CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As a part of the study, the following theoretical concepts were studied as these are the basic concepts upon which the entire study depends. For analyzing the behavioral factors of bureaucratic organizations, study of the following factors is of immense value and thus before proceeding further the following aspects were relied upon.

2.1 Administrative Situations and Its Description

The fuzzy boundary problem compounded bureaucratic organizations practical difficulties. Bureaucratic Organization in the Wilsonian tradition, built its case for strong administration on the assumption that it could devise strategies for the elected officials to oversee administrative decisions effectively. These strategies depend on drawing clear boundaries between the policy making and policy administration. Meanwhile, the number of boundaries with in the system multiplied and became fuzzier thus can be equated to science. Before a science can develop principles, it must possess concepts. The first task of administrative theory is to develop a set of concepts that will permit the description, in terms relevant to the theory, of administrative situations. These concepts, to be scientifically useful, must be operational; that is, their meanings must correspond to

empirically observable facts or situations. The definition of "authority" is an example of an operational definition (Gulick, 2005).

The scientifically relevant description of an organization means a description that, so far as possible, designates for each person in the organization what decisions that person makes, and the influences to which he is subjected in making each of these decisions. Current descriptions of administrative organizations fall far short of this standard. For the most part, they confine themselves to the allocation of functions, and the formal structure of authority. They give little attention to the other types of organizational influence or to the system of communication (Wendell, 1997).

Bureaucrats as well as the competing approaches to administrative theory, all must grapple with the application of power. They must do so in the setting of political institutions and the crossfire of political conflicts. By necessity, that means that they must wrestle with the enduring administrative traditions of democracy. The big issues of administrative theory constantly present themselves in new ways, but they inevitably must deal with the big puzzles:

- How strong should the bureaucratic function be?

- Should the executive exercise its influence from the top down or bottom up?

- Should administrative theory focus on hierarchical relationships with in the bureaucracy?

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- How should the Bureaucrats connect with the other political
institutions in the balance-of-power system?

Theoretical solutions to the above situations are proved to be
short lived. The bureaucrats self consciously sought to drive
Administration by the models of market like, self interested behavior.
In fact the reformers cash upon the principal agent theory, to the
point that phrases like moral hazard and adverse selection regularly
popped up in conversations among bureaucrats and the officials at
different levels in Bureaucratic Organizations (Drummond, 1997).
What does it mean, for example, to say: "The Department is made up
of three Bureaus having different functions". What can be inferred
from such a description about the workability of the organizational
arrangement? Very little, indeed. From the description, there is
obtained no idea of the degree to which decisions are centralized at
the bureau level or at the departmental level. No notion is given of the
extent to which the (presumably unlimited) authority of the
department over the bureau is actually exercised, or by what
mechanisms. There is no indication of the extent to which systems of
communication do not assist the coordination of the three bureaus,
nor, for that matter to what extent coordination is required by the
nature of their work. There is no description of the kinds of training
the members of the bureau have undergone, nor the extent to which
this training permits decentralization at the bureau level. In sum, a
description of administrative organizations in terms almost exclusively

of functions and lines of authority is completely inadequate for purposes of administrative analysis (Drummond, 1997).

Since the present study pertains to the role of behavioral factors in the administrative functionary which centers around administrative situations and its description, this issue is reviewed.

2.2   Administrative Situation and Its Diagnosis

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to digress a bit, and to consider more closely the exact nature of the propositions of administrative theory. The theory of administration is concerned with how an organization should be constructed and operated in order to accomplish its work efficiently. A fundamental principle of administration, which follows almost immediately form the rational character of "good" administration, is that among several alternatives involving the same expenditure the one should always be selected which leads to the greatest accomplishment of administrative objectives; and among several alternatives that lead to the same accomplishment the one should be selected which involves the least expenditure. Since this "principle of efficiency" is characteristic of any activity that attempts rationally to maximize the attainment of certain ends with the use of scarce means, it is as characteristic of economic theory as it is of administrative theory (Simon, 1995). The "administrative man" takes his place alongside the classical "economic man."

Actually, the "principle" of efficiency should be considered as a definition rather than a principle: it is a definition of what is meant by "good" or "correct" administrative behavior. It does not tell how accomplishments are to be maximized, but merely states that this maximization is the aim of administrative activity, and that administrative theory must disclose under what conditions the maximization takes place (Horrocks, 1997).

It is difficult to make an exhaustive list of the factors that determine the level of efficiency, which is achieved by an administrative (Bureaucratic) organization, but the principal categories can be enumerated. Perhaps the simplest method of approach is to consider the single member of the administrative organization, and ask what the limits are to the quantity and quality of his output. These limits include (a) limits on his ability to perform, and (b) limits on his ability to make correct decisions (Prasad, 2006). To the extent that these limits are removed, the administrative organization approaches its goal of high efficiency. Two persons, given the same skills, the same objectives and values, the same knowledge and information, can rationally decide only upon the same course of action. Hence, administrative theory must be interested in the factors that will determine with what skills, values, and knowledge the organization member undertakes his work. These are the "limits" to rationality with which the principles of administration must deal.

Since the present study pertains to the role of behavioral factors in the administrative functionary which centers around administrative situations diagnosis of which are important, this issue is reviewed.

2.3 Behaviorism

Behaviorism, an alternative theoretical explanation of the cause of behavior, is conceptually simpler than motivational theory. Behaviorism looks to behavior and its consequences, periodically. It has no concept of motivation or of any supposed inner needs or mental processes.

Behaviorism does have some key concepts, and it can be described briefly. The instant aim is not to provide a thorough explanation of all of the concepts and controversies in this important branch of psychology, but merely to sketch an outline of behaviorism of the working force of bureaucratic organization those are discharging their duties being a part and partial of the strata of different levels. This outline of the following key concepts will permit to show some of behaviorism's implications for managing the affairs of Bureaucratic Organizations. Positive reinforcement is the behaviorists' term relating to the process in which pleasant consequences follow some behavior and the behavior occurs more frequently. This experience and expertise leads to Precedence, which is followed in most of the Bureaucratic Organizations (Simon, 1985).

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Further he emphasizes that negative reinforcement the behaviorists' term is used in which pleasant consequences follow some behavior, and the behavior occurs more frequently for the process in which unpleasant consequences are removed after some behavioral change in an individual and the changed behavior occurs more frequently in the future. It is an idea that requires a bit of concentration to avoid confusion with punishment. If the clam reception of the discontented employees and his way of setting in motion a process of investigation removes the unpleasant situation and problems are handled more frequently (calmly and reasonably), then the behavior is negatively reinforced. This aspect is not given much weightage in most of the Bureaucratic Organizations.

Punishment describes the case in which an unpleasant consequence follows the behavior. This carrot –stick approach is followed in most of the Bureaucratic Organizations.

Extinction occurs when behavior is followed by no consequence, pleasant, removed unpleasantness, or unpleasantness and nothing happens. The behavior, theoretically, having neither been reinforced, positively or negatively, nor punished, occurs less frequently in the future eventually doesn't occur at all in most of the Bureaucratic Organizations.

Since the present study pertains to the role of behavioral factors in the administrative functionary which centers around the behavior pattern of the social actors, this issue is reviewed.

2.4 Behavioral Factors and Organization Development

While a formal organization structure and formal job definitions are important in organization development, human behavior does not always conform to formal organization patterns, nor are working relationships always established by responsibility definitions, lines on an organization chart, or integrating organization positions. Human beings often form their own organization groups and establish their own working relationships-both for personal and business reasons (Berelson, 1997).

An executive is ought to examine the specific existing and anticipated behavioral factors, which might effect organizational development. Based on this situation analysis, the ways to adjust the organization plan to meet the critical behavioral requirements can be studied (Vineeth, 2006).

Emergent group behavior can affect organizational development in many ways. Where emergent behavior conflicts with formal organization patterns, conflicts will often arise.

It is often possible to anticipate and take advantage of expected emergent group behavior patterns. For example, in some situations involving either temporary or permanent tasks, which cut across organization lines, it may be the best to recognize and encourage special group formations by formally establishing task-teams. If these teams are given specific objectives, and have the necessary skills and

information needed to get the job done, then they can be effective. By formally establishing such teams, management recognizes that such a group would eventually form anyway informally, gives better direction to its formation, and helps overcome any resentment which might arise from conflicts among the informal group and existing formal organization units (Hammel, 2006).

Many kinds of organization adjustments can also be made to reduce inter group conflicts. For example, in one situation where a design unit (a high status group) is required to deal frequently with a production unit on the shop floor (a low status group which shared few values with the higher status group), conflict is avoided by assigning a small production unit permanently to the design group to produce designs (Wilson, 1999). In this case an integrating unit was not established, but integration was achieved by greater departmentation of the production function.

Individual needs are not as easy to satisfy through organization adjustments, because a business is by definition a group and group involvement is only one of the many ways in which individual needs are satisfied (Harvey, 2001).

1. Wherever possible large groups should be broken down into smaller groups in order to allow informal social groups (which are usually small) to form around work groups and so reinforce work goals.

2. Wherever possible one should avoid isolating individuals from the rest of the organization, in order to permit on-the-job social contacts among individuals.

3. Specialization should not be carried too far. If an assembly line is segmented to a degree that each station becomes so routine and monotonous a job that an individual can become bored, the individual may fail to perform the job well.

4. Reciprocal exchanges should be encouraged within the organization. Someone who is always taking orders, and who is exposed to very few situations in which his knowledge and experience dominates, will find very few ego satisfactions on the job. Mostly, in Bureaucratic Organizations new managers are given authority and responsibility within the limits of their position and experience.

5. Steps can also be taken to increase the status of a job and so the individual's feeling of pride about the job. While position titles should a true reflection of the jobs to be performed, a little imagination in writing a title can enhance its prestige. In the same vein, one should consider the prestige attached in the corporate hierarchy. The higher in the executive ladder a man reports to, the higher the prestige he enjoys in his job. Some thought should, therefore, be

given to the affect on prestige of the addition of new supervisory positions.

While there are limitations to just how far one can go in adjusting organization structures and job definitions to meet behavior requirements, many steps can be taken to improve the working relationships and integration within an organization. These steps can be taken more intelligently if the executive has a good working knowledge of individual, work group and inter group behavior patterns (Vineeth, 2006).

To improve the quality of the employee customer interaction, organizations must conduct both short-term, transactional interventions (such as coaching) and long-term, transformational ones (such as changing the processes for hiring and promotion). In addition, the company's organizational structure often must be adjusted so that the employee-customer encounter can be managed holistically (Drummond, 1997). Human Sigma grew out of a multiyear, research-based initiative designed to map the terrain of the employee-customer encounter.

Since the present study pertains to the role of behavioral factors in the administrative functionary which centers around the behavior pattern of the social actors which influence the organization development whether bureaucratic or otherwise, this issue is reviewed.

2.5 Behavior Alternatives

Behavioral factors are many and are grouped immensely with out following any mathematical formulae of Combination. If any one of the possible strategies is chosen and followed out, certain consequences will result. The task of rational decision is to select that one of the strategies which is followed by the preferred set of consequences. It should be emphasized that all the consequences that follow from the chosen strategy are relevant to the evaluation of its correctness, not simply those consequences that were anticipated. Policymakers now need to know how human resources (HR) are managed in different regions of the world and how their counterparts in different parts of the globe perceive or react to similar concepts and pressures. It is also important to have an understanding about the main determinants of HRM policies and practices in different regional and national settings. Academics have responded positively to meet the challenges raised by the globalization of business by investigating a number of issues and problems related to international business (Horrocks, 2001).

The task of decision involves three steps: (1) the listing of all the alternative strategies; (2) the determination of all the consequences that follow upon each of these strategies; (3) the comparative evaluation of these sets of consequences. The word "all" is used advisedly. It is obviously impossible for the individual to know all his alternatives of all their consequences, and this impossibility is a very

important departure of actual behavior from the model of objective rationality.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, this issue is reviewed.

2.6 Behavior and Time

This time-binding character of strategies deserves the greatest emphasis, for it makes possible at least a modicum of rationality in behavior, where, without it, this would be inconceivable.

Often Emotions Frame the Encounter Six Sigma processes which are data driven, rational, and analytic. They focus on conformance to requirements, which are generally specified in functional terms. Does the product have any defects? Is it delivered on time? Widespread use of Six Sigma and TQM methodologies has resulted in vastly improved product quality over the past two decades. Inspired by these improvements, businesses have tried to apply Six Sigma principles in sales and service settings. Research in two very different fields - neuroscience and behavioral economics - has established quite clearly that people base their decisions on a complicated mixture of emotion and reason. Indeed, recent work suggests that emotions may play a larger role than analysis. Results from a large and growing number of case studies suggest that "extremely satisfied" customers (people who provide the highest rating of overall satisfaction with a company's products and services) fall into

two distinct groups: those who have a strong emotional connection to the company and those who do not (Fleming et. al, 2005). Here the time factor is of prime importance in regulating the behavior of the producer of goods and services as well as the customers.

Since the present study is behavioral factor oriented, this issue is reviewed.

2.7 Behavior and Knowledge

It has already been remarked that the bureaucratic organizations function with a set of rules, regulations and delegations with in the budgetary provision with perfect rationality, no matter how stringent each alternative strategy is. One needs to know in every single respect how the world would be changed by his behaving one way instead of another and he would have to follow the consequences of behavior through unlimited stretches of time, unlimited reaches of space, and unlimited sets of values. Under such conditions even an approach to rationality in real behavior would be in conceivable.

In one respect the decision problem in Non Bureaucratic organizations is much simpler than in Bureaucratic organizations. The Non-Bureaucratic organizations are expected to take into consideration only those consequences of the decision, which affect it, while the Bureaucratic organizations must weigh the decision in terms of some comprehensive system of public or community values. This distinction between Bureaucratic organizations and Non-Bureaucratic

organizations is hardly one of black and white, for an increasing number of Bureaucratic organizations are becoming "affected with a public interest," and an increasing number of Non-Bureaucratic organizations are concerning themselves with their responsibilities of trusteeship toward the community, even beyond the limits that the law imposes on them (Krasner et. al. 2002).

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors which influence the knowledge, this issue is reviewed.

2.8 Behavior in Groups

It was Daniel Goleman who first brought the term "emotional intelligence" to a wide audience with his 1995 book of that name, and it was Coleman who first applied the concept to business. Emotional intelligence operates at work. The relationship between emotional intelligence and effective performance was established. Most large companies today have employed trained psychologists to develop what are known as "competency models" to aid them in identifying, training, and promoting likely stars in the leadership firmament. It was established that, intellect was a driver of outstanding performance. Cognitive skills such as big-picture thinking and long-term vision were particularly important. But when the ratio of technical skills, IQ, and emotional intelligence as ingredients of excellent performance were calculated, emotional intelligence proved to be twice as important as the others for jobs at all levels. Moreover,

analysis showed that emotional intelligence played an increasingly important role at the highest levels of the company, where differences in technical skills are of negligible importance, in other words, the higher the rank of a person considered to be a star performer, the more emotional intelligence capabilities showed up as the reason for his or her effectiveness. When a comparison of star performers with average ones in senior leadership positions was made, nearly 90% of the difference in their profiles was attributable to emotional intelligence factors rather than cognitive abilities (Goleman D,1998).

