

## Chapter I

### INTRODUCTION

Ours is an age of organisations. Organisations are planned and created deliberately in order to realize certain specific objectives. All of us owe a good deal to organisations. Our standard of living, earning, education, development, acquisitions etc. are possible due to our membership of and involvement in different kinds of organizations. Much of what has been achieved is however, not without the side effects. Many people today working in large industrial organizations, are frustrated, dejected, indifferent, and dissatisfied. They find it difficult to relate themselves with their jobs more meaningfully. They do not feel involved in their jobs in a responsible way. All these and many other side effects are the outcomes of industrial work process. Organizations are planned, constructed, or restructured, along rational lines. The work is divided in such a way that each one does a small piece of job which is more or less a routine. Even at higher level of management, the work becomes a routine in the sense that the same type of problems are tackled in the same old ways, the same type of decisions are repeated over again and again, and the whole thing is programmed and structured in such a manner that

the individual has fewer occasions on which to think in a new way. The jobs, tasks, duties, power authority and responsibility are structured in such a way that dealing with them is more or less a routine. People resort to mechanical or habitual means to handle day to day situations. Most of the day to day problems which arise are also handled in a habitual manner. Consequently people have learned to live without thinking. They have planned and designed their environment in such a way that only habitual mode of dealing with it can operate. As long as things go on in a routine manner no problem arises. It is only when the problem situation demands new solution or new adjustment, the thinking takes place. The external environment demands continuously new modes of adjustment, and a high degree of sensitivity to changes in it. People with strong orientation to habitual modes can easily break down or display lot of stupidity and rigidity even if they realize the apparent absurdity of doing so. One thing that follows from these observations is that while organizations become more productive and efficient with the application of rational means, human beings become less happy and less satisfied. We wish to create an organization so that the productivity is as high as possible and the side effects are as low as possible. In other words, we wish to promote both productivity and human happiness. The question is, therefore, how to combine human

and physical or material resources so that the two goals viz., human happiness and productivity are optimally realized.

Organizational theorists and planners have tried to answer this question by evolving specific theories or models. One of the earliest approaches was the classical approach also known as scientific management approach.

According to this approach, people were recruited considering physical requirements of the job. People were considered merely as extensions to machines. They were evaluated in terms of physical criteria. They were trained so that they could make the most economic and less fatiguing movements, thereby contributing to productive efficiency of the organisation. Their efforts were coordinated and they were closely supervised. Economic consideration was the most important thing for motivating employees. They were paid in accordance with their output sufficiently, closely in time. In short, in this type of organizing effort, the man was reduced to machines only. Organizational structure, specific job training, strict supervision, division of work, and coordination of efforts were given much more importance for increasing production. Conflict according to this school of thought was mainly due to structural inadequacies and hence they could be eliminated.

Human Relations Approach came up by way of protest against the mechanical approach of classical school. This approach emphasized the social, cultural, and personal needs of the employees. It was believed that these needs, if satisfied through suitable provisions made within an organization, will make the employees more effective and efficient. This school of thought introduced the concept of informal group which cuts the boundary of the formal organization. Informal groups tend to develop in order to meet their requirements which are not met in the formal set up. Concepts like communication, participation, leadership, etc. were also emphasized by this approach. Conflict according to them existed into the minds of the people and not in the organizational structure. The overt expressions i.e. specific demands made by the employees are merely symptomatic of more basic and fundamental conflict in the deeper layers of the unconscious. In short, the human relations school of thought emphasized human beings in terms of their needs even at the cost of formal organization structure. What was needed is to have a balanced approach between the classical and human relations approaches.

The system view of organization, which emphasized various components and their inter-dependence, was also

in a way mechanical since human elements were considered in a dynamic organization in relation to other types of elements with whom they interact.

The most recent approach of Human Resources Development emphasized both the formal structural elements and human elements. This approach tries to enhance organizational effectiveness by combining human elements with non-human elements. This combining is not a superficial or mechanical event. The approach tries to identify talents and capabilities of people, train them, maintain them, and utilize them in a formal organization.

