

## CHAPTER-II

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following were the main objectives of this study :

1. The main purpose of the study was to see if leadership styles had any affect on communication systems of the organisation.
2. Whether leadership styles and communication processes together would affect organisational effectiveness.
3. To compare two organisations (of the same nature of work) on the basis of effectiveness criteria.
4. To study the complete communication profiles in the organisation through two questionnaires (OCQ and CPQ).
5. To study six major behavioural characteristics (i.e.: Responsobility, Flexibility, Strength, Image, Endurance and Relaxation) of the leaders in the organisations through BFI.
6. To study complete picture of organisational effectiveness criteria through some major dimensions, i.e.: Consensus, Need for Independence, Organisational Commitment, Organisational Attachment, Innovation, Job-satisfaction, etc.

7. To study the major communication processes (i.e; Trust, Desire for Interaction, Upward, Downward and Lateral Communication) of the organisations.

#### HYPOTHESES :

On the basis of Literature, research work and logical deductions, the following hypotheses were formulated :

1. Leadership styles and communication processes should interact with each other.
2. Leadership styles and communication' profile variables will be correlated with each other significantly.
3. Another Hypotheses envisaged on the assumption of Psycho Cultural situational theory. That is Eclectic or Mixed style of leadership renders more job satisfaction and would generate greater organisational effectiveness.
4. Different leadership styles would influence different variables of organisational effectiveness.
5. Six major Behavioural fitness dimensions, namely, Responsibility, Strength, Flexibility, Image, Endurance and Relaxation would be correlated with leadership styles.
6. Leader behaviour will determine effective downward communication process than upward and Lateral in the organisations.

As recent leadership researchers regard leadership as a performance - contingent process (Skinner, 1953).

That is, the effective leader reinforces subordinate behaviour that leads to achieving organisational goals and punishes the subordinates for behaviour that does not achieve such goal. Hammer, (1974), Mawhinney and Ford (1977), Scott (1977) and Sims (1977, 1978) have provided theoretical treatments for the above view.

7. Behavioural Fitness Characteristics (i.e; Responsibility, Strength, Image, Flexibility Endurance and Relaxation) will determine effectiveness of communication processes in organisations.
8. Both Eclectic and Authoritative nurturant task type of leadership, would come out as the most effective styles.
9. Organisational Effectiveness variables like Consensus, Organisational commitment, organisational attachment, and Job satisfaction, etc. will have positive relationship with various communication processes.
10. As proved by empirical studies (Gaines, 1980; Maier et al, 1963; O'Reilly and Roberts, 1974; O'Reilly, 1978; Roberts Reilly, 1974), Trust

in one's superior will strongly relate to the frequency accuracy and effectiveness of communication process.

11. Superior's influence on subordinates will have significant influence on the upward flow of communication. As Kelly (1951) and Cohen (1958) pointed out, Influence of superiors on subordinates may have significant relation over the subordinates promotion, careers etc.
12. Leadership styles would be correlated with job satisfaction levels of the subjects.
13. The levels of organisational effectiveness dimensions i.e; Job involvement, Organisational commitment, Organisational attachment legitimatization, Job satisfaction would be determined by the leaders'.
14. As Gamson (1968) pointed out the power to organisational goals should not be restricted to downward influence in organisations. It is a reciprocal process. Both superiors and subordinates influence each other for the effective functioning of the organisation. So, it is hypothesised that, both upward and downward communication processes will significantly affect the organisational effectiveness.
15. A climate of trust makes people happy, contented and satisfied on their jobs.

It is hypothesised that all dimensions of job satisfaction as well as satisfaction in general will be significantly and positively correlated with trust and influence dimensions of communication processes.

16. Factors related communication profile scales like Listening, Beneficial aspect, Written publication and mainly the Amount of information one wants to receive will have significant correlation with the communication processes dimensions.
17. Some characteristics of communication profiles like Trust, Beneficial aspects, Listening, Amount of information received, amount of information want to receive will play an important role to determine organisational effectiveness criteria, like Consensus, Legitimatization, Organisational commitment, Organisational attachment and job satisfaction.

## METHOD

### VARIABLES UNDER STUDY :

LEADERSHIP STYLE : Six leadership styles are accepted as the independent variables. Six styles are emerged from the Factor analysis conducted on the Managerial Behavioural Questionnaire (MBQ).

1. ECLECTIC STYLE : The Eclectic leader keeps the final authority with himself and also gives liberal and warm behaviour toward subordinates to bring up their ability to work. He combines in himself several qualities and styles.
2. INTERACTION ORIENTED STYLE : This leader is the friendly type, caring and receptive type who believes that organisational prosperity depends upon good friendly support and persuasion toward subordinates.
3. AUTHORITATIVE... NURTURANT STYLE : As the name denotes, the leader gives importance to power, prestige, appreciates loyalty and gratefulness on the part of subordinates.
4. BUREAUCRATIC STYLE : The bureaucratic leader enhances impersonal but fair relationship toward subordinates.
5. BUREAUCRATIC - TASK ORIENTED STYLE : The bureaucratic - task - oriented leader takes special care toward work by following standard rules and regulations of the organisation in all official matters.
6. TASK - ORIENTED STYLE : The task oriented leader always keeps track towards work progress and appreciates hard working subordinates. He emphasises completion of task over everything else.

COMMUNICATION PROCESSES : The communication processes are considered as dependent variable. They are -

1. TRUST : This dimension deals with the frankness on the part of the leader to discuss job problems with his immediate superior.
2. INFLUENCE : In general, the feelings of the leader are counted toward immediate superior to further his career in the Organisation.
3. MOBILITY : This dimension includes the transfer of the leader between the departments in the same Organisation.
4. DESIRE FOR INTERACTION : How desirable it is for the leader to have contact frequently with others at the same level in the Organisation ?
5. INTERACTION UPWARD : The percentage of the time the leader spends in contact with the immediate superior while on the job.
6. INTERACTION DOWNWARD : The percentage of the time the leader passes in contact with the subordinates while working.
7. INTERACTION WITH PEERS : The percentage of the time the leader spends in interacting with other colleagues in the organisation.

8. ACCURACY : This dimension includes the estimated accuracy of information received by the leader from various sources (i.e., Superior, Subordinates and Peers).
9. SUMMARIZATION : The leader is required to summarise the important aspects before transmitting information to the immediate superior.
10. GATE-KEEPING : It includes the total amount of information the leader receives at work and how much he passes on to his immediate superior.

#### COMMUNICATION PROFILE VARIABLES :

1. TRUST : The dimension deals with the confidence and trust of the leaders in their subordinates and the vice versa.
2. SATISFACTION WITH THE CHANCES OF PROMOTION : The criterias of promotion for the leader are discussed under the dimension.
3. BENEFICIAL ASPECT : The desirable informations needed for the enhancement of individual performance in the organisation included under the dimension.
4. LISTENING : Denotes, the openness of mind toward listening subordinates' problems in the company.



5. WRITTEN PUBLICATION : Particulars about company publications are mentioned under three statements.
6. AMOUNT OF INFORMATION RECEIVED : The amount of informations, the leader received from eight possible sources are discussed here.
7. AMOUNT OF INFORMATION WANT TO RECEIVE : The total amount of informations, the leader want to receive from eight specified sources are measured in this dimension.

The above mentioned two variables (Leadership styles and Communication Processes) here again been treated as independent variables for Organisational effectiveness. All total of nine dimensions are taken into consideration to measure Organisational variables.

1. CONSENSUS : It denotes the uniformity in perception and attitude of the persons in the organisations.
2. LEGITIMATIZATION : This dimension implied legitimate authority of the leaders. It refers to the acceptance by followers of the right of leaders to exercise control.

3. NEED FOR INDEPENDENCE : It represents the quality of a person which makes him like to think independently about his job problems and to act (and work) according to his own judgements as evaluations and without much of superior's instructions.
4. SELF CONTROL : It includes proper reward for sincerity and punishment for lapses in the job.
5. JOB INVOLVEMENT : The dimension refers as a degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance of work in his total self image is so great that his feelings of self-esteem are increased by good performance and decreased by bad performance.
6. INNOVATION : How often the leader tries to apply creative ideas on his own job ?
7. ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT : It denotes the leader's commitment for the organisational success
8. ORGANISATIONAL ATTACHMENT : The sentimental attachment of the person with the organisation is mentioned under the dimension.

9. JOB SATISFACTION : It refers the employees' satisfaction in terms of generally prevalent idea that it is a 'positive attitude toward different aspects of job'.

Besides all the above mentioned variables, six major behavioural fitness characteristics are also studied by using Behavioural Fitness Inventory (B.F.I).

1. RESPONSIBILITY : In behavioural terms, it represents performance with the leader's own decisions and avoidance of defensive reactions.
2. STRENGTH : It represents the ability to concentrate energy to avoid distractions in action.
3. FLEXIBILITY : It includes the ability of openness to new information.
4. IMAGE : In behavioural terms it expresses a proper image in the proper actualization.
5. ENDURANCE : Behaviourally, the dimension denotes a commitment to continue a steady course of action toward well-defined goals.
6. RELAXATION : This dimension includes the ability of the leader to return to a state of calmness after experiencing high levels of emotional strain.

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### APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

TRAIT APPROACH - "No amount of learning will make a man a leader unless he has the natural qualities of one" (General Archibald Wavell, The Times, 17th February, 1941) General Wavell subscribed the view that leaders are born not made. A bulk of researchers emphasised on the above view during early 1930s to 1940s. All these researchers emphasised on the personality traits of the leader which distinguish them from non-leaders (Bird, 1940), Jenkins (1974), Stogdill (1948), Gibb's (1947; 1969), Mann's (1959) and Bass (1981). Traits were divided into three broad types from the literature view points.

1. Physical factors such as height, weight, physique, etc.
2. Ability characteristics such as intelligence, fluency of speech, scholarship and knowledge, etc.
3. Personality features such as conservatism, introversion, extroversion, dominance, personal adjustment, selfconfidence, interpersonal sensitivity and emotional control.

Personality traits like physical characteristics (like, activity, energy etc), social background (i.e. education, social status etc.).

Intelligence and ability (i.e.; intelligence, knowledge etc). Personality (i.e.; adaptability, self-confidence etc). Task related characteristics (i.e., achievement drive, initiative, task orientation etc.), social characteristics (i.e; co-operativeness, prestige, sociability etc) are the main traits which determine leadership behaviour to a great extent (Bass, 1981 and Stogdill, 1948 to 1970 reviews). Similarly, in another study, by Lawrence I. Sank (1974) developed the assumption that, managers in organisational set up can be differentiated by possessing effective and ineffective traits. This view was found to be similar with the research into the "Great Man" theory of leadership attempted to isolate attributes which would differentiate the leader from the group member (Blum & Naylor, 1968; Guilford, 1952; Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik, 1961). In examining extensive reviews of this literature (Jenkins, 1974; Stogdill, 1948) Fleishman (1957) asserted : 'one is struck by the diversity of personal traits which distinguish leaders from non-leaders'.

Besides that, many researchers viewed that, many of 'the traits' are situation specific (Stogdill, 1981), for that the relative importance of many situational contexts in relation to leadership traits is still not fully appreciated.

CRITICISM TO TRAIT APPROACH : One of the most important reason for the dis-illusionment with of much leader trait research has to do with the nature of the methodology employed. A great deal of research was based on 'who became leaders in leaderless contexts' which were often created by psychologists' laboratories and other natural environments of limited generalizability. The differences, in trait terms, between these emergent leaders, whether formally acknowledged by the group or not, and their followers were later examined. The difficulty with the focus of emergent leadership is that, its relevance for 'real-life' situations was not always clear. So later researchers like Bales (e.g, Bales and Slater, 1955), reflected an interest in emergent leadership in leaderless contexts with a greater emphasis on what leaders did. Most of the researches were done on 'real' leaders in Industry. In this context Korman (1968) has shown in a review of literature dealing with those psychological characteristics which distinguish effective from in-effective managers (i.e. leaders). Again Yukl (1981) expanded the array of traits to include technical and administrative skills. Three research programmes associated with the emphasis on the characteristics of effective leaders are examined later.

Though the trait approach was completely discredited, still the study of personal characteristics of leaders would have a place. So it was approved by many researchers that, personal characteristics may affect leadership style. In this context a study of US Managers by Bass and Ferrow (reported in Bass, 1981) suggested that leaders' authoritarianism affected how consultative and manipulative they were in respect of their subordinates.

House (1977) developed a theory about 'Charismatic leadership', a category found in classifications of types of leaders (Bass, 1981; PP 20-1). This type of leaders exerted powerful attraction in respect of their followers as viewed by many writers. House's approach was to prove what such individuals do and the effects that they had on their followers. Beside upon a review of the literature House (1977, p: 194) suggested that charismatic leaders differed from non-charismatic leaders in terms of dominance and self-confidence, need for influence and a strong moral righteousness of their beliefs.

Finally, researchers were interested in the impact of personality variables on the behaviour of leaders. The first was the 'locus of control' developed by Rotter ((1966) which distinguished between people in terms of whether they believe

personal out - comes as a function of what they themselves do; 'externals' see them as a product of forces over which they have no control. The term 'locus of control' seemed to influence the way leaders behave generally. A study was conducted by Durand and Nord (1976) of managers in a US textiles and plastics firm found that 'externals' were viewed by subordinates as showing more 'initiation of structure' and 'consideration' at work. Another study by Bass (1981, p.132) suggested that, 'internal' leaders were more task-oriented and employ rewards. On the other hand 'external' leaders seem to be more coercive and threatening in their approach. A study by Johnson, Luthans and Hennessey (1984) of supervisors in a number of US organisations found that 'internal' supervisors were more likely to be seen as persuasive and influential with their own supervisors than 'external' supervisors.

The above described findings depicted that the idea of 'locus of control' may have effect on the behaviour of leaders and its influence may be affected by the situation also.

Drory and Gluskinos (1980) examined the impact of machiavellianism, which refers to 'cognitive agreement with the basic ideas of Nicollo Machiavelli. This idea denoted mistrust in human nature, lack of conventional morality, opportunism and lack of affect in interpersonal relationships (p.81).



This is particularly so in the context of the examination of the personality determinants of leader behaviour which similarised the leadership styles exhibited by later research. It was proved that variation in machiavellianism had no impact on the productivity of the work group.

All these above mentioned studies of leadership were based mainly in small groups and leaderless contexts located either in the laboratory or in field contexts. Much of the researches were not based on formal organisational contexts may have been the factors of the criticism of the trait research.

PERSONAL TRAITS IN RELATION TO MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE : A great many researchers put great emphasis on personal traits in connection to managerial performance. Ghiselli (1971) was concerned to identify the 'totality of traits and abilities as managerial talents. In order to distinguish success from failure in managers, he relied upon superiors' assessments of the subjects of the investigation. He took of quite a large number of samples comprise of managers in an organisation. A total array of personality inventory was used to assess the performance. Each manager filled in a research instrument called 'the self-description Inventory' in which each individual presented with 64 pairs of traits.

Then they are asked to choose the item in each pair which best (in thirty two pairs) and least (thirty two pairs) describes them. Individuals are then scored in terms of 13 traits. All the 13 traits comes under these three (3) categories below :

1. Abilities
2. Personality traits
3. Motivations

In his assessment of the relative contribution of each of these factors to managerial talent; Ghiselli scored them not only in terms of their degree of correlation with it but also, (a) the extent to which managers exceeded both line supervisors and workers on each attribute, and (b) whether each trait is equally or differentially associated with success in managers, supervisors and workers.

The lack of an association between managerial talent and need for power is slightly surprising in the light of McClelland's (1975) research which indicates it as an important variable. However, the latter researchers suggested that this power motivation is directed towards organisational ends rather than career enhancement among successful managers. Above all, Ghiselli's (1971) research in 'trait-approach' proved to be helpful to distinguish effective from in-effective leaders

(Dessler, 1982; Filley, House and Kerr 1976, pp.218-19; House and Baetz 1979, pp. 353-4). Besides in the case of Ghiselli's research, difficulty particularly raised for the large contribution of 'supervisory ability' to managerial talent.

#### MOTIVATION THEORY OF LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

There was another set of studies in which researchers sought to use tests of "Leadership ability" to predict effectiveness (Korman, 1968, pp. 302-7). Managerial behaviour in a formal organisation was assessed by Minor's technique since 1978. The theoretical starting point of Minor's work is that all organisations have general managerial role perception. Minor identifies six managerial role perceptions and a positive attitude to each of them is supposed to contribute "leadership Effectiveness". He also uses a projective test, known as The Minor Sentence Completion Scale (MSCS) to gauge managers' effective reactions to six role perceptions. Is there a positive correlation between the managerial motivation and managerial success ?

To get answer to this question, Minor examined 17 experimental studies in which managers had been trained in the principles which can be derived from role motivation approach. This view suggests that, people's orientation can be changed.

(sixteen out of seventeen studies), and that assertiveness and the exercise of power are particularly responsive attributes in this respect.

This approach proved to be unrelated to leadership emergence in small and leaderless groups (Korman, 1968; Yukl, 1981).

So, Stogdill's re-assessment of the literature between 1948 to 1970 concerned with management effectiveness preserves to be an important approach. Firstly, such studies are relevant in so far as leadership is a component of the managerial role and so may contribute to success in this sphere. Secondly, the research is after treated unquestioningly, as though it were part of the literature on leadership.

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND TRAIT APPROACHES : In the late 1940's Leadership in organisations shifted its emphasis away from the study of 'traits' of leaders towards their style or behaviour. At least 3 factors seem to have contributed to this change of emphasis.

(1) 1st is the lack of consistent findings with Jenkins (1947), Stogdill (1948) and others had identified. As Shartle (1957) and Fleishman (1973), both of whom are associated with the style approach.

(2) The second factor which may have contributed to this 'shift' is that general psychological work on leadership seemed to be moving in the direction of examining what leaders do. This emphasis is particularly evident in a group of studies occasionally referred to as the 'Lowa Childhood Studies' (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939), White and Lippitt 1960). Leadership research started as early as in the 1930s when Lippitt and White (1960) conducted a study on ten year old boys divided into 3 groups, each group being subjected to the three difficult leadership styles. The findings of the study stated that the boys preferred the democratic styles to autocratic style to Laissez Faire Style of Leadership.

So this study added a third form of leadership, Laissez faire, to the earlier pairing. In the authoritarian treatments, the leader determined policy, work techniques and organisation, remained aloof, and was 'personal' in his criticism of group members. In the democratic leader behaviour only general procedures were suggested by the leader. The Laissez faire leader allowed complete freedom to the group and was reactive in terms of matters of work organisation and made few comments on work organisation. While authoritarian leaders tended to have more productive groups, democratic leaders', groups had greater work motivation.

Besides researcher put great emphasis on behavioural effects in organisational phenomena and writers concerned with the effects of different styles of Leadership in organisations. (Morse and Reimer, 1956, Tannenbaum, 1966).

(3) The third reason, relates Leadership Styles to the emergence of the 'Human-Relations' approach.

This human-relation movement emerged in the wake of the Hawthorne studies conducted at the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne plant near Chicago between the years 1927 and 1932. One of the principal findings of this research was that being friendly, loose supervision had a positive impact upon worker's morale and productivity. In other words, it was what the leader did which led to superior performance. These three (3) factors seem to account atleast in part for the increased interest in Leadership styles which arose in the late 1940's. This study mainly acquired importance due to the impact of different types of leader behaviour upon group attitudes and performance. The shift from 'trait' to style approach had significance upto Adair 1983 who observed that leaders are born not made' favours on assumption upon selection rather than training for leader. As the emphasis shifted towards behavioural approach greater attention was given

to the development of Leadership skills and abilities (e.g. Fleishman, Harris and Burt, 1955). The importance of leader behaviour on the assessment of performance also studied and proved by Klimoski and Hayes (1980). Some writers also expressed that Leadership style is a manifestation of an individual's personality and character. Then this personality attribute theories/approach shifted towards Behavioural pattern theories.

BEHAVIOURAL PATTERN THEORIES : This approach originated with two classic studies and these created impetus for a large number of studies of Michigan and Ohio State University. It is the development of rigorous measures of Leadership behaviour and their catchy descriptions of such behaviour - consideration and initiating structure - that the Ohio researchers will be remembered (Fleishman, Hemphill, Stogdill, Shartle and Pepinsky, 1950). Having amassed a large number of possible descriptions of the behaviour of leaders the group eventually reduced this accumulation to 130 questionnaire items. The instrument was Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and was supposed to reflect eight theoretical aspects of leader behaviour. Firstly 300 member of air crews were asked to describe the behaviour of their leader in terms of the 130 questionnaire descriptions (Halpin and Winer, 1957).

The analysis revealed four predominated in the depictions of leader Behaviour. They are :

Factor 1 = Consideration which denoted camaraderie, mutual trust, liking and respect in the relationship between the leader and subordinate.

Factor 2 - Initiating structure leaders whose behavioural descriptions result in their receiving high scores on this dimension tend to organise work tightly, to structure the work context, to provide clear cut definitions of role responsibility and play a very active part to finish the work timely.

Factor - 3 - Production emphasis - deals with motivating towards the job (Halpin and Winer, 1957 p.43).

Factor - 4 - Sensitivity (Social awareness) (Halpin and Winer, 1957 pp. 43 - 4)

Later the most frequently used version of the LBDQ is that devised by Stogdill (1963) and known as LBDQ - XII and this was of 100 item Questionnaire only. In tandem with the various metamorphoses in the LBDQ was the development of supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SBDQ). There is yet a third prominent measuring instrument which derives from the Ohio Researchers, the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ).



GENERAL OBSERVATIONS : There are three important characteristics. First, the work group in the level of analysis, second, the focus is upon what have been called designated or putative leaders, thirdly, the Ohio studies and most leadership research seeks to relate descriptions of leadership to measures of outcome (e.g. performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism). These empirical relationships generally have been examined by concurrent assessments of leadership and outcome, thereby tending to assign a somewhat static quality to great deal of research.

(a) Consideration and Initiating Structure :

Ohio group carried out series of extensive leadership research contributing the above two independent dimensions to understand leadership behaviour process (Fleishman, 1973). Initiating structure and consideration that could account for ".....83% of difference in crew commanders' leaderbehaviour" were identified (Halpin and Winer; 1957). Fleishman (1957) modified the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) for Industrial use. The Ohio studies established that "... the scales maintained their independence of each other indicating the utility of using both to add to understanding leader behaviour (Fleishman, 1957).

