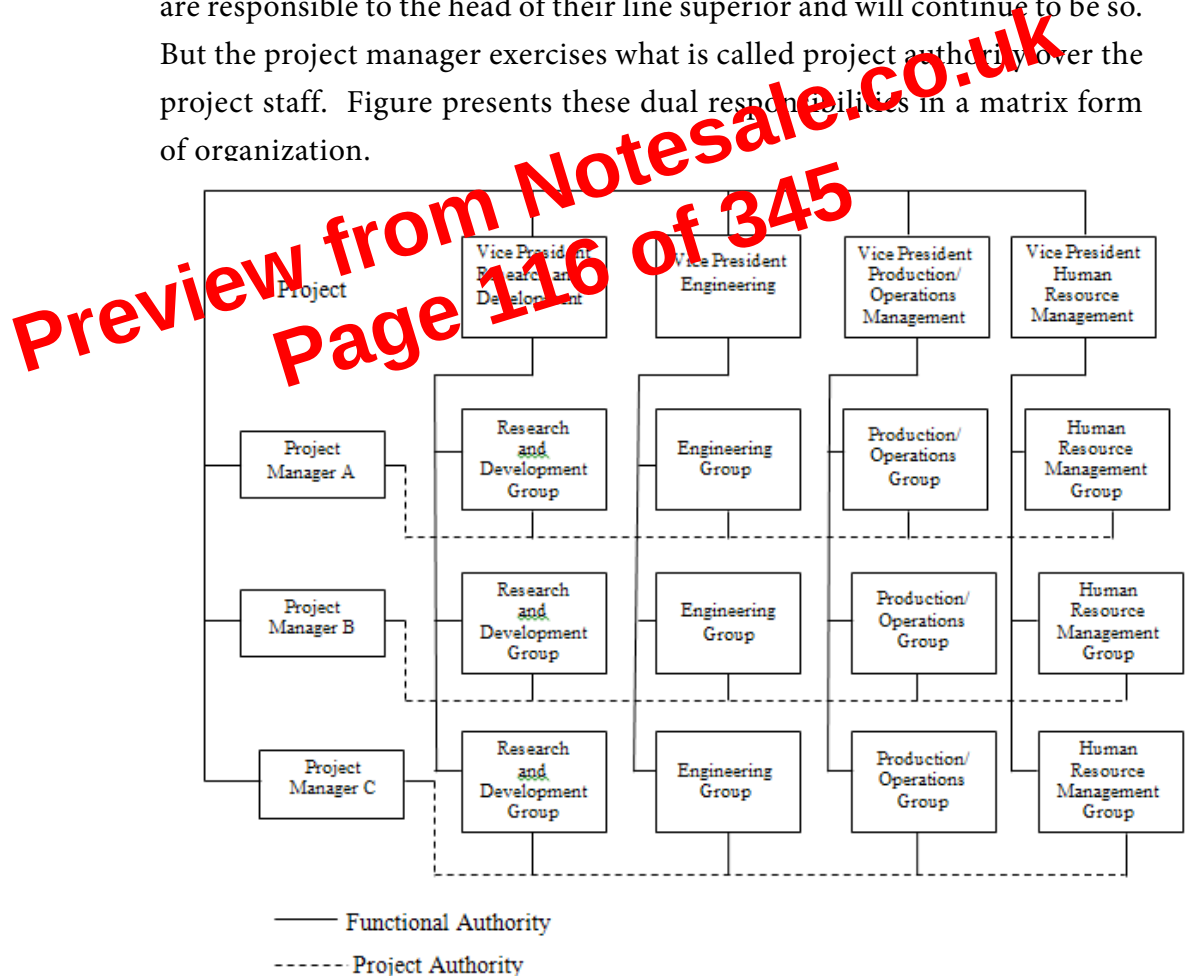


Figure 2.9: Matrix Structure

Consequently, both the parties may think they understand what was assigned and expected. Later, often too late, the work is not done right and both are disappointed. Thus, effective communication to subordinates of their responsibilities, tasks, and authority reduces the chances of misunderstandings between the two and thus paves the way for fruitful accomplishment of the tasks.

2. **Parity of Authority and Responsibility:** For delegation to be effective, it is necessary for authority and responsibility to be commensurating, that is, superior must delegate sufficient authority for the subordinate in order to enable him to accomplish the task for which he has assumed responsibility. For example, a marketing manager who got the task of increasing sales can accomplish the task, only when he is given authority to conduct an advertising campaign and provide motivational incentives to sales people. Absence of such an authority to use the organizational resources lands him in frustration. Imagine yourself for a while in the situation of having responsibility for the tasks without sufficient authority. In such a case you would let the superior know as soon as possible the actual situation and get the situation corrected.
3. **Incentives for additional responsibility:** Additional responsibility usually means additional work. An individual in any system expects to be rewarded for the additional responsibilities. But unfortunately, many organizations fail to offer positive rewards. Current research strongly indicates that employees will not be fully motivated if they feel they are giving the organization more than what they are getting. The rewards may be in many forms. Additional pay, promotional opportunity, a better job title, praise, added status, more pleasant working conditions, etc.

Though delegation broadly involves assignment of duties and granting of necessary authority to subordinates the actual practices vary. Having understood the concept of delegation of authority, the Dos and Don'ts, it is appropriate to take a look at the different degrees of delegation. Harvey Sherman categorized the following six degrees of delegation:

- i. Take action – no further contact with me is needed.
- ii. Take action – let me know that you did

relationships in the organization. The direct relationship between a superior and his subordinate is created through the enforcement of line relationship. Such a relationship works as follows:

As a Chain of Command

A command relationship exists between each superior and subordinate. Line authority is the heart of this relationship because it empowers a superior to direct the work of his subordinate.

As a Channel of Communication

Line authority can be treated as a channel of communication between the members of the organization. Communication up and down in the organization flows through the line relationship. Barnard has emphasized the role of line relationship as a channel of communication by suggesting that every member of the organization should be tied into the system of communication by having someone to report to and others to report him. Such a line can be maintained easily through the channel of command.

As a Carrier of Responsibility

The line relationship carries ultimate responsibility for the work assigned. Though the process of assigning activities goes on till the level where actual task is performed by operatives, each individual in the line is accountable for the proper performance of the activities assigned to him.

Staff Authority

The relation between a staff manager and the line manager largely depend on the type of duties performed. A man who only gathers facts or only checks on performance will have relationship with line manager that are different from those of a man who has concurring authority. Such variations between line and staff relationships as discussed earlier, run along a continuum with only advice at one extreme point and functional authority at other extreme point. In between, two more situations represent compulsory staff consultation and concurring authority. Thus, variations are often found in respect of staff authority and responsibility in

Informal Organization and Culture

The informal organization consists of the personal relationships and means of communication that are often necessary to accomplishing the work of the organization but are not a part of the formal organization structure. A related concept is the organization cultures the shared beliefs, attitudes and opinions about the company and what it stands for. The informal organization and the organization's culture are created by people throughout the company rather than being controlled by top management.