It is further established that:

a. Bureaucratic organizations follow systems of cooperative behavior. The members of the organization are expected to orient their behavior with respect of certain goals that are taken as "organization objectives." This leaves the problem of coordinating their behavior-of providing each one with knowledge of the behaviors of the others upon which he can base his own decisions.

b. If the activity is competitive, then, it may exhibit certain instability, for each individual will readjust his behavior if he "finds out" the intentions of his opponent or even as a defensive tactic to prevent the opponent from finding out his own. But this same instability may result even if the activity is cooperative, provided the participants are insufficiently informed.

Psychologically distant events are construed in a more abstract and de-contextualized manner and are identified more by their purpose than by their specifics. Second, psychologically distant outcomes are likely to have a lower intrinsic value than psychologically close outcomes. Finally, behaviors that aim to influence psychologically distant outcomes are related to empowerment, promotion focus, and organizational identification, all of which inspire employees to take an active role in improving themselves and their work environment. This is in contrast to safety behaviors focused on psychologically close outcomes, which are motivated by a desire to maintain stability and avoid harm to one self. Using this framework, behaviors with the most psychologically close outcomes are those that impact oneself immediately, whereas those that are the most psychologically distant are those that impact others and have delayed outcomes. This four-dimensional structure is a potential augmentation of the two-dimensional compliance-participation structure (Wilson, 1999).

Much of the organization's innovation oriented procedures were organized in projects handled by highly autonomous "multi-skilled" teams. The fluid innovation-oriented environment was furthermore seen to make traditional bureaucratic control inappropriate. Instead the culture – the so-called "high trust culture" – was seen as an important means of integration. As far as possible a "naturalistic inquiry" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) was pursued that intervened as little as possible in the practices studied. The ambition was to account

for how work was structured and authority distributed, the techniques of control deployed, and the effects following from these control techniques. Basically three main techniques were used to construct "data":

1. reading and analyzing written material;

2. loosely structured interviews; and

3. participant observation.

The study focused on two main issues. How was the seemingly non-hierarchical and organically structured organization controlled, and in that connection, what was the nature of the "freedom" individuals appeared to hold? The managerial discourse typically suggests that post-bureaucratic organizations, by freeing individuals from the shackles of bureaucracy, building their modes of operation around people and organic social formations, emerge as fine soils for growing trust-based cultures (Adler, 2001).

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors and the functioning of the bureaucratic organization depends upon the functioning of groups, this issue is reviewed.

2.9   Bureaucratic Strategies

Political leaders evolve the policies for the betterment of the citizens which hardly have any strategic alternatives. These policies are administered by the bureaucrats. The range of options open to

bureaucrats is more limited, as is their ability to exercise choices independent of their political superiors. Still, there are options available to the holders of civil service posts and their expertise experience and often their legal position provides them with important bargaining chips for getting what they want from democratization (Kenneth, 2006).

In recent years an increasing number of works have pointed to the demise of the bureaucratic organization and the emergence of a new post-bureaucratic form of organization – referred to as the entrepreneurial or networked-shaped organization. Two apparently contrasting images of post-bureaucratic organizations have come to dominate the literature. One, constructed by management theory, reveals post-bureaucracy as a form of organization that has made a distinct break with the bureaucratic legacy. For the sake of flexibility post-bureaucracy is alleged to emancipate individuals from the formalistic constraints of bureaucracy, arranging them instead in organic and fluid networks. The other, constructed by critical management theory, reveals a form of organization that is only superficially more emancipating than the bureaucratic organization it replaces. Under the surfaces of these networked-shaped organizations one supposedly find less apparent but no less disciplinary technologies of control, which set as their targets not individuals' direct behavior, but their thoughts, emotions and identities. Even though the managerial literature on post-bureaucracy is diverse it is possible to discern two general assumptions: post-bureaucratic

organizations are better represented as networks than as hierarchies (Child et. al. 2001).

Two main reasons are typically used to account for this networked and anti-bureaucratic stance. On the one hand, the literature more or less repeats the point of critical humanism (Adorno and Horkheimer, 1972) that bureaucracy is a mechanism of oppression, which degrades human dignity and inhibits emancipation. It is argued that, whereas bureaucracies are built on distinct splits between work and leisure, reason and emotion, pleasure and duty, etc., post-bureaucracies are all of a piece. Hence, post-bureaucracies are suggested to be morally superior to their bureaucratic predecessors (Child et. al. 2001). On the other hand, the literature also points out that bureaucracies' ways of constraining individual freedom also give rise to functional limitations. The hierarchical and impersonal structures of bureaucracies are claimed to make them stale and sluggish and unable to handle contemporary markets' demand for constant innovation. In contrast, the flat and organic structures of post-bureaucracies make them creative and capable of molding themselves to the variety of new problems they face (Adler, 2001).

Through emancipating principles the organization may supposedly win individuals' trust and commitment, thereby generating the vitality and flexibility needed to cope with the radical uncertainty brought about by global capitalism and postmodern culture. But how is coordination achieved in this emancipating

understanding of the post-bureaucratic organization? In contrast to bureaucracies, where the social structure is seen as based on an artificial and hierarchical role system, which force individuals into specified patterns of interaction, the social structure in the post-bureaucratic organizations is seen as founded on an "organic" communitarian system (Adler, 2001; Kanter, 1990). More specifically, it is made up from webs of affect-laden relationships among individuals, relationships based on personal loyalties that interweave and reinforce one another. Furthermore, these relationships are anchored in a commitment to a set of values, norms, and meanings, which are rooted in a shared history and identity (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1997). From this perspective individuals who (are allowed to) participate as members or associates in a post-bureaucratic organization would do so because they are committed to and constitutive of the basic values and norms that permeate organizational activities. They do not feel restrained by general and role specific rules defining proper conduct, they feel empowered to act spontaneously by a shared sense of belonging to the community or communities making up the organization (Adler, 2001). An important implication of this idea of community-based organizations is that it makes it less important whether or not individuals and activities are properly inside or outside the orbit of the formal organization.

Through team work combined with sophisticated recruitment procedures, trainee programs, a continuous emphasis of hyper competition (which makes continuous adaptations and improvements

mandatory), etc., management is seen to "engineer" an organizational culture and identity, which impels individuals to take responsibility to rationalize and intensify their own work activities, i.e. "to work smarter to work harder" (Barnard, 1968). The target of this control is not individuals' behavior, but their emotional commitments, modes of thinking and identities. What this is implies, the critical discourse argues, are those organizations sought to take over the very selves of individuals. As stated by Barnard "the organization becomes a substitute for living one's own life, when the organization enhances its centrality in the lives of its employees, and when we accept unfreedom as freedom, the indoctrination can become so powerful that the emotional refusal to go along appears neurotic". Hence, an all-pervasive control is alleged of being exercised in which "negative divergences from expected behavior and management defined norms" are squeezed out (Delbridge, 1995).

In addition to its moral implications, bureaucracy gave rise to important "functional" implications. By disengaging itself from the compound totality of people's lives, bureaucracy opened up greater opportunities than pre-modern organizations to reshuffle and reorganize flexibly their elements in response to changes (Kallinikos, 2003). A role is by far less complex than a person is. It can be designed, modified, adapted, abandoned, or repositioned in response to the emerging technical, social, and economic changes an organization faces. Since roles are taken, interpreted and carried out by persons there are of course human limits to the flexible remaking

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of organizational roles. The first option for a bureaucrat facing a regime change is to 'exit'.

At the other end of the continuum are cases in which public servants hang on to positions even in the face of opposition, or distrust, from the new political leaders. This is, of course, not possible when there is a radical regime change associated with constitutional changes, but would be possible as long as there are continuing statutes protecting individual bureaucrats. This strategy may be undertaken for purely personal and economic reasons, but it might also be undertaken for policy reasons. The public servants from an earlier government may choose to fight a rearguard action against a new government and a new ideology, and use their (relatively) entrenched position to do so. Of course, it is also difficult for a regime to get much accomplished with indifferent public servants. New governments in regimes with frequent changes – by democratic means or not – may encounter this indifference form individual bureaucrats (Vishwanath, 1996).

Throughout most of the twentieth century, organizations maintained a tacit agreement with their employees that as long as they were generally productive and loyal, their jobs and a reasonable pension plan was guaranteed. This value proposition was often referred to as the 'loyalty contract'. This is more so in a bureaucratic set up (Lawler Edward E., 2005).

It is fatal defect of the current principles of administration that, like proverbs, they occur in pairs. For almost every principle one can find an equally plausible and acceptable contradictory principle. Although the two principles of the pair will lead to exactly opposite organizational recommendations, there is nothing in the theory to indicate which is the proper one to apply. To substantiate this criticism, it is necessary to examine briefly some of the leading principles followed in Bureaucratic Organizations (Drummond, 1997):

1. Administrative efficiency is increased by a specialization of the task among the group.

2. Administrative efficiency is increased by arranging the members of the group in a determinate hierarchy of authority.

3. Administrative efficiency is increased by limiting the span of control at any point in the hierarchy to a small number.

4. Administrative efficiency is increased by grouping the working force, for purposes of control, according to (a) purpose, (b) process, (c) clientele, or (d) place (e) behavioral pattern. (This is really an elaboration of the first principle, but attracts separate attention.)

Since these principles appear relatively simple and clear, the researcher feels that their application to concrete problems of Bureaucratic organization would be unambiguous, and that their validity would be easily submitted to empirical test.

However bureaucratic organizations have their own constraints and as such often are not able to rise to the occasion. Those are lack of mission statement, underfinanced, poorly trained, inappropriately organized, and generally overmatched by the scale, immediacy, uncertainties and intensity of disaster events and their resulting social, economic, and political impacts. The need for massive coordination of both internal governmental and nongovernmental agencies is lacking thereby effect service delivery to the stake holders (Lenneal J. Henderson, 2006).

Since the present study pertains primarily to the bureaucratic organization, this issue is reviewed.

2.10 Bureaucratic Polity

Bureaucratic organizations tend to adopt relatively conventional attitudes to time and space. Hours of work are often contracted and subject to strict rules for variation while work are often organized within a specific space, the office or factory. The workspace is constructed and hours-of-work defined. Knorr Cetina and Bruegger (2002) describe the simultaneity of the local and the global in the context of currency traders. Other writers have identified that this linking of the "global and local . . . in post-bureaucratic discourse" can be traced back at least as far as the early 1980s (Grey and Garsten, 2001). At this time Grey et. al. were extolling organizations to be "close to the customer"; to be simultaneously big and small and to swap the hierarchies associated with the bureaucratic form for flatter

structures. The erosion of boundaries such as those between work and home, public and private and the growing influence of IT and project based work arrangements have negative consequences beyond the comfortable images of flexiblé working and empowered workers.

The potential value of trust lies in the fact that it invites levels of cooperation beyond those that can be maintained by instrumental motivations, making it possible for organizations to capitalize on trust-based cooperation. Organizations are indeed less able today to provide incentives or sanctions that would motivate needed cooperation and trust can motivate such voluntary forms of collaboration and engagement in work. It is thus hardly surprising that trust dynamics are attracting increasing attention in recent management literature. Effective communication is in turn essential for meaningful interaction and healthy collaboration. The ability to organize, create and disseminate information is a source of competitive advantage in the information age and has direct implications for the dynamics of teamwork and collaboration. Today's organizations are leveraging communications technology and capitalizing on lateral communication patterns that are intended to alleviate complexity and uncertainty and ease information transfer among teams and networks. The role of employees as important nerve centers in turn promotes a sense of involvement resulting in more commitment, flexibility and innovation. Increased commitment is another differentiating characteristic of post-bureaucratic organizations. Of late, there has been an alteration of the traditional conceptualization of commitment as simple attachment

and desire to remain in an organization, towards a more holistic, all-encompassing understanding of the notion, capitalizing on affective commitment. Affective commitment is a healthy psychological contract between the individual and the organization, translating into a desire to remain with the organization because of genuine alignment with its core values and orientation.

Since the present study pertains primarily to bureaucratic organizations centering around bureaucratic polity, this issue is reviewed.

2.11 Bureaucrats-in-power

The transition from the notion of bureaucracy as a bureaucratic polity to the idea of 'bureaucrats-in-power' was easy to make, the parallels the comparable shift of meaning for 'aristocracy' from a type of polity to a ruling class. Barnard, 1968 postulated a fundamental structural distinction between the rulers and the ruled, and then divided ruling classes between the feudal and the bureaucrats. He concluded that in the modern state of ruling class is necessarily the Bureaucracy.

To sum up, the functions of Bureaucracy is

- Various Policy formulation
- Implementation of the aforesaid policies
- Non state Government net work
- State-to state or federalist network

- Government-created networks

- Evaluation of policies and improving the policies further including taking corrective action to keep the pace of the policy.

- Ensuring efficient service delivery to its citizens.

According to Harvey (2001), studies by scholars revealed that the main factors contributing to the rise of bureaucracies are:

1. Emergence of Large Organizations: Social as well as industrial revolutions of nineteenth century witnessed the emergence of large organizations which was characterized by a Government over a contiguous territory that stabilized the society on the basis of strong, professional apparatus to centrally administer all means of administration, financial resources, army, police and so on and to stress that, organizations were compelled to acquire trapping of a bureaucratic administration (i.e. develop specialization as well as professionalize) as they added accretion.

2. Growth of economy and the role of money payments: Growth of economy and increased use of money payments together constituted the second factor which contributed to larger ethos that encouraged the formation of bureaucracy.

3. Mass democracy: According to Max Weber, mass democracy meant the emerging egalitarian ethos with an
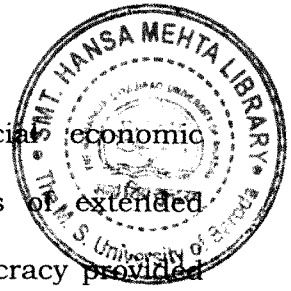
increasingly growing emphasis on social economic equality rather than more recent ideals of extended suffrage. Money economy and mass democracy provided a fertile soil for the seed of bureaucracy to germinate.

4. Advent of capitalism: Advent of capitalism decayed the family firm giving rise to giant firms. To check the corporate malpractices, and to preserve competition, government needed to operate on a larger scale than before and thus the Government grew bigger in size and to provide extensive and efficient service, bureaucratic services were extended by inducting Bureaucrats, Proficient individuals in various fields of Government business.

5. The protestant Ethics: In his book 'The Protestant Ethic and the spirit of Capitalism', Weber, in examining the impact of religion on western culture, argues that the value enshrined in the religious doctrine of the Protestants strengthened both capitalism as well as bureaucracy. Protestant ethic in essence emphasized, as Peter Blau puts 'disciplined devotion to hard work in the pursuit of one's vocation'. In this, Protestantism provided a social rationale that formed the basis for acceptance of values which were central to the advancement bureaucratic organization.