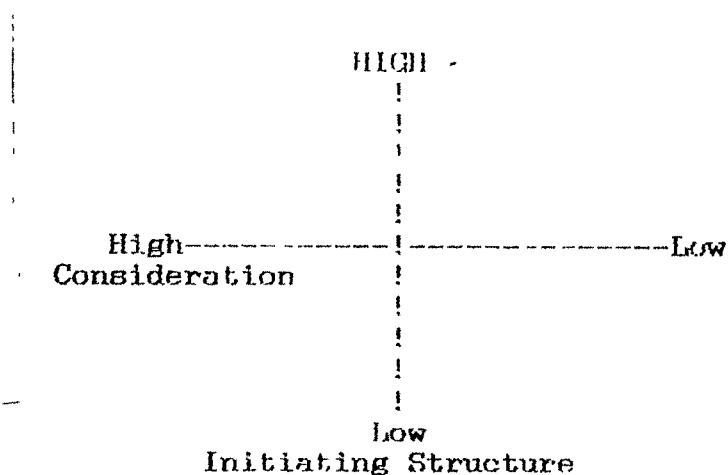


Fig : 1 Spatial representation of consideration and initiating structure.

According to this figure, a leader could be conceptualised as scoring high or low in respect of both dimensions. The closed a leader is to the cross-over point in the middle, the more average he is in respect of both dimensions. If this model of the relationship between the two dimensions had empirical validity, only a small correlation between them would be expected. Many studies were conducted over whether there is a sizeable correlation between them. Ravenagh (1972) established that researchers using the Ohio instruments tend to find the two dimensions to be relatively uncorrelated (i.e; independent) when the LOQ is employed, but the studies in which the LBDQ was used then to exhibit clear positive correlations. The fact that consideration and initiating structures appear to achieve sizeable correlation with each other suggests that they are not totally independent.

This study implied that leaders believe that they should behave as though consideration and structure are independent, but that their subordinates do not perceive them as acting this way.

(b) Consideration, initiating structure and outcomes : Considerate leader have a effect on effectiveness. By contrast, initiating structure was modestly associated in a positive direction with all the measures of effectiveness as well as the crews' over all satisfaction, but the correlations were greatly enhanced by controlling consideration.

Several studies had given similar views of this Ohio State study. Trueell (1973) chalked out ten steps for effective supervisors, based on both initiation and consideration factors. These steps would enable the translation of "your knowledge of management policies and principles into sound operating practices" for effective supervision.

Thurley and Wiredenius (1973) identified gaps in research and called for a new approach that could take into account the increasing complexities of the organisations. A similar study done in Bangladesh in the year 1984 - 85 also to observe the effects of two independent dimensions of leadership, consideration and

initiating structure on supervisory effectiveness in a Jute industry. It was proved that both structure and consideration are important dimensions in determining effectiveness of leadership and rated effectiveness of the supervisors varied significantly as a function of the structure dimension of leadership behaviour whereas the other dimension on supervisory effectiveness was found to be nonsignificant.

Besides that this study approach had fallen under criticism for four reasons i.e; Discrepant findings, absence of situational analysis, the problem of causality, the problem of the group, informal leadership and the non-observation of Leadership behaviour.

#### THE MICHIGAN STUDIES

The Michigan studies were of the same approach developed in the late 1940s and designed to discover the principles governing group performance and group motivation with specific reference to organisational structure and leadership practices' (Katz, 1951). Over 70 studies were carried out to identify the characteristics of successful leaders. The studies were under the general directorship of Renis Likert at the Michigan University. On the basis of these studies, Likert (1961, 1967) had propounded a normative theory of leadership effectiveness.

His theory of participative style of leadership claims to be both people oriented and productive. His theory of participative style is based on the following basic principles;

- 1) Differentiation of Supervisory Role : The more productive supervisors tended to be those who spend less time doing the same work that their subordinates were carrying out (Kahn and Katz, 1953).
- 2) Closeness of Supervision : Several findings in this context suggested that close supervision seemed to lead dissatisfaction with jobs and company, largely due to a felt need for more autonomy. Later research in the shape of an experimental study on undergraduates by Day and Hamblin (1964) found that close supervision may increase aggression to both co-workers and supervisors and reduce productivity.
- 3) Employee - centredness and high performance goals : A distinction between 'employee centred' and 'production centred' derived by Katz et.al. (1950) in the early part of Michigan Studies. On the basis of this principle the assertion of Likert is rememberable.

"Employee-centred supervisors were defined as those who focus on the human aspects of their subordinates' problems and build effective work groups with high - performance goals" (Likert, 1979).

4) Group decision making and Group method of supervision : Group relationship was given importance in this research which helped to enhance productivity. The above aspects of early Michigan interest is simply that alternative conceptualisations of leader behaviour were offered ( Kahn, 1958; Likert, 1961; Mann, 1965). Mann, 1965 proposed the term 'human relations' skills which roughly corresponds to employee centredness and denotes a sensitivity to the underlying principles of human behaviour relationships and motivation. In a subsequent study, Deville (1973) identified motivation as an important aspect of successful leadership.

Bowers and Seashore (1966) stressed the importance of leadership not only by Michigan work, but also by the Ohio school and those developed at the Research Centre for Group Dynamics by Cartwright and Zander (1960). This approach derived in the four underlying dimensions of leadership :

1. Support Behaviour - that enhances subordinates' sense of personal worth.
2. Interaction facilitation - the close and mutually satisfying group relationships.
3. Goal emphasis - the stimulation of enthusiasm, without pressure, for the achievement of high performance levels.

4. Work facilitation providing the technical and organisational means for goal accomplishment, i.e., scheduling, coordinating, planning.

In a subsequent finding, Ralph Katz (1977) concluded that leadership effectiveness is dependent on both the nature of the group and the nature of the task.

Besides the wider implication of Leadership behaviour, this study had fallen under criticism. There are six criticisms :

- - Discrepant findings
- Absence of situational analysis
- The problem of causality ( Bowers and Seashere (1966), Bowers (1975), Franklin (1975)
- Problem of the group
- Non-observation of leadership behaviour (Morse and Reimer , 1956; Eden and Leviatan, 1975; Taylor and Bowers, 1972).

#### THE MANAGERIAL GRID APPROACH :

The above described Ohio and Michigan studies had a considerable impact upon leadership researches. These studies derived new orientation called "Normation Leadership Approaches" by Barrow (1977).

The managerial grid was conceived by Blake and Mouton (1964) who developed an approach to organisational development which is one of the best known in the literature. It is a contrast between 'concern for production' and 'concern for people'. According to Blake and Mouton, both are the essential ingredients of effective management. Each concern is conceptualised on a nine point scale, thus yielding eighty one possible combinations of managerial behaviour, but in most of their writing, they focus solely upon five combinations, which are; 1,1; 1,9; 9,1; and 9,9.

- 1) 1,1 is called 'Impoverished Management' and is characterised by low score on both dimensions, a context in which conflict is likely to be rife.
- 2) 1,9 is 'country club management' with a high score on concern for people only.
- 3) 9,1 is 'Task Management' which sees people as merely suppliers of labour and high score on concern for production implies only.
- 4) 5,5 is Middle of the road position in which there is some emphasis on both dimensions.
- 5) 9,9 is called 'Team Management' and constitutes the recommended managerial stance in that both task and people imperatives are being met. In participative system, since people responsible for the production are also supposed to be involved in work planning and execution.



Real Team Management conditions exist when individual goals are in line with those of the organisation (Blake and Mouton, 1964, p.180)

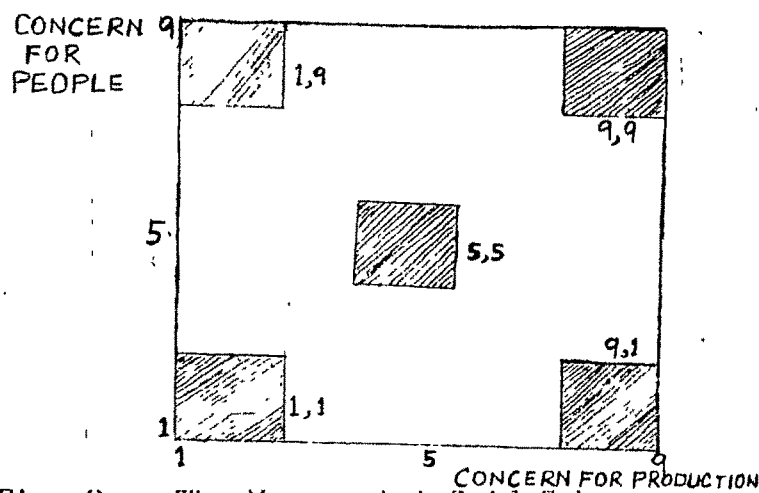


Fig. 2 The Managerial Grid Scheme.

According to Blake and Mouton (1964) Managers often oscillate between 9,1 and 1,9 styles, the former in response to a need to enhance output, the later when interpersonal relationships suffer. Their advocacy lies on the 9,9 value in an organisation should be undertaken in stages, starting with offsite training in grid principles and then on site training.

In a study of 800 Managers (Blake, Mouton, Barnes and Greiner, 1964) experienced considerable cost savings and enhanced productivity and profits after the introduction of grid programme. Rather it is a vital first step in developing awareness of the desirability and means of generating openness of communication and participation to count leadership effectiveness.

Another study by Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick (1970) gave contradictory views on this approach.

There is a clear resemblance between the two grid dimensions and the Ohio State pre-occupation with consideration and initiating structure and for that there is often an implicit view among many writers that the former arose out of the later.

**LIKERT'S SYSTEM 4** . The idea of system 4 developed by Likert (1961; 1967) is a systematic development of the ideas and research generated by the Michigan Leadership Studies (Likert, 1979). The basic level of Likert's approach is the principle of supportive leadership. On the basis of this, Likert distinguished four kinds of management system -

- a. System 1 - an 'exploitive authoritative' leader.
- b. System 2 - 'benevolent authoritative' leader
- c. System 3 - 'consultative leader'
- d. System 4 - 'Democratic' leader

Likert suggested that though a manager plans well, has high performance goals, and is technically competent the causal relationships which summarised in the following figure :

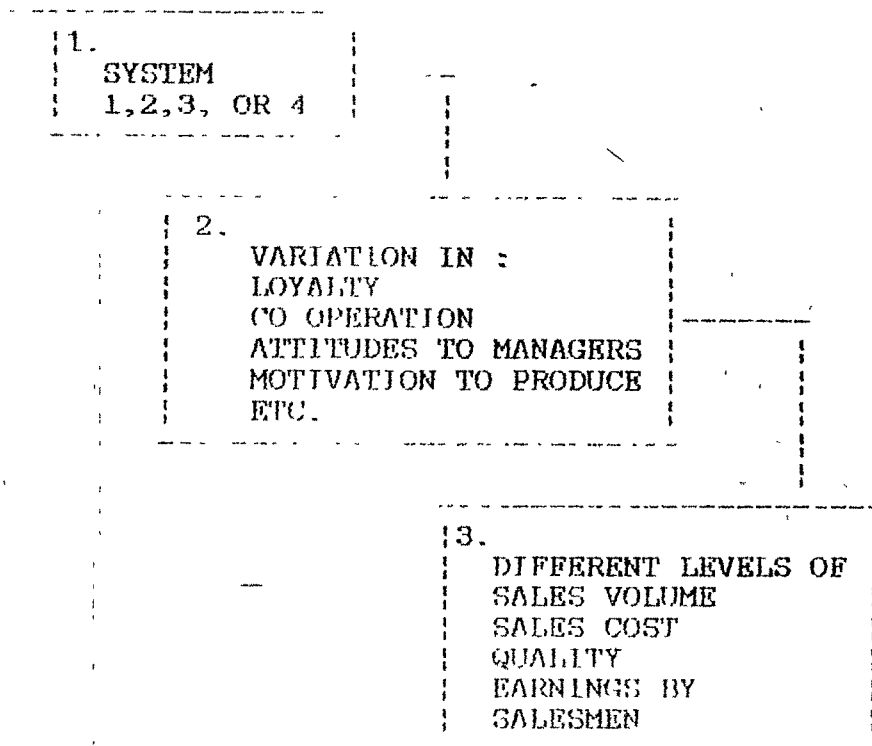


FIG : 3 CAUSAL FLOW IN LIKERT'S APPROACH.

The closer a management system is to system 4 (box 1), the better will be the intervening 'morale' variables in Box 2, and the organisation will experience greater performance in terms of the outcomes specified in Box. 3. So, in Likert's study, leadership occupies an important place in the scheme since it is reflected in the supervisory and managerial practices which underpin the principles upon which system 4 (as well as three other) lies.

In later years, Yukl (1981) and Albanese and Van - Flut (1983) stressed that Likert's system 4 approach is often treated as a scheme which is indicative of Leadership style approach.

Their study was supported by many researches subsequently and Likert's approach was also open to a variety of interpretations.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN TERMS OF PARTICIPATION, REWARDS, MOTIVATION AND CONTROL : Leadership can also be analysed according to the amount of participative decision making the leader encourages in subordinates. The effects of various types of participation have yet not been delineated. One of these effects is an increase in performance effectiveness, resulting from a greater volume of information. This effect usually manifests itself in the improved quality of the output, whatever "quality" is measured.

There have been many recent studies of participation. In a recent laboratory study, using college students, the researchers found that subjects felt they had more influence and satisfaction with the task when they had full participation. (Latham and Saari 1979a; 1982).

Among studies of participation in an industrial setting, participation in Yugoslavia was highly related to workers' motivation, involvement, and identification.

In New Zealand, a study of manufacturing organisations found that job satisfaction and positive feeling toward supervisors were related to participation.

Besides that, the Iowa Childhood Studies of Lowin, Lippitt and White (1960) seemed to show that when participative climates were created, there was greater satisfaction and less aggression in the groups. The early Michigan Contrast between close and general styles of supervision was also essentially a reflection of degrees of participativeness. Both the normative approaches, Blake and Mouton's 9,9 management and Likert's system 4, are essentially statements of the superiority of participative systems over the view points.

An example of an approach to the study of leadership behaviour which focuses exclusively on participative leadership is the influential framework adopted by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958). That framework was about how to choose a participative leadership pattern and particularly about what degree of participation ought to be allowed to subordinates and under what circumstances. They conceptualize the range of leadership behaviours as a continuum with 'boss centred leadership' and subordinate centred leadership' as the two poles.

On the basis of these notions they distinguished between seven (7) types of leadership behaviour.

- 41
1. Manager makes the decision and announces it. From many possible alternatives the manager chooses one and tells his subordinates to implement his choice.
  2. The manager "sells" his decision. Here the leader attempts to persuade his subordinates to accept his choice.
  3. Manager presents his ideas and invites questions. Here the subordinates understand his aims better.
  4. Manager presents a tentative decision subject to change.
  5. The leader presents the problem, gets suggestions, and then makes his decision.
  6. Manager defines the limits and requests the group to make a decision.
  7. The manager permits the group to make decisions within prescribed limits. Here the manager becomes 'merely' a member of the group. As Tannenbaum and Schmidt recognize (1958), the seventh pattern is rarely found. Most notions of participative leadership are really referring to the sixth pattern, though some approaches probably referred to the fifth pattern.

Participative leadership then, involved to shift away from authoritarian, highly directive forms of leadership toward a broader range of

individuals being allowed and encouraged in contemporary organisations was widespread in the literature. One of the most influential behavioural scientist was Douglas McGregor (1960) who classified manager, according to two basic leadership styles : (1) an authoritarian style, which he called "Theory X" and (2) a more egalitarian style, which he called "Theory Y". Theory X postulated that management is responsible for organising and directing resources and people in the interests of organisational goals. This approach presupposes that people are viewed as lazy, dislike responsibility, are insensitive to broader goals, recalcitrant and none too bright. The assumptions of a 'theory y' leader, by contrast, are based on Maslow's concept of self-actualization, i.e; work can be enjoyable, and people will work hard and assume responsibility if they have the opportunity to satisfy their personal goals.

For that Anthony (1978, pp.27-9) cited eight possible advantages of the participative management as a central ingredient of the above theories. i.e.

- Greater readiness to accept change
- More peaceful relationship between managers and subordinate
- Increased employee commitment to the organisation.

Greater trust in management; people comprehended managerial behaviour and objectives better for participation. Greater ease in the Management of subordinates; if advantages 2, 3, and 4 obtain, then people will be easier to manage.

- Improved quality of management decisions.
- Improved up-ward communication; participation ensures feedback from subordinates.
- Improved team work; It enables managers to build coordinated work groups.

However, participative approach is also not altogether devoid of limitations and criticisms. Some of the potential disadvantages may be mentioned below which attracted attention of many researchers.

- 1 It may bring conflicts in to the open to such a degree that the organisation flatters.
- 2 It may lead to time-consuming decisions possibly ones which are based too much on compromise.
3. Managers may be riddled with anxiety if they are faced with being responsible for large number of decisions.



So far as the evidence relating to participation leadership is concerned, one of the difficulties inherent in reviewing the literature is simply that researchers differ in what they mean by it. In this context Yukl (1971), Stogdill (1972) and Baumgartel (1974) reported sub-negative correlations between the participative style and group productivity. French, Kay and Meyer (1966) found participative style related to performance only when degree of threat is low and participation is high. Latham and Saari (1979), Yukl and Kanuk (1979) also did not find significant higher performance under-participative conditions. In a more recent study Marshall (1982) also found similar results to that of Latham's study. Hall and Donnell's (1979) study of 12,000 managers found that High 'achievers' in career terms were much more likely to employ participative practices in relation to their subordinates. They were also much less likely than average and low achievers to endorse 'values associated with McGregor's Theory X', as highly authoritarian system. Participation can also be varied in the range of generic types of participation. A fundamental point is that participation and participative leadership vary in 'the degree of influence' that is involved. Participation is likely to vary in terms of 'direct' or 'indirect', that is whether it is

undertaken directly by the individual or mediated by representatives. It may be formal or informal also.

The reviews of the relevant literature by Filley et al (1976), House and Baetz (1979), Singer (1974), and Yukl (1981) pointed out the importance of task characteristics on participation. Many studies have also failed to take into account the situational factors which impinge upon participative leadership-outcome relationships.

Many researchers reviewed the interaction of participative leadership with other leadership styles. In a more recent study Brownell (1983, p.328) observed "participation will be ineffective if accompanied by a supervisory leadership style dominated by structuring behaviour."

In the Indian setting, also, many studies have criticised participative styles of leadership. Meade, (1967) in comparative study of authoritarian and democratic leaders in Northern India found that morale, productivity, and quality of work was better under authoritarian leadership than under democratic leadership style. Casico (1974) has found that Indian subordinates were least satisfied with a participative supervisor. The participative style was also examined by Misumi (1972), Vujtech (1972) in Japan with indifferent results.

Sinha (1980), however, found that apart from these characteristics who should not be high on need for power, sense of insecurity and anxiety. They should have will towards growth and independence and strong work values. So long as these conditions do not exist in a group, people oriented leadership is likely to be misconstrued, frustrating and ineffective (Sinha, 1980).

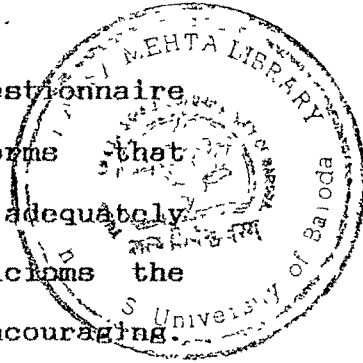
**REWARDS** : Sims and Szilagyi (1990) did extensive research on this reward approach and found a distinction between positive and negative leader reward behaviour, which denotes whether subordinates view the rewards they receive (whether positive or negative) as contingent upon their work performance. On the basis of research study they formed the Leader Reward Behaviour Instrument (LRBI) which comprises sixteen items reflecting positive reward behaviour and six punitive reward behaviour questions. Sims and Szilagyi (1975) found that positive LRB is associated with greater satisfaction, less role ambiguity, to some extent better performance and a belief in the contingent, nature of rewards on subordinates performance. The effects of punitive LRB are more variable, with a tendency to be associated with lower subordinate performance. The following four (4) assumptions can be formed from the LRB Study :

1. Positive LRB enhances performance and satisfaction with work and other issues. It enhances a strong belief among subordinates that their efforts will lead to better performance.
2. Punitive LRB causes dissatisfaction with work and related issues.
3. Poor subordinate performance (and to a lesser extent, absenteeism) induces more punitive reward behaviour by leaders.
4. Punitive LRB has a deleterious effect upon performance, especially when accompanied by a low emphasis upon advancement reward behaviour (Sims, 1977).

Similar to the Ohio Studies, the first three criticisms i.e., discrepant findings, absence of situational analysis, and the problem of causality had emphasis on LRB appeared very promising. While research does not always indicate whether group coverage or Individual level measures of LRB were used, some studies seem to adopt the former strategy which was open to criticism. In this context Podsakoff et al, (1984) study seems to have used individual level analysis, secondly there is no examination of informal leadership and the possible administration of informal rewards.

Lastly, but not the least, LRB is not observed (except possibly in a loose sense by Blanchard

and Johnson, 1982) but gauged from questionnaire responses only. Consequently, the forms that rewards and punishments assume are not adequately ascertained. But, inspite of these criticisms the emerging research tradition is highly encouraging.



**MOTIVATION** : Motivation seems to be at the very core idea of leadership. In an article by Oldham (1976) recommended study of "the motivation strategies used by supervisory relationship in effectiveness indicators". The idea of a motivational strategy denotes a conscious plan of action to mould the appropriate organisational conditions which will enhance motivation. Oldham's analysis is based upon distinction between six motivational strategies :

1. Personally rewarding strategy - indicates that the leader rewards his subordinates for good work by congratulating them, or by positive reinforcement gestures like smiling, a pat on the back etc.
2. Personally punishing strategy - indicates a punitive response to poor work by shouting at or being unpleasant to the subordinates.
3. Setting goal strategy - the establishment of specific performance goals.
4. Designing feedback systems - involves surely that subordinates are fully appraised of the results of their performance.

5. Placing personnel strategy - this strategy involves ensuring that subordinates are given a good deal of challenge at work.
6. Designing job systems - means that the supervisor arranges the tasks of his subordinates such that they are made more challenging.

Later on Oldham conceptualized further strategies but they were largely determined by the supervisors' organisations and so were not areas over which they had any control. Oldham (1976) assessed these depictions of motivational strategy in relation to two independent variables : Motivational effectiveness (how good each middle manager at motivating subordinates to work hard and well) and subordinate effectiveness (the productivity of each middle manager's subordinates).

An additional feature of Oldham's study is that he also produced measures of consideration and initiating structure. Aboveall, Oldham viewed that 'the motivational strategies are better predictors of middle managers effectiveness' (Oldham, 1976). Oldham's research is clearly suggestive of an important aspect of leadership, namely the extent to which the leader can manipulate the organisational environment of his subordinates such that they are motivated to better work performance.