Informal organization and culture are important considerations in the overall design of an organization because of their influence on the behavior and performance of employees. In designing or redesigning an organization, management must always take the informal organization and the prevailing culture into account. If the organization's design clashes with its culture, it is most unlikely that the design will be effective. And where the design specifically attempts to frustrate part of the informal organization, harmful conflict may result.

Impact of Technology on Organizational Design

Three factors have been found to have an effect on the design of an organization. The most appropriate design for an organization seems to be contingent on such variables as its environment, the complexity of its technology and its size. The organization's environment is an external variable, its technology has internal as well as external aspects; and its size is principally an internal factor.

Impact of Environment on Organization Design

Organizations are influenced by the broader environment in which they exist. Government policy, societal values and social norms, economic trends, and the rate of technological change and innovation are general environmental factors that affect virtually any organization. And every business must adjust to its customers, competitors, suppliers and creditors – all of which are part of its immediate environment.

Managers of business design their organizations to take advantage of opportunities that arise in their environment and to respond to changes

creates rumors which may prove dangerous to the enterprise.

Modern authors on organization behavior view organizations as consisting of both types of relationships, i.e., formal and informal. It is true that while laying out an organization plan, management can only develop formal structure of relationships, but organization is not only a form chart or structure of relationships. Formal organization, no doubt, is an important part of the organization. But informal organization is also not less important. If handled properly, it will help in performing the activities of the organization very efficiently and effectively. In short, informal relations are complementary to formal relations and procedures laid down in the organization structure. Both formal and informal organizations are necessary for any group action just as two blades are essential to make a pair of scissors workable.

Making Better Use of Informal Organisation

The management should not look down upon the informal organization as it arises spontaneously along with the formal organization and fills in some of the vital gaps in the formal organization. It may be noted that formal organization is unable to meet all the needs (e.g. affiliation, affection, esteem, etc.) of its members. Management can fulfill these needs of the workers by encouraging informal organization as it provides a buffer to absorb the shocks of tensions and frustrations among the members as a result of formal organizational pinpricks.

Informal organization may act to fill in gaps in a manager's abilities. For instance, if a manager is weak in planning, one of his subordinates may informally help him in such a situation. Management may also make use of informal group leaders by taking them into confidence to mediate as bridges of understanding between the management and the employees. Startle has rightly said, "Informal structure is one index of the dynamics of getting work done and it appears that, for efficiency, it will necessarily deviate from the formal structure". Therefore, management should adopt a positive attitude towards informal organization. It should use it along with formal structure to make workable system for achieving the organizational objectives.

UNIT-III

Lesson - 14 : Perception And Learning

Objectives

After going through this lesson, you should be able to:

- Understand The Perceptual Process And The Influencing Factors Thereof;
- Identify The Factors Determining The External And Internal Stimuli;
- Examine The Various Learning Theories; And
- Distinguish Between Positive And Negative Reinforcements Influencing The Learning Behavior.

Lesson Outline

- The Perceptual Process
- Factors Influencing Selection Of Stimuli
- Factors Influencing Perception
- Managing The Perception Process
- Learning Theories
- Learning Reinforcement
- Review Questions

Perception is how people look at and understand the things. It is a unique interpretation of the situation rather than recoding of it. Perception is a complex cognitive process of understanding the world, sometimes not in its real form. Perception is a learning process and hence it differs from person to person. As a result, the same stimuli may produce different behaviours and responses. In managing the organizations, particularly in dealing with the people, managers should be able to understand the perceptions of the people. It is in this context, an attempt is made here to explain the perceptual process, factors influencing perceptions and managing the perceptions to the advantage of the organization.

Review Questions

1. Explain the perceptual process and the factors influencing the perception?
2. Examine with suitable examples from the real world how a sound knowledge of perception helps a manager in managing people and situations?
3. What is learning? Explain any two learning theories you are familiar with?
4. Distinguish between positive and negative reinforcement?

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man is a wanting animal, he continues to want something or the other. He is never fully satisfied, the other need arises. As said above (according to Maslow), needs arise in a certain order of preference and not randomly. Thus, if one's lower level needs (physiological and security needs) are unsatisfied, he can be motivated only by satisfying his lower level needs and not satisfying his higher level needs. Another point to note is that ***once a need or a certain order of needs is satisfied, it ceases to be a motivating factor.*** Man lives for bread alone as long as it is not available. In the absence of air one can't live, but there is plenty of air which ceases to be motivating.

The physiological and security needs are finite, but the needs of higher order are sufficiently infinite and are likely to be dominant in persons at higher levels in the organisation. This has been proved by various studies. A study by Boris Blai supported this by showing that managers and professionals in U.S.A. highly value self-realisation, while service and manual workers in India reported that they give priority to job security, earnings and personal benefits all lower order needs.

Appraisal of Need Hierarchy Model

The need priority model may not apply at all times in all places. Surveys in European countries and Japan have shown that the model does not apply very well to their managers. Their degree of satisfaction of needs does not vary according to the need priority model. For example, workers in Spain and Belgium felt that their esteem needs are better satisfied than their security and social needs. Apparently, cultural differences are an important cause of these differences. Thus, need hierarchy may not follow the sequence postulated by Maslow.

Another important proposition that one need is satisfied at one time is also a doubtful validity. Man's behaviour at any time mostly guided by multiplicity of motives. However, one or two motives in any situation may be more dominant, while others may be of secondary importance.

There are always some people in whom, for instance, need for self-esteem seems to be more prominent than that of love. There are also creative people in whom the drive for creativeness seems to be more important. In certain people, the level of operation may be permanently

lower. For instance, a person who has experienced chronic unemployment may continue to be satisfied for the rest of his life if only he can get enough food.

HERZBERG'S Two Factor theory of MOTIVATION

A significant development in motivation theory was distinction between motivational and maintenance factors in job situation. A research was conducted by Herzberg and his associates based on the interview of 200 engineers and accountants who worked for eleven different firms in Pittsburgh area. These men were asked to recall specific incidents in their experience which made them feel particularly bad about jobs. The findings of the research led to draw a distinction between what are called as '**motivators**' and '**hygiene factors**'. To this group of engineers and accountants, the real motivators were opportunities to gain expertise and to handle more demanding assignments. Hygiene factors served to prevent loss of money and efficiency. *Thus, hygiene factors provide no motivation to the employees, but the absence of these factors serves as dissatisfies.*

Some job conditions operate primarily to dissatisfy employees. Their presence does not motivate employees in a strong way. Many of these factors are traditionally perceived by management as motivators, but the factors are really more potent as dissatisfiers. They are called maintenance factors in job because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among the employees. Their absence proves to be strong dissatisfiers. They are also known as '**dissatisfiers**' or '**hygienic factors**' because they support employees' mental health. Another set of job conditions operates primarily to build strong motivation and high job satisfaction among the employees. These conditions are 'Motivational Factors'. Herzberg's maintenance and motivational factors have been shown in the table given below.

motivational power; it influences the decisions of individuals on putting in necessary effort towards task performance. In modern organizations, a large variety of incentives are used to motivate the people. These incentives may be broadly grouped into: (i) *financial or pecuniary incentives*, and (ii) *non-financial incentives*.