A bureaucratic organization displays specific and unique features. The Weberian model while narrating the specialization centric, rule driven, impersonal characteristic of bureaucracy, described the following feature of Bureaucratic Organization:

a. Authority vests in position, not person: Under pre bureaucratic organizations, authority stemmed from traditional status or personal magnetism of individuals and such traditional authority were based on customs. Charisma bestows authority then. However, a bureaucratic organization displaced such notion completely. Here authority vests in formal offices or positions where powers and jurisdiction are ascribed in accordance with law and delegation.

b. Hierarchy: Like above, in bureaucratic organization, the powers and functionary vest with the hierarchy so as to curb anarchy in the system functionary. Hierarchy also entails the idea of unity of command which postulate that lines of authority run from boxes on a subordinate level to the next higher level and so on until they all converge on a single point at the top of the pyramid and individuals at each level formally report to only one superior.

c. Impersonality: In bureaucratic organization, office holding is a vocation. An Individual is appointed to a public office on a consideration of merit for the previously specified conditions of salary, perks etc. Here employer-employee

relationship is regulated by impersonal criteria and rule application by officials is also impersonal without regard to their own interest or to the client they serve. The impersonality of the bureaucratic system has another dimension, namely, those constituting the organization do not relate to it as its proprietors.

d. Career Service: In bureaucratic organization, the office holding becomes a vocation. Here prescriptive recruitment modalities based on formal qualifications and intellectual requirements are followed. Also the occupation prescribes specified conditions; salary, promotion, terminal benefits, security of tenure etc.

e. Professional Management: Professionalism in bureaucratic organization is another dimension which invokes the idea of separation between policy and administration to facilitate professional Management. The decision making process is dominated by technical criteria.

f. Specialization and listing of job duties: These characters become the basis of the horizontal expansions of the pyramid. Duties and responsibilities of each position are elaborately listed.

g. Rules, records and training: Bureaucratic organization preserves its memory in files. It keeps detailed records of the application of rules in specific instances as a means to ensure consistency and predictability of performance.

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As member or participant of a post-bureaucratic organization one runs the risk of being "always still at work" (Brocklehurst, 2001). It is up to the individual to maintain a balance between work and non-work that is at the same time professionally rewarding, and personally and socially bearable. The increase of stress-related problems connected to work in most advanced capitalist countries signals the difficulty of maintaining such a balance. Hence, to appreciate the distinguishing characteristics and the functioning of post-bureaucratic organizations one need to take one step further than the critical discourse's notion of an implicitly centralized principle of control.

Since the present study pertains primarily about the administrative functionary of bureaucratic organization, this issue is reviewed.

2.12 Centralization and Decentralization

It is an undisputed and proven fact that when the authority is separated from information and competence, the end result is packed up in loss of coordination. Sometimes conditions and tasks change so quickly and so greatly that top executives in Bureaucratic Organizations who were previously effective managers become ill-informed and make poor decisions or don't involve them at all in the process of accomplishing the end results. Similarly, the force of change can deprive lower-ranking employees of perspective the

information they need in order to act and decide wisely (Srivastav S, 2003).

As a result, top executives in Bureaucratic Organizations have been forced to seek continually the elusive "good match" of authority, information and competence. When they concentrate authority and decisions at the top of the organization, the process is named as centralizing. When they disperse them throughout lower levels constructively, the process is named as decentralizing.

The process of composite decision, and particularly of the methods and functions of review in an organization, casts considerable light on the way in which decisional processes can best be distributed through the organization, and on the relative advantages and disadvantages in centralizing the processes of decision.

It is established that the specialization and centralization of decision making serves three purposes: it secures coordination, expertise, and responsibility. Some pragmatic tests were suggested for arriving at a division of functioning between legislator and administrator. The relations between centralization of decisions and the problems of communication were explored. It was seen that a need for centralization sometimes arises form the faulty institutional identifications of the members of an organization (Vasanti, 2005).

The effectiveness depends upon the very close relationship between the manner in which the function of review is exercised and the degree of centralization or decentralization. Review influences decisions by evaluating them, and thereby subjecting the subordinate to discipline and control. Review is sometimes conceived as a means of detecting wrong decisions and correcting them. This concept may be very useful as applied to those very important decisions where an appellate procedure is necessary to conserve individual rights or democratic responsibility. As the resources of the subordinate for making correct decisions are strengthened, decentralization becomes increasingly possible. Hence, review can have three consequences: (1) if it is used to correct individual decisions, it leads to centralization, and an actual transfer of the decision-making function; (2) if it is used to discover where the subordinate needs additional guidance, it leads to centralization through promulgation of more and more complete rules and regulations limiting the subordinate's discretion; (3) if it is used to discover where the subordinate's own resources need to be strengthened, it leads to decentralization. All three elements can be, and usually are, combined, in varying proportions.

Centralization is sometimes urged as a necessary concomitant of the specialization of work. If work is specialized, then procedures must be introduced to secure coordination among the members of the group: and among the most powerful of coordinative procedures is the centralization of decisions. This is true: but in accepting this

conclusion one must not blind to the very real disadvantages and costs that accompany specialization.

Successful use of the device of specialization to increase efficiency implies either that no coordination is required among the specialized segments of the complete task, or that this coordination can be achieved with the available techniques of interpersonal coordination. If neither of these conditions is fulfilled, then specialization must be sacrificed in order to retain the use of the individual brain as the coordinating mechanism (Prasad, 2006).

Since the present study pertains primarily about the functioning of the bureaucratic organization which principally follows the stringency of centralization, this issue is reviewed.

2.13 Commitment

According to dispositional theorists, individuals possess relatively stable characteristics that affect their attitudes and behavior. However, until recently, most of the research on job attitudes has been situational—referring, for example, to task characteristics, supervision, pay, working conditions, organizational structure, workspace characteristics, and promotional opportunities. The process of improving work through learning also involves an employee's willingness to transfer the knowledge acquired to improve work processes. It is the combined motivation that influences the

desired training outcomes. Employee commitment refers to the psychological attachment of workers to their workplaces. Some research has indicated an inability to separate the two components of commitment and attachment to work place.

Consumer driven services and management styles based on them have a number of flaws, but when done well, there is great promise for creating new forms of relationship and commitment due to several reasons (Anand, 2006):

1.   The planning process starts with, and should involve, the people with whom someone already has relationships. Direct care and clinical professionals have key roles, but the assumption is that family, friends and other forms of relationship are key to quality of life and planning.

2.   The planning often highlights the need for relationship development, with both staff and with the help of staff, others in the community. Nurturing and maintaining relationships can become important parts of shared learning and care. That is also becoming the focus of some training resources that come out of leaders in person-centered planning and supports.

3.   When person-centered planning is combined with self-directed funding, the direct care of the staff who are hired to fill defined roles have a clearer sense of accountability

to the person with whom they are working and the people in that person's circle.

However often chances of some peculiar problems are not ruled out which includes:

- Good person-centered planning and support development takes a lot of creativity, skill, time and . . . commitment. There is a constant temptation in large systems to make it more 'efficient', too often leading to what we call 'cookie cutter' person centered plans, or to curious anomalies like computerized plans with multiple choices and drop-down menus. Some of the pressures for those systems go back to the need to demonstrate effectiveness and compliance to funding sources through data driven, objective, measurable outcomes, proving that regulations have been met and standardized units of service delivered;

- The creativity, skill, time and responsibility required also assumes that there are people close to the person with an identity who have the capacity to do so, the ability to manage systems, perhaps to manage and supervise their own staff, and deal with complex funding processes. That may presume a level of education and resources that may not be possessed by a person's family and friends. Empowering people through self-directed services does not necessarily make them good managers or bosses. They may need those skills and that training, just as

many front-line supervisors in more traditional service places such as group homes and day programmes (Hewitt & Lakin 2001). Thus, using person-centered planning process and funding mechanisms that empower people and their families can be powerful, positive tool. But it also calls for empowering the staff that provide services and supports, or stated in another way and building new forms of partnerships between direct care workers and the people they support.

The second promising trend is the increased focus on workforce development for direct support professionals and state initiatives by creative provider organizations and state networks and national training initiatives which are all attempts to help stem the vicious cycles of recruitment, turnover and vacancies with new forms of training, supported by creative management, increased benefits, empowered staff and career paths that allow a good, committed professional to remain in a direct care giving role for a longer period of time. As a result of the trend towards person-centeredness and the focus on workforce development, creative managers are recognizing a new embodiment of the Golden Rule, i.e. if we are asking direct care staff and others to treat others in person-centered, skilful, committed relationships, then agencies need to treat their staff in the same way. Given the reliance on public funding for services and supports, compliance with regulations and markers of quality care and assurance are not going away. Evaluation through objective tools and

compliance with objective measures are an important part of any system of care giving and relationships. But how do we pay direct attention to the importance of commitment, and provide the resources and educational opportunities that bring the classic polarities of law and spirit back into a little more balance, i.e. the balance between meeting the letter of law or the spirit of the law, or, in theological terms, focusing on rules and commandments at the expense of 'doing justice, loving mercy, and walking. It is true that many organizations and service agencies move towards doing this when they train and reflect on the mission and values of their organization and its services. Many creative ways of doing that come out of newer forms of understanding management and organization, such as customer service, the importance of vision and purpose, and structure that allow for creativity and imagination. Flattening the organization, empowering the front lines, soliciting input, focusing on creative recruitment, training and retention are all markers in this, but one might assume that the importing of business models is still done with the eye towards the consumer and the bottom line (Lerner et.al.2003)

At whatever level of care giving, professionals all have their favorite stories about the people with whom they work and the relationships and experiences that invited and called them into the work they are now doing. What our systems of care so frequently do not have is the opportunity to reflect on those dimensions of care giving, the invitation to share them with one another and the ways to find from each other's stories, spirit and depths, a new form of care

giving community which looks, nurtures and draws on the why's of relationship and commitment. Can we hold team meetings, staff retreats and conferences that include times of reflecting on the whys, times for sharing the powerful stories, times for talking about what people within our care do for us while we do for and with them, and times for finding out how others deal with the inevitable periods of dismay, hopelessness and struggle? One of the strategies for doing this also means finding ways and times to talk about and share the spiritual dimensions of professional work and care. Values like independence, productivity, integration and self-determination are at the heart of our systems of care and at the heart of those values are spiritual questions related to identity (Who am I?) purpose (Why am I?) and community (Whose am I?) (Gaventa 2005). What are the times, where are the ways, in which we can make the opportunity to share those questions and experiences, learn from them, and together build personal, professional and communal commitment in our relationships with the people we serve and support? Building in that kind of training and opportunities for reflection and renewal in a system of institutions focused on objective and data driven outcomes and compliance will not be easy. It means reframing the very image of what it means to be 'professional', moving away from the expert with the knowledge, power and control, to the professional being called for by people with disabilities and their families, one who walks and journeys with people, assisting through skills but also through mutual relationships of shared responsibility and care (Gaventa 2005). It means recognizing that our role is to be value clear, not value free,

and that what others need and value from us as professionals is not only technique, programme and procedure, but also a relationship over the long haul in which trust is built, relationships formed and commitments and communities nourished (Ebenstein 1996).

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, commitment being a prime behavioral attribute this issue is reviewed.

2.14 Contentment

Although it's part of human nature to seek to fulfill their goals to the best possible, want control so everything will be perfect. But there is a difference between pursuing excellence and demanding perfection. Getting everything perfect is not only impossible, the demanding desire makes for impatience, guilt, and self-hatred. It stifles hope.

What Contentment Is

While thinking about contentment, one probably is wondered how to push for excellence without being defeated by it. How can one keep some control over the chaos of lives without gripping it so tightly that all have is a fist to shake at nature / almighty when things don't go the desired way? Literally: Contentment is a hope that frees the individuals to pursue the unsatisfied life in a satisfying way (Daniel, 1972).

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The Unsatisfied Life

One might be thinking, "Who wants the unsatisfied life? At face value, this is true, but I mean something a bit below the surface, three aspects, in fact, of "the unsatisfied life."

First, living the unsatisfied life means reckoning with the biblical idea that our planet is "fallen," that it is violent and self-seeking, prone to disease and frustration. We know this - we've read Genesis 3 - but our expectations still scream that things "ought" to go well.

Second, living the unsatisfied life means that some things ought to trouble us. In one sense, the satisfied life is the smug life of complacency, of resignation. We should remain unsatisfied with injustice and greed, pride and blasphemy.

Third, living the unsatisfied life means that we don't believe we will finally be happy when we receive some glamorous "prize." We are not to put our hope in the ridiculous promises we hear.

The Pursuit

Ambition seems at odds with contentment, yet "good pursuit" is blessed in Scripture. Instead of being "void of passion," we are to "fight the good fight of the faith". Life is difficult. Not being able to achieve perfection is no reason to cease striving, any more than we should not eat whipped cream because we can't get it to stand up two feet high.

A Satisfying Way

The way to satisfaction in an unsatisfying world is to practice ars morendi, a Latin term for an ancient discipline that means "the art of dying well." In the middle ages, the thought was that believers needed to prepare to meet their Savior, to learn to "let go" of this life and die with grace. The art of dying well reminds to surrender. One can express the trust in God's goodness by accepting that THIS IS LIFE. Not the past.

Part of surrender is "detachment." Although the word itself might be a little off-putting, the idea is as liberating as they come. Daniel says it well: "We must learn to be detached from the results of own activity."

Detachment does not mean that one shouldn't care about what happens; it means that one is responsible for faithfulness, not for success. Sometimes the teaching takes and sometimes it doesn't. The art of dying well reminds that a "turning toward" is also a "turning away from."

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, contentment being a prime behavioral attribute this issue is reviewed.

2.15 Delegation

Delegation is the process by which managers assign tasks and the authority and responsibility to complete them. If centralization and decentralization connote structural repositioning of duties, delegation is more often used to describe personal assignment of duties by particular senior to their subordinates. Bureaucratic Organizations are relying much on this aspect. It is termed as a top down approach of societal transaction process. Various management theories and Classic management writers urged three guidelines for delegation:

1. Completeness
2. Clarity
3. Sufficiency

The ideal of complete delegated pictures emphasizes the situation in which every task is necessarily accomplished with in the established objectives those are assigned. Someone is responsible for and has authority to carry out every task. The more closely delegation approaches the ideal of completeness, the less likely it is that there will be situations in which nobody seemed to have responsibility for correcting planning deficiencies for rework.

In a Bureaucratic Organization, the ideal of clear delegation pictures is put to use in a situation in which superiors and subordinates communicate so that subordinates understand their tasks, responsibilities, and authority clearly within the framework. Superiors must communicate clearly the tasks for which subordinates are responsible. But they must also communicate clearly what

authority the subordinate has to proceed without further checking with the superior. Several degrees of delegation are imminent in the bureaucratic Organization. Part of clear delegation requires that subordinates and superiors have identical perceptions of the amount of authority granted to the subordinate (Bennis, 1998).