In an article by Perry Wilber (1990) on the power of praising employees' topic, similar result was shown. It has similarity with Oldham's first motivational strategy (i.e; personally rewarding strategy) of the importance of positive reinforcement on the subordinates' work. Praise can lead to more effective and productive management. Praise plays a major role as a reinforcement strategy and forms positive mental attitude towards work. The leader helps the subordinates to form and maintain a positive mental attitude towards work by praising only. (Wilber, 1990).

In another article 'How to be a leader' Sherry Suibcaben (1990) mentions the most effective leader are those who can motivate others. These views can be correlated with Oldham's findings.

However, there are certain limitations of Oldham's studies. Some of them are :

- (i) Oldham's study could not generate any research tradition for comparing it with further findings on motivation.
- (ii) There was no situational analysis, though Oldham (1976, p.84) recognized its potential in relation to his research.

(iii) The idea is more useful in motivating further these employees who are already highly motivated.

(iv) Oldham employed average group measures of all of the leadership variables he examined.

(v) Finally, there was no examination of informal leadership and leader behaviour was assessed from questionnaire method only rather than observed.

CONTROL : A fourth formulation of leader behaviour had been provided by Jones (1983) around the theme of control. This scheme is particularly found in organisation theory (e.g. Etzioni, 1961; Woodward, 1970; Perrow, 1972). As Jones observed, it had not been a prominent feature in leadership research.

On the basis of a review of literature, Jones developed a list of twenty two control methods.

These were presented in varying combinations, to sixtythree senior undergraduates in business schools, who were asked to evaluate the similarity of pairs of twentytwo methods supervisors might adopt to alter the effectiveness of the work group for which they are responsible (Jones, 1983).

Further analysis was conducted to extract underlying dimensions to twentytwo methods. Four such dimensions were derived from the analysis.



First dimension is expressed as 'obtrusive control versus unobtrusive control', involving methods like close supervision, directive supervision, punitive rewards, providing people with information and taking an interest in subordinates.

The second dimension was labelled 'situational against personal control'.

Thirdly, Jones distinguished between 'professional and paternalistic control'. Professional control denotes 'controlling the information available to perform work tasks' (Jones 1983, p.167)

By contrast, paternalistic control denotes the use of 'personal and material rewards and punishments' to control subordinates behaviour.

Finally, the fourth dimension of 'process versus output control', which indicates a choice between how work is done and setting goals and standards.

Aboveall, Jones research provided an interesting taxonomy of the control choices open to leaders. Two important criticisms were; firstly; many of the control methods were not 'clear' in relation to the dimensions. Secondly, the research was conducted neither on real supervisors or leaders nor in a work context.

## RESEARCH ON LEADERSHIP STYLES :

A thorough examination of the literature on leadership styles revealed that leaders adjust their behaviour to a diversity of contexts, situations and subordinates. There was a great deal of evidence to suggest that leaders do not use just one style or even a fixed combination of styles. Bass and Valenzi (1974) asked subordinates which of the five styles they examined were exhibited by their superiors : direction, participation, manipulation, consultation and delegation. Only 2 percent of the sample indicated that their bosses used a single style; 1 percent that a dual (i.e; 2 styles in combination) approach was employed; and over 90 percent indicated that three or more strategies were used. In this context Hills (1973) proposed on a study of middle and first level British supervisors found that only 14 percent used the same one of four styles across four hypothetical situations. In another study, British and German managers were studied by Heller and Wilpert (1977) to examine the varied styles employed by them.

Further evidence that leaders do not adopt single, inflexible styles emerges from the vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) approach. The study by Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) provided an empirical example of these ideas.

In the view of these authors, 'In general, the greater the latitude initially given to the member to negotiate job related matters, the higher is the probability that the superior is attempting leadership and the lower is the probability that he is using supervision with his member.' (Dancerau, et al, 1975, p.50) Research by Vecchio and Gobdel (1984) in a bank setting confirmed that 'in group' status is associated with better subordinate performance and satisfaction with supervision, lower turnover, but not with greater job satisfaction.

A similar study was conducted in Indian situation also. In an useful investigation on management practices in different countries Nagandhi and Prasad (1971) brought to light the leadership styles, that is the manner in which individuals occupying similar positions made use of power or authority in their offices. The investigators conducted studies in 17 Indian owned companies. The results showed that only three perceived their leaders as democratic, nine as authoritative and five as bureaucratic. They found that usually the superiors had the subordinates in low esteem and low trust.

It can be postulated from the above studies that leaders behave in different ways to their subordinates. So it is a wrong conception of accepting leadership styles as a fixed and rigid phenomena.

In what way leaders vary their styles and what kinds of factors influence the leader's style questions aroused relevant factors.

They are :

1. The specific task at hand :: It was evident for a great deal of research that leaders adopted different patterns for particular tasks and were flexible in their leadership styles. According to Heller and Wilpert (1977) managers behaved in a more or less participative manner. They were more participative in connection with decision areas, i.e. choosing suitable applicants to work for the manager's subordinates, promotion of a person working for the manager's subordinates. They were much less participative in relation to areas such as increasing the salary of a direct subordinate, purchase of equipments and budgetary issues.
2. The general nature of the task : The nature of the work carried out by subordinates seemed to have an impact on leader behaviour. A laboratory experiment conducted by Hill and Hughes (1974) by taking male undergraduates. The subjects were assigned to three task conditions and variations of leader behaviour were examined in terms of four categories i.e;

positive socio emotional directive,  
non-directive and negative socio-emotional.  
They found that the type of task affects  
leader behaviour.

Particularly they suggested that more  
uncertain tasks required more directive acts.  
Barrow's experimental research (1976)  
suggested that leaders are more task-oriented  
(roughly synonymous with initiating structure  
of Ohio study) when faced with complex tasks.  
Bass et al, (1975) found that task-complexity  
was important in predicting in a positive  
direction the amount of both negotiating and  
delegating behaviour exhibited by managers.  
Further, a variable called 'clearer task  
objectives' was found to lead to more  
directive activity. Again there was strong  
evidence that less routine tasks were  
associated with more consulative,  
participative and delegating activity.

In a contradictory view, Taylor (1974) found  
that technological sophistication was  
associated with greater supervisory work  
facilitations and support only in those firms  
which had determined adopted participative  
form of management. Such findings point to  
the likelihood of the prediction of leader  
behaviour being dependent upon the situation.

- 3 Performance and performance related attributes of subordinates : A great deal of research evidence showed that the performance related attributes often had influence on leader's performance.

The evidences that had been previously examined suggested that poor subordinate performance leads to more directive/structuring behaviour (Barrow 1976; Greene, 1975; Lowin and Craig, 1968), less considerate/supportive behaviour (Barrow, 1976; Greene, 1975; Lowin and Craig, 1968), more punitive leader reward behaviour (Sims and Manz, 1984), and less positive leader reward behaviour (Sims and Manz, 1984). Other research confirmed the role of subordinates' performance as a cause of leader behaviour. In another studies it was confirmed by Miner and Brewer, 1976 and by O'Reilly and Weitz, 1980 that, the manner in which supervisors responded to the subordinates, had a direct effect on group performance. More recently, Dobbins and Russell (1986) carried out a study by taking 96 undergraduates for a field study and 98 leaders in an organisation. They suggested that subordinates likableness had significant impact on leaders' performance.

Heider (1958) also noted that we expected liked individuals to perform good acts, and disliked individuals to perform bad acts.

Lowin and Craig's (1968) study also indicated that poor performance engenders closer supervision, an approach that is usually indicative of a less participative style.

4. The leader's power : One recent study on Israeli managers, Chitayat and Venezia (1984) suggested that the role of the amount of power enjoyed by a leader as possible determinant of managerial style. The leaders power to employ performance contingent rewards and punishments also seemed to be an important determinant of his or her reward behaviour. For example, a study by Green and Podsakoff (1981) indicated that when leaders lose control over performance-contingent rewards, their use of punishment behaviour seemed to grow. Further, study by Heller and Wilpert's (1981) on managers in different countries showed the leader's power as a determinant of his or her leadership style.

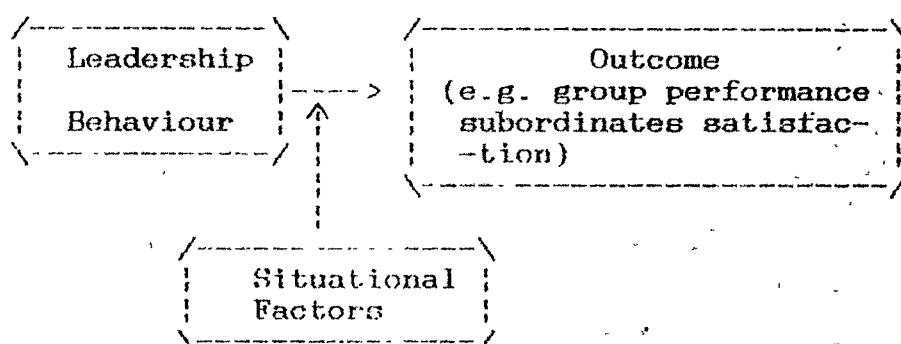
It was assumed that the amount of power a leader had was an important constraint on, and determinant of, the styles adopted. Several studies in India also showed evidences on power strategies adopted by leaders in organisation.

A recent study examined seven bases of power of middle level managers (n=20) and supervisors (n=30) in an oil refinery. It also examined the power strategies that these officers used to influence their superiors and subordinates, 15 downward and 15 upward influence strategies were studied. Several of the power bases were significantly and positively correlated with power strategies (Daftuar and Mahapatra, 1988). Another study by Ansari, Koor and Rehana, 1984; Daftuar and Pange, 1985; Pandey and Bobra, 1984 studied the relationship between the bases of power and power strategies. Daftuar and Pange (1985) explored the power strategies used by successful managers and found that seeking and maintaining power was one of their main occupation. They also postulated, highly successful managers could be aggressive, firm and flexible at the same time. Besides an extensive search on leadership style, the role of situational contingencies has become more prominent in recent years. The following theories having situational factors as integral elements discussed below :



# Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness :

Contingency Approach based on the notion that; leadership styles have an impact on various outcomes in some situations and not others. The basic structure of contingency approaches of leadership may be presented in this picture form :



To count the importance of contingency approach (1967; 1971; 1972; 1978a; 1978b; 1978c) on leadership style. Fred E. Fiedler developed a scale known as the 'least preferred co-worker' (LPC) to administer to people in leadership positions. The object of the exercise is for the respondent to rate his or her LPC in terms of eight point, bipolar adjectives. Fiedler's studies shown that the individual who described his or her least preferred co-worker (LPC) in relatively favourable ways tends to considerate, permissive, and oriented toward human relations; one who described the LPC in more unfavourable ways (there by getting, a low LPC score) tended to be task-centered, managers closely, and is less concerned with human relations.

In other words Fiedler maintained that the type of leader required in order for group performance to be enhanced is situationally contingent. He confirmed the degree to which the situation is favourable (or unfavourable) to the leader mediates LPC performance. He could identify three factors that affect the favourability of a situation for the leader.

1. Leader-Member relations (Group atmosphere) : This aspect of the situation refers to the quality of personal and affective relations between the leader and group members. If relation is good, then leader is accepted, liked and then it is easier for the leader to accomplish performance. Many researchers (e.g. Gibb, 1969; Golembiewski, 1965; Fiedler, 1967) pointed out leader-member relations as an important moderating variable. In another study, Robert (1972), pointed out that leader-member relations (rated by superiors) is a variable which moderates the relation between leader's attitudes towards leadership and work group performance.

2. Task Structure : Fiedler believed that the leader's position is facilitated by tasks which are clear and unambiguous rather than those which are unstructured. Lord (1976) treated group performance as a function of leader behaviour and task structure.

3. Position power : This aspect of the situation refers to the extent to which a leader has the ability to administer rewards and punishments to group members. The leader's job is made easier if he or she has a great deal of position power. If the leader is in a weak position within the organisation, then his ability to lead effectively may be adversely affected by a recognition among his subordinates, that he does not have the means to reward or punish good or bad performance, respectively.

Having defined these three dimensions of the situation, Fiedler proceeded to relate the two basic management styles to the following variables good versus poor leader-member-relationships, structured versus unstructured tasks, and strong versus weak leader position to permissive, considerate leadership versus controlling, active, structuring leadership - which determine the favourableness of the given situation. So, in Fiedler's conceptualization 'leadership style refers to the underlying needs and motives of the leader, not the behaviour pattern displayed by the leader (Rice, 1978 a, p.1231)

The validity of the contingency model can be clarified by dealing with these aspects. Firstly, researchers dealt with whether the Fiedler model

is correct or not? In this connection, Fiedler (1978 C), Hosking (1981) did extensive studies which constituted 'adequate tests' of the model. Hosking's view entailed rejecting examinations of the model which departed significantly from its technical requirements or its underlying pre-suppositions. Chemers and Skrzypek (1972) also supported Fiedler's model. Many studies were done regarding the validity aspect of the model and proved non-significance of the model (e.g. Ashour, 1973; Schlesheim and Kerr; 1977).

Secondly, the assumption of the model that leadership affects group performance may be questioned. Mitchell et al (1977) using an attributional analysis based on the work of Kelly (1973), studied the effect of situational moderators and group performance on leader behaviour. They found that perception of success by the group biased the LBDQ scores. Farris (1975), found that as group performance improved, 'leaders' LPC scores increased, while poorer performance led to a tendency for LPC scores to decline. Rice (1981) discussed the use of follower satisfaction as a good measure of leadership effectiveness in the contingency theory framework. This measure was comparable to its usefulness to the group task performance which is usually considered as a model.

Thirdly, there was a tendency for writers on the contingency model to stress the differences between high and low LPC leaders. In this context, Kennedy (1982) focussed on Middle LPC leaders and their role in the contingency model of leadership effectiveness. He felt that middle LPCs termed 'socio-independents' by Fiedler were less studied in leadership research. Their effectiveness was found to be poor-to middle in most situations.

Fourthly, the adequacy of the conceptualization of 'the situation' may be questioned in view of the limited range of attributes by many subsequent researches. On this ground, studies by Graen and his associates (Graen, Alvares, Orris and Martella, 1970; Graen, Orris and Alvares 1971a; 1971b) did not support Fiedler's (1971a; 1971b) contingency model. By now the contingency model varied in terms of wide controversy.

Fiedler's model was criticized on methodological grounds. For example; Shiflett is troubled by Fiedler's inclusion of statistically non-significant findings in interpreting his model. In addition, he had conceptual difficulty with the collapse of the three original dimensions into a undimensional concept of favourability.

Many researchers found it difficult to agree with the bold assertion that it is 'one of the best validated theories' (Fiedler and Chemers, 1984, p.6), Saha (1979) commented on the Fiedler's contingency theory. "He emphasised the need to include a wider number of variables and to use a longer time span to study the leadership process and concluded that it is not enough to hypothesize contingency relationship if we cannot establish the degree and the nature of such contingency relationships."

Many commentators like Ashour (1973) took issue with the statement simply in terms of whether it is a 'theory'. In the light of so much discord over the model, Fiedler surprisingly altered his attention towards the application aspect of its constituent ideas.

#### APPLICATION OF FIEDLER'S MODEL :

1. In a classic article graphically entitled 'Engineer the job to fit the manager' (Fiedler, 1965) he suggested that in traditional approach to develop leadership in organisations, selection and training are not necessarily be best. Training, by contrast, is difficult, costly and time consuming (Fiedler, 1965, p. 721) for the perfect selection of people. So he suggested, a particular leadership style will be more

effective in some situational contexts but not in others.

2. Fiedler developed the leader match approach to leadership training. It is a self-teaching manual (Fiedler and Chemers, 1984) which contains explanations of the central ideas, instruments which the leader completes to ascertain his LPC scores and situational context. The aim of this approach is for the leader to learn how to diagnose the favourableness of his situation. Leaders are described as relationship motivated, task-motivated and socio-independent in accordance with whether they achieve high, low or medium LPC score, respectively.

3. Another approach is the 'motivational hierarchy' approach for the underlying understanding of leadership-style. Fiedler and his co-workers have conducted a number of validation tests of the leader match programme (Fiedler et.al, 1984).

Most recently, a study (Bryman, Bresnen, Ford, Beardsworth and Keil, 1987) was done on the leader orientation and organisational transience by using Fiedler's LPC scale. It was the study to which the contextual feature varied in terms of the degree of performance or temporariness of

organisational units, i.e., the degree of 'organisational transience'. It seemed plausible that the time span of a project may have implication for organisational arrangements and leadership orientations. It was postulated that in one type of temporary organisation, (a) leaders tend to be highly task oriented, (b) there is a fairly strong positive LPC Performance relationship, and (c) duration of the project moderates the LPC performance relationship.

Another study by Rosen et. al, (1980) by taking 832 managers supported the argument that situational leadership (contingency model) influence model may be usefully applied to the teaching processes in the Industrial classroom. Traditional instructor or qualifications and the initial motivational favourableness of the training situation for the instructor were taken in to account. It was proved that sufficient training for the trainer, combined with favourable technological and motivational conditions can produce effective leadership results.

## 2. HOUSE'S PATH GOAL THEORY OF LEADERSHIP :

According to many critics of contingency theory, Fiedler's study of leadership was lacking theoretical framework. Then House's path -goal approach caught the attention of researchers which in large part was an application of the ideas of the expectancy theory of work motivation



to the domain of leadership This theory had been adapted by Robert J. House (1973) to the context of the leaders ability to motivate his subordinates. The most recent formulations of this approach (House and Mitchell, 1974; Filley, House and Kerr, 1976) examined four kinds of leader behaviour which had an impact upon the motivational processes which the theory emphasised :

1. Instrumental leadership (IL) :

This form of leadership behaviour entails systematic clarification of what is expected of subordinates, how work should be accomplished, each person's role and the like. According to House and Mitchell (1974) , subordinates characteristics are likely to affect their perception of whether the leader's behaviour is 'an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction'.

A number of studies provided support for the above postulation. For example, House and Mitchell (1974) provided support for the path goal theory's hypotheses about the effect of IL on satisfaction. In contrast Szilagyi and Sims found that role ambiguity had virtually no effect on relationship between IL and subordinate performance. A study by Stinson and Johnson (1975) found that there was a strong positive correlation between Initiating structure (of Ohio study) and measures of satisfaction among those subordinates with higher level of task structure and task repetitiveness.

Research by Schriesheim and Schriesheim (1980) on managerial and clerical workers in the US Public Utility found that levels of task structure did not moderate the effects of IL on a variety of job satisfaction measures.

2. Supportive Leadership (SL) : Such behaviour entails a concern on the leader's part for his subordinates' well being and status. The supportive leader tends to be friendly and approachable. According to path-goal theory 'supportive' leadership will have its most positive effect on subordinate satisfaction for subordinates who work on stressful, frustrating or dissatisfying tasks' (House and Mitchell, 1974, p.91). When tasks are stressful, by contrast, SL may enhance the subordinates' confidence and underline the important contribution they make so that they may more readily perceive the relationship between their effort and goal attainment.

Relevant research work by House and Mitchell (1974) felt that the predictions of path goal theory regarding the effects of SL had received a great deal of confirmation. On the contrary Glinow's (1971); Schriesheim and Schriesheim (1980) found that SL had a very strong impact on a range of satisfaction

measures (work, pay, supervision, etc) and job clarity, but that task structure levels did not moderate the relationships to any substantial degree.

3. Participative Leadership (PL) : This notion denotes a consultative approach in which the leader seeks to involve subordinates in decision making. Path goal theory provided a particular formulation of the potential impact of PL on individual's productivity. Mitchell (1973) provided four possible reasons for believing that PL enhances subordinate motivation.

Firstly, participation clarifies the relationships between path and goals. In PL climate people were likely to be better informed and they will have complete understanding of the relationships between the amount of effort they expend and goal attainment.

Secondly, Mitchell suggests that the subordinates were more likely to be able to select goals they value under PL.

Thirdly, subordinates who were operating more under the PL environment, selected more to the personally attached goals.

Fourthly, participation enhanced the individual's control over his work and pointed out that the people were more likely to work harder under such circumstances.

The above PL outcome relationship within the path goal tradition had pointed out the need to take into account both environmental and subordinate characteristics. From the review of relevant literature, House and Mitchell (1970) recognized that subordinates' personal characteristics, such as authoritarianism, do not always moderate the effects of PL. It seems that the people are more interested in work which is unstructured because of the variety of challenge it involves. Then the PL on job satisfaction is unaffected by subordinates' personal characteristics.

On the contrary, Bryman (1976) proved the evidence that people are often confused by unstructured, unclear situation and often seem to prefer the directiveness of instrumental leadership.

4. Achievement Oriented Leadership : This approach to leadership cause subordinates to strive for higher standards of performance and to have more confidence in the ability to meet challenging goals according to path goal theory (House and Mitchell, 1974).

This leadership enhances subordinates' expectation to achieve different goals through greater effort. Very little research has been done on this aspect of leadership. House and Mitchell (1974, p.91) suggested that when tasks are only moderately ambiguous then only this leadership had little effect on subordinate expectations.

The problem of discrepant findings, the frequent employment of group average methods of describing leader, the near absence of investigation of informal leadership, and the non observation of leader behaviour are some evidently contradictory findings emanating from the path goal theory. Barrow (1976), Lowin and Craig (1968) proved that subordinate performance is more a determinant of leader behaviour than vice versa. In this context studies by Griffin (1980), Mitchell (1979) provided similar views. More recently House (House and Baetz, 1979) suggested that future developments in path goal research should seek to include a broader range of moderating variables. One cluster of variables he mentioned relates to the extent to which the situation is stressful.

## HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY :

The approach under consideration here is a highly prescriptive contingency theory of leader behaviour which had undergone a number of revisions. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969; 1977; 1982; Hersey, Blanchard and Hambleton, 1980). For its description of leader behaviour, the approach draws heavily on the Ohio dimensions of Consideration and Initiating structure (e.g. Hersey et. al, 1980). Following the above preference for examining the effects of combinations of these two categories of leader behaviour, Hersey and Blanchard, (1977) produced four basic leader behaviour styles. They talked about "task behaviour" which involves a directive approach by the leader toward each subordinate. The leader explained what, when, where and how tasks are to be carried out. "Relationship behaviour", Hersey and Blanchard (1977) stressed more precisely that this aspect of leader behaviour involves "opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, "psychological" strokes, and facilitating behaviours" (Hersey and Blanchard, (1977 p.104). The four styles S1, (Style 1), S2, (Style 2), S3 (Style 3) and S4 (Style 4) had been dubbed telling, selling, participating and Delegating, respectively.