Viewing these and other related approaches in a broader framework, it could be observed that the various efforts at organizing were directed towards problems like absenteeism, turnover, low motivation, low production, lack of commitment, etc. which are fairly common among some organizations. Frequently, the causes for such problems are attributed to inadequate structure, improper distribution of power and authority, and lack of precise regulatory and control mechanisms. Sometimes the problems arise mainly due to inability of leaders to adopt their leadership styles to appropriate situations. Moreover ineffective group dynamics, inter-departmental rivalry, lack of team spirit, high degree of task interdependency giving rise to conflict

are some of the reasons for poor organizational effectiveness. In order therefore to understand the nature and causes of the major problem of ineffectiveness on the part of organization, efforts may be directed towards examining the structure for making possible changes in it, and training various personnel so that they can discharge their duties most effectively.

Work design provides diagnostic assistance, and also serves as a prescription for responding to problems of motivation, leadership, group dynamics and intergroups relations. Work redesign involves altering the content or context of a job, or changing the actual structure of jobs to improve individual and group performance and satisfaction. It has its roots in the various historical perspectives like scientific management, classical theory, human relations, job characteristics theory and so on, which link attributes of tasks to employee work responses. Some of the means of work redesign are work simplification, job enlargement, job enrichment, alternative work schedules, and sociotechnical redesign.

The brief description of each one of these follows :

WORK SIMPLIFICATION :

Work simplification emphasizes the reduction of a job to its component parts, and then a reassembly of these

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parts into an optimally efficient work process. Work simplification emphasizes the following features :

- (1) Mechanical pacing, or use of automated assembly line to monitor the speed of production.
- (2) Designing the work so that individuals replicate the same tasks (repetition)
- (3) Concentration on only a fraction of the product; for example; in automobile manufacturing, one individual might mount the wheel on the rim, while another might place the hub cap on the wheel.
- (4) Predetermination of tools and techniques that is, describing the work process as precisely as possible.
- (5) Limited social interaction among workers.
- (6) Breaking the job down into specific and relatively simple tasks that require minimal training.

Work simplification does suggest the value of assessing the complexity of jobs, as well as the fit with their skills and preferences, but at the same time it has some of the significant dysfunctions like, worker boredom,

limited opportunities for individual growth, mechanization for its own sake, and greater specialization also likely to increase worker dissatisfaction in long range. So work simplification does not seem to offer a complete solution to the problem faced by the organization in achieving its goals, or general benefit of the enterprise.

ALTERNATIVE WORK SCHEDULES :

Alternative schedules redesign work to meet the unique needs of individuals at different stages of development. Symptoms of poor performance, employee dissatisfaction, high turnover, and high absenteeism call for a review of work design as one part of diagnosis. Alternative work schedules address on the context of work itself. The major variable features of such programs include :

- (1) Band width-the total number of hours between the earliest possible starting time and the finishing time of the job.
- (2) Core hours - total number of hours the employee must be at work daily.
- (3) Flexible hours - total hours within which the employee can make choice about stopping or starting work.

- (4) Length of the work week : Number of days the worker must attend.
- (5) Banking - The ability of the employee to carry forward a surplus or deficit of hours worked.
- (6) Variability of schedule - the employees' freedom to vary hours from day to day and week to week without prior approval from the supervisor.
- (7) Supervisor's role - the extent of the supervisor's scheduling and monitoring of employee activities.

Alternative work schedules take three basic forms :

- (1) Compressed work week, where there are changes in the days of number of hours worked;
- (2) Discretionary systems, where the workers have some control over the precise days or hours worked; and
- (3) Part time employment.

The concept of compressed work week has been the outcome of attempts to shorten the work week to cut costs and increase worker satisfaction. Compressing means reducing the number of hours worked per day or, more desirably, compressing the current number of hours into fewer days. Five days of nine working hours is a common compressed work

week configuration. The five days work week may result in greater employee satisfaction; however, this improved attitude may occur at the expense of employee efficiency; nine to ten hours can be a very long day. This may create feeling of bordon.