Sufficiency in delegation refers to the perennial problem of providing subordinates with authority sufficient to carry out the tasks for which they are responsible. Like unity of command, sufficient delegation may, especially in the eyes of subordinates, be more honored in the breach than in the observance. Still, it is possible to move closer to providing authority sufficiently to carry out the assigned responsibilities.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors under bureaucratic connotations where delegation plays a vital role, this issue is reviewed.

2.16 Employee Morale: Efficiency Versus Adequacy

This is a convenient place to probe that vague, intangible thing called "employee morale." It ties in with several of the concepts and factors, and thus it affords an opportunity to begin weaving some of the sub-systems into an integrated whole.

High morale among the men in a Bureaucratic Organization appears to be an essential ingredient in its success. A change for the worse can seriously jeopardize the company, and a change for the better can call forth undreamed-of contributions. Indeed, a Bureaucratic Organization whose members have only average ability but whose morale is high can frequently outdistance a firm with brilliant executives and low morale. Success in competition depends only partially upon men's liability. What really counts is the amount of that ability they channel into furthering the company's goals.

It may be difficult to find answers to the riddle of morale, but the idea of efficiency versus adequacy, coupled with some of the insights throws some light on why morale declines and what steps may be taken to improve it. The objective of gaining acceptance-whether by employing authority, or leadership, or communication, or the informal groups-is to secure what we shall call efficiency in achieving goals and, conversely, to avoid adequacy.

According to Daniel, Morale is one of those amorphous words with vague definitions that are encountered when examined the barrier named "Failure to State Premises Clearly" is examined. Low morale would be evidenced by a minimal amount of these behaviors, including a minimum of zeal. High morale is distinctly different from happiness or satisfaction, however; though high morale is usually accompanied by these two pleasurable feelings, neither of them will, of itself, bring about high contributions to a group or a company.

The preliminary definition of efficiency is "The wholehearted employment of those means that will most certainly and most fully achieve a goal." The term efficiency is meaningful only when the actions taken are evaluated in terms of a specific goal. No action is efficient in and of itself. A given activity may be an efficient means of achieving one man's goals and an inefficient means of attaining another's. When the term efficiency is used, it is generally thought of achieving organization goals (Hara et.al, 1979).

Adequacy can be defined as "going through the motions," or more specifically, employing means that appear to be efficient means of achieving a goal but that in fact advance the goal much less than a superficial look at the records would indicate. The man who does a job at an adequacy level is doing only enough to get by. Notice that adequacy is not the antithesis of efficiency but instead a low level of efficiency.

By using the term efficiency and adequacy, it appears that they merge into one another. In fact, taken together, they are identical.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, morale being a prime behavioral construct, this issue is reviewed.

2.17 Individual traits and Behavioral Pattern

Deshon, 2004 conducted a literature review of all trait studies performed since 1900. He focused on examining the relationship between personality variables and perceptions of leadership and status in small groups. He presented seven dimension thought to be responsible for leader behavior or status: 1) intelligence, 2) adjustment, 3) extroversion, 4) dominance, 5) masculinity, 6) interpersonal sensitivity, and 7) liberalism. He found these personality variables produced low correlations when compared to promotion data, and self and peer rations of leadership.

Given the inconsistent results of both the trait and behavioral approaches to understanding effective leadership, many researchers turned their focus to the external environment and the situations in which effective leaders perform. The situational approach to leadership emphasizes the importance of contextual factors when considering leader effectiveness. Factors thought to be influential include the type and degree of authority given to the leader, attributes of the subordinates, organizational situations, they do not cover leader effectiveness that extends across varying situations.

Attribution Theory (Deshon) contends that each leader and follower has his or her own implicit theory of leadership. People observe the behavior of a leader and attribute the causes of those behaviors to various personal traits or external factors. If the observed characteristics match the naïve assumptions about what the

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person thinks a leader should be, then they apply the term "leadership" to describe the person they observed. Thus, for Deshon, leadership was a constructed reality held in the mind of the follower. That is, attributions of leadership are biased by each individual's own perceptions of reality. This "eye of the beholder" theory may account for the low correlations that are often found between supervisors, peers, and subordinates when asked to rate the same leader.

According to charismatic leadership models (Bass, 1985), individual characteristics of the leader have a direct effect on subsequent leader behaviors. This approach is consistent with personality theory, which suggests that individual traits interact with situational variables to produce subsequent behaviors. That is, the personal characteristics of the leader determine the extent to which a charismatic image is projected. Therefore, perceiving the leader as possessing certain traits and displaying specific behaviors produces perceptions of charisma and charismatic leadership in followers.

House, 1977conducted a study in which they examined the influence of personality and charisma of former U.S. presidents on leader effectiveness. They assigned motive scores to 39 presidents from George Washington to Jimmy Carter by applying the Thematic Apperception Test coding procedure to each of the presidents' inaugural addresses. The results of House, suggest that personality and charisma have a significant influence on leader effectiveness.

The present effort does not suggest that any singular trait or behavior along characterizes charismatic leadership. Rather, it is a constellation of traits and behaviors that, working together, distinguish the charismatic from the non-charismatic leader and the personalized from the socialized leader. The groups of characteristics used to distinguish each of these types of leaders will be described in detail later.

Weber (1947, from encyclopedia of 2009) stated that some leaders possess exceptional qualities – the gift of charisma – which enables them to inspire followers to perform great feats and make significant sacrifices towards the achievement of some goal. Unfortunately, defining this gift and identifying its characteristics has been difficult.

Given the enormous effects charismatic leaders have on their followers and social systems, it is reasonable to assume that there is something unique about them – setting them apart from other leaders. Nevertheless, early research on charismatic leadership was criticized for not adequately identifying the distinguishing traits and behaviors that characterize charismatic leaders (House, 1977). Consequently, for some time, charismatic leaders remained shrouded by a cloak of mystery and magic – assumed to possess some intangible gift that resisted detection or measurement.

House (1977) was among the first to recognize the limitations of earlier research. He suggested that previous studies lacked operational definitions of charisma, rendering it unidentifiable and, thus, perpetuating the mystical aura that surrounded it. House (1977) believed that if empirical research could produce definitions that were operational in nature, the aura of mysticism could be stripped away. Towards that end, researchers have conducted many investigations in an attempt to objectively identify the "gift". Weber wrote about, and remove the mystery and magic surrounding charisma. Fortunately, contemporary psychologists have met with greater success than their predecessors. In fact, modern research efforts have produced several theories containing an array of defining characteristics that distinguish charismatic from non-charismatic leaders (Bass, 1985).

House (1977) was the first to offer a model of charismatic leadership that provides specific personal and behavioral characteristics that theoretically differentiate charismatic from non-charismatic leaders. Moreover, he asserted that these individual characteristics could be identified and measured through a proposed set of testable propositions, involving observable processes. According to House (1977), personality characteristics that differentiate charismatic leadership from non-charismatic leadership include: 1) high self-confidence, 2) high need for power (dominance), 3) a high need for influence, and 4) strong convictions in the moral correctness of their beliefs. In addition to these characteristics, House (1977)

suggests that charismatic leaders demonstrate 1) high energy, 2) high verbal ability, 3) high risk-taking, 4) creativity (visionary), 5) social sensitivity, and 6) exceptional persistence. He argues that these personal characteristics are needed for charismatic leaders to attract and main their followers.

House (1977) also offers behavioral characteristics that contribute to attributions of charismatic leadership, including: 1) the articulation of ideological goals that are rooted in values – providing an appealing vision of the future (leader and follower must share basic beliefs and have similar goals); 2) role modeling – setting an example (self-sacrifice); impression management – involving personal image building and displaying competence (the leader must appeal to the follower); 4) displayed consideration – attending to the needs of the followers; 5) communicating high expectations – goals must be perceived as possibly by the followers; 6) displayed confidence – expressing faith in the abilities of followers (self-efficacy, the "Pygmalion effect"), and 7) motive arousing behaviors relevant to the group's mission – using symbols and flags to arouse power and affiliative motives. According to House (1977) these trait and behavioral characteristics of the charismatic leader will lead to high levels of performance.

Bass (1985) elaborated on House's propositions by saying a) leaders are more than just confident, they see themselves as having a supernatural purpose and destiny, and b) followers don't just respect

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the leader, they idolize and worship their leader as a superhuman spiritual figure. Bass also suggests that charismatic leaders differ greatly among themselves, stating that some rely on emotional appeals, while others rely on rational appeals. Bass (1985) presents a theory of transformational leadership that is largely based on prior research conducted by Burns (1961). In his book entitled Leadership, Burns (1961) identified two types of political leadership; transactional and transformational. In his book entitled Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations, Bass (1985) applied the concepts of Burns (1961) to organizational management. According to Bass, there are three types of leaders; transactional, transformational, and charismatic.

Transactional leadership is based on an exchange relationship between the leader and the follower. That is, rewards from the leader are contingent on performance by the follower. This is a relationship of mutual dependence, in which the leaders give the followers something they want in exchange for something the leader wants. Initially, in this form of leadership, the leader and follower must come to an agreement as to what exchanges will take place. Then, as long as the leader provides the appropriate reward in a consistent and sufficient manner, the follower will continue to perform at the negotiated level of performance. This exchange will continue as long as both the leader and the follower feel the relationship is mutually rewarding. The transactional leader is primarily focused towards carrying out existing goals of their own organization and is not

concerned with their people as much as they are with just getting things done.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, individual traits being prime behavioral constructs, this issue is reviewed.

2.18 Motivation

Motivational processes are key to understanding why individuals engage in (or fail to engage in) acts that contribute to their own safety and that of the work environment. As stated above, most research on safety motivation, like most research on behavioral safety, has treated it as a one-dimensional construct and focused solely on adherence to safety rules and regulations despite the multidimensionality of safety performance (Burke et al., 2002). In this sense, safety motivation research has followed a path similar to that of general job performance, first focusing on task behaviors while paying less attention to those behaviors that enhance the social and psychological environment for safety.

One of the most important factors that lead one to their goals is the drive. This drive is known as motivation. It is a zest and determination with a kind of excitement that leads one to persevere to reach greater heights, in no matter what avenue of their life; be it –

personal or professional. The drive may come from an internal or external source. The individual determines this.

The factors that motivate an individual keep changing as one climbs the ladder of age and maturity. And also, achievement of one goal sets the ball rolling for another one to be achieved. Thus, to be motivated is a constant need. There are times when one faces a period of de-motivation and everything seems bleak. It is then that they need to find what would motivate them back into action. For every individual there is a variable driving force. In fact, it is not just a single factor, but a combination of factors that lead people to achieve their goals. The fact is that with routine monotony steps in and then everything seems like stagnant waters. It feels like there is nothing new.

Breaking this cycle of monotony has helped many bounce back with enthusiasm. This is why human resource managers create a training calendar, which will take away employees from the routine they are stuck to, as well as enhance their skills in various areas.

There are people who redefine their goals and ambitions from time to time in order to fill them with newer levels of enthusiasm to achieve greater feats. One needs to take stalk every now and then and find the motivator required to carry them through.

Many researchers have studied factors or strategies to increase job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Burns, 1961). Work environments that provide a sense of empowerment and job satisfaction are positively correlated, significant, and variable factors associated with an individual's choice to leave or stay in a work environment. He confirmed that empowerment is correlated strongly with job satisfaction, commitment to the job, and the level of professional activity. Thus it can be inferred that motivation is related to empowerment.

Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856 – 1917) put forward the idea that workers are motivated mainly by pay. His Theory of Scientific Management argued the following:

- Workers do not naturally enjoy work and so need close supervision and control

- Therefore managers should break down production into a series of small tasks

- Workers should then be given appropriate training and tools so they can work as efficiently as possible on one set task.

- Workers are then paid according to the number of items they produce in a set period of time- piece-rate pay.

- As a result workers are encouraged to work hard and maximise their productivity.

Taylor's methods were widely adopted as businesses saw the benefits of increased productivity levels and lower unit costs. The most notably advocate was Henry Ford who used them to design the first ever production line, making Ford cars. This was the start of the era of mass production. Taylor's approach has close links with the concept of an autocratic management style (managers take all the decisions and simply give orders to those below them) and Macgregor's Theory X approach to workers (workers are viewed as lazy and wish to avoid responsibility). However workers soon came to dislike Taylor's approach as they were only given boring, repetitive tasks to carry out and were being treated little better than human machines. Firms could also afford to lay off workers as productivity levels increased. This led to an increase in strikes and other forms of industrial action by dis-satisfied workers.

However, Elton Mayo (1880 – 1949) believed that workers are not just concerned with money but could be better motivated by having their social needs met whilst at work (something that Taylor ignored). He introduced the Human Relation School of thought, which focused on managers taking more of an interest in the workers, treating them as people who have worthwhile opinions and realising that workers enjoy interacting together. Mayo conducted a series of experiments at the Hawthorne factory of the Western Electric Company in Chicago. He isolated two groups of women workers and studied the effect on their productivity levels of changing factors such

as lighting and working conditions. He expected to see productivity levels decline as lighting or other conditions became progressively worse. What he actually discovered surprised him: whatever the change in lighting or working conditions, the productivity levels of the workers improved or remained the same.

From this Mayo concluded that workers are best motivated by:

- Better communication between managers and workers
- Greater manager involvement in employees working lives
- Working in groups or teams.

In practice therefore businesses should re-organise production to encourage greater use of team working and introduce personnel departments to encourage greater manager involvement in looking after employees' interests. His theory most closely fits in with a paternalistic style of management.

Abraham Maslow (1908 – 1970) along with Frederick Herzberg (1923) introduced the Neo-Human Relations School in the 1950's, which focused on the psychological needs of employees. Maslow put forward a theory that there are five levels of human needs which employees need to have fulfilled at work. All of the needs are structured into a hierarchy (Fig 2.01) and only once a lower level of need has been fully met, would a worker be motivated by the opportunity of having the next need up in the hierarchy satisfied. For example a person who is dying of hunger will be motivated to achieve

a basic wage in order to buy food before worrying about having a secure job contract or the respect of others.