In short, according to this approach, it is vital for the leader to determine the maturity level of each subordinate before deciding which style should be adopted. They also developed scales on which the leader was supposed to rate the maturity level of each subordinate.

Besides getting support from a number of studies there seemed to be little evidence that leaders are more effective when they take into account the maturity level of their subordinates. A number of conceptual confusions and deficiencies in the general approach had been identified by Graeff (1983). Researchers like Graeff (1983) and Yukl (1981) have suggested the main contribution of this situational leadership approach. They viewed that leaders need to be flexible in their behaviour. In addition, it underlines the importance of situational factors, thereby adding to the other approaches already discussed in this chapter. Above all the very simplicity of the model and the absence of negative evidence may increase its popularity within management circles.

Besides that this approach could not be devoid of criticism on the ground of its concentration on just one variable, the absence of research tradition deriving from it, render it of limited utility leadership researchers.

THE VROOM - YETTON CONTINGENCY MODEL : Victor H.Vroom and Philip W.Yetton (1973) had designed a normative leadership decision making model that had received acclaim a many management scholars. The aim of the approach was to enable the leader to enhance both the quality of the decisions that he or she made and also their acceptability of subordinates. The model explicitly suggested that a number of situational factors impinge on the likelihood that either an auto-cratie or a participative approach will be appropriate. Rather the model was depicted as a decision tree which could be used by the manager as a tool. Many authors had simplified the Vroom-Yetton model by interlacing the decision tree branches, which tends to mask its sophistication. The model used to train leaders by asking them a series of questions about their own situations. The questions can be answered either 'yes' or 'no.' The series represents a flow chart with branches that eventually lead to a statement of which decision making style should be best in their settings. In other words, the aim of the model is to train leaders to diagnose their own leadership situation, if the diagnosis is correct then only the leader should know which decision making style should be used.

In this context Weirs (1976) presented a scheme to compare five categories of leaders, focussing on similarities and differences between each style.



The scheme is based on Vroom and Yetton's (1973) work on leadership and decision making style. The Vroom and Yetton model serves three useful purposes. (1) It gives the leader a structured procedure to select a leadership pattern if time is available. (2) It highlights the great number of variables involved in each leadership decision. (3) It provides a vehicle for the logical study of leadership.

A number of studies were reported to be conducted on testing the validity of the model. Hill and Schmitt (1977) conducted an extensive study to evaluate Vroom-Yetton's leadership theory reporting individual differences in decision making. He stressed the need for both the quality of the leader's decision and the subordinates' acceptance of the decision. The overall validity of the model was studied by Vroom and Jago (1978) by taking 96 managers who were asked to recall and to describe one successful and one unsuccessful decision making situation that they had encountered. This study relied on leader's own reports of the quality and acceptability of decision. So, they found that the high scoring group, that is managers' whose styles in response to the problems tended to conform to the model, had firms with higher productivity and workers who were more satisfied with supervision.

A number of studies supported the Vroom-Yetton model although the problem of the divergences of perspective between leaders and subordinates revealed by Jago and Vroom (1975) and Heilman et al. (1984) studies were troublesome.

The weakness of the model lies in its practical application. Problems might be considered by a manager attempting to use the model in the real world were as follows :

1. Lack of time to process each leadership decision through the model.
2. The model considers neither the leader's perception of problems nor the leader's ability to change leadership styles.
3. The model assumes that the perception and the reaction of each member of the follower group will be similar.
4. In general there is no reference of informal leadership in the model.
5. Field (1979) has suggested an additional problem which stressed that it lacks parsimony and is therefore 'too complex to use in actual practice'. (1979, p.254)

Above all contingency theories proved to be very useful measures in the era of leadership effectiveness.

## ATTRIBUTION THEORY AND ITS APPLICATION -

This theory has attracted a great deal of attention in recent years from which much empirical research have emanated (Kelley and Michels, 1980)

It deals with the causal explanations that people offer for event in every day life. The researchers explained it through two main issues :

- i) Causal attributions made by leaders in dealing with the causes of poor subordinate performance.
- ii) To examine peoples' perception of leadership. (What is leadership and effectiveness leadership).

Major research studies were focussed on the first issue. In this connection, Lewin and Craig, (1968); Farris and Lim, (1969) carried out investigations to the influence of subordinate performance. They pointed out that the leader makes causal attributions about the subordinate's behaviour on a particular performance level. Most of the researches were focussed on the causes of poor performance by the subordinates. The above views can be marked from a model by (Green and Mitchell, 1979).

Subordinate	Causal	Leader
Behaviour	----- Attributions ---	Behaviour

(The impact of subordinate behaviour on leader behaviour following attribution theory).

In a recent study Mitchell et al (1981) pointed out four causes for the success or failure of subordinates. They are ability, effort, task difficulty and luck. Weiner et al. depicted the above ideas early in the year 1972.

Again Weiner (1979) also suggested two dimensions to underpin the above four causes, i.e; stability and locus of control. The following Table can be presented here;

STABILITY	LOCUS OF CONTROL	
Stable	Internal Ability	External Task difficulty
Unstable	Effort	Luck

(Fig : (determinants of achievement behaviour Weiner, 1979). Later on a third dimension was perceived as being 'subject to volitional control' (James and White, 1983) this invoked major researches afterwards.

Lowin and Craig (1968) suggested two differential views for describing causal attributions and details of subordinate performance.

(i) The research emanating from the ideas of attribution theory is mostly concerned with the processes which link subordinate performance and leader behaviour.

(ii) There is an increasing interest in the various situational factors which moderate the empirical relationships.

Mitchell et al. (1981) suggested the following views : (i) leaders and subordinates differ in their views of the causes of poor subordinate performance. Leaders tend to make internal attributions whereas subordinates offer external attributions (Mitchell and Wood, 1980; Ilgen et al., 1981)

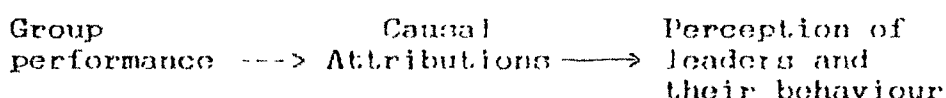
(ii) When leaders make internal attributions of poor subordinate performance, the former's behavioural response is likely to be punitive (Green and Liden, (1980) and to engender closer supervision (Ilgen et al., 1981).

(iii) A leader's rating of a poor performing subordinate is affected by a number of factors. According (Ilgen et al. (1981) leaders responded more positively to the poor performing subordinates when their own rewards were affected by his or her performance.

For pointing out the implication of this theory Mitchell et al. (1981) suggested an important component of leadership training for enhancing leader's awareness of the causes of their perceptions and actions. But this idea again induced friction and disillusionment on the part of the subordinates.

Another strand in the implicational aspect was provided by Calder and Pfeffer (1977). They said people make attributions in recognizing leaders and leadership which is of key interest. Calder (1977) viewed, leadership is a label which is applied to other peoples' behaviour and it is assumed that leadership qualities engender certain affects.

The second strand of Research on attribution theory suggests the impact of group performance on causal attributions which leads to the perceptions of leaders and their behaviour. The following figure may be presented to point out the kinds of leader behaviour that seemed to be associated with effective leadership.



Recently an experimental study by Phillips and Lord (1981) suggested that the role of causal attributions may not be very important. It was found that performance cues had an impact on the perceived behaviour of the leader. Rather, Phillips and Lord (1981) favour an interpretation of such results in terms of the cognitive simplification (Implicit theories) rather than the causal attributions as moderators of the relationship between group performance and the perception of the leader behaviour.

Besides that, this approach was not able to investigate what kinds of phenomena people are referring to when talking about leadership. Further investigations in this approach tell us too little about the circumstances under which 'leadership' is invoked as an explanation for events (and the reasons for it) which was mainly focussed by Calder and Pfeffr. In other words much of the research seems to have lost light of some of the interesting questions which an attribution approach suggests.

#### LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND ORGANISATIONS :

Leadership researchers have frequently addressed the impact of organisational factors on leader behaviour as well as their role in determining leadership style - outcome relationship. Bass et al (1975) found that, the amount of clarity of organisational arrangements had an impact on the style adopted. Besides that a number of studies were done by taking organisation as an important variable. Mainly for the size, climate of the organisation were taken into consideration by many studies in respect of the leader behaviour outcome relationship.

Some exceptional studies were shown to the separation of 'organisation theory' from leadership theory.

So the investigation of the impact of particular organisational factors on leadership processes and outcomes are based on a theoretical justification. In this context, two frameworks were examined (i) The Macro-Oriented approach associated with Hunt and Osborn (1982).

(ii) The Substitutes for leadership approach associated with Kerr and Jermier (1978).

1. The Macro-Oriented Approach : Hunt and Osborn suggested this approach in the year (1982). Central to this approach is a distinction between discretionary and non-discretionary leadership. Discretionary leadership is a mode of influence which is under the leader's control and the non-discretionary leadership is engaged as a consequence of the organisational context that is, the leader has to engage in a particular pattern. In other words, Hunt and Osborn (1982) pointed out this distinction on the view that the subordinates will respond differently to their leaders according to which their behaviour is perceived to be by choice or of necessity.

In this context, the first study by Osborn and Hunt (1975) pointed out two clusters of variables which enhance or detract from the leader's discretion to act in a particular way. Firstly, they stressed on the environmental factors that is, the predictability of the environment which limit discretion.



Secondly, organisational factors like organisational size and technology were the main characteristics to limit discretion. This evidence has been contradicted by Hickson, Pugh and Pheysey (1969). In particular, this research pointed out, subjects gained greater satisfaction and performance in response to discretionary than to non-discretionary leadership.

Another study by Hunt, Osborn and Schuler (1978) suggested that non discretionary leadership is a better predictor of overall satisfaction (with work, supervision, etc.) than discretionary leadership. In this study, out of twelve organisational characteristics only five were clearly of importance to the discretionary / non discretionary distinction. These items were to do with 'promoting clarity and clear standards and enhancing communications' (Hunt et al., 1978, p.518)

The third study in this connection to be pointed out (Hunt and Osborn, 1982) was on US communications units. Ratings were made in respect of each leadership styles (Categories) like support (pleasantness in connection to job), role clarification (in relation to subordinates), work assignments (specific job placements of subordinates), rules and procedures (leader's role in convincing about jobs process).

Ratings were made in respect of each leadership style in terms of how far the associated behaviour was discretionary. It was found discretionary leadership was associated with work unit performance, job involvement and other kinds of outcomes. Further they found that as far as environmental and structural complexity is considerable, discretionary leadership has a stronger impact on work unit outcomes than the non discretionary leadership.

In a latest study (Osborn and Hunt, 1982) it was postulated that when leader is seen as discretionary it is seen as more crucial by subordinates in solving their particular job and organisational problems. So, the macro approach is highly suggestive and marked a need to take into account the organisational context as an important element in leadership studies.

**Substitutes for Leadership :** This idea of substitutes for leadership was developed by Kerr and Jermier (1978). According to them, substitute for leadership can occur because particular situational factors neutralize the effects of leadership. Substitutes for leadership can best be grouped into three headings : Subordinate, task and organisational characteristics. In this context Kerr and Jermier (1978) paper reported an analysis of these data for 'selected' (ten)

substitutes for leadership and leader behaviour variables in terms of their relative impact on organisational commitment and role ambiguity. They found that the impact of leader behaviour on these two outcome variables was small. The role clarification style was the only one to have significant effect in that it enhanced organisational commitment and reduced role ambiguity.

Further findings suggested that role ambiguity enhanced a stronger relationship than any other variable 'as substitutes for leadership'. Howell and Dorfman's (1981) study can be quoted here. They investigated two outcome variables were organisational commitment and job satisfaction. In this study it was proved that, organisational formalization combined with task routineness substituted for work assignment behaviour in case of organisational commitment only.

Podsakoff et al. (1984), investigated the impact of the substitutes for leadership scales on the effects of the four reward and punishment behaviour they distinguished. They found a surprising result that since two of the posited substitutes 'indifference to rewards' and 'rewards not controlled by leader' relate very directly to a leader's behaviour.

No such effect seems to have been noted in connection with the five satisfaction measures. There is also evidence that the Kerr and Jermier (1978) measures of the substitutes are less than adequate (Podsakoff et al., 1984). Moreover greater attention will be needed to the distinction between 'substitutes' and 'neutralizers' (Kerr and Jermier, 1978). This leads to discrepant findings.

Chitayat and Venezia (1984) found contradictory results by saying that 'the correlation between a manager's power was positive in business organisations, but negative in non-business contexts. In order to explain these findings, the researchers drew attention to the pervasiveness of rules and procedures in the non-business organisations. It may be that where there is a high level of routinization and an emphasis on procedures, a directive style is less appropriate since such organisational arrangements serve the same kind of function as directive leadership. In short, these two approaches again needed further investigation in connection with interaction between organisational and leadership variables.

#### ORGANISATIONAL THEORY :

The early approach to organisational theory was the classical management theory. The classical group of theorists applied organisational principles to a wide variety of contexts.

These principles were applied more or less within a particular organisation. German Sociologist Max Weber (1948) found that the bureaucratic form of organisation is universally superior to non bureaucratic forms in modern societies. This view is very close to classical management theory. It is basically a highly structured type of organisation with advanced specialisation, closely defined job descriptions, clear authority channels and the like.

In the year 1965, Woodward gave a different view that classical management theory were not generally appropriate to her sample of British manufacturing firms. In other words the application of universal principle is rejected. Moreover, the more successful firms seemed to have developed organisation structures that were appropriate to their production technologies. In other words the closer the 'fit' between a firm's technology and its organisation structure the more successful it seemed to be. The findings of Burns and Stalker (1961) supported this study.

The importance of environment as a determinant of organisational structures and their relative effectiveness was also proved successful in the work of Lawrence and Lorsch (1967). Other writers stressed the importance of an organisation's size to its internal structure (Pugh, Hickson, Hinings and Turner, 1969; Child, 1973).

Above all, the views of above studies determined the dominance of situational factors on the organisational structures or leadership.

#### Recent Developments :

Depending on the views of classical Management theorists 'a rational system model', a notion formed by Gouldner (1959) and Scott (1981) which had received the attention of many writers. The basic orientation of this model is that of viewing organisation's structures and processes necessary to the attainment of goals. Organisations are viewed as seeking to enhance the appropriateness of their structures in order to enhance performance. In this rational model system, leaders are perceived as highly purposive, seeking to produce particular effects with their actions.

Most recently Scott (1981) and Bryman (1984a) have observed a different view of the rational system within the organisation studies. Three (3) different perspectives can be used as examples of this view : (i) First is the 'garbage can' model, initially outlined in a paper by Cohen, March and Olsen, 1972. This view indicated that many organisations are organised anarchies which bear little resemblance to that of the image acquired by the rational system model.

On the contrary other studies suggested that not all organisations are organised anarchies in that such attributes are most likely to obtain where there are problematic goals, under technologies, (in a general sense not only production technologies), and fluid participation. March and Olsen (1976), also objected on the view of rational model.

Weick (1976) suggested the in appropriateness of the model. Stewart (1983) and Mintzberg (1973) pointed out the assumption that managerial work involves 'rationality', planning and pursuit of organisational goal is misguided. In short, the garbage can model was proved to be not much fruitful in achieving leaders' success.

Stewart's (1983) study introduced the second set of ideas which seems to clash with the rational system model. He introduced 'political' activity which permits managerial work usefully. A number of writers have attracted the attention to the importance of political dimension of organisations (e.g. Hickson et al; 1971; Pettigrew, 1978; Pfeffer, 1978; 1981 a). The political perspective points out the ways in which members of the organisations aspired to gain advantage for themselves and for their groups and departments to which they belong. The above views of organisation creates problem for the rational model system.

It's emphasis was on the existing multiplicity of interests within the organisations to which members orientate themselves.

The final approach was that of the institutional approach to the study of organisations. This approach rather put forth some questioning of the concepts of the rational model system. The article by Meyer and Rowan (1977) studied these ideas well. According to them, 'organisations seek to be seen as legitimate in the eyes of the wider society; as a result, they adopt rationalised work and organisational structures not only to enhance efficiency but to be seen as adopting the procedures which are required in modern society'. But Cohen et al, and Weick, Meyer and Rowan (1977), pointed out this view as 'ceremonial conformity' with the view accepted as wider society is most likely to occur in educational and some service organisations. This approach proved to be useless for increasing organisational efficiency.

Support to this approach were mainly discerned in the context of schools mainly (Meyer, Scott and Deal, 1981) and of the civil service reforms in U.S.A. (Tolbert and Zucker, 1983). Again further theoretical elaboration can be found in Di Maggio and Powell (1983). So the impact of the above approachers on organisational performance was rarely found and supported by further research.



# IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADERSHIP RESEARCH :

(i) The two models, i.e. the 'Garbage Can', 'organised anarchies' ideas had been applied to the study of leadership in a study by Cohen and March (1974). They took the idea that Colleges and Universities are organised anarchies and analysed the status and power of presidents. They put out a lot of ambiguities of the presidential role. But later Weick (1976) and Cohen et. al; (1972) suggested discrepant findings that leadership styles discerned in many organisations, somewhat ambiguous.

(ii) The second approach, i.e. the 'Political approach' of Pfeffer (1976) raised different possibilities for the study of leadership. This idea is based on the dictum that: 'human actor does not react to an environment, he enacts it (Weick, 1969, p.64). The same idea is also present in 'resource dependence' model which views organisations as not simply reacting to its environment but also capable of exerting influence over it (Aldrich and Pfeffer, 1976). This idea again proved that leaders may be able to massage and manipulate the organisational environment. In this context, the study by Pelz (1951) suggested that position power is a case in point. On this (Pelz's view), Fiedler and others have shown that 'the amount of power that leaders possess by

virtue of their organisational position mediates the effects of their behaviour on subordinates. Again, Stewart's (1983), study showed that the leaders' behaviour is not governed by a constant recourse to organisational goals rather this approach is concentrated on personal/self oriented behaviour.

But, Pelz (1951), emphasised that political acumen of leaders may be an important source of their effectiveness and of the effective responses of their subordinates. But, the implication of the lateral aspects of political striving within the organisations for the study of leadership is missing in their approach.

(iii) — Thirdly, the 'institutional approach' of Meyer and Rowan (1977) has implications for the study of leadership. They pointed out the ceremonial nature of some aspects of leaders' behaviour.

This approach was centered upon the possibility that rationalised work structures are often in ceremonial conformity with the values of wider society where as other findings related to this approach were close to the climate of the organisations.

Leadership practices too may be refractions of societal values. Participation is a case here to quote.

later on the question of whether participation is desirable may be construed as an ethical issue rather than a strictly practical aspect. Many other researchers pointed out that if participative styles of leadership are in part ceremonial, then whether a primary aim of their adoption is to enhance efficiency or not is argued by many researchers. Meyer and Rowan (1977) proved that leadership styles may serve as ceremonial rather than an efficiency enhancing function in connection with the study of organisations. Again discrepant findings pointed out that there is little unequivocal evidence about the personal characteristics and traits which denote the effective leader.

#### ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP :

In the early years, Selznick (1957, p 28) suggested that 'leadership is to do with 'the promotion' and protection of values' and 'the mission of the enterprise'. From this idea, it can be marked that the leader is the person who actively moulds the organisation's image. Again, the following definitions in the recent years denotes the conceptions of leadership which cover the above idea of Selznick.

According to Sergiovanni (1984 p.8), "the object of leadership is the stirring of human consciousness, the interpretation and enhancement

of meanings, the articulation of key cultural standards, and the linking of organisational members to them".

Leaders help to define reality for others; they interpret actions, give meaning and perspective to events (Morley, 1984, p.269). Greenfield (1984) also viewed somewhat similar views to that of Morley.

This revision of the concept of leadership has occurred mostly in many famous business and academic organisations which is in other words referred as "organisational culture" or "corporate culture". Mainly organisational culture provides people with direction, a sense of unity, opportunity to enhance the routine of their work lives, inspiration for work etc. The recent reference of literature suggested that organisational culture may be transmitted through a variety of media, i.e.,

(i) Clear statements of philosophy and beliefs disseminated in company documents and journals as well as annual statements and reports.

(ii) A special argot which enshrines and conveys the axioms of life in a particular organisation;

(iii) rites, rituals and ceremonies prevalent in an organisation (Deal and Kennedy (1982);

(iv) Physical settings (Martin and Siehl, 1983; Deal and Kennedy, 1982); and

(v) Company training programmes (Siehl and Martin, 1984).

Particularly it has been suggested by many studies that companies with clearly articulated cultures ('strong' cultures) tend to be more successful. Another study by Bennis (1984) suggested, 'the better leaders infused their organisations with a sense of vision and purpose which entices commitment and excellence' by taking eighty chief executive officers drawn from a variety of contexts.

Much of the more recent focus within this area has been on programmes for changing corporate cultures which are inappropriate, (Uttal, 1983), particularly a recognition that cultural change is difficult to effect because of peoples' attachments to entrenched values and their manifestations. Similarly Peters and Waterman (1982) clarified that leadership is to do with forging the meanings which form the bedrock of organisational culture.

They emphasised that, culture need to be appropriate and strong. The art of leadership would seem to be not just the in building of purpose, but a recognition of the appropriate values which should be forged. All these ideas about organisation culture are highly criticized by Dubin (1979). He pointed out its too much concentration upon leadership in organisations

only (e.g supervisors, foremen) and too little on leadership of organisations. The level of analysis by Peters and Waterman (1982, p.75) is that of the leader of organisations. They only referred people at the very top of their respective organisations. The theoretical and empirical evidence related to the view of leader as a creator of culture is to focus on the organisation as a whole, and leadership of it.

Again, there is a recognition in the literature that frequently leaders are not allowed to lead and that instead they are pressured into being managers. Bennis (1976) did a study that leaders are pressed in the bureaucratic routine of organisational life which frequently threatens to submerge them. As a result, this often inhibit the leader's scope for instilling purpose and creating a culture; the leader becomes a manager.

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## EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP IN THE INDIAN CONTEXT

### EARLY RESEARCHES :

Major researches during this period were focussed on the supervisory behaviour in 'Indian Context with relation to Michigan Studies'. Among the pioneer was Bose (1955; 1957 a; 1957 b; 1958 a; 1958 b). He stressed on the importance of employee centered supervision and group cohesiveness (1958). He also stressed on the importance of participation as a technique to effective leadership.

The tradition formed by Bose was followed closely by Ganguli (1975a; 1957b; 1961;) and his associates and others (Sequeira, 1962a; 1962b; Chatterjee, 1961) who suggested that workers' satisfaction, morale and productivity are compatible with employee centered supervision.