Discretionary systems include staggered starts and flexible working hours. The staggered system, offers employees the choice of starting and stopping time so long as the employee work certain core hours daily and meet the hour requirements of a normal work week. At present, two new variations of part-time work have emerged; job sharing and job splitting. In job sharing, a whole job is divided into two parts according to time and day of the week. Together the job holders are responsible for completing the work, and each performs all the tasks of the job. One might work mornings and the second afternoons; or one might work the first 2½ days of a five day week, while the second works the last 2½ days. In job splitting, the jobs are divided according to tasks or skills, rather than schedule. In splitting a secretarial job, for example, one might take all dictation while the second might do all filing. In production department one may involve in producing the goods while the second might do all miscellaneous work like sorting, polishing, packing etc.

Winpisinger & Weintraub, (1973) and others have documented the benefits of alternative work schedules, especially flextime. Responses to such innovation include an increase in productivity because of reduced use of sick leave, decreased turnover, absenteeism and overtime; increased employee satisfaction and morale; and decreased transportation demand during peak hours.

Usually the major resistance to a typical work schedules stems from the perception that work must be done at the same time by all employees because of the interdependence of the tasks. To overcome this constraint, carefully scheduling tasks and building a small inventory of different parts and processes is required.

#### SOCIOTECHNICAL REDESIGN :

Sociotechnical design is complimentary to other approaches described above. It is concerned with making appropriate adjustments while introducing new technology into a work system effectively. Researches at the Tavistock Institute in England (1965), were the first to note the negative impact of new technology on worker productivity and satisfaction. The introduction of new technology was found to be conflicting with strong work culture and social system. To overcome such problems Scandinavian automobile manufacturers - Saab and Volvo (1978),

- introduced the concept of "autonomous work groups" for meeting worker social needs. These groups controlled their own task assignments and division of work. Volvo and Saab also introduced self-regulating groups, in which employees who perform interdependent tasks work in a common unit. Such work design requires that the workers have the necessary skills and competence to regulate and control their tasks, to influence their transactions with the environment, and to differentiate themselves from other groups sufficiently to form the whole.

#### JOB ENLARGEMENT :

Job enlargement technique for job redesign attempts to improve the work performance by focusing on the needs of the worker rather than exclusively the needs of technology. This technique attempt to overcome the inherent disadvantage of overspecialisation and mass production by changing the nature and content of the job itself.

In marked contrast to work simplification, job enlargement popularly refers to increasing the scope of a job by increasing the number of activities or different processes it involves. Job enlargement has been defined by Hulin and Blood (1968), as "the process of allowing individual workers to determine their own pace(within limits) to serve

as their own inspectors by giving them responsibility for quality control, to repair their own mistakes, to be responsible for their own machine set-up and repair, and to attain choice of method."

Job enlargement comprises various human factors related with the job such as more variety of tasks, in order to remove the factors like monotony, boredom, fatigue and to provide intrinsic motivation so that employees achieves some reasonable satisfaction from the work.

Job rotation is a variant of job enlargement. Here the worker performs a wide range of tasks, but alternates among them over a time span. A worker, for example, might weld one week, solder the next, and pack the third. A single worker might solder all wires in a circuit board rather than making just one type of connection.

However, job enlargement has been defined and explained differently by different authors.

Susman G.I. (1973), defines job enlargement "as a process which allows workers to be responsible for their own mistakes and machine setting alongwith supervising and attaining the goal of their own job. In this technique, worker has freedom to choose his job, supervise it and

will also be responsible for his own work."

Job enlargement has been defined by Kilbridge (1960), as "the expansion of job content to include a wider variety of tasks and to increase the workers freedom of pace, responsibility for checking quality and discretion for method."

According to Reif and Schoderbek (1966), the purpose of job enlargement is to eliminate the undesirable characteristics of the highly repetitive, specialized job by enlarging the concept of the individual job to include (i) a greater variety of knowledge and skills (ii) a more complete utilization of the important cognitive and motor abilities possessed by the worker, and (iii) more freedom and responsibility in the performance of the task at hand.