Figure. 2.01 Need Hierarchy
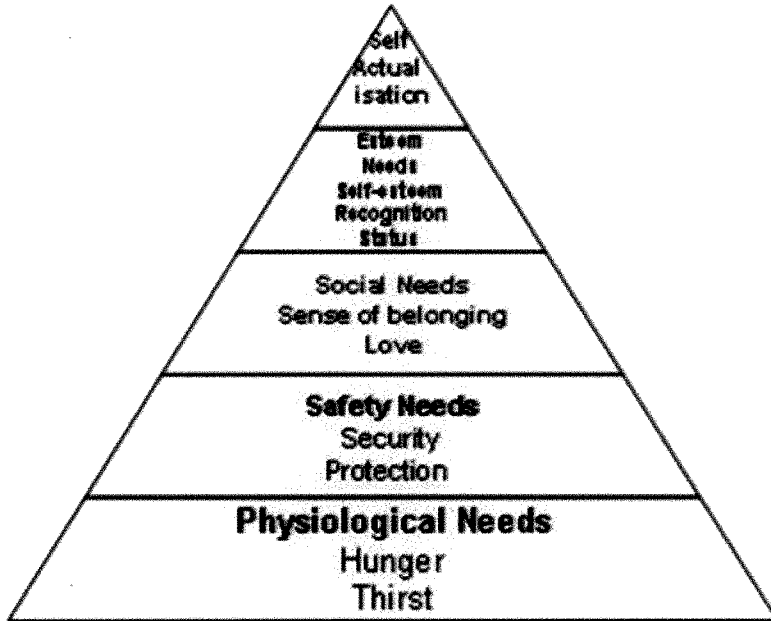
Source: Wikipedia

A business should therefore offer different incentives to workers in order to help them fulfill each need in turn and progress up the hierarchy. Managers should also recognise that workers are not all motivated in the same way and do not all move up the hierarchy at the same pace. They may therefore have to offer a slightly different set of incentives from worker to worker.

Frederick Herzberg (1923) had close links with Maslow and believed in a two-factor theory of motivation. He argued that there

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were certain factors that a business could introduce that would directly motivate employees to work harder (Motivators). However there were also factors that would de-motivate an employee if not present but would not in themselves actually motivate employees to work harder (Hygiene factors).

Motivators are more concerned with the actual job itself. For instance how interesting the work is and how much opportunity it gives for extra responsibility, recognition and promotion. Hygiene factors are factors which 'surround the job' rather than the job itself. For example a worker will only turn up to work if a business has provided a reasonable level of pay and safe working conditions but these factors will not make him work harder at his job once he is there. Importantly Herzberg viewed pay as a hygiene factor which is in direct contrast to Taylor who viewed pay and piece-rate in particular.

Herzberg believed that businesses should motivate employees by adopting a democratic approach to management and by improving the nature and content of the actual job through certain methods. Some of the methods managers could use to achieve this are:

Job enlargement – workers being given a greater variety of tasks to perform (not necessarily more challenging) which should make the work more interesting.

Job enrichment - involves workers being given a wider range of more complex, interesting and challenging tasks surrounding a complete unit of work. This should give a greater sense of achievement.

Empowerment - means delegating more power to employees to make their own decisions over areas of their working life.

The above phenomenon are not only applicable to the industrial sectors, factory premises but applicable to all places of work where human beings play major roles irrespective of the fact that they are organized or unorganized being the performers of either white collar jobs or the blue collar jobs. This is so because of the non-uniformity of the human instincts which generally does not similarity among the colleagues working under a similar environment. The officials of "Bureaucratic Organisations" too form a similar cluster of individuals having their own instincts and also their behavioral pattern amazingly influence the working style and the out put of the system.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, motivation being a prime behavioral attribute this issue is reviewed.

2.19 Empowerment

Empowerment is the power to create and sustain a work environment. It proceeds from the ability to access and mobilize information, support, resources, and opportunities from one's position in the organization (Kanter, 1993). It is termed as a bottom up approach of societal transaction process. The components of structural empowerment are information, support, resources, and opportunity.

The theme of employee empowerment received the attention in recent years and efforts are made to implement. In Bureaucratic Organization, the terminology "empowerment" has not gained the momentum and thus is yet to recognize the legal sanctity. As has been followed since years together, the entire bureaucratic machinery centers around the terminology "Delegation". Even at a lower level, if someone is confident of tackling a problem and settling an issue by selling an idea or otherwise, he is not able to do so as he is not empowered for the same. Even though the issues are pretty often to be referred to the Authority to whom powers have been delegated, the same has to be referred to them for decision-making and settlement. Hence, the lower level potential Officials who are pioneering the beautiful ideas of settling the issues have to put up the issues canalizing through the system strategy so that the delegated Authority would take a decision. As the behavior factor regulates entire administrative functioning, inbreeding the constructive behavior factors effectuates the administration and vice versa. In nutshell, the delegated Authority simply affixes a rubber stamp over the ideas, thoughts put in by the capable junior and the junior is de-motivated as there is no recognition of his personality, which is again a behavioral problem. The relationship between managers and the employees whom they manage is undergoing a qualitative change. The managers who believed in classical approach emphasized on direction, control, centralized authority and decision making at higher levels. Employees at the lower level were regarded as non-entity and their views were however taken into account. Much water has flown

under the bridge. Seesaw change has taken place in sharing of authority and responsibility between the superiors and Sub-ordinates.

The subordinates prefer to be treated as associates where the difference between their role and that of their boss is very narrow. Decision-making needs to be relegated to the operating level where the subordinates are given freedom to decide about schedules, procedures and solve work related problems. Now Bureaucrat have travelled a long way and go beyond participation. They even do not allow complete freedom to their subordinates to have control on their work. Self-managed teams where subordinates operate largely without boss is considered to be an innovative development of today, still has not gained momentum in bureaucratic sectors (McCurdy, 1992).

Most Bureaucratic organizations have employees who believe that they are dependent on others and their effort has little impact on performance. They also believe that they have no control in the organization of their work. These feelings of powerlessness sap their efficiency and generate a feeling that they cannot successfully perform their job and make meaningful contribution. This situation can be remedied by empowering employees (McCurdy, 1992). Empowerment is a process that provides greater autonomy to employees through the sharing of relevant information and the provision of control over factors affecting job performance. Empowerment helps to remove the feeling of powerlessness and at the same time enhance employee

feelings of self confidence in job performance. Empowerment enables employees to have control over problems related to their jobs.

Psychological Empowerment is a psychological state that may have a greater influence on psychologically distant safety behaviors than psychologically close safety behaviors. Competence is one's belief in one's own ability to perform activities and is synonymous with self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982) in the work context, except that it is generalized and not task-specific. Self-determination is one's belief that one has a choice to initiate one's own actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Impact is the extent to which a person can impact strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989). These characteristics reflect an active work role orientation such that employees perceive they are able to shape their work context. Alge, 2006 found that empowerment, as a single higher-order factor composed of the 4 separate lower-order factors, was significantly related to innovation and managerial effectiveness. Research has found that psychological empowerment is related to several work related criteria. These include innovation), organizational citizenship behaviors and creativity, organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Alge et.al. 2006). Psychological empowerment has also been found to be related to change-oriented leadership behavior (Spreitzer, 1999). There has not been much research looking at psychological empowerment with respect to safety, perhaps because most safety motivation research has focused on present- and self-focused behaviors. One study conducted by Mullen (2005) looked at

the willingness of employees to raise safety issues and found that those with perceptions of "top management openness" were more likely to perceive that top management would pay attention to a safety issue and in turn were more willing to invest time, energy, and effort in identifying safety issues. Stetzer, 1996 found that the quality of one's leader-member exchange relationship was positively related to safety citizenship behaviors only when there was a strong positive safety climate. However, inferences with respect to empowerment and safety are primarily rational and not empirically based at this point. Those who see themselves as having power within the organization and believe in their ability to initiate safety-related changes (i.e., psychological empowerment) may be more likely to engage in future-focused and other-focused behaviors. These individuals will be more likely to perceive their behavior as instrumental to group- and organization level change with respect to safety hazards and procedures. In contrast, psychological empowerment may not be as crucial for behaviors that are self- and immediate-focused, since the outcomes of these safety behaviors (e.g., accident avoidance) do not typically involve significantly changing the work safety environment. Psychological empowerment might also increase the likelihood of future-focused behaviors by facilitating the perception that the outcomes of those behaviors are not as temporally distant. A decrease in outcome delay tends to increase motivation due to the increasing utility of temporally close outcomes (Loewenstein & Elster, 1992). Psychologically empowered employees may view their organization as more ready for positive change and believe that they have a direct

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influence on safety policies and practices; they may therefore see their behaviors are more instrumental to delayed outcomes. Psychological empowerment is positively related to the performance of self/future-focused, other/future-focused, and other/present-focused safety behaviors. Psychological empowerment is more positively related to the performance of self/future-focused, other/future-focused, and other/present focused safety behaviors than to the performance of immediate/self-focused safety behaviors. Psychological empowerment is a state that is likely to arise out of perceived management commitment to safety and may explain at least part of the relation between management commitment to safety and future-focused behaviors (Sahay, 2004).

With respect to practical implications, results suggest that structurally empowering characteristics that create psychological empowerment enhance safety performance in organizations. Creating these conditions might improve efforts toward shared governance and responsibility with respect to safety in industry. These conditions would be valuable in addition to the well documented need for management to prioritize safety. Results also suggest that conditions that facilitate a promotion focus may help foster a stronger organizational identification and a greater willingness to engage in different types of safety behaviors. These findings are also consistent with those on high performance work systems and occupations safety (Zacharatos, Barling, & Iverson, 2005) which have found that practices such as self management, reduced status distinctions,

information sharing, and transformational leadership, all which are intended to help employees to identify with the goals of the organization and engage in continuous improvement practices. In general this study suggests industrial safety may be enhanced through the incorporation of outcome psychological distance into safety performance's structure and motivation. By focusing on psychological states and goals beyond risk avoidance and incorporating an active work role orientation, collective identities, and management.

Psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between perceived management commitment to safety and the performance of future/self focused, future/other-focused, and present/other-focused safety performance. Regulatory focus may also reflect distinct psychological states in the prediction of the performance of safety behaviors with psychologically distant outcomes. Regulatory focus theory proposes that individuals vary in the extent to which they focus on and value promotion and prevention goals (Higgins, 1997). Needs and goals involving security, safety, and stability are more important under a prevention focus, whereas needs involving gains and progress are more important under a promotion focus. Individuals who base their decisions on maximizing subjective expected pleasure may anticipate greater pleasure with good outcomes and less pain with poor outcomes and exhibit a greater propensity for risk-seeking (Mellers, 2000), given the overestimation of favorable outcome likelihood and underestimation of negative

outcome likelihood. Higgins' (1997) theory has several implications for how individuals consider the utility of potential outcomes. Prevention focus results in a greater sensitivity than promotion focus to punishments, particularly those that threaten one's security and evoke pain. Those in a promotion focus are more sensitive to rewards and achievement-related goals. As stated above, the key component to motivation in control theory is the discrepancy between current and desired states. Individuals do not always pay close attention to multiple goals and may instead focus on one or two at any given point in time. The discrepancies that are the subject of one's attention are the most likely to result in the mobilization of energy towards reducing those discrepancies. Regulatory focus may impact the extent to which individuals notice and act on goal-feedback discrepancies. This might result in a tendency to act on avoidance goal discrepancies such as risk and safety if one is in a prevention focus, and a tendency to act on achievement and progress goal discrepancies, such as performance, if one is in a promotion focus. Those in a promotion focus also show a risky bias to their decisions (Higgins & Crowe, 1997). These results suggest that individuals in a promotion focus are more driven to increase productivity, an achievement goal, while those in a prevention focus are more motivated to avoid errors and risks, which are goals of avoidance. Regulatory focus has also been shown to impact the weight placed on event probabilities and the affective reactions that individuals experience. Those in a prevention focus tend to overweight events with a lower base probability, while those in a promotion focus overweight events with high probabilities. Those in

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a promotion focus are also more motivated by an action's outcomes with respect to satisfaction and excitement and the absence of dejection. In contrast, those in a prevention focus are more motivated by anticipated outcomes of relief and contentment and the absence of agitation and anxiety (Leone, Perugini, & Bagozzi, 2005). In a similar vein, regulatory focus also influences the value placed on anticipated emotions (Higgins, 1997). Those in a promotion focus are more prone to emotions of cheerfulness or dejection, based on performance with respect to approach-oriented goals. In contrast, those in a prevention focus are more likely to experience emotions of quiescence or agitation. These are primarily based on outcomes with respect to goals of avoidance.

In developing her theory of structural empowerment, Kanter (1993) identified three variables: the structure of opportunity, the structure of power, and the proportional distribution of people of different races (minorities). According to Kanter, these variables contain the roots of an integrated structural model of human behavior in an organization. Kanter (1993) proposes that the organizational environment controls employees' work, attitudes, and behaviors. She also maintains that power and opportunities create employees' own empowerment, resulting in increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Kanter (1993) states that: "Power is the ability to get things done". Furthermore, she states that power in an organization is

developed from structural conditions, not from personal characteristics or from socialization effects. The employees who are empowered are allowed to have control over their work conditions. Thus, Kanter claims power is related to autonomy and not to control over or domination of another. The organizational structures of empowered employees involve having access to information and resources, receiving support, and having the opportunity to learn and grow. Access to these structures results in increased feelings of autonomy, higher levels of self-efficacy, higher levels of job satisfaction, and increased organizational commitment. Furthermore, Kanter argues that the impact of such access within the organizational structure on employee behavior is far greater than the impact of an employee's own personality characteristics. According to him, psychological empowerment is defined as a set of psychological states that focuses on how real employees actually think about and experience their work, They believe about their own roles and influence in an organization that make employees feel confident and eager to success. Thus, psychological empowerment is a logical outcome of managerial efforts to create Kanter's structural empowerment. Indeed, Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, and Wilk (2001) found that the structural empowerment has a direct positive effect on their psychological empowerment and job satisfaction. In her developing and validating a multidimensional measure of psychological empowerment in the workplace, Kanter explains four components of psychological empowerment: meaning of the work, competence to do the work, self-determination, and an employee's

perception of the impact or outcomes of their work. "Meaning" refers to the perceived congruence between the job requirements and the individual's beliefs, values, and behaviors. Optimally, employees will realize the significance of their job to the organization and to themselves and pay attention to their work. As a result, they will be likely to do a good job and be proud of their success. Kanter notes that "competence" refers to an individual's confidence in his or her job performance abilities. In other words, an employee believes his or her abilities and skills to enhance job performance. Employees also believe they can use the resources provided by their organization to get the work done. According to Kanter, "self-determination" relates to employees' perceived control over their work when employees perceive they have the freedom to decide how or how not to work in different situations. Thus, they can implement innovations to complete their work. Finally, Spreitzer defines "impact" as an individual's sense of his or her capability to influence important outcomes within their organization. Conversely, individuals will feel powerlessness if they do not realize how important they are within the organization. Spreitzer's four dimensions of psychological empowerment reflect an active orientation toward the work role. Thus, psychological empowerment is shaped by the work environment and is specific to the work domain. Kanter's (1993) theory of structural empowerment and theory of psychological empowerment helped shape the conceptual framework of this study. The framework involved the following components: perceived access to the empowerment structures (opportunity, support, information, and resources), psychological empowerment, job

satisfaction, and organizational commitment. A position of power is actually a position of great responsibility and unless part of the system one can not make change (Saxena and Khana, 2009, HT27/10).