Leadership research gained momentum in 1970's. J.B.P.Sinha (1981) had cited as many as 39 references for the five years review of literature (for 1971-76). He categorised all these researches under 3 broad headings :

1. Emergence of Leadership.
2. Leadership functions.
3. Styles of effective leadership.

Another area of research interest has been

4. Workers' and Supervisors' perception of each other.

It may be said about the emergence of leadership in organisations that, it is generally pre-determined by the rules and procedures (appointments, placements and promotions).

In social situations (Caste, Communities etc.), leadership may emerge because of such factors as religion, caste and class and other social stratifications (Jain, 1971). This study was supported by Singh & Mishra (1973).

Dayal (1975) suggested that the functions of organisational leaders are partly determined by the organisational requirements and partly by his own ideosyncratic style. For that he viewed a particular kind of organisational culture is maintained in every organisation. In this context, Nandy (1970) discussed four areas of human, technological, social & organisational functions of managers. Sheth (1972) viewed status and authority as the main factors of supervisory effectiveness. Recently, Daftuar (1985) has made another culture related study and critically analysed the paternalistic, scientific management and human relations trends in organisational leadership. He argued that these Western theories are inadequate in our culture. He proposed a new psycho-culture situational theory. He cited empirical evidence of success of his new model.



Sinha (1973) --has observed that irrespective of sector or industry differences, a manager has greater expectations from his subordinates than from himself.

Daftuar and Krishna (1971) studied the perceived characteristics of good or bad leaders in bank organisations and showed that what is perceived take good or bad depended on the requirements of an organisation. So in banking organisations, the leader should be capable of delegating authority and recognise the merit of his subordinates. In sum he needs to be democratic in nature.

Quoting the early researches, Pestonjee (1973) and his colleagues (Singh and Pestonjee, 1974) reported greater satisfaction under democratic supervision. In the same year, Sarveswara Rao found greater trust under 'consideration' type of supervisors than under 'initiating structure' style'. Pandey (1975) suggested that relationship oriented leaders were more effective in creating a favourable and conducive atmosphere leading to high productivity than the task-oriented leaders.

On the other hand, Mead (1967) argued that the needs of the Indian subordinates can be more successfully met in an authoritarian leadership atmosphere than in democratic leadership.

### IMPORTANT FEATURES OF EARLY RESEARCHES AND WEAKNESSES :

The early researches beginning with Bose & others had been largely influenced by the method, techniques and results of Western researches (Daftuar, 1969; D.Sinha, 1972). Rather, there was strong emphasis on employee-centered, participatory researches. Any dissenting research findings like the one by Vaid (1968) were ignored. The survey by Vaid also indicated the "limited scope for introducing some of the advanced managerial concepts like participative management in Indian set up."

The researches done by Dayal, 1972; Kumar, 1970; England, etal. 1974; Dayal & Sharma, 1972; etc. stressed into the roles of the cultural and value aspects in the organisational lines. These researches were considered to be the redeeming feature of the period as it failed to evoke active responses from Indian Industrial Psychologists. Rather these researches created a vague, awareness among some researchers.

Such a vague realization emerged into two convictions, (i) The Western theories are inappropriate, (ii) secondly, in serious search for an Indian theory.

Indian researchers had realized the importance of Western theories in terms of three key areas i.e; Motivation, Leadership and Organisation. How these theories fit or unfit in our Indian situation, is the matter under discussion here.

The idea of 'Job enrichment' is an extension of the famous human relation approach (Hawthorne Study); which stressed the assumptions that individual can derive satisfaction from doing an effective job, get emotionally committed by doing them well and they can get their ego involved in their jobs. This human relation approach argued for the democratic management and advocated for group decision processes at all levels coupled with employee-centered leadership. So job enlargement and job enrichment form effective measures for work motivation.

These participative-management theorists in particular and human relation approach in general completely ignored the rate of extrinsic reward. They dealt with money and production as less as compared to the human relations in the plant. This is simply not true and created confusion and tension that is prevailing presently.

Do Indians really care about the values advocated by human relation approach ? Many psychologists had serious doubts.

It is very common to find in today's industries that, experienced engineers of a specialized field often like to work in the same type of work though they change work places. The simple fact is that they avoid doing a new job as it will mean more work and hard on their part to accept.

Another reason lies in the advocacy of power equalisation and democracy at work place by participative management. Then question arises, who is anxious for power equalisation? Workers or Managers? As in our country, the existing power inequality is very high, participation will explore the workers to the existing 'power-gaps' between them and their managers. This in-turn enhance their frustration and may create confrontation-like situation.

So it may be pointed out that our culture is marked different from Western or even the Japanese Cultures. Our social systems, work styles, expectations, aspirations and values are different to that of foreign cultures. Theories developed in Western countries may only be applicable to Indian organisations to the extent the two cultures are similar to each other in terms of social systems and values.

CURRENT LITERATURES :

The actual search for effective leadership style began in Indian Organisations in the year 1970s by Kakar and J.B.Sinha's researches in late 1970's. Sinha's researches considered as a turning point in the long tradition of leadership researches in India. Sinha (1981) arrived in the conclusion from various studies that "yet the totality of reality seems to acquire more systematic exploration of the issue of effective leadership style". It appears that whereas generally managers might believe in democratic styles and values, the more successful managers capable of behaving in entirely different ways (Daftuar and Pange, 1987; Daftuar and Mahapatra, 1988).

Sinha (1981) viewed authoritarian style as 'Self-Centered' and status conscious, rigid and domineering (p-437). He also viewed participative leader as people oriented, sharing, trusting, etc; and argued that in between two extremes (authoritative Vs participatory) one can postulate a transitional (?) phase. He called this 'transitional phase' leader the nurturant-task (NT Style).

More recently Dubey (1986) found that effective Indian leaders were authoritarian. Kumar and Singh (1976) gave a contradictory finding to that of Sinha's (1981) findings. They reported an authoritarian leader was no less preferred than the participative one (p.288).

Later on, Sinha has also questioned the effectiveness of participative style for all kinds of organisation, subordinates and culture. Then Sinha put emphasis on NT Style. The NT style was task oriented having structured expectations from the subordinates, and who draws on the cultural value such as affection (Kakar, 1971a; dependency Chottopadhyay, 1975; Sinha, 1970; Daftuar, 1985; 1986), need for personalised relationship (DE, 1974).

T.N.Sinha and J.B.P.Sinha (1977a) and J.B.P.Sinha & T.N.Sinha (1977) suggested that NT leaders were close to both the authoritarians as well as participative ones in certain qualities. A series of surveys and experimental research efforts by Sinha (1970; 1973a; 1973b; 1974a; 1974b; 1976; 1977 a; 1977b) and his several students and associates (Sinha and Sinha, 1977; Sinha and Sinha, 1977 a; 1977b). Besides these Ansari, (1986) ultimately succeeded in establishing to a great extent, NT model of effective leader in the Indian organisation.

The first major step was taken with a study conducted in eight organisations located in south Bihar State. They were of varied types like public, private, big, small, effective, non-effective etc.

Data from eight organisations revealed that Authoritarian (F) leaders value status, power and prestige, personal connection with influential persons and dependency on others for help, support and advice. The NT executives also valued status, power, and prestige. They preferred individual efforts rather than team work, initiative rather than dependency and did not like to assume responsibility for every thing and everyone. On the other hand the participative leader did not care for status and personal connections. They mostly depend on others for advice, support and help (Sinha, 1980).

The consequences of the above findings sinha categorised four typical expectations that the Indian subordinates bring to their organisations :

1. Subordinates tend to depend excessively on their superiors.
2. They want to cultivate personalized rather than contractual work relationship with superiors.
3. They really accept the authority of (their) superior.
4. Work is not valued in itself yet the subordinates are willing to work even extra hard as a part of their efforts to maintain personalised relationship with their superiors (Sinha, 1983; P.133).

With these expectations of the subordinates Sinha (1980; 1983), believed that NT leader should be more effective. Sinha (1980) also worked out the correlations between nine types of organisational climate and three types of leadership styles (F, NT, P).

The climate types were : status acceptance, working conditions, efficiency, interpersonal relationship, work relationship and Bureaucratic climate, authoritarian, task-oriented, and organisational involvement.

It was concluded that, NT style was emerged as the most crucial factor among the style for climate factors. It positively correlated with working relationship, working conditions, and interpersonal relationship. So Sinha concluded that NT leader will depend on the combination of size and efficiency levels of the organisation. The F style was negatively associated with work relationship and positively with bureaucratic climate in small organisations. Sinha (1980) gave concluding views that as the boss' style moved from F through NT to P style, the climate tended to be more favourable in terms of working condition, efficiency, interpersonal, and work-relationship and tend to be less bureaucratic (pp. 137-138). It is significant to add that socio-cultural value proved to be better predictor of organisational efficiency than leadership styles.



For example, individualism, carefree life and status-orientation were inversely related and dependency, personal connections were positively related to efficiency (Sinha 1980; P. 152).

Sinha's eight organisations study rendered a number of limitations. So he tested the NT model experimentally. He tested this model in the year 1980. Then secondly, J.B.P Sinha and T.N.Sinha (1977) conducted studies to test this NT model again.

In 1980 Sinha concluded that, though the findings related to the NT style were weak, yet they supported the view that NT style was more effective than the P style when the subordinates were not prepared for participative leadership condition (whatever it may mean). In the same sequence, Habibullah and sinha (1980) did another study to examine the factorial structure of the leadership styles related them to motivational climate of an organisation. (i) the participative items did cluster as the distinct configuration alongwith the N and F dimensions, (ii) Another significant finding from the study suggested the emergence of 'task orientation' as a distinct factor (from Nurturance dimension).

Sinha (1981) revised his Leadership styles scale and put 5 dimensions (E, Bureaucratic, N, P, and Task oriented) separating, T from N.

Sinha (1982) used the scale in his study of fertilizer and coal organisations. Interms of effectiveness, results did not differentiate, but in both the organisations, (TO) dominated others and was endorsed more strongly than N dimension. N, P and T correlated significantly with subordinates' efficiency. N style was found to be strongly correlated with effectiveness of self, subordinates', immediate boss' departments as well as of organisation. TO was positively associated with job satisfaction also. Then postulated that, strong leadership in India is liked and appreciated by subordinates (Daftuar, 1985) Hinger (1982) postulated that NT style was related to effectiveness. Mishra's (1980) study also corroborated to that of Hinger. Since both nurturance attitude of the superiors and their toughness for accomplishment of tasks are valued in Indian Society (Daftuar, 1985), they tended to project themselves as NT ledears.

Recently Sinha and Chowdhary (1981) attempted to test the effectiveness of the NT-P combination of leadership through a field study in different organisations involving 165 male executives. Striking similar trend of results were obtained for NT and F styles. P-style was the only style which was significantly and positively correlated with employees satisfaction. Arvind Sinha (1980) and Sirighal (1981) used Sinha's leadership styles scale in academic situations.

Singh examined the relationship between leadership styles of college teachers and intellectual commitment of the students.

Swarn Pratap and S.K.Srivastava (1985) conducted an extensive study on differential leadership style and effectiveness in executives belonging to private, public and government sectors. Leaders exposed to high-task-relationship (style 2) was found to be predominant among executives of all the organisations. Again results on style - 1 (i.e high task- low relationship) and style - 3 (low task- high relationship) showed that Indian executives do think on the lines of 'concern for the people' but many of them still like to be benevolent autocrats rather than participative leaders.

For emphasizing the importance of Authoritative leaders in Indian settings Jaggi (1978) also provided much evidences in the effectiveness of leadership styles. He mainly correlated leadership styles with the organisation size and found that, managers in small firms exhibited authoritarian attitudes as compared to medium and large firms, whereas leaders were more sensitive to employees' needs and feelings.

Besides size, organisations with foreign subsidiaries tended to be influential by the foreign managerial environment/culture which led to a less authoritarian attitude in these managers as compared to the Indian Managers.

He observed that leaders with broader responsibilities looked forward for active participation from subordinates.

In another study, Jaggi (1978) found a difference in leadership between state and private organisations where the former were more keen to bureaucratic behaviour than the latter. Similar to this Joseph and Kesavan (1977) in their comparative study of public and private firms, observed a difference in the behaviour exhibited by supervisors. In the private firms, supervisors were production oriented and wages are tied to the amount produced, and in the public firms superior orientation was prevalent because superiors are given complete power for recommending their subordinates for promotion and salary increase. A few years later Sinha and his associates conducted another studies and concluded that studies provided "Consistent although not conclusive evidence that nurturant task oriented leaders were effective for these subordinates who preferred personalised and dependency relationship and willingly accepted the superior status of leader" (Sinha, et al 1988). A number of studies associated with the results of this 1988 study that NT leadership to be associated with effectiveness of the subordinates, departments, and organisations.

As much as 40 field and experimental studies by Sinha (number is mentioned in Sinha, 1988) the NT leadership style has not been able to prove in self "conclusively" for need to have a new look in the field of leadership in India.

Besides Sinha, a number of studies (Ansari, 1987; Sinha, J.B.P. 1980, 1984; Sinha et al, 1988) recently disclosed moderate views to very high correlations between nurturant and authoritarian styles. Sinha and Sinha (1984) also examined the shift in authoritarian, nurturant task and participative leadership under non-stressful to stressful conditions. Smith (1986) and Verma (1986) have examined relationships of nurturant and task styles with other currently available leadership styles. The coefficients of correlation validated task oriented style of leadership and further indicated that nurturance and consideration, despite their cultural specific differences, shared the people orientation of the leaders.

In one recent study, effectiveness of the leader was divided into five segments and was studied with the help of five statements. The sample consisted of 66 managers from a private manufacturing company who rated their effectiveness of the leader on five indices. The five statements were ; (i) getting work done by the subordinates, (ii) influencing his immediate superior in the matters in which he was right.

(iii) maintaining good relation with his subordinates, (iv) enjoying the trust of his immediate superior, (v) achieving success in his career. They were made to choose a leader between nurturant, participative, task oriented and nurturant task oriented styles of their leader. It was found that NT styles was related to the effectiveness score on all the indices.

These studies suffered from two major limitations ; (i) one psychometric limitation of forced choice rating of leadership styles which were thus made negatively interdependent, (ii) the other limitation was the single item measures of preference for dependency, personalised relationship and status differential which hampers a sound basis to identify those who were prepared and those who were not prepared to participate (Sinha 1981, P.14).

It may be said about the emergence of leadership in organisations that, it is generally pre-determined by the rules and procedures (appointments, placements and promotions).

In social situations (Caste, Communities etc.), leadership may emerge because of such factors as religion, caste and class and other social stratifications (Jain, 1971). This study was supported by Singh and Mishra (1973).

Dayal (1975) suggested that the functions of organisational leaders are partly determined by the organisational requirements and partly by his own ideosyncratic style. For that he viewed a particular kind of organisational culture is maintained in every organisation. In this context, Nandy (1970) discussed four areas of human, technological, social and organisational functions of managers. Sheth (1972) viewed status and authority as the main factors of supervisory effectiveness. Recently, Daftuar (1985) has made another culture related study and critically analysed the paternalistic, scientific management and human relations trends in organisational leadership. He argued that these Western theories are inadequate in our culture. He proposed a new psycho-culture situational theory. He cited empirical evidence of success of his new model.

Jyotiprasad (1990) suggested that NT style of leadership was postulated to be effective for subordinates who were not prepared to participate, while participative leadership was postulated to be more effective in prepared group of subordinates.

Later on many authors did study on the efficacy of the NT style proposed by Sinha as the most effective style in Indian Organisations. Firstly, some authors pointed out the need to combine two personality dimensions, i.e., nurturance, and authoritarianism, in a model of effective leaders' characteristics.

Second problem raised with the NT model was the methodology that Sinha followed in the beginning of his researches. This problem can be of two kinds, firstly, the item used by Sinha to measure the three dimensions (NT, F, and P) in his tridents (Sinha 1980) were of doubtful nature.

To overcome some of these methodological problems of Sinhas' researches, Daftuar (1985) proposed a model which might be considered as an appropriate model in the Indian situations. He called this model as the A,  $\bar{P}$  + N model. The A,  $\bar{P}$ +N leader exercises his power and authority in order to make the group members work according to his directions for the achievement of the objectives.



He seeks cooperation, listen to the advice of the subordinates and, to a limited extent, instinctively encourages his subordinates to express opinions and give suggestions by keeping the final authority with himself. He also showed genuine interest in the welfare of the subordinates. He is not just a summation of the three qualities (A, p and N), but something much more than that (Daftuar, 1985). In other words, this model encompassed a cultural situational approach to leadership.

Firstly, the most important thing is that the authoritarian nature of the Indian culture has prompted him (Daftuar, 1985) to emphasise for the authoritative (A) temperament (of the leader) in the model. Majority of the Indian researches (Hager, 1962; Meade, 1967; Mayers, 1960; Pareek, 1988; Nandy and Kekar, 1976; Bhusan, 1969; Kool 1980; Ray, 1982; etc.) had preferred to go with this model. Still now, many Indian psychologists would prefer to go with Meade's contention that authoritative leader would be a good bet to promote organisational productivity in India.

- Authoritarianism in Indian culture is induced by excessive dependency of children on their parents. The children learned to depend upon their directing ('does' and 'do nots') parents and then transfer their dependency on parents to their superiors (teachers, bosses, government, etc.)

This also explained why, as a population, Indians may readily submit to and respect authoritarian rulers and bosses (Ray, 1982). Several researchers (Chattopadhyay, 1975; Sinha, 1970; 1980; Murphy, 1953; Pareek, 1968; Daftuar, 1985, 1986; etc) have suggested about the existence of the phenomenon in the Indian culture. Dependency in subordinates/followers can be best satisfied by the nurturance style of the superiors/leaders.

The above arguments brought two well known psychological facts : (1) Authoritarian personality (of subordinates/followers, at all levels, emancipating from the authoritarian culture) would respect only (another) authoritarian personality or behaviour (of supervisors/leaders). (2) Early parent-child relationship is transferred to the superior subordinate relationship (in later years) when an adult enters a work organisation.

So, it can be postulated from the above arguments that authoritarian personality, is best satisfied under a superior who is both authoritative as well as nurturant. Again the above logic explained why a high level nurturant attitude of a 'strong' superior, in India, is respected.

The small 'p' in the model (A,p,N) represented participation at a low key. The reason for including participation at a low level (p) is the dualism prevalent in the present day Indian social and political systems. Indians are culturally authoritarian, at the same time they cherish democratic norms as the most desired value. This view suggests that, in Indian systems, authoritativeness and participation can go together. Authoritativeness (A) and Participatory (p) styles have been found to interact in some of our researches (Daftuar, 1985). Most interestingly, in the same context, Sinha suggested that the "participative items did cluster as a distinct configuration along with the nurturant and authoritarian dimensions" (Habibulla and sinha 1980; quoted in Sinha, 1983, p.146).

Hofstede (1980) was also supportive to the views suggested by Sinha. These data indicated that the Indians have combinations of values which may be expressed as high power distance (H.PDI), Low Uncertainty Avoidance (L.UAI), Low Individualism (L.IDV), and Low Masculinity (L.MAS). The L.MAS indicates such values as men need not be assertive, and interdependence in life is ideal. This (L.MAS) coupled with widespread training for deep faith in democratic values, made an Indian leader to project himself as a participatory leader. Hence, small 'p' in this model is inserted.

So, the attempt of the present model to combine diametrically opposite leadership styles (A and p) into one should not surprise any keen observer of industrial scene, in India. These two styles can be combined in the leader for effective functioning in the organisations. At the present moment a high degree of participatory system may not work in Indian organisations (Sinha, 1980; Daftuar, 1983; 1985; Vaid, 1968) and the leaders opted for small degree of participation (p). This (low level of participation) may give a sense of satisfaction among the subordinates that they are being asked.

Two experimental studies (Daftuar, Bakshi and Singh, 1986) and one survey (Banerjee, 1984) was conducted to test the veracity of A, p+N model.

In 1984, Banerjee conducted a study in two effective organisations to test the efficiency of A - p+N model. He considered top, middle and lower level executives to fill a questionnaire which measured six leadership styles A + P, A + N, P + N, A, P, and N on four leadership dimensions (leader as decision maker, as disciplinarian, as counsellor and as controller) and four dimensions of supervisors' perception of workers, of his superior, of his own self, of various roles. Results indicated that A - style was dominated in all eight dimensions in both the organisations and A + N - style reflected in 7 dimensions.

In five, out of eight dimensions, a tendency of inclusion of  $A + N$  with  $p$  dimensions clearly emerged. So, this study was partially successful in demonstrating the possibility of  $A$  combining with  $p$  and also the possible efficacy of  $A$ ,  $p+N$  model.

In another experiment, Daftuar, Bakshi and Singh, (1986) took 40 student volunteers as subjects. They were given to play management problem solving games under four leadership styles, e.g:  $A$ ,  $P$ ,  $N$  and  $A$ ,  $p+N$ . They had to solve structured and unstructured tasks. No difference was obtained in matters of number of attempts required to solve problems between  $A$ ,  $N$  and  $A$ ,  $p+N$  styles.  $p$  style required the maximum number of attempts to solve unstructured task.

Another experiment was conducted by Daftuar, Bakshi and Singh in 1986 under the same four leadership styles ( $A$ ,  $P$ ,  $N$ , and  $A$ ,  $p+N$ ) to study the impact of styles on vigilance performance. The hypotheses that,  $A$ ,  $p+N$  style would prove the best was supported in a limited way. Though, there was a trend of  $A$ ,  $p+N$  requiring minimum time, minimum error and minimum number of missed signals, the  $F$  value was significant only in case of error in detection.

Geeta Gopinath (1987) also conducted an experimental study to test effectiveness of four styles of leaderships -- A; N; A, p+N; and P under four communication channels, (e.g. 'wheel', 'circle', 'chair' and 'inverted - y'). The study was to solve managerial problems for which 16 management cases were used. Four measures of effectiveness was used, e.g. time taken in minutes, number of communication, number of new communications, and number of redundant communications. Results indicated that A style took the minimum time followed by A, p+N. A not only took the minimum time in decision taking, but also had minimum number of new and redundant communications. A, p+N generated highest level of performance and work satisfaction. A-style was followed by A, p+N, P and N. in that order.

Tiwari (1988) recently conducted an extensive study for studying relationship between leadership styles, on the one hand, and communication, power strategies, and organisational satisfaction on the other. She studied seven leadership styles, eight downward influence strategies, five upward influence strategies (Kapoor, 1987), six communication climate related variables and three variables related to communication effectiveness. Besides that, five dimensions of organisational satisfaction was also included.

Regression analyses related to leadership styles indicated that, A, p+N style emerged as the best predictor of three positive down - ward strategies and one positive up-ward strategies. None other style showed so many relationships with positive power strategies.