According to Herzberg (1968), job enlargement is the obverse of job specialization. Based on the worker-centered principle of job design, it is an intentional modification of the content of jobs toward the end of providing the opportunity for the employees' psychological growth. The term job enlargement has been used for a number of years to refer the expansion of the content of jobs. This can be done in various ways, such as by adding additional activities of the same general nature (for example, having

individuals assemble complete parts rather than performing a single task), by adding activities of a more responsible nature (such as planning and scheduling), by job rotation, by making people responsible for the inspection of their own work, by having them repair their own work, or by allowing people to set their own work pace. In this regard, however, Herzberg makes a distinction between job enlargement and job enrichment. He considers job enlargement to be the process of making jobs structurally "bigger" by the addition of more tasks of the same general nature, whereas job enrichment consists of modifications in jobs that provide opportunity for personal growth (including in particular the addition of job activities of a more responsible nature, with greater decision-making, and other similar additions).

The underlying assumption involved in enlarged jobs is that they will bring about various alterations in value to both the individual and the organization, such as increased motivation, decreased boredom and dissatisfaction, increased productivity, and improved job attendance. On the basis of the experience resulting from one job enlargement program, Sorcher and Meyer (1968), express the following opinion.

Simplification brought disadvantages along with its hoped-for advantages : it brought boredom,

meaninglessness; it removed challenge and any sense of individual commitment. Not only does simplification carried to its limits do damage to the worker's self-esteem and motivation, but repetitiveness, when it entails boredom and lack of goals, also increases poor quality rather than decreasing it. So now, from every point of view, from considerations of humanity to those of profit, it now becomes the task of industry to engage the employee in a more meaningful role.

A few words of constraint probably should be added to these forthright pronouncements. In the first place, it should be noted that the desire of employees for "enlarged" jobs probably is not universal; there are indications that at least some people prefer very simple, routine activities. And in the second place, it is probable that there are many types of necessary activity in this world of ours that probably can not be organized in such a way as to be intrinsically meaningful and challenging to people generally.

But within these (and perhaps other) constraints, the objective set forth by Sorcher and Meyer - engaging the employee in a more meaningful role - is one that society needs to endorse and support. As Jasinski points out, in

recent years a number of social scientists have become concerned with this matter, and in fact with the entire spectrum of man's social psychological relationship to the technological process with which he is associated. The current interest in job enlargement is a reflection of this concern.

To some extent, this recent interest in job enlargement was initiated by Walker (1950). Although the trend toward job enlargement has not taken on epidemic proportions during the years since Walker's study, there have been at least a handful of situations in which job enlargement efforts have been carried out.

If there is systematic career planning in an organization, techniques such as job enlargement can be introduced to meet the future organisational needs in connection with job design. This may be necessary to provide greater versatility to the employee as may be required of him for higher positions or due to technological changes like automation to be introduced in the future. Here a bigger job is structurally prepared and the job is enlarged. This enlargement may be effected horizontally or vertically. In horizontal enlargements, the related tasks are combined or the workload increased by enlarging the scope of the work. In the words of Herzberg (1968), horizontal loading, consists of adding a number of tasks

to a job, generally of the same nature and level as the initial activities, or rotating people from one activity to another. In vertical enlargement the area of accountability is increased and controls reduced thereby affording the employees greater freedom for action. For example, he can be assigned total responsibility for a complete job. Thus horizontal job enlargement combines jobs at the same level of responsibility although they may belong to different groups. On the other hand vertical enlargement consists of grouping together jobs at different levels, more specifically. Vertical enlargement refers to various approaches to increase the job content in terms of authority, accountability, decision making, reduction of controls, and so forth. Herzbers argues that such an approach offers increased opportunity for job satisfaction on the grounds that the job content "motivators" (such as a sense of responsibility, achievement, or recognition) can then come into play. Job enlargement can thus constitute an excellent training ground for further promotions. It can also render the job more interesting and thereby enrich it. While closer to job enrichment than job extension or job rotation when described in this way, job enlargement remains a distinct management strategy.