The financial incentives may be distinguished from the non-financial incentives on the following grounds:

1. Financial or monetary incentives are meant to satisfy those which money can buy. The needs for food, clothing, and shelter can be fully satisfied by money, but the needs for security, social affiliation and status can be partially satisfied by money. But non-pecuniary incentives are meant for satisfaction of those needs which can't be satisfied by money. The examples are higher level needs such as status, ego, sense of responsibility, career advancement, autonomy.
2. Financial incentives are tangible, i.e. visible and measurable; they have a direct effect on the organization and the members. But non-financial incentives are intangible and they have an indirect influence on the organization and the members.
3. Financial incentives are determined by reference to several factors such as job evaluation, cost of living trends, fringe benefits offered by competitors, agreement between the employers and employees, etc. Non-financial incentives are based on the nature of jobs, strength of aspirations and urges of employees and behavioural orientation of management.
4. Financial incentives are generally used to motivate workers and other non-managerial employees. But non-financial incentives are used to motivate managerial and other higher level personnel. They are also used to supplement and support the pecuniary incentives in the organization.

Role of Non-Financial Incentives

Financial incentives do not work for ever to motivate the people at work. As a matter of fact, when the physiological and security needs

are fulfilled with the help of money, money ceases to be the motivating force; it becomes the maintenance factor as said by Herzberg. Therefore, employees do not always run after money. They have other needs also. They want status and recognition in the society, they want to satisfy egoistic needs and they want to achieve something in their lives. In order to motivate the employees having these needs, management can take the help of following non-financial incentives:

1. **Praise:** Praise satisfies one's ego needs. Sometimes, praise is more effective than another incentive. We have seen that in industry, at home or elsewhere, people respond better to praise. However, this incentive should be used with greater degree of care because praising an incompetent employee would create resentment among competent employees. Of course, occasionally, a pat on the back of an incompetent employee may act as incentive to him for improvement.
2. **Competition:** Competition is a kind of non-financial incentive. If there is a healthy competition among the individual employees or groups of employees, it will lead them to achieve their personal or group goals in a better way.
3. **Opportunity for Growth:** Opportunity for growth is another kind of incentive. If the employees are provided opportunities for their advancement and growth and to develop their personality, they feel very much satisfied and become more committed to the organization and become more committed to the organizational goals.
4. **Feedback:** Knowledge of the results/performance leads to employee satisfaction. A worker likes to know the result of his performance. He gets satisfaction when his superior appreciates the work he has done.
5. **Worker's participation in Management:** Employees participation in management provides an important incentive to the employees. It gives them psychological satisfaction that their voice is being heard.
6. **Suggestion System:** Suggestion system is an incentive which satisfies many needs of the employees. Many organizations which use the suggestion system make use of cash awards for useful suggestions.

Characteristics of Cultures

Each organization has its own history, patterns of communication, systems and procedures, mission statements and visions, stories and myths which, in their totality, constitute its distinctive culture. Cultures are also relatively stable in nature. Most organizational cultures have historically been rather implicit rather than explicit. A defining characteristic of most culture is that they are seen as symbolic representations of underlying beliefs and values.

Measuring Organizational Culture

Systematic measurement and comparison of cultures is difficult. Most of the early attempts by researchers relied on examination of stories, symbols, rituals, and ceremonies to obtain clues. Others have used interviews and open ended questionnaires in an attempt to assess employee values and beliefs. In some cases, examination of corporate philosophy statements has provided insights into the espoused cultures (the beliefs and values that the organizations state publicly). Another approach is to survey employees directly and seek their perceptions of the organization's culture. Another interesting method is to become a member of the organization and engage in participant observation.

Characteristics of organizational cultures

- Distinctive
- Stable
- Implicit
- Symbolic
- Integrated
- Accepted
- A reflection of top management

Communicating Culture

If organizations are to consciously create and manage their cultures, they must be able to communicate them to employees, especially the newly hired ones. Individuals are generally more willing to adapt when they want to please others, gain approval, and learn about their new work environment. These cultural communication acts may be lumped under the umbrella of organizational socialization, which is the continuous process of transmitting key elements of an organization's culture to its employees. Individualization occurs when employees successfully exert influence on the social system around them at work by challenging the culture or deviating from it.

etc. It is reported in a study that the most important goals of an ethical Indian manager are customer satisfaction, achievement of organizational goals within scheduled time, employee motivation and career progress. According to Upadhyay, Indian managers are status and power oriented and considers decision making as their prerogative and consultation as a means of eroding their authority. They tend to take credit for work done by them rather than share it with individual members of the team. It may be noted that while values are stable and enduring, they are not rigid. Therefore, new generations of employees may bring into the organizations new set of values.

In some of the studies age has been found to be a major factor in differentiating employee values. Young employees give importance to more autonomy at work place, instant gratification, quick growth, individualism, and openness compared to older employees.

As a result, young employees bring a different set of values to the work place. Hence, management should understand those new values and accordingly deal with them for good performance. Managers have to study values because they are the foundations for understanding a person's attitudes, perceptions, motivation and behaviour in the organization.

Attitudes and their formation

Having understood the values, let us try to understand the attitudes and their formation. You should recognize that attitudes are evaluative statements- favorable or unfavorable- concerning objects, people, or events. They indicate how one feels about something. When you say "*I like my job,*" or "*I hate telling lies*" they represent your attitudes.

Attitudes are different from values. Values could be a little broader in concept while attitudes are more specific. Values indicate the rightness or desirability of something. For example, a statement like "*gender discrimination is bad*" reflects the values one stands for. On the other hand, a statement "*I prefer women to be given an equal place with men in recruitment*" represents the attitude of a person. Attitudes are learned predispositions towards various aspects of our environment.

While, attitudes and values are different, there are also some similarities. Both are powerful instruments influencing cognitive process

and behaviour of people. Both are learned and acquired from the same sources – people and objects. Both are relatively permanent and resistant to change. Both values and attitudes influence each other and are used interchangeably. Hence, values people hold can explain their attitudes and, in many cases, the behaviours they engage in. However, we cannot determine which values underlie which attitudes and behaviours.