In case of communication climate as well, A, p+N appeared as a significant predictor of 'openness in downward communication', 'listening in upward communication, and concern for high performance goals'. In other words, A, p+N may lead to better communication climate.

In case of communication effectiveness, A, p+N leadership came only next to P style and A, p+N model emerged as the best predictor for work satisfaction.

However, Indian researchers have to go a long way to prove conclusively the efficacy of A, p+N style in the Indian organisational situation.

## COMMUNICATION IN ORGANISATIONS

INTRODUCTION : Communication is one of the most common processes of human behaviour. Because it is wide spread and universal : The importance of communication cannot be overestimated. Without Communication, Organisations, could long exist because of the basic coordination of Industrial work process or departments requires that these being co-ordinated, know what they are to do and when it is to be done.

We can define Communication as a 'dynamic Process in which man consciously or unconsciously affect the cognitions of another through materials or agencies used in symbolic ways'.

Rogers and Rogers (1976:3) opined that "organisation can be best understood from the communication point of view". Such was the crucial role of Communication. Organisational communication in otherwords was defined as "human communications that occurred within the context of organisations. (Tubbs and Moss, 1980: 280). This might be perceived as of two types :

- (i) Communication within the organisations
- (ii) Communication between the organisations and environment.

This was because new organisations were perceived as open systems and hence subject to external influence.



Imperative then, was the need for organisations to constantly adapt to the environment.

Communication could be considered as the vital thread that holds any organisation together. So it assumed that communication through a sub-function of an organisation was the central to all its relevant functions and processes. Communication affected the total work life in the organisation by determining the employee perception and their consequent organisational behaviour, such as group cohesiveness, interpersonal perception, job perception etc. Therefore communication could be a cause as well as an effect of the organisational behaviour.

#### IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION IN ORGANISATION :

The interdependence of communication and organisation was stressed by Bernard and Simon (Dahle, 1967). It was said that communication gave the life blood to an organisation. Very early in the year (1938) Bernard observed that, "in any exhaustive theory of organisation, communication would occupy a central place because the structure, extensiveness and scope of organisation are almost entirely determined by communication technique".

Dance (1970) wrote an article which uncovered some ninety five definitions of the concept of communication - many of them provided sole purpose to provide "the" definitions.

He concluded that it is difficult to determine whether communication is over-defined or underdefined but its definitions lead (scholars) in different and sometimes, contradictory directions.

So far as the communication in organisation was concerned Gultzkow (1965) provided some relevant empirical status of literature with regard to the study of organisational communication. Later theorists followed his studies in a great extent. Simon (1956) more sweepingly asserted : "the question to be asked of any administrative process is : How does it influences the decisions of the individual without communication ?, the answer must always be : It does not influence at-all". Thus, the importance of communication is evident from this views.

Again Bernard also observed that, communication is the first function of any executive. With regard to the historical background of organisational communication, Chester Bernard late 1930s meaningfully developed communication as a vital dynamic of organisational behaviour. He convinced that communication is a major shaping force in the organisation. In this context Barnard also intervened communication into his concept of authority. He listed seven specific communication factors which are speacially important in establishing and maintaining objective authority in an organisation.

In brief ;

1. The channels of communication should be definitely known.
2. There should be definite formal channel of communication to every member of an organisation.
3. The line of communication should be as direct and short as possible.
4. The complete formal line of communication normally be used.
5. The persons serving as communication centers should be competent.
6. The line of communication should not be interrupted while the organisation is functioning.
7. Every communication should be authentic.

Last but not the least the following points can be considered for the importance of organisational communication :

- I. Good communication is an integral part of management process of any organisation and is ubiquitous almost in all activities.
- II. Communication can be a tool to help persons in their understanding of organisational roles initiate actions toward goal realisation.
- III. Communication provides means for making decisions and executing is Dahle (1967 : 92)

confirmed this view and observed that "organisations may be seen as complex open information decision system".

IV. Functional and geographical meaning of the organisations demanded better integrated functioning. Communication integrates the various organisational sub-units. In 1967 Hicks observed with these views.

V. Communication provides organisation's exchange with environment. Guetzknow (1965) noted as "communication system serves as the vehicle by which organisations are embedded in their environments".

VI. Communication can provide for internal functioning and survival of organisation by ensuring feedback, correcting organisational objectives and procedures as the situation demands.

VII. Conflict reducing techniques o.g. participative management, consultation, climate building etc. make use of communication.

VIII. Conflict producing situations in the organisations are turned into growth experiencing situation by the effective flow of communication.

When organisations have not paid careful attention to communication defensive climate prevails (Schneider, et al., 1975). In such a climate communication gaps and distances exist between superior-subordinates. Particularly the subordinates respond with suspicion, anxiety and aggressiveness.

Two eminent management writers often cited communication at the root of practically all the problems of the world. They observed that "perhaps it is true, as someone has suggested that, the heart of all the problems - at least of men with each other - is man's inability to communicate as well as he thinks he is communicating". It is given as ethnic prejudice, war between nations, the generation gap, industrial disputes and organisational conflict. These are only representative of the numerous problems which are attributed to ineffective communication.

#### THEORIES/APPROACHES -- TO -- ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION :

##### INFORMATION THEORY :

This was a strict scientific approach to the study of communication in organisations. It was mainly concerned with the transmission aspects of the communication process, i.e.

transmission concepts encoder (sender) and decoder (receiver), in terms of both their functional roles and their contribution to the achievement of a given level of performance, were the important characteristics of this theory.

Mainly to encode messages by taking advantage of their statistical nature, and to use electrical signals to transmit messages over a given channel with minimum error. Information theorists recognised entropy (a law of thermodynamics) in their analysis of communication systems, e.g., they tried to measure and control noise entropy that may arise from distractions, distortions when a message was transmitted over a communication system.

This theory had also an unusual dual origin. Norbert Wiener and Claude Shannon were the founding fathers who outlined the basic concepts of Information theory and Cybernetics in 1948. Wiener and Shannon were the first to emphasize communication from a mathematical perspective and in so doing they developed Cybernetics. His stated purpose of cybernetics was "to develop a language and techniques that will enable us indeed to attack the problem of control and communication". Automatic feed-back control mechanisms had been the primary technique used to attain this goal.

About stating the importance of information theory and Cybernetics, one information theorist had noted : "In the past twenty years, information theory has been made more precise, has been extended, and has been brought to the point where it is being applied in practical communication systems". So, it can be stated that information theory has had on the study, analysis, and practice of organisational communication is somewhat analogous to the great influence that quantitative technique have had on management decision making.

#### 'ORGANISATIONAL THEORISTS' VIEWS :

Among organisational theories, one can identify four approaches to study communication systems in organisations. They are ; (a) Classical - Structural Approach, (b) Human - relation approach, (c) Behavioural - decision approach (d) Process or system approach.

- A. CLASSICAL - STRUCTURAL APPROACH : This group of writers described organisations as closed and static systems, stressing authority, span of control and other internal structural relationships (Fayol, 1949; Gulick and Urwick, 1937; Mooney and Reiley, 1939; Taylor, 1911; Weber, 1947). They assured adequate job performance through application of work-routine programmes and put emphasis on using formal channels of communication.

Mainly downward communication was emphasized for authority, co-ordination, and control. So, these theorists were too broad and elusive to apply classical principles to organisational communication.

- b. HUMAN-RELATION APPROACH : Authors like McGregor, Argyris and Likert were illustrative of this approaches of organisational communication. Reacting against the above classical views they put emphasis on the group interactions and informal communication systems. McGregor (1967) proposed the ideas that, 'communications as the means by which organisations exercise their power and through which members can develop mutual understanding of one another.

Argyris (1975, 1960) appeared to go no further than McGregor. Likert (1961, 1967) specifically emphasized on the informal communication in creating healthier organisations. He highlighted many variables like lack of trust, that may adversely affect interpersonal communication. In this context Brettger and Jerry (1971) conducted experiment with a view to improve communication in managerial work group, on the assumption that improvement of communication in managerial work groups enhances task effectiveness.



According to Likert, "Communication refers to a variety of kinds of activities" (1967, p.143) but he was not specific as these activities.

Above all these theorists were not specific in identifying important components of communication. They also did not suggest testable hypotheses relating communication to other organisational variables. Besides that, some of the things provided potential directions for communication research in organisations.

C. BEHAVIORAL - DECISION THEORISTS : This group of theorists described organisations as functionally specialized, goal seeking, decision making structures. Simon (1945), March & Simon (1958), Cyert and March (1963) were the representatives of theorists in this category. According to this view, individuals in organisations find it difficult to make complex rational decisions without having limitations imposed upon them by organisations. These limitations included definition of member roles and sub goals which guide decisions, formal rules, well-defined information channels etc. which limited the range of alternatives considered in decision making. March and Simon (1958) stated that the primary purpose of Communication in Organisation is to procedural information. They pointed out that information available in communication channels is always incomplete for decision making.

On like the above described context, some others implied the necessity for investigating communication influences on decision-making e.g., the process of uncertainty absorption was not empirically investigated.

Both the amount and locus of uncertainty absorption must influence decision-making (Downs, 1967; Wilensky, 1967), on the contrary Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) adopted March and Simon approach in their discussion of innovation diffusion in organisations.

Besides all that, these theorists did not stress the need to examine the influence of individual behaviour on communication in organisations. But, it cannot be ignored that the behavioural decision theorists added extensively to the list of organisational and communication variables which should be considered in research programmes.

PROCESS OR SYSTEMS THEORISTS : Systems theorists like Katz and Kahn, (1966); Thompson, (1967) Wieck; (1969) suggested the orientation of a multivariate views of organisational communication where the environments in which dynamic organisations exist were important determinants of behaviour.

Weick (1969) provided an example of this kind of thinking and provided the views that organisations were information processing organisms existing in uncertain environments of March and Simon's. Weick mainly derived in the proposition that organisations lose opportunities when they handle unequivocal information equivocally. It leads to atrophy.

Above all, the system theorists directed attention to forces outside the organisation which influenced internal communication and to organisations as information processing mechanisms.

Basically, the above theoretical views provided as necessary prerequisite to the development of viable theories of organisational communication.

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION : Interpersonal Communication approach was defined as an interactive process which included an individual's effort to attain meaning to respond to it. Communication was considered as a basic method of affecting behavioural changes and incorporated the psychological processes (i.e learning, perception, motivation), on the one hand and language on the other. So, both sender and receiver's role must be required for interpersonal communication to take place. The receiver here gave feed back to the sender.

In this context, Shannon (1948) was considered to be the beginner of this interpersonal communication, identified that information source, message, transmitter, receiver and were the components of the communication system. Many researchers put importance on the feedback on which the interpersonal communication highly depends.

To stress its role one writer stated that "the nub of the entire communication problem" is the following : " the sender to be certain that his message will be accepted by the receiver, must be prepared to let the receiver influence him. He must be prepared to let the receiver alter the message in ways that make it more acceptable to the receiver. Otherwise it may not be understood, or it may not be accepted".

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION :

The following are some of the characteristics of effective and ineffective feedback for employees performance in organisational communication :

1. INTENTION ; Effective feedback is directed toward improving job performance rather toward aspects of the job.
2. SPECIFICITY ; Effective feedback is generally designed to provide employees with specific information so that they must be aware of doing correct for the situation.

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3. DESCRIPTION ; Effective feedback can also be considered as descriptive rather than evaluative.
  4. USEFULNESS ; Effective feedback should be an information that an employee can use to improve performance.
  5. - TIMELINESS ; A lot of researchers were giving considerations in timing feedback properly, as a rule the more quick the feedback, the better the chance for corrective action.
  6. READINESS ; The employees must be ready to receive the feedback otherwise it is useless. It cannot be imposed on them.
  7. CLARITY ; Effective feedback must be clearly understood by the recipient, e.g; the supervisors can observe nonverbal facial expressions as indicators of understanding.
  8. VALIDITY ; The feedback must be reliable and valid in order to be effective.

Besides feedback, other variables, i.e. trust, expectations, values and status etc. greatly influence interpersonal communication. For example, research studies should that, "people who do not trust one another, do not communicate". These findings had significant implications for superior-subordinate relations in an organisation.

TYPES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMUNICATION : For long time organisational psychologists accepted formal communication processes as the important one. Later studies on communication suggested that formal communication never explained completely the communication behaviour and rather they put emphasis on informal communication.

That organisations have two communication systems, i.e., (1) the official formal communication; (2) the unofficial informal communication is recognised by Ivens (1963). These can be considered as new "FORMAL COMMUNICATION IN ORGANISATIONS".

This provided communication flow in all the directions. Katz and Kahn (1973 : 235) in a classic work portrays three types of formal communication using flow as the orientation, i.e. (i) Information that followed the authority pattern of hierarchical positions (Downward), (ii) Information that ascended the hierarchical ladder (Upward Communication). (iii) Information that maned among peers at the same organisational level (Horizontal Communication)

Organisational communication can be defined as communication in a structural situation. The structure of an organisation has two aspects, (i) formal and (ii) informal.

Again formal communication can be divided into three (3) types - they are :

- (i) Downward Communication
- (ii) Upward Communication
- (iii) Horizontal Communication.

The same way informal communication can be divided into two types : they are :

- (i) Grapevine
- (ii) Remouer

#### FORMAL COMMUNICATION PROCESS :

(i) DOWNWARD COMMUNICATION : This process of communication was considered traditionally one of the dominant themes of organisational communication. This is otherwise known as the superior - subordinate communication (Luthans;1977). More recently Tubbs and Moss (1980) : 309) viewed that Downward Communication is initiated by the top management of the organisation and then filters downward through the chain of command. It is actually highly directive type which initiates people into actions. Katz and Kahn (1970) provided five (5) classifications or purposes of Downward Communication in an organisation ;

- i) To give specific job directives about job instructions.
- ii) To provide information regarding organisational procedures and practices.

- iii) Feed back to subordinates about their performance.
- (iv) Provide information about the rationale of the job.
- (v) Information about an ideological to facilitate the indoctrination of goals.

It was reviewed that today's organisations have generally given emphasis on the first and to the great extent on the third purposes. In general superior-subordinate communication on job performance and the rationale-ideological aspects of jobs had been badly neglected. This type of downward communication provided an authoritative atmosphere which tended to check the effectiveness of the upward and horizontal systems of communication. It can be assumed that communicating rationale for the job, the ideological relation of the job to the goals of the organisation, and information about job performance to employees might greatly affect the organisation if properly handled. As Katz and Kahn pointed out : "If people know the reasons for their assignment, this will often ensure their carrying -out the job more effectively; and if they have an understanding of what their job is about in relation to their sub systems, they are more likely to identify with organisational goals".



In the above described fourth purpose (Katz and Kahn) clarified the view that information about performance supplied to subordinates were unique as they constituted feedback for them. So it can be evidently accepted that, subordinates were able to do well and perform better on receipt of evaluative communication in the form of downward communication

But it was found very often that the evaluative centers were not handled properly and ignored or misinterpreted among organisational participants. One study was conducted by taking communication efficiency of 100 representative industrial firms found to be accurate. It was found that, "there is tremendous loss of information - 37 percent - between the Board of Directors and the Vice Presidential Level. General supervisors got 56 percent of the information; plant managers 40 percent; and general foremen received only 30 percent of what had been informed to them. An average of 20 percent of the communication sent downward through the five levels of management." Besides how much of the fixed goals one was able to achieve and what was the quality of performance etc. aspects needed to be assessed.

Last but not the least the fifth purpose of Katz and Kahn was aiming at integrating individual's goals with the organisational goals.

It was not properly emphasised by organisations. Besides much attempts in this direction, individual goals and organisational goals were not always found in harmony. Both formal and informal communication systems in organisations were the manifestations of conflict between individuals and organisations.

Above-all, downward communication is accepted as highly directive by researchers and passed through a number of hierarchy. It ignored the source of information and put emphasis on the accuracy of information received at all levels. Downward communication process also did not require feedback and thus was devoid of receiver's involvement. So it is likely to be generally less implemented and ignored in today's organisations. A study by Killian (1968) suggested that only 20 percent of information got understood by lower levels of hierarchy. Dance (1967) quoted Raymond (1962) to suggest that 'execution could receive and absorb 1/100 to 1/1000 of the available information'.

Pointing out the importance of receiver's role, Doland Roberts after an extensive review of literature suggested that 'subordinates do get needed information (i.e; if superior-subordinate communication is effective) they perform better as individuals and in groups'. Roberts also put emphasis on the downward information flow to affect receivers in the organisation.

UPWARD COMMUNICATION : Traditionally, the upward communication system was completely dominated by the downward communication system. As it was opposite by nature to that of the downward communication systems in industry. So characteristically upward system was considered to be non directive in nature. Many researchers generally verified the ineffectiveness of this upward communication. But, gradually modern researchers changed that old views.

Upward communication is also known as the subordinate initiated communication (Luthans; 1977). Tubbs and Moss (1980) viewed that it is a process by which the ideas, feelings and perceptions of lower level employees are communicated to those at higher levels in the organisation. Though formal structure of the organisation put emphasis on both the upward and downward communication, still upward communication proved to be better. In this context, as early as in 1952, Planty and Machaver suggested that, "Managers have failed to observe the values obtained from encouraging employees to discuss fully the plans and policies of the company". They also viewed upward communication systems as the important aspect to provide feedback for reflecting a free flow of attitudes and criticisms. Planty and Machayer (1952) provided ways of help through the upward communication system in organisations.

They identified as ;

- (a) Organisations generally able to identify individuals, politics, actions and assignments likely to cause problems before getting involved deeply.
- (b) Organisations tapped subordinates' ideas by which it was helpful to form better strategies to problems.
- (c) Organisations got improved picture of assignments, problems, plans, attitudes, feelings and accomplishments of subordinates of all levels.
- (d) Upward communication systems can be served as a measure of effective downward communications.

Katz and Kahn (1970) viewed, "Upward communication is not full and spontaneous despite attempts at institutionalising them". Besides, new and creative ideas were generally ensured by upward communication.

More recently, Michael J. Glauser (1984) in an extensive study of literature pointed out important factors which facilitated or impeded organisational upward communication flow that is,

- (1) Subordinate characteristics it included subordinates' needs, personality and situation in the organisation. Research revealed a number of such variables which had direct or indirect impact on upward communication.

They are information load, mobility aspiration, security, locus of control, job satisfaction, performance etc. which rendered great influence in controlling upward communication of subordinates. \

- (2) Superior characteristics : Like subordinate communication five characteristics of superiors affected upward information flow in organisations.

They are : power/upward influence, consideration/employee orientation, information load, attitude toward interaction episodes, performance etc.

- (3) The superior / subordinate relationship : Following were the unique variables to the superior subordinate relation with regard to upward communication i.e; superior's influence over subordinates, role relationship etc.

- (4) Message characteristics : Variables like perceived relevance to superior, message importance, favourableness to subordinate, favourableness to superior, message content etc. had been examined by many researchers with regard to upward communication process.

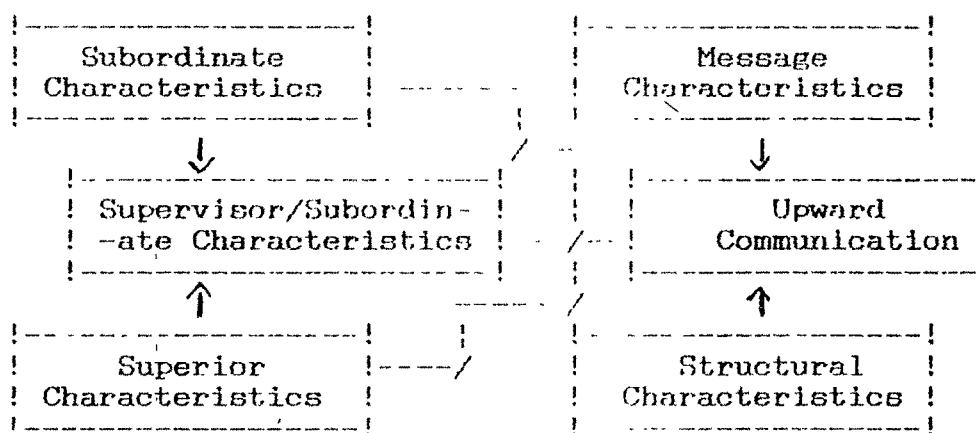
(5) Structural characteristics : Quite a great number of characteristics appeared to be related to the nature of upward communication. Theoretical writings and empirical studies suggested the following factors i.e; proximity, organisational level, organisational climate/design, technology etc. were having relation to the nature of upward communication in organisations.

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Michael formed that model consisting of all the above factors which determined the upward communication flow in organisations.

This model attracted a great many researchers towards further research on this upward communication at large.

The model may be presented as follows :



The above model indicated in the picture depicted a better understanding of upward communication system could be acquired by Superior/Subordinate relationship (partly determined by individual characteristics, as implied by the dotted lines.

Katz and Kahn (1970) also identified the forms of communication in the following way ;

- i) - The subordinates' problems and their performance
- ii) About the subordinate performance and problem individually
- iii) Organisational policies and practices.
- iv) What and how the needs were to be done aspect was the conclusive form. But Luthans (1977) added another important form i.e. Feedback on technical information in organisations.

In other words, several researchers also pointed out upward communication process as feedback and a response by receiver to sender's message. Feedback could make communication more dynamic. As problems aroused in the formal upward communication method used to communicate upward.

For that many organisations had different techniques to promote more effective upward communications.

1. Grievance Procedure : This procedure allowed employees to make an appeal upward beyond their immediate superior. It encouraged communication about complaints and protected individuals from arbitrary action by their superiors.

2. The open door policy : This policy suggested a constant and open invitation to subordinates to put forth their problems and views at higher level of hierarchy. But in reality both subordinates and boss knew that the doors are closed.
- 3 Counseling, attitude questionnaire, and the exit interviews : These processes are applied by the personal departments in organisations, generally to facilitate subordinate-initiated communication. If sincerely attempted these also could yield useful information.
4. Participative Techniques : So far as organisations are concerned this technique had been institutionalised through section 3 of Industrial Disputes Act which called for constitution of works committee. Both formal and informal techniques might be adopted. Informal could be in the form of group meetings over a cup of tea, face to face exchange, etc.

Besides the foremost importance and need for upward communication and attempts at this direction, still organisations are having difficulties in ensuring adequate degree of it. It is found from studies that sometimes superiors did not encourage for it as it is not always pleasure to listen to subordinates.



Another reason could be the instrumental nature of upward information flow. Cohen (1958) emphasised the "instrumentality" of upward communication. The findings of Hurwitz, Zander, and Hymovitch (1953) supported this instrumental view of communication. Instrumental communication was considered as a part of organisational life. One nature of it was that pleasant matters were communicated to the higher level more likely than unpleasant matters, failures or difficulties encountered in lower life. Though organisational purpose required a free flow of up and downward communication to achieve success.