2.20 Individual and Group Behavior Factors

In approaching a directional situation, it is useful to make the assumption that every individual and every work group has unique characteristics, which will affect their response to motivation, leadership and communication pattern etc. Admittedly, there are certain familiar behavioral patterns which crop up in different situations. These familiar behavior patterns can and should be identified in any situation, for they serve as benchmarks for guiding direction. As Bass, 1985 points out, modern behavioral research has produced only a limited number of such generalizations or "principles" about organizational behavior, and these are valid only in certain kinds of situations.

While a manager's analysis phase may begin with an examination of individual needs, needs do not provide a complete explanation of employee motivation and action. A person's values, attitudes, goals, health, ethical and religious beliefs, emotional make-up, outside pressure, group relationships, personality traits and many more factors influence his response to the work environment.

In addition, the situation may call for diagnosing work-group norms, sentiments and values, as well as the interrelationships among groups. These factors are examined because they often explain the source and cause of emergent group behavior, which disrupts operations and leads to problem situations and so to help a manager to determine what action need to be taken to correct the problem. Such an analysis is also helpful in anticipating potential problems in many situations.

The varieties of individual and work-group behavioral factors are required to be studied in a Bureaucratic Organization, as the output of the organization is dependent upon these factors.

This phase of the diagnostic process is always an important one in a direction situation, since direction involves people and an understanding of the various factors affecting their behavior provides the only sound foundation upon which the organizational pyramid stands.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, empower being a gateway for many prime behavioral attribute, this issue is reviewed.

2.21 Individual and Group Behavior Factors Affecting Organization Development

Human behavior factors also affect organization development, since the organization structure has to be designed to enable people to perform work effectively. Human factors may involve individual or group behavior.

Some knowledge of what motivates people to act and how people behave in a group or organizational situations is needed as background for organization development as working mass reacts differently to different kinds of work groupings.

The behavioral science provides many useful insights into organizational behavior, as well as techniques, which can be of help in organization development. A review of them is thus an important part of the diagnostic phases of the organization process, since they may provide useful models for analyzing the situation under study.

2.22 Integration of Behavior

It is time now to turn from the mechanisms that make integration possible to the pattern of behavior that results from the operation of these mechanisms (Behn, 1995). The process involves three principal steps:

1. The individual (or organization) makes broad decisions regarding the values to which he is going to direct his

activities, the general methods he is going to use to attain these values, and the knowledge, skills, and information he will need to make particular decisions within the limits of the policy laid down and to carry out the decisions. The decisional activity just described might be called substantive planning.

2. The individual designs and establishes mechanisms that will direct his attention, channel information and knowledge, etc., in such a way as to cause the specific day-to-day decisions to conform with the substantiate plan. This decisional activity might be called procedural planning, and corresponds to what was earlier described as "constructing the psychological environment of decision."

3. The individual executes the plan through day-to-day decisions and activities that fit in the framework provided by steps (1) and (2).

In reality, the process involves not just three steps but also a whole hierarchy of steps, the decisions at any given level of generality providing the environment for the more particular decisions at the next level below. The integration of behavior at the highest level is brought about by decisions that determine in very broad terms the values, knowledge and possibilities that will receive consideration. The next lower level of integration, which gives greater specificity to these very general determinants, results from those decisions that

determine what activities shall be undertaken. Other Levels follow, each one determining in greater detail a sub area lying within the area of the level above.

At the higher levels of integration, only the very general aspects of the situation can be given consideration. Particularization can take place only when attention is directed to the more detailed possibilities and consequences. Hence, a fundamental problem of administrative theory is to determine how this plexus of decisions should be constructed-what the proper division of labor is between the Top Bureaucratic "planning" decisions and the narrower "executory" decisions. A second fundamental problem is that of procedural planning-to devise mechanisms that will make effective the control of the executory decisions by the Top Bureaucratic decisions.

Structure of human values, noted that "a positive, active concern for the welfare of others is also necessary for collectivities to thrive." They found that these values differ across cultures along an individualist-collectivist dimension (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990) and later reduced their overall value structure to two dimensions, one being collectivism individualism. Grouzet and colleagues, through multidimensional scaling, found results across 15 cultures suggesting that community goals, like those for health and safety, are organized similarly by individuals throughout the world. It is hypothesized here that community goals predict the performance of other-focused safety behaviors because of the focus of these behaviors on improving the

safety of others and the work group as a whole. In addition, since construal levels may be more abstract for other-focused than self-focused outcomes, community goals may be stronger predictors of other-focused than self-focused behaviors. Community goals are positively related to the performance of other-focused safety behaviors (present and future-focused). Community goals are more positively related to the performance of other focused than self-focused safety behaviors (present and future-focused). Management Commitment to Safety Psychologically distant outcomes may also have a lower intrinsic value than psychologically close outcomes. There is evidence that individuals place greater value on outcomes when they are more immediate than when they are temporally distant. It is also likely that individuals will tend to value self-relevant outcomes more than outcomes relevant for others. Given that the outcomes of future focused and other-focused behaviors may have less intrinsic value to the behavioral operant, reinforcement from others and extrinsic rewards that are attached to these behaviors may be increasingly important in the performance of these behaviors. The impact of time on the representation of future events and the relative utility of competing choices has been discussed in the self-regulation and decision-making literature. The theory of hyperbolic discounting suggests that the value of outcomes decreases as they become more delayed (Loewenstein & Elster, 1992). Expected utility is a function of the product of valence and instrumentality, as specified in expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), but then must be divided by the difference between the current time and the time that the outcome is expected.

As a result, the forces that impact behavior according to expectancy theory, particularly efficacy and instrumentality, are attenuated by the temporal distance from the expected outcome, which decreases the outcome's intrinsic value.

2.23 Organizational Environment Factors

In many situations, the general organization atmosphere has an impact on the way employees respond to direction and the kind of leadership style and communication methods used.

In smaller Bureaucratic Organizations, for example, there is often a very informal and personal atmosphere. Communication is handled on a face-to-face basis, the top Bureaucrat can give orders directly to all levels of subordinates, there may be few written policies and procedures and the atmosphere may be generally an action-oriented, performance is measurable one, devoid of the political maneuvering.

During the subsequent stages of an organizational growth, some formalization occurs and this phase witness growth, several executives will begin to assume important responsibilities, communication channels will become less personal, and organization change will be the way of life.

When organizational growth rate begins to taper efficiency emerges as an important goal, because of expanding profit margins. Formalization may creep in many ways: organization charts and formal job descriptions; formal channels of communication; more written communication of ideas and written verification of decisions; multiple authority for decision making; greater specialization and division of functions; and an increase in attention to company politics. Such stratification and formalization is not inevitable in Bureaucratic setups as the prime aim of theirs is service orientation but not the profit and the only profit.

These phases or models of organization types admittedly oversimplify the problem of analysis. But they do demonstrate that different kinds of atmospheres prevail in different types of organizations. Different types of organization atmosphere may require different leadership styles, communication media, and employee motivators.

The organizational atmosphere may also vary not only by size of organization but also by type of company and by department within a company.

2.24 Organization by Purpose, Process, Clientele, Place

Administrative efficiency is supposed to be increased by grouping working mass according to (a) purpose, (b) process, (c) clientele, or (d) place. But from the discussion of specialization it is

clear that this principle is internally inconsistent; for purpose, process, clientele, and place are competing bases of organization, and at any given point of division the advantages of the three must be sacrificed to secure the advantages of the fourth. Some of these advantages can be regained by organizing on the basis of process within the major departments. Similarly, within smaller units there may be division by area or by clientele. Again, however, these major types of specialization cannot be simultaneously achieved, for at any point in the organization, it must be decided whether specialization at the next level will be accomplished by distinction of major purpose, major process, clientele, or area.

2.25 Control Theory

Control Theory Control theory has received considerable attention over the past 30-40 years. According to Carver and Scheier (1982), control theory has three key concepts that have implications for behavior: goals, feedback, and goal-feedback discrepancies. Goals are internal representations of desired states, such as outcomes or events (Austin & Vancouver, 1996). Feedback refers to stimuli that provide information about the discrepancy between one's current state and one's goal state. In other words, goal feedback discrepancies are the differences between feedback and goal states. According to control theory, as individuals passively or actively monitor their current state, they evaluate the discrepancy between current levels and desired levels, with these discrepancies leading to goal-striving activity and

providing the motivation to act. Negative feedback loops develop as individuals compare their current state with the referent goal standard and behave in response to goal-feedback discrepancies in an attempt to eliminate them. They then receive new feedback based on their behavior and once again compare this new feedback to desired states, continuously repeating the same cycle or feedback loop. Goal-feedback discrepancies are the prime motivator in control theory, with greater discrepancies creating a greater motivation to act, all else being equal. According to control theory, individuals hold multiple goals at different levels simultaneously operating. These goals are hierarchically organized at various levels of abstraction (Carver & Scheier, 1982). DeShon (2004) postulated that higher level goals specify the purpose of actions (i.e., the "why") and lower level goals specify the actions required to accomplish higher level goals (i.e., the "how"). The highest level goals are self goals, which are fundamental outcomes that all individuals must achieve. These are followed by principle goals which guide clusters of behavior, achievement goals which reflect action patterns that aid in the pursuit of principle goals, and action plan goals, which are mental models of action sequences that specify how to reach higher level goals.

Still, there is evidence that non behavioral engineering interventions, such as those reviewed above, do still reduce risk, contrary to what this theory might suggest. For example, while drivers respond to the installation of road lighting with higher speeds and decreased concentration, accident rates are still lower after these

safety measures are introduced. Seat belt use has also been associated with reductions in accident fatalities, despite increases in risky driver behavior. Others have specifically critiqued the risk homeostasis theory and its conclusions about safety interventions, noting, among other things, the extent to which non motivational safety measures have reduced accident rates (Graham, 1982). Despite these conflicting findings, risk homeostasis theory has been very influential in safety research, given how widely cited Wilde's (1982) article has been, and has provided a psychological explanation for some counterintuitive findings about safety interventions. It also presents the most widely researched theory of safety motivation that, like control theory in general, uses feedback loops as the basis for safety motivation. Finally, risk homeostasis theory is important in its emphasis on the value placed on safety and the importance of increasing an individual's targeted risk level when implementing safety interventions. It points to the importance of taking behavioral and motivational measures, in addition to engineering measures, to increase safety. As this review of risk homeostasis theory suggests, research using this approach has almost exclusively focused on self-protective behavior with immediate consequences for oneself. Its primary implications are that individuals are most motivated to act safely when they perceive a discrepancy between actual and target risk levels and when they place a high value on safety. However research using this approach to safety has ignored behaviors with delayed outcomes and outcomes that impact the safety of others. Furthermore, this theory says little about when individuals in

organizations attempt to take some control of and change their level of risk by modifying their work environment. Nonetheless, risk homeostasis theory and control theory in general point to the purposeful nature of safety-related behaviors, suggest these behaviors are performed when they are identified with the resolution of goal-feedback discrepancies. Furthermore, these approaches suggest that safety behavior at work is in part guided by values and principal goals of safety and security.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, individual and group behavior being prime behavioral attributes, this issue is reviewed.

2.26 Group Cohesiveness

Work groups and project teams have become increasingly important in today's organizations. A group is supposed to have an advantage over individuals working alone, derived through the combination of the strengths of each member and the pooling of resources so as to yield better decisions and performance. There are numerous arguments both for and against the use of groups. In the context of the global trend towards downsizing and the consequent increase in the responsibilities of managers, who may be overseeing a greater number of projects, work groups are often given more autonomy to manage their own activities. Based on a series of studies conducted since 1987, Lawler (2005) reports a consistent rise in the

use of self-managing work teams in Fortune 1000 companies; between 1987 and 1990 the data show a significant increase, from 28 per cent to 47 per cent; in 1990–1993 there is a further upturn from 47 per cent to 68 per cent; and 1993–1996 demonstrates yet another increase, from 68 per cent to 78 per cent.

The concept of cohesiveness is intuitively easy to understand. In layman's terms, a cohesive group is one that 'sticks together'—one whose members are 'bonded' to one another, and to the group as a whole. Cohesiveness would probably be accompanied by feelings of 'solidarity,' 'harmony,' and 'commitment' in its members. Other characteristics literally associated with a cohesive group are typically 'connectedness', 'a sense of we-ness', 'strong ties', being 'tightly coupled' and 'united ness' or 'oneness'. According to Adorno (1972), group cohesiveness is the best summary representation of the social-psychological variables present in the study of groups. It can be thought of as representing the group's human energy. Despite the seemingly easy-to-understand concept of group cohesiveness, researchers have defined it in different ways. Because cohesive groups are better able to induce conformity, members adhere more closely to group norms, thus enhancing their own performance orientation. It has also been pointed out that cohesiveness can be counter-productive if there is an anti-work norm within a group. Furthermore, its extreme form of 'over-cohesiveness' can lead to undesirable consequences like groupthink. It is generally argued that, by allowing participation in self-management, members' sense of

responsibility to, and ownership of, the work increases, thus enhancing the quality of their decisions by increasing the amount of relevant information to which they have access and by locating decisions as near as possible to the point of operational problems and uncertainties. The positive relationship between job autonomy and group cohesiveness should not be difficult to understand. Greater synergy or cohesiveness is created by increased opportunities for interaction within the team and for making decisions, greater control over the environment, and the availability of more mechanisms to resolve intra- and inter-group differences. Such changes in the structure of the group (e.g., greater control and opportunity) directly affect the amount of effort expended and the level of group synergy, as well as enhancing adherence to task performance strategies. Members of individualistic groups would perceive their diversity as a way of bringing unique qualities and multiple perspectives on problem solving to the situation. As a more complex and challenging job typically requires the pooling together of more resources and expertise, individualists may regard this as an opportunity to combine their talents as well as to learn from one another in solving the problem as a group. As discussed earlier, an increase in job complexity will lead to an increase in cohesiveness. Group members will become more interdependent as they pool information and expertise to solve the problem together. Individualists might perceive such a situation to be more of a challenge than a threat. Because individualists focus more on the task than on social and interpersonal relations, an increase in task complexity will generate

more cohesiveness for them to work toward a common goal. On the other hand, collectivists might see this more as a hindrance to social and interpersonal relations than a challenge to task relations. Their efforts might be more focused on building and maintaining social and interpersonal relations among members, rather than putting extra effort into accomplishing the goal together.

It expected that either (a) in-group conflict would produce greater competitiveness toward an out-group, the result of a carry-over effect; or (b) in-group conflict would decrease group cohesiveness and weaken group boundaries, and thus produce less competitiveness toward an out-group. The proposition that internal conflict will lead groups to show greater hostility in subsequent negotiations with an out-group is consistent. These changes include the development of negative attitudes and perceptions of others, de-individuation of others, and the development of zero-sum thinking-a win-lose mentality. Consistent with this model, Deshon, 2004 writes that conflict "leads to a suspicious, hostile attitude which increases the sensitivity to differences and threats, while minimizing awareness of similarities". Another reason to expect that groups experiencing internal conflict will show greater hostility in a subsequent negotiation with an out-group is the group repair hypothesis. This hypothesis is based on the assumption that people in groups are motivated to establish and maintain harmony and cohesion in their group. As an extension of the idea that between-group conflict enhances in-group cohesion, the hypothesis states that people who

experience in group dissension, adopt a hostile demeanor toward an out-group in an effort to strengthen or repair the in-group bonds.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, group cohesiveness being a prime behavioral construct, this issue is reviewed.