Sources of Attitudes

As already explained, attitudes, like values, are acquired from the environment - parents, teachers, friends, and colleagues. It may be noted that they are only acquired but not inherited. We begin modeling our attitudes after those we admire and respect. We observe the way family members and friends behave and we shape our attitudes and behavior to align with theirs. You tend to imitate the attitudes of famous persons or those you admire and respect. Attitudes may also be developed from a personally rewarding or punishing experience with an object or event. If employees are rewarded for being regular in an organization, you are likely to believe that you will also be rewarded if you are regular.

In contrast to values, attitudes are less stable. That is why advertising messages attempt to change your attitudes toward a certain product or service. If Maruti Company is able to create a favorable opinion towards their car, that attitude may lead to a desirable behavior i.e., the purchase of Maruti car.

Therefore, sound understanding of attitudes is important for managers because they affect job behavior. Manager's knowledge can serve two purposes. Firstly, it helps him in understanding and predicting how a person is likely to behave. Secondly, it helps him in changing unfavorable attitudes into favorable attitudes.

Types of Attitudes

A person may have a multitude of attitudes, but for the purpose of our study let us know about the job-related attitudes. These job-related attitudes are positive or negative evaluations held by employees about various aspects of their work environment. Essentially, there are three important attitudes concerned with job: *job satisfaction*, *job involvement*,

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from others can directly help buffer the stress experience. People seek out and benefit from the emotional support of others when they face threatening situations.

Review Questions

1. What is job stress?
2. What are organisational stressors?
3. How do stress levels change from one individual to another?
4. What strategies do you adopt for managing job stress?

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Lesson - 19 : Communication

Objectives

After reading this lesson, you should be able to:

- Understand The Process Of Communication;
- Know The Types Of Communication;
- Familiarize With The Barriers To Communication And How To Overcome Them.

Lesson Outline

- Meaning & Definition
- Characteristics Of Communication
- Elements Of Communication
- Barriers Of Communication
- Review Questions

Communication is perhaps as old as the human civilization. Its origin can be traced to the growth of the human society. In the primitive stage of human society, man satisfied his wants which were limited to the basic needs of food, clothing and shelter by his own efforts. Life was isolated and there was little communication. But while man hunted for food, he too was hunted by wild animals. He lived in constant danger. The common need of protection led to group life. Communication was in the form of codes, indications, signals and expressions. As group life developed and wants continued to increase, forms of expressing ideas in languages developed. Science entered the field and means of oral communication developed. In the present day world of mass production, involving large number of personnel, communication is the vital need at every step in industrial and commercial activities.

Meaning

The term 'communication' is derived from the Latin word 'communis' which means common. The term communication is used to signify the act of transferring ideas or receiving it by any means-word of mouth, the telephone, telegram, letter, message etc. In an organisation managers have to communicate constantly. If we observe the activities of any manager, we will find that he is busy writing a letter or receiving one, meeting a worker or a group of workers or his superior attending a conference or addressing one, telephoning or discussing a project with an expert, negotiating terms and so on. Managerial functions are discharged through communication. Direction, guidance, delegation of authority, assignment of duties etc., are done through communication. Thus communication is not a one way process.

Definition of Communication

The term "*communication*" is freely used by everyone. It is one of the most frequently discussed subjects in the field of organisational behaviour. According to Louis Allen, *Communication* is the sum of all things, a person does when he wants to create an understanding in the mind of another. It involves a systematic and continuous process of telling, listening and understanding.

According to Keith Davis, "It is the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another. It is essentially a bridge of meaning between people. By using this bridge of meaning, a person can safely cross the river of misunderstanding that separates all people".

Thus, in reality communication is the sum total of direct or indirect, consciously or unconsciously transmitted words, attitudes, feelings, actions, gestures and tones. Even silence is an effective form of communication. A twist in the face is often more expressive than a 100 words put together. Tone very often than not, conveys the meaning of the words uttered.

Written communications have the following advantages.

- They serve as permanent record and as a source or reference.
- More care is taken in drafting written communication (than is in the case of oral communications) and this saves the subsequent loss of time and money.
- When the communicator and recipient are far off, written communication is the best method.
- The recipient can ponder over the communication and request for changes, if necessary.

The disadvantages are listed below:

- As everything is to be translated into black and white, it consumes a lot of time and money.
- People do not care at all to pass the appropriate message. Consequently, poor messages are to be followed by clarifications and explanations.
- Sometimes it may not be possible to reduce everything into writing. Any omission will call for additional communication.
- Written communication is subject to delay and red tapism.
- It is very difficult to keep some communications up to date.

Formal and Informal Communication

The formal organisation chart describes the formal lines of authority, power, responsibility and accountability of the organizational members. All these relationships involve communication. For instance, the delegation of authority involves the flow information from a superior to his subordinate. Formal communications are in black and white.

On the other hand, informal communication is free from all the formalities of formal communication. Informal communication is based on the informal relationship among the organisation members. It is conveyed by a simple gesture, glance, nod, smile or mere silence. For instance, when the worker approaches the manager and informs about the completion of the job entrusted to him, and if the manager simply nods his head or gives an approving smile, then it amounts to informal communication.

Inattention

Inattention is a very common and chronic human failing. This barrier generally arises in case of oral communication. It can be illustrated with the help of the following example: a superior is giving a message on the telephone. The subordinate is busy reading a magazine or looking through the window or his mind is occupied with some family problem. Superiors have to face this problem of inattention quite frequently. Efforts to communicate fails. The communicator should choose the appropriate time for communicating. Thus, for example, communicating at lunch hour or while at rest will not invite due attention. Holding a meeting at an odd time or calling the worker over for a talk on a holiday are some other examples.

Loss in Transmission

Loss in transmission is another barrier of communication which arises in oral communication. When messages are conveyed from the higher to the lower level step by step, much of it is likely to be lost in transit. This problem may arise in case of written communication as well. At every level the superior will interpret the message, which is likely to be distorted. Further, the meaning will change if some words are dropped, changed or misinterpreted. Harold Koonz and Cyril O'Donnell estimate that about 30% of the information is lost in each transmission. Written communications too are subject to loss in transmission. It is no wonder that enterprises often operate in a cloud of ignorance.

Vague and Unclear Assumptions

The object of a communication is to distinctly tell the communicatee what is desired of him. If the message is not clear in meaning, assumptions are not clear to the personnel; communication will lose its purpose. If the personnel are not able to know what they are supposed to do even after receiving the message, the communication will be no more than a waste paper.

Inadequate Adjustment Period

Certain messages affect a large number of people in their personal life. For example, a notice is issued informing change in the timings of the shift in a factory. This requires sufficient lead time for the workers to make an adjustment. In case sufficient time is not granted there will be a communication barrier.

difficulties.

- e. Hasty generalizations are dangerous; e.g., union stewards cannot be trusted, all workers are dishonest.
- f. Knowledge of one's own prejudices will help proper listening.