Another study was done by Walker and Guest (1952) on assembly line workers. The research revealed that 70% of them initiated communication with superior less than once per month. Supported to the above finding Maier, et al, (1961) had shown that superiors and subordinates very often did not agree about priorities they simply don't see eye to eye on which were most and least important tasks for subordinates.

Besides, some findings indicated that informations about which the superior's interested to hear were better communicated than about those they did not (Downs, 1967). Empirical findings by Roberts and Reilly (1979) found that subordinates satisfied with their job were better communicators

and better performers than those who were not involved in the communication process and rather inefficient persons. Implied by the above findings upward communication in organisations were not very effective.

All the time upward positive communication is still dearer because the rewards of the organisation often encourage positive feedback, rather than accurate feed back (Thompson ; 1967).

On the other hand, psychological barriers developed between superiors and subordinates found to be seriously affected the upward communication process in organisations. Gemmill (1970) supported the above finding and pointed out the psychological factors.

So it can be concluded that, there are barriers inhibiting the flow of upward communication. These may be discussed under the following heads blocks. For ex; Risk element, Absence of Conducive Communication Climate, Superior's inadequate responses, organisational blocks, status, etc.

Finally, an equilibrium between downward and upward communication system maintained in the organisations.

HORIZONTAL COMMUNICATION : The importance of Horizontal Communication in organisational communication had been emphasized by many writers (e.g; Simpson/1959; Landsberger, 1961; Strauss,

1962; Dubin and Spray, 1964; Wickesberg, 1968; Hage, Aiken and Marrett, 1971). So, it was found to be the most prevalent type of informal communication within organisation which is otherwise known as the lateral communication (Katz and Kahn, 1970:). Conboy (1976) defined Horizontal Communication as 'exchange between and among agencies and personnel on the same level of the organisational chart'. Luthans (1977) suggested this type as interactive communication.

Porter (1974) noted three major dimensions for Horizontal Communication process, i.e., (i) Those occurring among peers within work group; (ii) those which occurring across major units within organisations and; (iii) those occurring between line and staff types of positions. All these types shared some common features.

According to Downs, people are "more prone to speak freely and openly to their equals than to their superiors". (Down, 1967). It tended to be more informal than vertical communication.

In the year 1974, Goldhaber identified the main purposes of Horizontal communication in organisations. They were;

- (a) General system maintenance functions i.e; (i) problem solving, (ii) conflict resolution and (iii) information sharing
- (b) Determining and planning of interwork task coordination.

This suggested that Horizontal communication facilitated different subsystems of a system to function in a coordinated manner to be effective. This finding was found similar natured to that of Landsberger (1961).

Schein (1970) has proposed four guidelines to reduce barriers for Horizontal communication. They were as follows :

- a. Greater emphasis should be given on "Organisational effectiveness". Departments should be rewarded separately on their contribution to the whole organisational effectiveness.
- b. Rewards should be given partly on the basis of help rendered by each group. So high interaction circulated between groups to work on intergroup coordination.
- c. Frequent rotation of members within departments to arise high degree of mutual understanding and sympathy for one another's problem.
- d. Groups were not put to any competition for reward and rewards might be shared equally among all the groups. Rather avoidance of any win-lose situation needed in the organisations.

#### INFORMAL COMMUNICATION : (Grapevine)

Early in the year (1953) K. Davis pointed out that, 'there is no dodging the fact that, as a carrier of news and gossip among executives and supervisors, the 'grapevine' often affects the affairs of management'. Davis (1967) suggested that 'both formal and informal systems are necessary for group activity just as two blades are essential to make a scissor workable'. Both these systems of the organisation comprised the social system of a work group. Mouzel (1967) also said that 'almost every organisation has an informal structure'. This informal line of communication was known as grapevines.

To think of an organisation without grapevine was to say of unreality. Important findings of Hawthorne study concerned about the affect of it with productivity. But very often it was observed as a neglected aspect of organisational communication.

Generally grapevines originated from the very 'human' nature of organisational membership and so people desired to communicate. Blau (1954) stressed that, 'the failure in adequate formal communication gave rise to the informal communication or grapevines' and because of inadequacies, groups also developed in the organisations'. So both organisational structure and human needs contributed to the emergence of grapevines.

Various studies proved that, a great amount of discrepancies, over-lap occurred in between the formal and the informal organisational structures due to grapevines. In this context Perrow (1972) suggested that organisational experts should take into consideration the above discrepancies as important tasks. So, according to him these are two types of individuals who are crucial in grapevines.

- (a) Persons who passed it actively and
- (b) Persons who received it, but did not pass it along.

Besides that, grapevines made use of organisational communications and the sender added his own part to the messages. These were a product of human needs and situation.

Afterwards, Allen marked the required circumstances under which grapevines became very active (Allen, 1977).

They are individuals having physical proximity, situations of organisational excitement (e.g. personnel changes), the news type of information etc. were some of them.

On the other hand, grapevines also served many useful functions. In this context Blau (1954) outlined some of the useful functions of grapevines.

They are :

- (i) It maintained much group cohesion and helped to continue social relationship (Wexley and Yukl, 1977).
- (ii) Grapevines enabled individuals to relieve anxieties about correctness of decisions and thus enhanced performance.
- (iii) Grapevines made more informations and as a result enhanced reliable decisions.

But Wexley and Yukl (1977) pointed out organisations utilized grapevines when they want to send messages quickly and to make unofficial announcements. So the grapevines helped the organisations to relay information more faster than other channels.

In relation to the above findings, Ruddiph Evan. E. (1973) study presented the operational pattern of "grapevine" communication. Data was gathered from 124 employees of eight (8) different organisational levels. Results indicated that (a) A curvilinear relation exists both amount of information received and organisational level, (b) More informal information flow occurred between and with in them. (c) Communication in downward and horizontal patterns is greater than upward communication, (d) 80% of all informal information was found to be accurate and (e) Amount of informal information differs significantly from group to group.

RUMOUR : A Rumour was accepted as an unconfirmed message or information transmitted along interpersonal channels. Grapevines provided a lot of scope for rumours to be spread in the organisation.

Davis (1967) defined rumours as "grapevines information which is communicated without secure standards of evidence being present". It was quite an impossible task to eliminate rumour from organisation. As individuals gained form of satisfaction from spreading rumours.

Rumours are spread orally and very fast. Pool (1973) pointed out that rumours are not grossly unreliable source of information as they turned out to be reasonable accurate later on. So formal structure can never completely determined communication behaviour in organisations. Excessive rumours reflected poor and ineffective formal channels. So, informal communication will always exist in the organisations.

#### BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION :

- (i) RECEPTION : This form referred to the key to effective reception of messages. So 'hearing' of the correct meaning of the message, could be considered as the important media for effective communication. Schneider et al, (1975) called this process as 'emphathetic listening'.



Corroborating to this finding one Indian Author (1970) pointed out that, 'Impatient listening caused a great deal of difficulty and trouble. It caused loss of information. The modern managers must realise that the average employee is apt to transfer to him the role of a parent and that his role has to be played in certain situations. The mere act of communicating with the boss relieves tension, helps to remove fears and anxieties and restores self confidence.'

ROLE OF LANGUAGE : As desired by Mr. William N. Tomic (1978), "Effective Communication in an organisation is a function of a three-tiered structure consisting of shared language, objectives and values" of the three, obviously shared language is the least appreciated.

Besides the above described barriers to effective organisational communication. M.V. Verma (1974) added some more points as the barriers. They were ;

- a. The Status Relationship : The existed supervisor-subordinate relationship, inherent in an Industrial setup tended to check communication. As the subordinates usually tended to tell boss what is interest to him, or not to express their disagreement at the shop floor which were unpleasant.

b. SUBJECTIVE PITFALLS :

1. Emotional State : An worried employee might have observed threat in everything he saw or heard.
2. Difference in experience and background was considered as a subjective barrier for communication on the part of the supervisor.
3. Stereotypes and beliefs : For example; a group of workmen found laughing together by their supervisor might evoke any of the following reaction depending upon the supervisor's own stereotypes and beliefs.

Like, if he believes that hardwork and cheerful atmosphere go hand in hand, he may be happy having happy workmen. But if he feels insecure, he may conclude that the workmen are laughing at him.

- c. THE TRICKERY OF WORDS : Words and phrases often lead to trouble because the communicator and the communicatee interpreted them differently.

SOURCES OF COMMUNICATION : The acceptance of messages are vitally influenced by the credibility of the source of communication.

The source is based on two more factors : (1) Competent and (11) Trust worthiness (Wexley and Yukl, 1977; Schenider et.al, 1977). The above characteristics are attributed by the receiver to the source. Competence refered to the perceived credibility to task performance. On the other hand, trust worthiness was a personality characteristics. As Stewart (1963) observed that trust between the sender and the receiver affected the receptions and acceptance.

CHANNEL OF COMMUNICATION : Both the formal and the informal channels affected communication in organisations. So the messages conveyed through the formal channels were accepted easily where as the messages send through the informal channels were positively received and might not be always accepted generally.

STATUS OF THE INDIVIDUAL : An individual having higher position or status dominated the communication process and often imposed his decisions and personal opinions on individuals with lower status. Whereas an individuals having low status was often inhibited. This view was supported by Cohen's study (1958).

INFORMATION OVERLOAD : Generally the man at the top position in the organisational ladder was faced with the problems of information overload. Thus more of information resulted in information overload.

It occurred when the individuals and the organisations were over-whelmed with information than they could effectively handled. Information over load person created not only inefficiency to himself but also over load and inefficiency for others (Shelly and Gilchrist, 1958). Miller (1960) used to suggest number of ways to deal with this problem.

The individual who was overloaded was given an assistant to reduce the load. Gatekeeping was another method. It then implied the principle of decreased input channel to overload unit was the best way out. The gatekeeper restricted the accessibility of certain receiver to sources (Roger, 1973).

FROM EVALUATION TO EMPATHY : This approach helped dry-up communication process. Communication between two persons became difficult when both or one person made an evaluative approach. If some one made a suggestion and the listener responded by saying 'Nonsense', or 'Not Practical' etc. then the latter evaluated besides trying to understand the message. Empathy is the form of perception of an individual's personality, attitude, strengths and weaknesses.

SUPERVISION AS COMMUNICATOR : Generally supervisors did not put interest to communicate about organisations policy where to clarify, objectives and problems of the organisation.

They opted to argue that they are too busy with their work (i.e. production). In 1962, C.F. Swquiera conducted a study in an Indian engineering firm and came to the conclusion that the supervisors attached little importance to communicating 'adequate information regarding management policy'. The supervisor's role in communication was very important in organisation.

1. ACCEPTED METHODS OF COMMUNICATION RESEARCH :

Each organisation should conduct a communication audit to find out how far information sent out are understood at all levels or blocked. The effectiveness of feedback encouraged within the organisation should reveal by this method.

2. OPINION POLL AND ATTITUDE SURVEY :

The opinion poll is applied for individual workers and not to unions. It should be organised by taking the consent of the union.

In Indian Industrial situation, it should be utilised properly as Trade Unions are useless here, as the unions do not reflect the opinion of individual worker comprehensively.

On the other hand, the attitude survey method aimed at ascertaining the perceptions and emotions of the men rather than their opinions on particular issues.

PERSONNEL COUNCELLING : This method has not been tried out in Indian Industries as it required experts to conduct and is quite expensive also. It was best done by experts who drew the maladjusted worker out and gradually encouraged him to find own solutions of his problem.

The American Management Association (AMA) had suggested these commandments for improving organisational communication. They were :

1. To examine the purpose of communication.
2. To understand the physical and human environment when communication occurred.
3. To clarify ideas before to communicate.
4. To consider the content of the message.
5. Others should be consulted to give their support before planning to communicate.
6. Communication should help the receiver as far as possible.
7. To communicate messages of short run and long run importance wise.
8. Action should be congruent with communication.
9. Efforts should be directed towards an effective listener.

The last point required some more elaboration so far as the empirical findings were concerned. Listening could be considered as the key to understanding.

It is said that, 'a never listening manager will seldom get an objective view of the functioning of the organisation.'

The above discussed methods and empirical views could be considered the effective medias to improve organisational communication processes by removing existing barriers, that block communication. So, communication in organisation is very vital and contributed heavily to the success and failure of every human activity.

## ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Early in the year (1952) Bass stated the organisational effectiveness criteria as 'profitability; employee job satisfaction; value of organisation to society in general'. On the other hand Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum (1957) gave somewhat elaborate view as 'productivity; ability to adjust to internal and external changes; harmony between organisational groups. Eminent Industrial Psychologists like Friedlander and Pickle (1968); Price (1968); Mahoney and Weitzel (1969); Mott (1972); Gibson et al, (1973); Child (1974, 1975) defined organisational effectiveness in terms of profitability, productivity and growth achievement criteria.

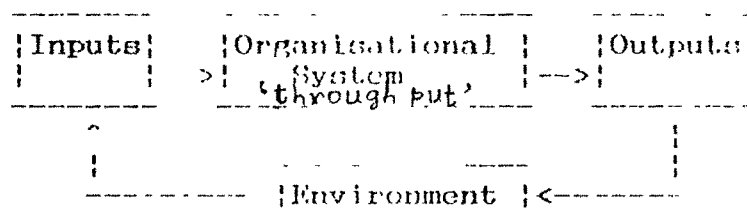
### Concept of Organisational Effectiveness :

An integrated framework can be derived from the system-approach to organisational analysis. A system is a "set of elements standing in interrelation among themselves and with the environment" (Bertalanffy, 1972). According to this perspective, organisational activities could be seen as a cycle consisting of three successive stages. This cycle is common to all organisations. It begins with the acquisition of necessary inputs from the task environment. Once acquired, they are processed and then transformed into outputs.



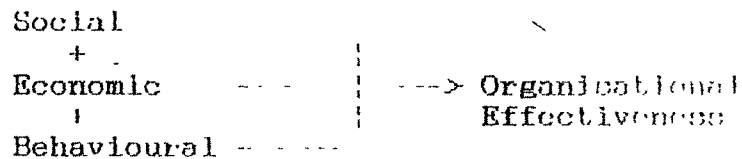
The transformation referred to as the through put stage; is done by a socio technical system, i.e. a combination of people with a complex pattern of relationships among them, and technology.

The cycle of activities of an organisation and its relationship with the environment may be illustrated below :



This system, theoretic activities cycle, captured the essence of organisational effectiveness. Later on this cycle drew the attention to both the efficiency of an organisation's internal mechanisms and the quality of its relationships with external groups. This process took into account the collective interests of all the relevant groups. Example; At the output and input stages it is concerned with the interdependent relationships with external groups (suppliers, trade unions, share - holders, customers, governmental agencies etc.). At the 'through put' stage it dealt with employees and technical efficiency.

On the basis of the above proceeding analysis, it was proposed that organisational effectiveness had three dimensions mainly: social, economic and behavioural (Bass 1952; Friedlander, and Pickle, 1968; Shepherd, 1975).



According to this frame work, an effective organisation is one which gives attention to all systematic processes and fulfils a composite set of social, behavioural and economic criteria. So, an organisation must maintain a balance, or equilibrium among effectiveness levels in the three areas. Though it is impossible practically, it is significant contrast to the view that firms may become effective by maximising results in only the economic sphere. This model above all facilitates an assessment of systematic, or total performance. This model may be applied to both profit and non-profit organisations.

Failure to balance performance in the three dimensions inevitably creates organisational strains.

#### THEORIES OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS :

Traditional researchers had defined effectiveness in terms of objective organisational goals, some have already attempted to define effectiveness from the subjective view points of organisational participants or constituents (Cummings, 1977; Keeley, 1978; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978; Connolly, Conlon and Deutsch, 1980; Kanter and Brinkerhoff, 1981; Zammuto, 1982).

But, recent studies of organisational effectiveness emphasized the subjectivity of this concept.

Goal-based approach of effectiveness are still the rule in organisational theory. Hall (1980) and Etzioni (1975; 135) stated 'Effectiveness as the degree to which an organisation realizes its goals under a given set of conditions'. At the earliest, Steers (1977) noted that, effectiveness is a broad construct, implying positive value, that remains theoretically obscure, but which tends to be operationalized in the form of organisational goal attainment.

It was questionable that whether a goal based approach was really objective, as it was difficult to specify organisational goals or intentions objectively. It was suggested that one can analyze actual policies and procedures to determine an organisation's "real", operative goals (Perrow, 1961), but the purpose of organisational policies and procedures is generally ambiguous. Again it was not obvious why organisational goals are appropriate criteria of effectiveness. Further researches stressed on the subjective value judgements.

Campbell, (1977) assumed that subjective value judgements are inherent in evaluation and the question that a useful theory of effectiveness must address is in whose values should count for how much. Traditional goal-based approaches typically failed to achieve impartiality because they incorporated a subsequent, less reasonable assumption, that organisational goals reflect the common values of our subjects. On the contrary Keeley, (1980) found that organisations need not entail shared purposes, but only shared activities, which serve the diverse and conflicting purposes of individuals - profits for some, wages for others etc. so any organisational goal might not reflect the values of some subjects and the attainment of such goal is hardly an impartial measure of effectiveness.

Later on, theorists no longer relied on single-goal measures of effectiveness, like profitability or productivity. Many researchers like Van de Ven, 1980; Scott 1981; Hall 1982; suggested that organisations had multiple and conflicting goals that represent diverse and specific interest groups. Again it was an important question of whose goals (values) should count for how much remains (Cameron and Whetten, 1983).

Moreover, multiple goal based measures may still misrepresented the values of participants, because even those who shared an interest in an organisational outcome might have no common interest in its overall level of attainment, as goal models implied.

Above all, the goal-based approach didn't devoid of criticisms. In general, goal-based theories were biased toward the values of participants who had the most to gain by the attainment of a given goal. This led some theorists to challenge not only traditional notions of effectiveness but traditional notion of organisation itself. Besides, the often drawn distinction between facts and values, there was a connection between how to conceptualize a thing and how to evaluate it (Taylor, 1967).

The important challenge to receive views involved the idea that, organisations were negotiated interaction systems which were instruments for the satisfaction of personal interests only. Supporting to this notion were models that stressed organisations as political coalitions (March, 1962), Games (Allison, 1971) Competitive areas (Cummings, 1977), markets (Pfeffer and Salancik; 1978), negotiated orders (Strauss, 1978), and Contracts (Keeley, 1980).

Shared purpose among participants was an occasional feature requiring empirical confirmation. It was not assumed to be a goal for the organisation as a personified entity; it remained a goal for the organisation of natural persons.

Again, the descriptive credibility of interactionist models had been demonstrated in a number of studies (Dalton, 1959; Allison, 1971; Farberman, 1975; Storey, 1980) in terms of normative implications. These models suggested that organisations were effective to the extent that they did, in fact satisfied the interests of the participating individuals. Typical interpretations, in the form of four distinct theories of effectiveness had been identified by Zammuto, (1982).

RELATIVISTIC APPROACH : The most important was the strongly relativistic multiple constituency approach developed by Connolly, Conlon and Deutsch (1980). They suggested that no single statement about organisational effectiveness is possible nor desirable. The authors believed that judgements of effectiveness is inevitable contingent upon which individuals or groups supplied criteria for evaluation. According to Connolly et. al

Individuals become involved with an organisation (as owners, managers, employees, customers, suppliers, regulators, etc) for different reasons and these reasons will be reflected in a variety of different evaluations. It appears somewhat arbitrary to label one of these perspectives a priori as the 'correct one' (Connolly, Conlon and Deutsch, 1980; p.212). Later on, this approach created some critical points of ambiguity of whether there is any non-arbitrary justification regarding a given constituency's perspective as more valid than another's. At the same time, Connolly and his colleagues, tend to dismiss attempts at justification by suggesting that each constituency's perspective is equally valid. On the other hand it was found true that evaluations of different constituencies will generally vary (Pickle and Friedlander, 1967). To reach such a conclusion an implicit normative premise is required (Williams, 1972). The premise relied on by Connolly, Conlon and Deutsch (1980), along with most relativists, seemed to be that, it was less authoritarian, biased, or the like - and it was, therefore, right to accept the validity of virtually any participant's judgements.

Again, question aroused on the point that whether it is really less biased and thus right, to accept the validity of just about anyone's

judgement regarding an organisation, so, a relativist might argue, for example, that if owners prefer higher profits and workers prefer better wages or working conditions, it makes no sense to say that one preference is more deserving than the other.

So, this relativism principle recognizes no limits on the validity of demands that organisational participants may place on one another.

This theory left no path to adopt thorough-going relativism for those who actually took part in administering complex organisations (managers, regulators, judges etc.) Connolly, Conlon and Deutsch (1980) recognized that conflicts among perspectives were quite common in organisations and presented serious problems for administrators. Still their extreme form of relativism permitted them to say little about the means of resolution and they kept the conflicts unresolved.

DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH : In response to the confusion of a strongly relativistic approach, Zammuto, (1982) advanced an "evolutionary" theory of effectiveness. This theory was similar to that the relativistic approach in its normative outlook but differed a bit to develop a direction for organisational improvement. According to Zammuto (1982; 83)



"Effectiveness stems from the ability of an organisation to satisfy changing references of its constituencies over time". Apart from this, he advocated the evolutionary "Meta Criterion" which specified that effective performance increases the adaptability of the organisation environment by changing the constraints on performance allowing to satisfy changing constituent preferences" (Zammuto, 1982, p.82). An effective organisation then was one which eventually expanded its limits of what was possible in order to better satisfy participants in long run.

Keeley (1980) argued with this conception that, the theory was properly classified as a participant interest view. In other words, organisations were not zero-sum games : "should conflicts among constituent preference aroused, these should be handled not by subordinating some groups or by redistributing outcomes among groups but expanding imaginatively the range of possible outcomes so as to permit the satisfaction of current and emerging preferences which was the hall mark of effectiveness from evaluation any perspective "Zammuto, 1982, P. 147) As such, this approach did not go far enough in specifying a clear criterion of effectiveness

Thurrow (1981), provided another argument by saying that social systems result in gains for some constituents and losses for others.

But Zammuto's 'metacriterion' yielded little information about these changes. The criterion strongly resembled a pareto efficiency principle. But it was not clear whether Zammuto had in mind a criterion of actual or potential pareto efficiency. The former lended approval to a social change only if someone was made better off and no one worse off; the later lended approval to a change if it increased system potential to make someone better off and no one worse off by giving hypothetical compensation for any losses. But, authors like Little, 1950; Rauls, 1971; Thurow, 1981; p. 219) contended that this pareto like principle was notoriously inconclusive and if someone was likely to be made worse off by virtually any large scale social change, "nothing was (actually) pareto efficient in the real world."