2.27 Social-Cognitive Approach

Social-cognitive theories of motivation, including goal-setting theory or goal theory (Locke et.al. 1981), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982), have significant fundamental and philosophical differences with control theory. While control theory describes behavior as a reaction to goal-feedback discrepancies, social-cognitive theorists suggest the mind is more proactive and anticipatory. More specifically, social-cognitive theories propose that individuals hold self-efficacy beliefs about their own behavior, actively set their own goals, and engage in self-evaluation and ultimately self-reaction (Bandura, 1982). Bandura (2001), in his review of social-cognitive theory, stated, "To make their way successfully through a complex world full of challenges and hazards, people have to make good judgments about their capabilities, anticipate the probable effects of different events and courses of action, size socio structural opportunities and constraints, and regulate their behavior accordingly" and is based on the notion of human agency, or the intentionality of human behavior (Bandura,

1982). Intentions are representations of future courses of action. Individuals have the ability to think ahead and create action plans, resulting in self-set goals. Foreseeable future events are mentally represented and become regulators of current behavior through the development of expectancies for behavior. Goal theory has also been developed as a social-cognitive approach to motivation.

According to goal theory, goal-setting focuses attention and action towards goal attainment, leads to greater effort and persistence, and facilitates the development of strategies to meet goals (Locke, et. al. 1992). Goal-setting draws from the self-reactive ness of humans (Bandura, 1986). Self-reaction refers to the process of humans regulating their behavior in reference to goal states. This regulation involves the evaluation and adjustment of behavior to keep one on goal trajectories. Goals specify the standards that must be met for positive self-evaluation, further creating motivational force (Bandura, 1986). One of the key differences between control theory and social-cognitive theory is in how goals are formed. Under control theory, goals are a function of higher order goal-feedback discrepancies and motivation is based on discrepancy reduction. In contrast, under social-cognitive theory, motivation is based on discrepancy reduction and production, meaning that individuals try to eliminate discrepancies between their performance and their performance goals, while they also sometimes set higher goals once those goals are met. This notion has been supported by findings that, after meeting certain

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task goals, individuals intentionally create discrepancies by setting higher goals.

Just as social-cognitive theories differ from control theories in their approach to human motivation in general, social-cognitive approaches to safety motivation differ from those using a control theory framework (e.g., risk homeostasis) in that they focus on expectancies for behaviors and behavioral intentions as the causes of subsequent safety related behavior. Under this view, individuals anticipate the outcomes of behavior and make choices based on those anticipated outcomes. The most common social-cognitive approaches to health behavior are expectancy value models, which view intentional safety behavior as a function of the expected outcomes of safety-related behavior and the value placed on those outcomes.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors, social cognitive approach being a prime behavioral attribute this issue is reviewed.

2.28 Relation of Value, Experience, Behavior in a Bureaucratic Organization

The significance of the "means-end" relationship now becomes clearer. It is clear that the "means-end" distinction does not correspond to the distinction between fact and value. What then is the connection between the two sets of terms? Simply this: A means

end chain is a series of anticipations that connect a value with the situation realizing it, and these situations, in turn, with the behaviors that produce them. Any element in this chain may be either "means" or "end" depending on whether its connection with the value end of the chain, or its connection with the behavior end of the chain, is in question.

Employee involvement is an organizational phenomenon that has received increasing empirical attention. Although much research has examined the outcomes of involvement at the organization level, arguments can be made for exploring involvement at the work-unit level and for investigating the processes by which a unit-level climate of involvement may be created or emerge.

According to Lawler (2005), involvement exists when employees throughout an organization have power to act and make decisions, have the information and knowledge needed to use their power effectively, and are rewarded for doing so. Whereas much early literature and writings on involvement are anecdotal, there is an 'evolving' line of empirical research directed at examining the relationship of involvement with individual and organizational outcomes (e.g., financial indices, absenteeism, and turnover). Some of this research (Lawler et al., 2005) has directly linked organization-level practices (e.g., quality circles, suggestion systems, access to incentive systems, access to training) to outcomes, whereas other

studies have focused on the link between individual perceptions of an involvement climate and the same outcomes. Regardless of the focus, the research has generally supported that involvement positively impacts organizational effectiveness. Rather, the practices must be translated in some way by the organization's human capital so as to impact jobs and roles. Further, it is not enough to impact just one person's job but, rather, the change must be collective. It is this collective recognition of involvement by employees that should result in stronger units and, ultimately, organizational functioning. As such, there are theoretical reasons to expect that employees as a group must perceive a climate of involvement in order for involvement have expected outcomes to materialize. At the same time, research examining only individual perceptions of involvement climate and its related outcomes is equally shortsighted. In other words, it is likely that there exists a host of factors that drive a climate of involvement. Whereas many potential antecedents to climate may be identified, our goal is to consider the roles that manager' context perceptions and employees' perceptions of their managers' transformational leadership may play as indirect and direct antecedents, respectively, to a climate of involvement. As such, employees' perceptions of their managers' leadership become the filter through which an organization's involvement efforts are recognized by employees and an important mechanism through which employees come to perceive a climate of involvement. There are theoretical and practical reasons for considering involvement climate and its potential antecedents and outcomes at the unit level. Perhaps most important, there is a social

component to organizational phenomena that is missed by considering employee-based concepts, like involvement, at just the organization or just the individual level. Both managers and employees give meaning to the organizational context, and this meaning shapes their interpretation of one another's behaviors. The concept of involvement and its proposed benefits is based partially on the premise that it functions through the collective, rather than individual, influence of employees' attitudes and behaviors and that these are likely to be associated with the unit-level motivational influences of employees' immediate managers. If managers do play an important role in creating employees who collectively perceive that they are involved and if, as a consequence, involvement does vary across work units, then the practical implications of involvement cannot be fully known without understanding how it operates at the work-unit level. The means-character of an element in a means-end chain will predominate if the element is toward the behavior end of the chain; the end-character will predominate if the element is descriptive of the consequences of behavior. If this be so, terms that are descriptive of the consequences of a behavior may be taken as indicia of the values adhering to that behavior. While the economist talks of economic goods as the values that are the goals of economic activity, in actuality, of course, the economic goods are merely indicia of the existence of a state of affairs from which value can be obtained-the possibility of consuming the goods.

The psychological act of evaluating alternatives usually consists in measuring these alternatives in terms of certain value-indices that have been found in fact to be generally associated with the realization of the values themselves e.g money, for example, may come to stand as an index of the values that money can purchase. These value-indices involve an important factual element; for they presuppose that an alternative characterized by a high value-index will possess a correspondingly high value.

If the means-end relationship is defined in this way, it does not permit a sharp separation of value from fact, for the same behavior may have, as consequence more than one value-it may be a member of more than one means-end chain. An acceptable policy cannot be determined merely by considering one of these means-end chains and ignoring the other.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors in bureaucratic organization, relation of value, experience, behavior being prime behavioral constructs, these issues are reviewed.

2.29 Unit-Level Climate of involvement

The conceptualization of involvement adopted here is based largely on the work of Lawler and colleagues (Lawler, 2005). The involvement underlies much empirical work on strategic Human Recourse Management and high performance work practices, thereby

making it salient to a broad range of research and researchers. One of the significant contributions of Lawler's work is that it suggests a fairly comprehensive and systematic approach to involvement in that it encompasses involvement (e.g., soliciting employee input) as well as other involvement-supportive mechanisms (e.g., training, rewards). The logic behind Lawler's holistic approach is that, by developing and taking advantage of employees' knowledge and abilities to make good decisions, involvement places authority in the hands of those most capable of making a given decision or taking action, and rewards them for doing so. Specifically, Lawler's conceptualization suggests that involvement is comprised of four dimensions or attributes: (a) the power to act and make decisions about work in all its aspects; (b) information about business results and goals; (c) rewards tied to performance and growth in capability; and (d) relevant knowledge of the work and the business gained from ongoing training and development.

It is important to point out that researchers (Lawler, 2005) argue all four attributes are necessary to achieve high involvement. For instance, workers with power, but no information and knowledge, are likely to make poor decisions or doubt their ability to make good decisions when acting independently. Without performance-based rewards, there is also no guarantee that they will use their power in ways that will benefit the work unit. Those with performance-based rewards, but nothing else, are likely to be frustrated and unmotivated because they cannot influence their rewards. Information and

knowledge without power is also frustrating because workers cannot act on their expertise. To date, the four involvement attributes have been measured almost exclusively at the organization level and in terms of a single upper-level manager's report of whether broad-level practices intended to increase the power, information, rewards, and knowledge are available to employees (Lawler et al., 2005). Such an approach, however, may mask lower-level phenomena through which involvement operates. It is chosen to conceptualize involvement in terms of employees' perceptions of a unit-level climate of involvement by defining a climate of involvement as one in which employees within a work unit collectively perceive that they have the four involvement attributes. Climate generally can be defined as the meanings that people attach to features of the setting, which 'serve as the frame of reference for guiding appropriate and adaptive task behaviors. Because involvement has been previously measured at the organization level and because psychological climate is based in the individual, it is important to define what is meant by a collective, unit-level climate of involvement. At the individual level, psychological climate is an individual's attempt to make sense of the work context, and this assessment represents the individual's perceptions about what is important and what behaviors are expected and rewarded in that context. Nonetheless, because individuals within a work unit are exposed to similar contextual features and share their perceptions with others in the unit, employees' interpretations of the environment can converge in similar perceptions. When individuals within a unit agree in their perceptions, a unit-level climate can emerge. The

resultant collective understanding of what makes sense is important because it suggests that although any one individual may not always believe he/ she has power, information, rewards, and knowledge in every situation the work unit as a whole generally perceives the attributes and is more likely overall to behave as if they do have them. Compositional phenomena are those that essentially operate identically across levels of analysis. It is posited that involvement climate is a shared work-unit level property that is isomorphic in function (i.e., as a frame of reference for guiding appropriate and adaptive task behaviors) between the individual and unit levels. It is also viewed that involvement climate is normative at the unit level. This means that, despite isomorphism, involvement climate cannot be captured simply as the extent to which individuals within a work unit perceive that they personally have the four involvement dimensions. Rather, it is intended to capture the synergistic nature of the construct and the extent to which perceptions of the unit's involvement have become standard across employees. A Unit-Level Model of Climate of Involvement although very clear as to the content of involvement (i.e., the four attributes), Lawler provides little explanation of how the attributes can be pushed down the organizational hierarchy to lower-level employees. Building on this theme, it is inferred that managers and employees have different sense making frames of reference for understanding involvement in the work context. For employees, the proposed sense making mechanism is their perceptions of their managers' transformational leadership. The leadership of immediate managers is the key filter

through which employees interpret the work environment, then employees' perceptions of that leadership should be a primary frame of reference driving employees' perceptions (i.e., how they make sense) of involvement climate. Nonetheless, because managers function as intermediaries between their direct reports and the organization, their frame of reference for making sense of organizational involvement efforts may be both the organization and subordinates. Managerial context perceptions and transformational leadership play vital roles in the process of organizational isomorphism. Transformational leaders seek to increase follower awareness of task outcomes, activate the followers' higher-order needs, and stimulate followers to act in the interests of the unit or organization. Dimensions of transformational leadership commonly include articulating an inspiring vision of the future, role-modeling, fostering acceptance of group goals, demonstrating high performance expectations, providing socio-emotional support, and stimulating subordinates to rethink how work can be performed best (Bass, 1985) opined that individual efficiency of the group member depends upon how unit members as a whole are treated by the leader. Bass further states, this approach to leadership is not intended to suggest that leaders do not form unique relationships with individuals, but rather the possibility that leadership as a whole can be generally homogeneous across a work unit. Unit-level transformational leadership is particularly appropriate in the context of this study because it is commonly associated with employee growth and independence (Bass, 1985), which are consistent with the involvement climate attributes of power, information, and

knowledge. The strength of a manager's transformational leadership toward employees as a group is a function of two sense making paths. The first path is through managers' beliefs about subordinates' collective ability to act and is at least partially determined by managers' previous experience with their work units' performance. That is, managers can recognize if their employees, as a whole, are capable of performing in the ways required by involvement (or by any other organizational initiative), and this recognition will shape leadership toward the subordinates as a whole. As an illustration, a manager who believes subordinates can make good judgments may encourage them to explore new ways of doing things (e.g., something commonly associated with transformational leadership; Bass, 1985), thereby increasing employees' perceptions that they have power to act and make decisions about their work. Thus, the first path, simply stated, implies that a manager will engage in leadership such that it is recognized by employees and is conducive to promoting involvement if and only if the manager perceives that subordinates have the ability to engage in involvement-like activities (e.g., making decisions on their own). If the manager possesses less favorable perceptions about subordinates' abilities, he/she will convey those perceptions via leadership that is not conducive to involvement.

Related to the latter, research generally indicates that employees will exhibit less withdrawal when they find their work environment and conditions to be desirable. Turning specifically to the involvement literature, Lawler (2005) argues that, under conditions of

low or no involvement, employees often find themselves in repetitive, simplified jobs (e.g., with no power) and, thus, are more likely to be absent from or leave the organization due to dissatisfaction. Although the above logic and findings are at the organization level, the arguments presented in this paper suggest that managers are the filters through which employees experience the investment of involvement and that this experience can produce a climate of involvement.

If a climate of involvement does represent a desirable work environment (i.e., because of greater power and decision-making authority, increased employee development, and performance-based rewards), then individuals within that climate may be less likely to withdraw than those who perceive less desirable working conditions. The effect necessarily should extend to the unit as a whole, as units that perceive a climate of involvement have some level of agreement regarding the assessment of the work environment.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors in bureaucratic organization, Unit-Level Climate of involvement being the shaper of prime behavioral constructs of the individuals, these issues are reviewed.

2.30 Changes in Workforce Size and Organizational Structure

Almost all growing bureaucratic organizations report that their workforces had grown over the 10 years prior to data collection. Among those with increases, the average change was by about 21– 40 per cent. Although increasing in the number of workers employed, many of such organizations reported that they had removed layers of management over the course of the same 10-year period. Specifically, few reported removing a single layer and very limited numbers reported removing two layers of management, indicating a general trend within this sample toward slightly flatter organizational hierarchies that might be considered consistent with involvement.

Environmental Characteristics imply that the bureaucratic organizations reported experiencing tough competition in the era of Liberalization - Privatization- Globalisation with half of these claiming that they experience it to a very great extent. Despite the workforce growth described above, only few organizations reported market growth of a great to very great extent. The remaining negated to some market growth. Quite a few organizations also reported moderate to very great quality competition and moderate to very great cost competition. None reported to some cost and quality competition.