Transmission

The communicator must plan carefully what to communicate, whom to communicate and how to communicate. Further, delegation of authority without responsibility breaks down the spirit of communication.

Keep the channel Always Alive

The channel of communication should be kept open and alive. It is only by honest attempts that good communication relations can be developed.

Cordial Superior-Subordinate Relationship

Effective communication requires good quality of relationship between people immediately connected with each other. It requires sound industrial relations, policies and practices, an all round atmosphere of friendly co-operation and a feeling of trust and confidence throughout the organization right from the top management down to the humblest worker. Under such conditions only, the meaning of communication is grasped quickly and correctly. On the other hand, if the relations are not satisfactory, much of the information may be suppressed or misunderstood.

Review Questions

1. Examine the process of communication and explain the various elements of it.
2. What are the different types of communication? Explain the merits and demerits of each?
3. Distinguish between formal and informal communication.
4. What are the different barriers of communication?
5. What is your prescription to overcome the barriers of communication?

Case Study

The ABC Manufacturing Company is a metal working plant under the direction of a plant manager who is known as a strict disciplinarian. One day a foreman noticed Bhola, one of the workers, at the time-clock punching out two cards – his own and the card of Nathu, a fellow worker. Since it was the rule of the company that each man must punch out his own card, the foreman asked Bhola to accompany him to the Personnel /Director, who interpreted the incident as a direct violation of a rule and gave immediate notice of discharge to both workers.

UNIT - IV

Lesson - 20 : Group Dynamics

Objectives

After reading this lesson, you should be able to:

- Understand How Groups Are Formed In The Organizations;
- The Influence Of Groups In The Work Place; And
- Manage The Groups Effectively To Achieve The Organization Goals.

Lesson Outline

- Types Of Groups
- Theories Of Group Formations
- Reasons For Formation Of Groups
- Review Questions

The behavior of people as an individual and as a member of a group widely differs. It may be noted that modern organizations are made up of people and obviously any organization is as good as its people. It is also true that individuals in an organization do not work in isolation. Much of the work in organization is done by groups of people. Therefore, it is important for a manager to understand how groups are formed in the organization and the performance and expectations of the members of various groups.

Research has well established that people in organizations form into groups in order to fulfill their social needs. Hawthorne experiments conducted by Elton Mayo and his team established that people at the work place behave as members of a group and the membership shapes their work behavior and attitudes towards organizations. *The social process by which people interact with one another in groups is called group dynamics.* Group dynamic focuses on team work where small groups contact with each other and share common ideas to accomplish the goals. Thus, a group consists of two or more persons to interact with each other consciously for the achievement of certain common objectives. The members influence the group and in turn are influenced by others in the group. To quote David Smith “a group is a set of two or more individuals who are jointly characterized by a network of communication, a shared sense of collective identity and one or more shared dispositions with associated strength”.

the employees.

Satisfied workforce: Cohesive informal groups provide satisfaction to the workers. As a result, labour turnover and absenteeism are reduced and organization's productivity is increased.

Developing future executives: Informal groups recognize talented workers as their leaders. Such leaders can be picked up by the management to fill vacancies at the junior executive level in the future.

Problems Created by Informal Groups

Negative attitude of informal leaders: The informal leaders may turn out to be a troublemaker for the organization. In order to increase his influence, he may work against the policies of management and manipulate the behavior of his followers. Thus, he can be a source of conflict between the management and the workers. He may induce the followers to work against the interests of the organization. If such a leader is promoted to the rank of an executive, he may turn out to be a work shirker and an arrogant and autocratic boss.

Conformity: The informal group exerts strong pressure on its members for conformity. The members may become so loyal to their group that following the group norms becomes a part of their life. This implies that members become subject to willful control of the group leader who may lead the group towards selfish ends.

Resistance to change: Informal group generally have a tendency to resist change. Change requires group members to make new adjustments and acquire new skills. But groups want to maintain status quo. Sometimes, groups react violently to the proposed changes being brought by the management

Rumor: Informal communication may give rise to rumors. This is not desirable from organization's point of view. Rumors originate for a number of reasons. Maliciousness, employee's anxiety and insecurity are the prominent reasons.

Role Conflict: Every member of the informal group is also a member of the formal organization. Sometimes, there may be role conflict. In such a situation, group members may conform to their social norms. And if an individual member wants to follow the formal instructions of his boss, he may be snubbed by the informal leader and compelled to conform informal group norms.

System 2 - Management

Managers under this system are also autocratic, but they are not fully authoritative. At times, they give some flexibility to the subordinates to carry out their tasks within the prescribed limits. Subordinates who meet or exceed their goals may be rewarded. Managers adopt patronizing or paternalistic attitude towards the obedient and faithful subordinates. They are very harsh with the subordinates who do not carry out the tasks.

System 3 - Management

Under this system, managers set goals and issue general orders after discussing them with the subordinates. They take only major decisions and leave the routine decisions to be taken by the subordinates. Subordinates are free to discuss the work-related matters with their superiors. Thus, there exists a two-way communication in the organization. The control system tends to be flexible and goal oriented. More emphasis is placed on rewards than on punishments to motivate the subordinates.

System 4 - Management

This is an ideal system towards which organizations should work. The relations between managers and subordinates are cordial and friendly. The communication system is completely open. The goals are set and work related decisions are taken by the subordinates. Group approach is adopted in supervision and control. This system presents true democratic styles of leadership. The managers are very supportive in their attitude towards the subordinates. Performance standards are mutually set by the superior and subordinates. They permit self-appraisal by the subordinates.

Likert sought to measure and evaluate the actual patterns of management in a wide range of organizations within the frame work of his four systems. He found that most individual managers and organizations fit into one or the other in terms of certain operating characteristics related to such variables as goal setting, decision making, communication, and control. Likert also sought to relate his systems of management with certain performance characteristics like productivity, quality, wastage, and employee turnover and absenteeism. He found that organizations with System 1 orientation scored very poorly while those oriented with System 4 scored creditably on these performance characteristics. He strongly recommended System 4 and regarded it as the best way to develop and utilize human assets of the organization. Likert also found many managers and organizations operating in System 2 and 3. For such organizations, he suggested extensive and intensive leadership training at all levels of management so as to move into System 4 – management.

Thus, managerial Grid tends to be an attitudinal model that measures the predispositions of a behavioural model that examines how leader actions are perceived by others.

Choice of Leadership Style

We have observed that different management experts have suggested different styles and there is no unanimity among them as to which is the most suitable for an enterprise. For example Rensis Likert suggested democratic leadership. As different leadership styles have their merits and demerits, it is difficult to prefer one leadership style to another. The selection of a leadership style will depend on the consideration of a number of factors. According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt, the important factors that affect the choice of a style of leadership are as follows:

Forces in the Manager : These include manager's personality, experience, and value system, his confidence in subordinates, leadership inclination, feeling of security in an uncertain situation, etc.