In the final analysis, "the evolutionary approach did not arise the question of whose preferences should be satisfied. Rather it was a question of how preferences were going to be satisfied". (Zammuto 1982; p. 83).

Developmental effectiveness theories allowed for more variability in participant ends. As illustrated in Zammuto's (1982) model, no constrains, no preferences were imposed; instead, a rate of organisational or economic developments sufficient to satisfy both current and emerging desire was assumed.

So conflicts among ends were theoretically avoided by growths in the benefits of cooperation.

Aboveall, this approach emphasised that the satisfaction of human interest was the basis of organisational effectiveness, however, it under -  
- estimated the probability of coalition between the interests of organisational participants.

POWER APPROACH : The most complete statements of a power oriented approach was provided by Pfeffer and Salancik (1978 ) . The authors began with an interactionist model developed by Cyert and March (1963) and conceptualised organisations as coalitions of self-interested groups or participants. According to Pfeffer and Salancik, (1978; p.26) 'organisations functioned much like markets'. From this prespective, they developed a participant interest theory of organisational effectiveness in which effectiveness was multifaceted concept reflecting the preferences of various interest groups.

Pfeffer and Salancik recognised three important reasons for assessing organsiationsl effectiveness. Firstly, to assess organisational effectiveness one must identify relevant participants considering what resources are critical to the organisation and who could possibly provide them.

Secondly, to weigh the relative power of participants to control critical resources, thirdly, to determine the criteria by which various participants evaluate the organisation and finally assess the impact of organisational actions on these weighted criteria.

Pfeffer and Salancik offered a reasonable defense of the participants' normative position. They refused the might makes-right type of justification, but stressed that rewarding of uncommon skills and material contributions can increase organisational capacity to provide benefits for all participants. The ultimate justification for a power based system of incentives was that to work for everyone's advantage not merely the advantage of the powerful. This finding was similar to that of the systems advocated by Adam Smith, (1937) and Frederic Taylor, (1911) who stressed their advantages to even "the lowest ranks".

This theory also did not devoid of limitations on the aspect that participants all had an interest in organisational survival was debatable as participants varied in interests generally. This view was supported by Hirschman (1970).

From an impartial view the objectionable feature of the power approach was that individuals were ultimately granted only instrumental worth.

Consumers, employees, and other participants took no importance only in so far as they could contribute to or threatened system survival. The danger was that this approach might sanctioned harsh practices that worked to the organisation's advantage, i.e. some individual's advantage, but not to the advantage of all participants which is a rationale for a power-based incentive system in the first place. This danger was also present when a collective consequence like organisational goal attainment system survival, revolution etc. were adopted as a surrogate for individual interests and the basis of participant value.

This theory could not overlook the intrinsic worth of individual persons.

SOCIAL JUSTICE APPROACH : Zammuto (1982) included the theories of Keeley (1978) and House (1980), both of them build on the ideas of John Rawls (1971). Such theories only explicitly applied the philosophical notions of justice to the problems of effectiveness. According to Rawls (1971), Justice and effectiveness are parallel concepts. Both represent a primary measure of social system value: "Justice is the first virtue of social institutions", just as "effectiveness is the ultimate question in any form of organisational analysis" Hall, 1980; p - 536).

So, 'principles of social justice provide a way of assigning rights and duties in the basic institutions of society and they define the appropriate distribution of the benefits and burdens of social cooperation (Rawls, 1971). Similarly, "effectiveness of an organisation is a socio-political question" (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978; p - 11) concerning "who wants what and how important is it that the demand be satisfied?"

"Conceptions of effectiveness fall within the broad scope of social justice" - this was not often realized by organisational theorists and some were uneasy about the overtly normative language of justice. (Connolly, Conlon and Deutsch (1980). But the connections between the concepts allow us to draw upon a long tradition of philosophical thought.

This social justice theory fall under criticism on the corresponding ideas of effectiveness, they failed to respect impartially the basic interests of participants in social systems (Rawk 1971). As a better understanding of the meaning of impartiality is to appreciate the demands of justice. Central to the meaning of impartiality is respect for persons (Taylor, 1978). In accordance with the requirement of an impartial norm for evaluating social systems (Taylor, 1978) an organisation could be considered just or effective to the extent that the basic

well being of each participant was given equal consideration in policy making and implementation. Equal consideration for the basic well-being of different persons might in fact be called for differential treatment also. Then, impartiality involved treating persons as equals, in contrast to treating them the same. The distinction reflected an assumption that some fundamental interests of persons (i.e. immunity from physical attack, access to employment opportunities etc.) deserved equal consideration.

Many theorists supported this view by saying that 'principles of justice expressing this priority includes Benn's (1967; p - 76) principle of equal of consideration of interests which "provides for the satisfaction of interests in order of urgency, every individual's claim being other wise equal". Rawls' (1971) difference principle, which provides for maximising the expectations of the least advantaged participants in a social system; and Keeley's (1978) minimization of regret principle, which provides for minimising the dissatisfaction of the most regretful organisational participants. This approach ignored the variability of participants' ends, did not guarantee impartiality. These theorists provided general direction for organisational improvement that fitted many of our normative intuitions.

Three views were considered by theorists and researchers for all the above discussed theories. According to collaborative views, 'theories like single goal effectiveness theories, classical utilitarian etc. treated conflicts among participant ends as unproblematic or at best, as of secondary importance'. For example, in traditional single-goal models of organisational effectiveness a profit-maximization view, it is assumed that participants shared very specific ends and non conflicting interests in higher, overall levels of goal attainment. These assumptions were empirically credible only in special cases, i.e. in small business or pressure groups etc; extending there assumptions to more complex organisations discounted legitimate interests in opposing outcomes.

On the other hand, collaborative views treated, the problem of conflicting participant ends more seriously. Theories like, social justice approach were evaluated on the basis of how fairly the interests of participants were balanced and satisfied.

This theory shared with utilitarianism the assumption that participants had only the most general end in common, namely subjective welfare (Sen, 1979) in contrast to utilitarianism, this general end was seen to pose important conflicts over its distribution.



Individuals preferred more rather than less welfare for themselves, though not necessarily for their social system as a whole. This theory rather displayed greater impartiality by allowing for more variability in preferences for specific outcomes.

Besides the above views, many philosophers put emphasis on 'Minimizing harm' effect through a harm-based theoretical view. This view suggested that, 'no persons should be subjected to serious harm by organisations in less controversial and potentially more impartial than other principles. Many philosophers noted that people are very different in what they aim for in social life, but very much alike in what they aim to avoid or find harmful (Baier, 1958; Walkins 1963; Popper, 1966). Associated harms generated by organisations could include industrial injuries, diseases from use of products or exposure of by-products, fraud, employment discrimination, to name a few. There, is also a considerable societal consensus on the seriousness of such harms (Maier and Short, 1982), and, as a matter of justice, everyone is entitled to avoid them. There is also an important asymmetry between organisational harm production and good production. The principle of harm minimization suggested, finally that organisationally produced harm was worth doing something about. It did not require people to be concerned only with avoiding harm.

Indeed any criterion of organisational effectiveness was hardly the sum and substance of virtue for individual persons. It allowed individuals to pursue a variety of personal goals and positive ideals of excellence. Theorists like Fried (1978), also gave contradictory views against this theory.

Finally, Connolly, Conlon and Deutsch (1980) related this view with the relativistic approach by saying that the prevalence of systematic harm, however, means that one's options are not limited to bias or relativism in evaluating organisations. If one is truly concerned with the welfare of all constituents with the organisation as a whole, there is good reason to look beyond positive outcomes in theory.

MAJOR CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK : A large number of conceptual frameworks were available in the field of organisational effectiveness. Only five of them could be considered from the effectiveness point of view. As these five were frequently referred to in the organisational literature.

According to Argyris (1962), 'organisations were effective if they were able to increase their outputs with constant or decreasing inputs over the period of time. In general, if the output was more in relation to input, at any given period of time, the organisation was said to be effective'.

This definition was applied in three areas : achieving objectives, maintaining the internal system and adopting to the external environment. So, effectiveness was the relationship between the outputs in these three areas over the inputs or energy used to perform these activities. Effectiveness in the area of maintenance of internal systems was defined in terms of people hired or trained over the resources used to perform these activities. In the third core area - adopting to the external environment effectiveness was defined in a similar manner. The more favourable the company - government relationship could be achieved with the same or decreasing resources, the greater the effectiveness in this core area.

The second frame work was being given by the eminent organisational psychologists Katz and Kahn. They defined effectiveness in terms of two components - efficiency and political effectiveness, the greater the organisational effect. Efficiency devoted how much of an input emerges as a product and how much absorbed by the system. Political efficiency was concerned with the short term maximization of the return to the organisation by having transactions with various outside agencies and groups, also with members of the organisation as well. Gaining materials at an advantageous price through bargaining tactics was leading to favourable legislation.

Thus political effectiveness increased short run profitability and could provide greater survival and growth opportunities through adaptability to the environment.

Thirdly, Seashore and Yuchman defined effectiveness in terms of its bargaining position. Effectiveness could be assessed in terms of how well the organisation could exploit its environment for acquiring scarce and valued resources. The bargaining position referred to the ability of the organisation to acquire resources. Energy in the form of human activities was also a resource. It was scarce, valued and universally required by all organisations. Other such universal resources included physical facilities, technology for the organisation's activities, and some commodity such as money.

So, maximization of bargaining position and procurement of resources were the two key elements in increasing effectiveness. The author made the distinction between the capacity of exploiting the environment and the idea of an optimum point in actually transacting with the environment. As it was indicated that, drawing too much from the environment could lead to depletion of resources and to organisational ineffectiveness.

Fourth framework was stated by Mohr who discussed the concept of goal by referring to outcomes referents, and constraints.

The emphasis on organisational effectiveness its determinants, and its measurement was quite marginal. The goal concept was, however, important that, it provided the criteria for assessment. So, Mohr referred to an intent to achieve some outcome whose direct referent was either the organisation itself as an institution or some aspect of the organisation's environment.

Last but not the least, James L. Price (1968) reviewed fifty studies and developed organisational. Effectiveness, a monograph that had explained variations in organisational Effectiveness. Effectiveness was explained in terms of the degree to which the goal had been achieved. Things like morale, conformity, adaptiveness, etc. were viewed as indicators of effectiveness. In a subsequent paper, Price suggested the distinction between efficiency and effectiveness. The above five important conceptual frameworks did not provide comprehensive views of organisational effectiveness.

Firstly, these frameworks failed to explain precisely the processes of input, transformation and outcome which were the essential ingredients of organisational effectiveness.

Secondly, these frameworks did not sharply define and distinguish between efficiency and effectiveness.

Thirdly, the conceptual framework did not clearly specify internal and external determinants of effectiveness. Besides, that, there was no real specification of the role of environment in determining organisational effectiveness in particular.

#### CRITERIA FOR ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Organisations were considered effective if relevant constraints could be satisfied and to the degree that organisational results approximated or exceeded a set of referents for multiple outcomes.

Constraints appeared in organisations as policy statements or decision rules governing behaviour. Statements i.e. maintaining market share and percent, maintaining quality, not doing business in foreign countries requiring political kickbacks etc. Failure to meet constraints represented a state of organisational effectiveness.

'Outcomes' referred to the desired end states or goals. Both outcomes and constraints were considered for measuring effectiveness. Organisational constraints and outcomes, however, differed in two respects. The important distinction was that outcome may or may not approximate a referent whereas constraints must be satisfied as a necessary condition for organisational effectiveness.

So, degree of organisational effectiveness could be assessed by the degree to which results of an outcome (e.g., sales) approximated or exceeded referent.

'Referents' were the standards against which constraints and outcomes were evaluated. The actual results when compared to these referents provided a measure of organisational effectiveness. Referents could be classified as internal or external, static or dynamic to the organisation. Internal referents were unique to the given organisation while external referents referred to standards based on information from other organisations. On the other hand, a static referent referred to a particular point in time, the dynamic concerned rate of change over time.

So, evaluating organisational effectiveness was a complex process since multiple constraints and outcomes must be specified. It was highly unlikely that one could evaluate effectiveness with a single criterion. For each constraint or outcome multiple referents might be assigned. Thorndike, (1949; p.121) proved that 'in practice, the complete ultimate criterion is rarely, if, ever, available for use in psychological research. Similarly, Brogden and Taylor (1950) had also suggested the combination of varied criteria into a single measure of profits versus costs to the organisation. A bunch of researchers approved the use of multiple criterion.

To mention only a few studies as examples. We can refer to studies done by Ewart, Seashore and Tiffin, (1941); Rush (1953); Grant (1955); Stark (1959); Seashore, Indik and Georgopoulos (1960); Forehand (1963); Ronan (1963); Schutz and Siegel (1964); Wiley (1964); Seigel and Pfeiffer (1965); and Kirchner (1966). Almost all of them reported multidimensionality of criteria.

So, the task in evaluating effectiveness was of comparing actual results with the referents imbedded in the constraints or relevant outcomes. It was also a relative activity. Mainly as proved by researchers, when several dimensions are involved, several sets of criteria or composites will be required.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF CRITERIA :

The dictionary (Funk and Wagnalls, 1963) defined a criterion as a "standard or rule by which a judgement can be made". In organisational psychology, it has come to mean predicted measure for judging the effectiveness of organisations, persons, predictors of behaviour, results and organisational effectiveness.

The criteria can be defined into three dimensional frame work basing on the findings of literature. The first dimension was 'the time span covered', second was the degree of specificity of the criterion (as related to the aspect of multidimensionality), the third was the closeness to organisational goals.



(i) TIME SPAN COVERED : Criterion measures could be obtained either very soon after actual on-the-job behaviour occur or many years afterwards. The same criterion measure could involve different behaviours and abilities at different times. It had been long known (Kornhauser, 1923; Blankenship and Taylor, 1938; McGehee, 1948; Smith and Gold, 1956) that performance early in the learning period didn't necessarily correlate highly with performance later. More recent studies substantiated those findings (Ghiselli and Haire, 1960; Bass, 1962; Prien, 1966; Mackinney, 1967)" This time span dimension has implications for the prediction of criterion measures. Changes in the short run situation e.g. bonus for attendance, could be expected to be reflected only in such short-term behaviours as absences and tardiness, and not necessarily in long term job satisfaction (e.g. promotion). There should be a match between the time span (i.e. manipulation or a predictor to the time span of criterion measure).

SPECIFICITY : Criteria varied also in their specificity generality. Some might referred to very specific aspects of behaviours (or effectiveness) on the job where as others gave a summary estimate. The multidimensionality of criteria will be relevant here. Besides, the time span, criteria could differ in the specificity with which they referred to descriptions of preformance versus to global estimates.

(Flanagon, 1954; Brogden and Taylor, 1950). There were implications for prediction and manipulation. Since these were multiple factors causing change in general performance, change in a single variable could not be expected to have much effect on a general criterion.

CLOSENESS TO ORGANISATIONAL GOALS : Most important in classifying criteria was the dimension that concerned the closeness of the decisions in relation to organisational and societal goals. Organisational goals such as economic stability, growth, flexibility and societal goals such as contribution toward individual well-being and growth economic and social vitality of the community, and general productivity were the kinds of goals toward which our efforts were directed. But, all these above were not taken into consideration as dependent variables in which investigators were interested.

Due to certain limitation e.g. lack of sufficient financial support to the investigators for these types of investigation was one important reason. For that organisations and society were deprived of long term projects and favoured short-term project evaluation which might "pay off" sooner.

So, mainly this dimension involved, first, the combination of specific human behaviour into generalizations about results (i.e. ratings or summary personnel statistics, Gulon, 1961), and second, the combination of a number of these generalizations to evaluate their impact on organisations individuals, or society. Both the above steps involved much more problems. The step from results to organisational effectiveness was also large. If results which were not really important to organisational goals were given weightage to make adjustment then the criterion was contaminated. But, if relevant aspects were omitted, the criterion was deficient (Ghiselli and Brown, 1955).

Besides, only a small portion of the research had been concerned with the industrial problems for practical reasons to a large extent.

Considering the drawbacks of the above mentioned criterion, researchers put emphasis on the direct observation of behaviours of the individuals. As the criteria were seldom proved to be actual records of behaviour, the behaviour "slab" was not heavily represented. In this context, early in the year 1949 Flanagan established a critical incidents technique, in which specific job behaviours, critical to satisfactory or unsatisfactory performance were elicited by interviews of superiors, subordinates, and co-workers.

Then they were translated into a check list of behaviours actually observed and these incidents could be summed up to obtain an overall evaluation. This technique was proved to be especially useful with personnel on whom a large number of incidents could be observed.

Later researchers like Kirchner and Dunnette (1957) have used critical incidents with favourable results among others. Another example of criterion measurement on the behaviour was the interesting technique of Whitlock, Clouse and Spencer, (1963) in which observers tallied accident behaviours, or unsafe performances. They reported high reliability for accident data but a relatively low correlation with actual injuries. The records of actual job behaviours were considered important before the process of selective recall by many researchers. They emphasised on three important approaches of the observation of actual behaviours.

(1) One approach was to ask observers to record atleast sketchy notes on their observations on the job, expecting them merely to note a date and some reminder of the incident with some generalizations (Smith and Kendall, 1963). The job anecdote file suggested by Guion (1965) is similar with the above approach.

(2) The second approach was to place a special observer into the situation with no duty except to observe and record.

The observer had to behave as if a participant having no difference from any other worker (McGehee and Owen, 1940). The use of an observer greatly improved the quality of the observed data but was costly and might disrupt the customary activities of the people being observed.

(3) The third approach was to take the person being rated the job to a special situation. It had been used successfully for evaluating proficiency in maintenance checking (Besnard and Briggs, 1967) in which no difference was observed in errors between the simulator and the operational equipment groups. This technique showed significant relationships to ratings from higher management (Meyer, 1970). It was a promising type of criterion at the managerial level. So it can be marked that, valid ratings or evaluation of the meaning of so-called objective or "hard" criteria cannot be made without careful observation.

The results contained two sets of criteria.

(i) the "hard" criteria obtained from organisational records such as absences rate and turnover, and (ii) the "soft" criteria obtained from subjective ratings such as job satisfaction.

#### HARD CRITERIA :

(1) Tardiness : It was a shortterm specific criterion. Its short term characteristics were emphasized by one of the very few studies using tardiness as a criteriaon. (Mueser, 1953).

(2) Absences : Absences could be measured in a number of different ways. Many studies showed the relationship of absences with the criterion measure. Absences of the individual in the organisation may be for many reasons. Kerr, Koppelman, and Sullivan (1951) found a correlation of  $-.44$  between unexcused absences and job satisfaction, while total absences correlated  $.51$  with job satisfaction. Metzner and Mann, (1953) also found frequency of absence superior as a criterion to the actual days lost. House and Taylor (1962) reported that the total absence frequency was the most reliable absence measure.

Many studies also indicated the effect of situational factors on the rate of absences. Behrend (1953) pointed out that absence rate was affected by labour market conditions at the time. Stark (1959) pointed out that absences might be a function of factors beyond the control by managers. On the other hand, Argyle, Gardner, and Cioffi (1958) noted that absenteeism was not related to either turnover or productivity (using departments as the units of analysis). So, this criteria of absence should not be expected to relate closely with the long term organisational goals.

Accidents : Ghiselli and Brown (1955; p. 344) pointed out that accidents measure was not important to some organisational goals.

As the problem was that, most accidents were beyond any person's control. Accidents statistics based on group data were more reliable. In this context, Daniels and Edgerton (1954) validated ratings by superior against the percent of damaged vehicles in motor units, and found a significant relationship. But Ronan (1963) showed contradictory findings from the above results. The problem of the base for accident figures was less than that for absence figures. So, accidents were relatively immediate, specific results.

**Turnover :** Turnover was related to the alternative job openings that were available (Behrend, 1959; Tiffin and Pholan, 1953; Stark, 1959) and might reflect factors beyond the control of management. It was apparently not related to absences, but related to productivity (Argyle, Gardner, and Cioffi, 1958). It should be considered important because of its obvious relationship to costs, returns and to organisational goals.

**SALES :** Rush (1953) found factors in fifteen scales, measuring sales knowledge and performance in different ways, three of those involved different measures of sales.

Studies of differences of groups showed good reliability of measures of group turnover and sales productivity per men (Weitz and Nuckolas, 1953). This criterion generally would appear to be a fairly long-term and fairly general.

PRODUCTION : Many researchers proved that direct measures of output would seem to be closest to organisational goals and a most desirable criteria to be used. They were short term and moderately general.

Time study of the jobs must precede the setting of standard rates of production, it must include some rating of the effort and skill of the person who is observed and timed (Krick, 1962). The rating was rife with errors of rating (Argyle, Gardner and Ciotti, 1958; Lifson, 1953; Ryan 1947). These errors were perhaps one reason for which records of production had not proven to be as popular for criterion purposes as was once hoped (Schultz and Siegel, 1961).

JOB LEVEL AND PROMOTIONS : Promotion as a valid criteria was limited by the fact that many factors other than performance might affect promotions. i.e., Political expediency, organisational structure, labour market conditions, etc. Actually as per the research findings in organisational situation, promotions were frequently not based on performance evaluation, rather other informal evaluations might reflect many situational factors. (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick 1970).

SALARY : Early in the year 1924, Bingham and Davis and Gifford (1928) used salary as a criterion. The recognition of the importance of years on the job appeared explicitly somewhat later.



Jaques (1961) examined, for a number of employees, their salary gains and computed lines of best fit for persons starting at a given initial level. Relationship between obtained curves and extrapolated curves were found impressive. Years seem to be related curvilinearly nearly to gains in salary, but more importantly, the relationship seems <sup>to be</sup> predictable. He suggested that, it took a major change in job level to break the steady normal progression of salary with age. Since many factors like internal politics, etc. besides individual merit might influence salary this criterion represented a long-term, global result.

SOFT CRITERIA : It is clear that the above described hard criteria involved some objective components. Human judgements entered into every criterion from productivity to salary increases. Merit ratings as well as evaluation of causes, involved also a subjective evaluation. In this process some common errors existed. Here many rating procedures developed to reduce these errors.

There were mainly three types of errors i.e.  
(i) Common error, (ii) Distribution error, and  
(iii) Inter-correlational errors.

Besides that, rating scales could be classified along each of the dimension proposed for criteria and scales could be constructed to fit any of the cells discussed.

They could be directed toward very short or very long time spans and used only to estimate overall performance. They could be directed toward behaviour or toward organisational goals.

The effectiveness of an organisational depends to the extent it satisfies organisational goals in terms of criteria.