Patterns of Involvement Practice : Following the technique used by Lawler et al. (2005), the senior bureaucrats were asked to report the percentage of the total number of workers employed by their

organizations for whom certain patterns of involvement practice are predominant. The first is 'none,' defined as no significant employee involvement. The second is 'improvement teams,' which refers to involvement focusing on special groups that are responsible for recommending improvements, such as participation groups or quality circles. The third is 'job involvement,' defined as involvement focusing on creating involving work designs, such as the use of self-managed teams. The fourth is 'business involvement,' which occurs when employees are involved heavily in the management of the business. The respondents were also given an 'other form of involvement' category in order to capture those involvement initiatives not addressed by the other four categories. Four organizations reported that no significant involvement initiatives are directed toward substantial numbers of employees (i.e., between 60 and 90 per cent of these organizations' workforces). The latter is interesting because some units within these organizations still reported perceiving high levels of involvement climate suggesting that a unit-level climate of involvement can exist even without significant use of organization-wide involvement practices. Of the remaining three organizations, two reported that large percentages of employees (i.e., between 55 and 60 per cent) participate in improvement teams. The last organization reported that 35 per cent of employees participate in no significant involvement, 30 per cent participate in improvement teams, and 20 per cent participate in job involvement. All organizations indicated that very few employees participate in business involvement (between

5 and 15 per cent) or another form of involvement (between 0 and 10 per cent).

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors in bureaucratic organization, Unit-Level Climate of involvement being the regulator of prime behavioral constructs, these issues are reviewed.

2.31 Role of the Administrator

The role of Bureaucratic Executives (Administrators) plays a vital role in the Bureaucratic Organization. It has been mentioned that administrative decisions are those, which are concerned with the decision-making process itself. That is such decisions do not determine the content of the organization's work, but rather how the decision-making function if to be allocated an influenced in that particular Bureaucratic organization (Koehler, 1997).

But to say that in any Bureaucratic organization certain "administrative" decisions have to be made, is not to say that the person who happens to be designated a "Bureaucratic administrator" in that organization makes, or should make, only administrative decisions. Whether or not it is desirable that there should be functionaries whose tasks are confined within these limits, it is certainly not an accurate description of administrative organizations as they exist today to define the administrator's task in those terms.

In almost all Bureaucratic organizations, the bureaucrats has a responsibility not only to establish and maintain the organizational structure, but also to make some of the broader and more important decisions regarding the content of the organization's work. To mention only one of these decisions, the higher administrator originally has a considerable responsibility for budget decisions-that is, decisions as to the directions in which the organization's efforts should be applied. Further, to him falls the responsibility, within the limits of his discretion, of formulating organizational objectives-that is, the values that will guide decisions at all lower levels of the organization.

Administrators are key to successful implementation of various policies. Prior to and during implementation, administrators play "a facilitating function by having a working knowledge of the change process, by removing obstacles to progress, and by developing strategies to assist progress". It is important that administrators take "an active role, but not necessarily a directive one. What are needed are an active planner and facilitator to help the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group get together, work on specific issues, and have access to external resources". In general, it is helpful if administrators:

- understand that implementation requires change and that change is a process that takes time
- recognize that each members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group is at a different stage in the change process

- are clear about their own roles in the implementation process

- become informed about the new curriculum, its basic philosophy and content, as well as the nature of the changes it advocates

- establish a working climate where communication is open and members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group feel safe taking risks as they change.

Administrators can support and facilitate implementation if they:

- ensure that a resource material selection policy is in place

- share information updates with the members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group as they become available

- ensure that the members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group have the opportunity to attend curriculum-related in service sessions

- provide recommended professional resources to the members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group

- involve the members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group in the selection of resources,

- encourage the members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group to share as they develop an

understanding of the new curriculum and build units of study

- provide for in service based upon specific areas of need of the members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group

- provide time for the members of the sub- ordinate and contemporary working group to reflect upon and discuss their change processes.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors in bureaucratic organization, role of the administrators being the influencer of prime behavioral constructs of the working mass of the bureaucratic organizations, these issues are reviewed.

2.32 Types of General Decisions

It should be made clear that actual events are determined by choice among on-the-spot alternatives for immediate behavior. In a strict sense, a decision can influence the future in only two ways: (1) present behavior, determined by the decision, may limit future possibilities, and (2) future decisions may be guided to a greater or lesser degree by the present decision. It is from this possibility of influencing future choice by present decisions that the idea of an interconnected plexus of decisions derives.

When a problem of a particular kind has several times arisen for decision, it may lead to a generalized query, which can be used as a basis for choice whenever a problem of this kind arises.

When the problem has been posed and a solution reached, then a decision has been made that will guide all further decisions on this subject. This it may do by selecting (1) particular values as criteria for the later decisions, (2) particular items of empirical knowledge as relevant to the later decisions, (3) particular behavior alternatives as the only ones needing consideration for later choice.

(1) The specialization of administrative functions, each with its own "objective", directs each portion of the organization toward the realization of a particular restricted set of values. To accept "reducing fire losses" as the objective of a fire department is to establish a criterion of value that will guide the fire department administrator in all his decisions.

(2) In many fields, general decisions are reached as to the facts that should be taken into consideration in making any subsidiary decision.

(3) Similarly, in many fields, general decisions determine the behavior alternatives that are to be considered when a specific choice is faced.

The psychological mechanisms by which these general criteria, previously decided upon, are brought to bear upon an immediate

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problem for choice have already been described. By creating internal and external stimuli, these prior decisions determine the framework of attention with which the mind responds to the specific choice situation. This narrow frame of attention is in distinct contrast with the broader area of reference that is involved when the prior, controlling decision is made (Pfiffener, 1990).

With out growing understanding of the organization of judgmental and intuitive processes, of the specific knowledge that is required to perform particular judgmental tasks, and of the cues that evoke such knowledge in situation in which it is relevant, one has to have a powerful new tool for improving expert judgment.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors in bureaucratic organization, types of general decisions being dependent upon prime behavioral constructs of the working mass of the bureaucratic organizations, these issues are reviewed.

2.33 Role of Interpersonal Relationship in service delivery

Bureaucratic organizations exist for effective and efficient service delivery to the citizens following the citizen centric principles in a welfare state. Here each citizen is both a customer as well as a stake holder. Thus the relationship between a customer and the bureaucratic organization plays a pivot role.

The relationship approach is an emerging perspective in marketing literature. Relationship marketing can be interpreted and defined as a marketing philosophy aimed at maintaining and strengthening relations with current clients, rather than identifying and acquiring new customers. In this perspective, the fundamental goal of the relationship marketing approach is gaining and fostering customer loyalty. As "understanding how and why a sense of loyalty develops in customers, remains one of the crucial management issue.

The customer's interpersonal relationships in a marketing context can have two different objects: a firm employee or another customer. Research about the customer-to-employee relationships has mainly been run in personal selling, retailing and service literature. In personal selling literature, it is widely recognized that the quality of the interpersonal relationship between the buyer and the salesperson can affect the quality of the relationship between the buyer and the selling company. In fact, the interpersonal relationship between the salesperson and the customer can have a substantial impact on important relational outcomes for the selling firm, because it fosters customer satisfaction, commitment and trust in the supplier, as well as repurchase intentions, willingness to recommend the provider to other potential customers, and to provide referrals. More in detail, many authors pointed out that customer trust and loyalty to the salesperson, on the one side, and to the firm, on the other, are distinct but interrelated factors, and emphasized the importance of sales force

skills and behaviors in gaining customer trust and developing long-term buyer-seller relationships.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the role of behavioral factors in administrative functionary of bureaucratic organization which exist for effective and efficient service delivery to the citizens following the citizen centric principles in a welfare state, out put i.e the service delivery of the organization being dependent upon Interpersonal Relationship, these issues are reviewed.

2.34 The Present Problem of Service Delivery

The nature of public services and public service organization has changed substantially around the world over past twenty years. This changing environment has made it increasingly important for public service managers to engage in the management of change and innovation. This change and innovation can also be both planned and emergent phenomena requiring different approaches to their management (Osborne, 2005).

Systematic improvement is still regarded as an ongoing responsibility of the state in the light of the demands on labor competencies and skills created by competition on a global scale (Szalkowski Jankowicz, 2004).

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On the other hand awareness is considered as the best tool in the developing process and a consequent growth of a managerial rather than administrative approach to the provision of public service.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the administrative functionary of bureaucratic organization which exist for effective and efficient service delivery to the citizens following the citizen centric principles in a welfare state, to understand the gap between the expected quality of service delivery by the bureaucratic organization vis-à-vis the actual, the yard stick is the "the Present Problem of Service Delivery" and thus the same is reviewed.

2.35 New Public Management

Since late 1980s, public administration has moved to a more business like approach, commonly referred to as New Public Management or NPM. The first principle of NPM is managerialism, (defined by Pollitt, 1993) involving:

a. Continuous increase in efficiency

b. The use of "ever-more-sophisticated" technologies

c. A labor force disciplined to productivity

d. Clear implementation of the professional management role

e. Managers being given the right to manage.

Taylor had a significant influence on government services before the First World War even though Weber represented bureaucracy as a

threat to parliamentary democracy as once established, it becomes almost impossible to abolish.

The second principle of the NPM is based upon indirect control rather than upon direct authority. The emphasis is not so much upon managers' right to manage, as upon the need for managers to be appropriately motivated and believe the right things. The characteristics of the second principle of the NPM are according to Gerth and Mills 1946):

a.   Continual improvements in quality

b.   Emphasis upon devolution and delegation

c.   Appropriate information systems

d.   Emphasis upon contract and markets

e.   Measurement of performance

f.   Increased emphasis on audits and inspection

The two principles of NPM are quite distinct. The first, Taylorist, principle is based on the adoption of industrial production engineering techniques within the public sector. The second is based on the primacy of market-based coordination. A variety of market mechanisms have been proposed and adopted for the reform of bureaucracy, apart from outright privatization. The basis of organization is changing from hierarchical authority to contracts and markets. Since labor constitutes a factor of production and also a market player, welfare of them entails better coordination with means and ends of industrial entities.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the administrative functionary of bureaucratic organization which to function under a paradigm shift of contextual changed managerial system in the era of free economy, this issue is reviewed.

2.36 New Public Service

Some opponents of the reinventing government movement have initiated the drafting of a new concept for public service. There are three aspects of the reinventing movement – the market model, the emphasis on customers, and entrepreneurial management. According to them government should be run like a business. The reinventing movement takes this idea one step further, arguing that government should not only adopt the techniques of business administration, but should also adopt the values of business. Government of India provide five guidelines for public servants seeking to assess the prudence of a public entrepreneurial venture, providing little useful advice regarding the best course of action in a difficult situation:

- Seek justice under the law

- Serve the public interest

- Ensure thorough analysis

- Act with compassion and empathy

- Take personal responsibility for decisions.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the administrative functionary of bureaucratic organization which to function under a paradigm shift of contextual changed managerial system and new public service in the era of free economy, this issue is reviewed.

2.37 Good governance

"Governance" opens new intellectual space. It provides a concept that allows discussing the role of government in coping with public issues and the contribution that other players may make. It opens one's mind to the possibility that groups in society other than government (e.g. 'communities' or the 'voluntary sector') may have to play a stronger role in addressing problems. The possibilities for good governance depend on institutional structures and the economic resources available for ensuring governance. In some cases centralised governance structures are inefficient. Management regimes should include the participation of all stakeholders, and should be transparent, reliable, accountable, and enforceable, have integrity, and be cost-effective, flexible and practical. The effective principles of Good Governance are:

Table 2.01 - Principles of Good Governance

The Good Governance Principles	The UNDP Principles and related UNDP text on which they are based
Legitimacy and Voice	**Participation** – all men and women should have a voice in decision-making, either directly or through legitimate intermediate institutions that represent their intention. Such broad participation is built on freedom of association and speech, as well as capacities to participate constructively. **Consensus orientation** – good governance mediates differing interests to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interest of the group and, where possible, on policies and procedures.

The Five Good Governance Principles	The UNDP Principles and related UNDP text on which they are based
Direction	**Strategic vision** – leaders and the public have a broad and long-term perspective on good governance and human development, along with a sense of what is needed for such development. There is also an understanding of the historical, cultural and social complexities in which that perspective is grounded.
Performance	**Responsiveness** – institutions and processes try to serve all stakeholders. **Effectiveness and efficiency** – processes and institutions produce results that meet needs while making the best use of resources.
Accountability	**Effectiveness and efficiency** – processes and institutions produce results that meet needs while making the best use of resources. **Transparency** – transparency is built on the free flow of information. Processes, institutions and information are directly accessible to those concerned with them, and enough information is provided to understand and monitor them.

Source: UNDP literature

In spite of these modern concepts, the bureaucratic set up which is the basic skeleton of the Government system tend to organize themselves in vertical departments that follow their administrative logic but not the user's need for their wellbeing and betterment. Preservation of the society which is essential for sustainable development cannot be achieved unless the total welfare of mankind is achieved. Further the government structure is usually too complex to be easily perceived by a common user who is probably much more interested in solving his problem fast then understanding the juggleries of the bureaucratic system (Saxena, 1996). The concepts of

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New Public Management, Good Governance etc. are confined to bureaucratic valley under the control of Sarkargiri. Because of these reasons i.e lack of policy sensitive citizen, the intents of the welfare policy seldom reach the intended group.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the administrative functionary of bureaucratic organization which to function under a paradigm shift of contextual changed managerial system and new public service in the era of good Governance, this issue is reviewed.

2.38 Corporate Social Responsibility:

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically, contribute to economic development, improving quality of life of citizens, build a meaningful relationship between the corporate sector and the rest of the society. Business has to adopt practices that ensure ethical, legal, commercial and public expectations. It must be the integrated part of day to day business engaging all stakeholders, strategies to support individual managers to make socially responsible decisions conforming ethical behavior and law (Baxi and Chadha, 2004). Under this, the business houses include the bureaucratic setups which are required to fulfill the following obligations:

- Obliged to comply with law, give the community a variety of financial and non-financial ways and take into account the environment and social context in which the business operates.

- Shrinking of government resources, distrust of regulations, demand for greater disclosures, increased customer's interests, investor's pressure, competitive labor markets etc. are some of the driving forces of CSR.

- The concept of CSR involves voluntarily adopted behavior going beyond legal obligations, practices intrinsically connected to sustainable development and culture incorporated into core business strategies.

- Accountability, transparency, conduct in conformity with laws, business ethics, good workplaces and labor relations practices, affirmative actions / good practices, customers loyalty and satisfaction, environmental benefits and company involvement with community are some of the components of CSR.

- Corporate Social Responsibility aspects can be either Human rights oriented or Labor oriented or Consumer protection oriented or pertaining to respect for national sovereignty and local communities.

Since the present study pertains primarily to the administrative functionary of bureaucratic organization which do have a system of Corporate Social Responsibility of managerial system in the era of good Governance, this issue is reviewed.