Forces in the Subordinates : These include readiness of subordinates to assume responsibility for making decisions, need of subordinates for independence, interest in the problem at hand, knowledge to deal with the problem, etc.

Situational Theory of Leadership

This theory advocates that leadership is strongly affected by the situation from which a leader emerges and in which he works. It is based on the assumptions that there exists an interaction between a group and its leader and that people tend to follow the person (known as leader) who is capable of fulfilling their aspirations. Thus, leader is a means of achieving the goals of the group and the members. The leader recognizes the needs of the situation and then acts accordingly.

The focus in the situational approach to leadership is on observed behavior and not on any hypothetical inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. In other words, the emphasis is on the behavior of the leaders and their followers and the type of situation. In other words, a person becomes a leader not only because of his personal attributes, but also because of various situational factors and the interactions between the leader and the group members.

Review Questions

1. What is leadership? Discuss the trait and situation theory of leadership.
2. "Leadership is situational." Comment on the statement.
3. "Leaders are born and not made". Discuss

ability to influence behaviour, to change the course of events, to overcome resistance, and to get people to do things that they would not otherwise do ”.

Characteristics of Power

Definitions of power are related to the concepts of authority and influence. Chester Barnard defined power as “informal authority”. Many modern organisational sociologists define authority as “legitimate power”. To have better understanding of power, we bring out clearly the distinctions between power and authority and power and influence.

Power – Authority Distinctions

From the preceding discussion, it is clear that a person who possesses power has the ability to manipulate or influence others. Authority legitimizes and is a source of power in the organisation. In contrast, power need not be legitimate. Distinction can be made between top-down classical, bureaucratic authority and Barnard’s acceptance theory of authority. To him, authority is “the character of a communication (order) in a formal organisation by virtue of which it is accepted by a member of the organisation as governing the action he contributes”. Power is different from such acceptance theory of the authority in the words of Grimes who notes: “what legitimizes authority is the promotion of pursuit of collective goals that are associated with group consensus”.

Power – Influence Distinction

Influence is broader than power in its scope. It is a process of affecting the potential behaviour of others. Power is the capacity of influence. Thus, authority is different from power because of former’s legitimacy and acceptance, and influence, though broader than power, is closer to it conceptually. Hence, both are interchangeably used.

Sources of Organisational Power

French and Raven’s Classification of sources of power includes reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power. But sources of power are different from power bases. This distinction is not maintained by French and Raven. How power holders control power bases speaks about sources of power. In other words, sources of power tell us wherefrom the power holders get their power bases. There are four sources of power, namely, *position power* (legitimate power), *referent power* (personal powers), *expert power* and *opportunity power*.

(iv) *Technology and External Environment*

Complex technology and turbulent external environment lead to high political behaviour.

(v) *Change*

Planned organisation change or unplanned change brought about by external environment forces will encourage political behaviour.

Specific Political Strategies for Power Acquisition

Organisational members adopt different strategies to acquire power. Durkin suggested strategies listed below help to gain deeper insights into power and politics in the organisations.

a. **Maintain alliance with powerful people**

Alliances with members of other important departments or of top management or with boss's secretary or staff assistant are critical to acquisition of power.

b. **Embrace or Demolish**

The guiding Machiavellian principle is that senior managers in the taken over firms should be welcomed and encouraged or sacked. To make them powerless it is better to sack them than to downgrade them. If downgraded, they combine and fight back.

c. **Divide and Rule**

This is a popular strategy based on the assumption though unwarranted, that persons divided will not themselves form coalition.

d. **Manipulate classified information**

Organisational members adept in politics control information to gain power.

e. **Make a quick showing**

Looking good on some project or task right at the beginning is to get the right people's attention. Once this positive attention is gained, power is acquired to do more difficult and long-range projects.

f. **Collect and Use IOUs**

Do favours to others with clear understanding that they should pay in return when asked.

g. **Avoid decisive engagement**

Also called Fabianism: Be slow, but sure to become entrenched and gain cooperation and trust of others.

h. **Progress one step at a time**

One small change can be a foothold for power seeker to use it as a basis to get other major things accomplished.

i. **Wait for a crisis**

It is based on the assumption things must get worse before they turn better. Crisis conditions bring more resources that facilitate tiding over crisis.

j. **Take Counsel with Caution**

This relates to how to retain power rather than how to acquire it. For example, prescriptions like participative management and empowerment are to be taken with caution as they erode the power base of managers.

Lesson - 23 : Organisational Structure, Climate And Culture

Objectives

After reading this lesson, you should be able to:

- Understand The Concept Of Organizational Structure;
- Identify The Factors Determining Organizational Structure;
- Recall The Major Dimensions Of Organizational Climate; And
- Explain The Characteristics Of Organizational Culture.

Lesson Outline

- Factors Determining Organizational Structure
- Bases Or Forms Of Departmentalization
- Horizontal & Vertical Dimension Of Organizational Structure
- Traditional, Modern, Commercial & Non Commercial Organizational Structure
- Major Dimensions Of Organizational Climate
- Meaning & Characteristics Of Organizational Culture
- Review Questions

Organizational structure provides the framework for managers and others for performing the various functions expected of them and for facilitating the work flow in the organisation. A sound structure facilitates performance. The managerial process of organising results in the creation of a formal organisational structure which is defined as a system of patterned and interrelated task units with well defined authority-responsibility relationships. It is called formal structure since it is deliberately and purposefully planned and designed by management. The formal organisational structure has two 'dimensions'. They are: *horizontal dimension* and *vertical dimension*.

The horizontal and vertical dimensions of the organisational structure, viz., the activity structure and authority structures are tied together. The managerial positions are not created in a vacuum; they are created around the sub-divided task units. Organisational goals, technology, external environment and the people in the organization greatly influence the design of the structure.

matrix structure, task force structure and free form structure. These modern structures are regarded as more organic, adaptive, and flexible and are suitable for complex organisations which employ highly sophisticated technology and which encounter a very diverse and volatile environment.

Organisational Climate

The term, 'Organisational climate' is defined as a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation as perceived and experienced by its members, which can be described in terms of specific dimensions or characteristics and which influences the patterns of behaviour and work performance of members. It is the totality of interacting and inter-related internal dimensions or characteristics which significantly influence the motivation of members. Organisation climate evolves over a fairly long period of time and is relatively stable. Since the dimensions of climate are internal, they can be measured, controlled and changed by the organisation, if it so decides. Organisational climate is the major frame of reference for the member's interpretation of organisational decisions and actions as also their own attitudes, behaviour and performance.

The major dimensions or characteristics of organisational climate are listed below:

- Organisational values, goals and priorities which are pursued in practice as against those which are professed.
- Managerial value systems and life styles.
- Competence, character, commitment and dynamism of management.
- The complexity of organisational policies and practices and the consistency with which they are followed.
- The power structure - the extent of concentration or dispersal of authority, the extent to which and the manner in which formal authority is exercised, the extent of status disparities, social distance between managers at various levels and between managers and non-managers and so on.
- General organisational structure-hierarchy, rigidity vs. flexibility, clarity of the structure, communication and control systems, superior-subordinate relations, informal social relationships, etc.
- Nature of jobs – degree of skill required, relation between effort and productivity, variety in the tasks, perceived importance of the job, rewards associated with the job, relation with other jobs, security and so on.
- Degree of freedom and control – requirements of conformity and compliance to organisational norms and the extent to which behaviour of employees is structured.
- Supervisory style – attitudes and behaviour of supervisors and managers towards their subordinates and towards performance requirements.
- Reward structure – reward levels and interrelations, equity in reward

5. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of encounter groups?
6. What are the objectives of OD?
7. What are the benefits and limitations of OD?

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Case Study

Implementing New Ideas

Industrial Hydraulics Ltd., is a public sector firm. The Assembly and test shops of the company are headed by Mr. Murthy, shop superintendent, who has one assistant superintendent Mr. Singh under him for both the shops. The two shift supervisors in test shop. Mr. Verghese and Mr. Mehta report directly to Singh. Murthy reports to factory manager and is an engineering graduate with about 15 years of service in the company. Singh, the Assistant Superintendent (27) has above five years of service in the company which he joined as a management trainee (tech.). He is popular amongst the workers and has a reputation for impartially and fair dealing on the shop floor. Mehta, the test shop supervisor (40) is an old timer in the company and is known to most of the old employees including senior officers. He has risen from the ranks and possesses ITI certificate. He is very well known to Murthy, under whom he served for a long time as a technician and later as asst. Supervisor. Verghese, the other supervisor in test shop is a young person, around 25, with a diploma in mechanical engineering and about 3 years of service in the company. He is shy, reserved and generally unknown outside his department.

The test shop is the bottleneck area of the department where a large accumulation of units, awaiting testing generally exists. The product mix consists of about 30% of components with a short test cycle time, 45% of components with medium cycle time and 25% of components with a long cycle time. The components with high and medium cycle time have generally complex test schedules and considerable effort is required to rig up test circuits.

The production targets are given on a monthly basis and weekly output is monitored by the factory manager. No realistic assessment of assembly and test timings exist. For the past 3 months, the test shop output has been very erratic while there is surplus production of short and medium cycle components which are not immediately required in the quantities produced; there is a large back log of urgently wanted long cycle time components.

One fine morning, Murthy was summoned by the factory manager and given 10 days time to rectify the situation. He was given to understand in unequivocal terms the failure to correct the situation shall be entertained by the management. Murthy in turn, immediately asked for Singh and gave him one week to clear the back log in test shop. Singh had studied the situation for quite some time in the test shop and had tried to analyse the reasons for the erratic output. He was of the opinion that Mehta the "B" shifts supervisor was mainly responsible for the situation. He had a tendency to pick up only short cycle time components for test and never made any attempt to take long cycle time components. He was, in the opinion of Singh, deliberately avoiding difficult and urgently required components to show higher output from his shift.

the jokes offensive. If the two do not communicate, the jokes will continue and the resentment will grow. Eventually, what started as a minor problem may erupt into a much bigger one!

For communication to work, it must be two way. If someone is offended by the behaviour of another person, he or she should explain to the offending individual how the behaviour is perceived and request that it be stopped. As long as such exchanges are friendly, low key, and nonthreatening, they will generally have a positive outcome. Of course, if the same message is presented in an overly combative manner or if a person continues to engage in offensive behaviour after having been asked to stop, problems will only escalate. At this point, third parties within the organization may have to intervene. And in fact, most organizations today have one or more systems in place to address questions and problems that arise as a result of diversity. We now turn our attention to various ways that organizations can indeed better manage diversity.

Organizational Approaches to Managing Diversity

Whereas individuals are important in managing diversity, the organization itself must play a fundamental role. Through its various policies and practices, People in the organization come to understand what behaviours are and are not appropriate. Diversity training is an even more direct method for managing diversity. Therefore, the organization's culture is the ultimate context from which diversity must be addressed.

Organizational Policies

The starting point in managing diversity is the policies that an organization adopts that directly or indirectly affects how people are treated. Obviously, for instance, the extent to which an organization embraces the premise of equity and justice in employment opportunities will to a large extent determine the potential diversity within an organization. But the organization that follows the law to the letter and practices only passive discrimination differs from the organization that actively seeks a diverse and varied workforce.

Another aspect of organizational policies that affects diversity is how the organization addresses and responds to problems that arise from diversity. For example, consider the example of a manager charged with sexual harassment. If the organization's policies put an excessive burden of proof on the individual being harassed and invoke only minor sanctions against the guilty party, it is sending a clear signal as to the importance of such matters. But the organization that has a balanced set of policies for addressing questions like sexual harassment sends its employees a message that diversity and individual rights and privileges are important.

The Inherent Weaknesses of Japanese Management

- The system of the life time commitment and groupism encouraged employee dependence and suppressed individual creativity.
- The employment system discriminated against non-life time employees and prevented the formation of a free horizontal labour market.
- The seniority based system of rewards created a promotion grid lock for middle management and especially for the younger outstanding employee.
- By the mid -1980s the entire system of Japanese management faced three major challenges:
 - After the dramatic rise in the value of Yen, the problem of cost containment became much more difficult. How to reduce labour cost and restructure without resorting to massive layoffs had become a problem.
 - How to continue to motivate employees in a new environment in which the system of evaluation and rewards, as well as employee attitudes and expectations are fast changing;
 - How to redesign employment relationships in a way that would blend the advantages of the order system of dependence in the company with the necessity to promote employees self-reliance, initiative and creativity.

The Emergence of a New Paradigm

- Companies rely on hiring freezes and elimination of overtime.
- Extensive use of job rotation and employee reassignments.
- Wage, salary and bonus reductions are shared by all groups in the enterprise: directors, managers as well as workers.
- Persistence of seniority and promotions based on seniority.
- Companies are using various forms of early retirement incentives.
- Relative contributions of merit factors to pay raises
- As a result, performance appraisal systems and wage structures are undergoing changes.
- Company and work group loyalties are replaced by individualism.
- Life time employment is undergoing change.
- Hiring on the basis of skills for specific, narrowly defined job openings is growing.
- Mobility among Japanese managers and professionals is also increasing.
- Japanese employees' preference for security over risk and opportunity is also changing.
- Creation of multi-track employment system. Employees hired for life can enter the general track and can be moved horizontally (job rotation) as well as vertically (grade promotion).

The changes going on are not designed to destroy the old system, but to increase its flexibility. This is very much in keeping with the traditional Japanese approach to change, however fast and deep it is. Continuity with the uniquely Japanese "essence" must be maintained. The new Japanese emerging

paradigm will certainly be different. Yet like the modern Japanese home which usually retains a Japanese style room among western style rooms and furniture, the Japanese company will retain a core of Japanese practices.

Review Questions

1. Discuss the salient features of the Japanese management practices.
2. Distinguish between Japanese and American management systems. Also comment on how Indian management compares with Japanese.
3. Critically examine the feasibility of Japanese management approaches for the management of Indian industry.

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- Controls are loose rather than tight; for, too many controls stifle entrepreneurial spirit of the people.

Strategy

In a dynamic environment, companies that lack foresight are easily prone to become former leaders for the simple reason that they fail to adopt to retain their leadership. Business history is fully replete with such leader-to-loser stories. It has also been amply proved in several studies that the leading cause for the company's failure is the top management's obsession with current operations giving credence to the philosophy that '*existing products drive out new products rather than the other way round*'. The direction of the strategy in which the organizational resources are deployed should centre on innovation. The choice of the right strategy dictates the fortunes of the company.

Organizational Culture

Culture, in the organizational context, refers to a set of values, dominant beliefs and the guiding norms shared by the members of the organisation. A good value system with internal harmony widely diffused and shared throughout the organisation would help induce entrepreneurial spirit. On the other hand, a confused value system with internal disharmony, poor work ethics and weak morale mars the spirit. The following measures help to foster conducive culture within the organisation to breed and nurture entrepreneurialism.

- Strong commitment and support of the top management for innovation;
- Adequate freedom for the organizational members by pushing down autonomy for down the line;
- Tolerance for failure to boost up the morale, for new product ideas, as Peter Drucker points out, is like "frog's eggs". Of the thousands hatched, only a few survive. No individual in the organisation volunteers to experiment with new ideas, if failure involves career risks;
- Adequate reward systems to motivate innovative people through various reinforcing devices. In the west, lavish banquets are frequently organized to honour the champions, in addition to promotions, incentives by way of stock options, bonus, etc,

To sum up, entrepreneurship within the existing business involves identifying new opportunities and steering the organisation towards the development of new products and services. The entrepreneurial activities in the existing business as such collectively called 'corporate entrepreneurship' or 'intrapreneurship'. Barriers to entrepreneurship include the lack of ideas, market knowledge, general business know-how, lack of appropriate strategy, etc.

- Empowering employees to achieve improvements that they identify and for which they solve problems and develop action plans.

Approaches of Benchmarking

To compare one's business practices with those of other organizations, four common approaches to benchmarking are adopted. They are:

- Internal benchmarking ,
- Competitive benchmarking,
- Non-competitive benchmarking, and
- World-class benchmarking.

Internal benchmarking is done within one's organization or perhaps in conjunction with another division or branch office. Internal benchmarking is the easiest to conduct since data and information should be readily available and confidentiality concerns are minimized.

Competitive benchmarking involves analyzing the performance and practices of best-in-class companies. Their performance becomes a benchmark to which a firm can compare its own performance and their practices are used to improve that firm's practices. However benchmarking the competition could be difficult since it might be impossible to collect or learn a competitor's secrets. This type of information can often be obtained through a confidential survey of all competitors, usually conducted by a third party, quite often by a consulting firm.

Non-competitive benchmarking is learning something about a process a company wants to improve by benchmarking:

- a related process in the industry with another firm, the company does not directly compete with,
- a related process in a different industry, and
- an unrelated process in a different industry.

An advantage of this type of benchmarking is that new processes which could easily be adapted to one's organization might be discovered.

World-class benchmarking: This approach to benchmarking is the most ambitious. It involves looking towards the recognized leader for the process being benchmarked – an organization that does it better than any other.

Types of Benchmarking

Three major types of benchmarking that have emerged in business are:

- i. Performance benchmarking or operational benchmarking,
- ii. Process benchmarking or functional benchmarking, and
- iii. Strategic benchmarking.

managed. It is a structured approach and requires planning and monitoring just like any other management tool. On the whole, benchmarking can be used as an effective weapon against organizational complacency. Used correctly, benchmarking can lead you to the competitive edge in today's market place.

Review Questions

1. What is meant by benchmarking? Describe the process of benchmarking.
2. Trace the evolution of benchmarking. Give some examples of U.S. firms who could achieve dramatic results by implementing benchmarking process.
3. Explain the pitfalls of benchmarking. How would you overcome those pitfalls?
4. Examine the important approaches of benchmarking. Given the Indian context, which of the approaches would you think give better results?

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Case Study

If Something Can Do Wrong – It Will

Mr. Ravi, a brilliant young man obtained his MBA degree from an Indian University in 1991 with specialisation in the area of finance. His basic degree is B.E in Chemical Engineering. The engineering background coupled with the management education aroused in him new spirits to strike on his own and thus developed a penchant to start an enterprise. Careful and systematic analysis of the various opportunities enabled him finally to zero in on the production and marketing of polythene bags that are increasingly used fertiliser and Cement industries. The location of a fairly good number of units of these two industries in the South (for instance, of the about 95 cement units nearly 40 are concentrated in the four Southern States) influenced his decision of the product choice. The fact that technology involved is also not complicated and volatile further reinforced his belief about the market potential.

To reap certain locational advantages, he preferred to set up the unit in a fast growing district headquarters town connected with a good network of transport and communication facilities. But the cost of land as well as its availability became a problem. With the limited funds at his disposal, he could not afford to buy land and construct the unit which involves the commitment of substantial portion of his meagre funds. On enquiry he came to know of certain sick units in the industrial estate in the outskirts of the town, which have ceased to function for some time in the past. The machinery in a few such units having been already auctioned, the sheds were available for sale lease. This opportunity came handy for Mr.Ravi. He took on lease one such shed and spent about one lakh to effect a few changes to suit his requirements.

He started contacting the suppliers for the plant and machinery. He is confident of obtaining financial assistance to meet the fixed as well as working capital requirements of the business. But at the same time, he is also confused of the multiplicity of organisations/ agencies that have come up to cater to the needs of small scale entrepreneurs. He doesn't have adequate knowledge of the assistance available and the incentives offered by all these agencies to promote entrepreneurship.

Further, even though he doesn't for see any problems in the technical aspects relating to production, he is rather apprehensive of marketing the product. The demand for his product, being a derived one, is influenced by two factors – one, the demand for fertilisers, cement and other bulk commodities and two, the extent of the success made in replacing the gunny bags which are still in wider use. To add to his bother, Government of India, of late, is understood to have been contemplating to insist the use of gunny bags to protect the jute industry which has been languishing and is likely to vanish. However, all these problems could not deter the spirit of Mr.Ravi who is fully

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