## DISCUSSION

The job enlargement concept however seems essentially incompatible with the traditional methods analysis approach of the industrial engineers, which has tended to be focused on a mechanistic, work - specialization approach to job design. To some degree human factors engineering also is guilty of concentrating on the mechanics of human activities from a "micro" point of view - of simplifying work for people and reducing it to fairly constrained, rather definitely programmed boundaries. The irrevocable shift in technology toward automation has contributed further to the proliferation of process - centered approaches to job design. And yet, to date, experience and research with job enlargement have not provided clear unequivocal evidence that job enlargement should be followed as a universal basis for job design - although it is indeed a very promising approach.

If one is interested in finding some rational basis for job design, where, then, does this leave us? Accepting some risks, we may offer some admittedly subjective observations. In the first place (as pointed out by Hulin and Blood, 1968), job enlargement should not be expected to serve the motivational purposes attributed to it for all types of jobs and for all types of workers, but rather may serve such purposes in some circumstances. In the second

place, it is doubtful if a job enlargement approach ever could be justified on practical grounds as "the" basis for job design; as Nadler (1963), observes, it cannot and should not become a whole program. In the third place, it is probable that the very nature of some work processes precludes the practical possibility of job enlargement, thus imposing some limits on the possible range of types of work activities that would be susceptible to such an approach.

In reviewing various studies of job enlargement, however, Hulin and Blood (1968), came to the conclusion that the case for job enlargement has been drastically overstated and overgeneralized. More specifically, they indicate that the assumed advantages of job enlargement tend to be realized when applied to only certain segments of the labor force, particularly to jobs of white-collar and supervisory workers and those of nonalienated blue-collar workers. Their findings imply that job enlargement should not be perceived as the panacea for all of the production problems or employee morale problems of an organization, but that it may be an appropriate program in certain types of job situations.

And, in the fourth place, it is observed that the process-centered and worker-centered approaches to job

design are perhaps not as incompatible as they might initially appear to be. In this connection, Davis points out that operations planning takes place at two levels : namely, task design (to accomplish elements of operations), and task combination, in which tasks are combined into jobs. Davis expresses the opinion that, although industrial engineers generally cannot be criticized for the depth and intensity of their efforts in task design, they have not done well in task combination. It is primarily in the process of combining tasks into jobs that considerations of human motivation, job satisfaction, group behaviour, and such variables come into play. Thus, at least in some job design situations, one can take a process-centered approach to task design and worker-centered approach to task combination.

#### JOB ENRICHMENT :

Whilst job enlargement merely involves horizontal changes introducing greater variety in the tasks to be performed, job enrichment; according to Herzberg, involves vertical changes leading to a certain amount of self-management. The employee is required to participate in planning his work as well as measuring results in terms of quality and quantity.

The job enrichment is based on the theory that job satisfaction and interest is the function of job content.

It is applied as motivational tool whose basis is 'motivators' which satisfies higher order needs of the worker. It seeks to improve both efficiency and satisfaction by making the job meaningful to the worker. The job becomes meaningful when it provides a sense of achievement, recognition, an opportunity to the employee to use his skill, knowledge and abilities in order to ensure personal growth and advancement. It makes the job challenging and full of responsibility for him.

Sirota David (1973), includes for<sup>u</sup> key elements to understand job enrichment :

1. Rating the responsibility level of a job.
2. Increasing the discretion with which the job is performed.
3. Increasing closure (doing 'the whole thing').
4. Increasing the timeliness of performance feedback.

Whitsett D.A. (1972), considers job enrichment as a strategy for designing or altering a job to provide interesting work for employees and utilize their competence and talent in effective operation of an organisation. This has numerous characteristics viz., (i) telling the dimensions of a specific job with its start and end points, (ii) control

of employees over decision-making and (iii) employees know frequently about their achievements and drawbacks on the job. Hackman and Lawler (1971), have emphasized mainly three characteristics of enriched job.

1. The job must allow a worker to feel personally responsible for a meaningful portion of his work. The autonomy dimension would seem to tap the degree to which workers feel personal responsibility for their work.
2. The job must provide outcomes which are intrinsically meaningful or otherwise experienced as worth-while to the individual.  
The job come to be experienced as meaningful to employees to the extent that they involve doing a whole piece of work of some significance and job that provides the chance to use their valued skills and abilities which he personally values.
3. The job must provide feedback about what is accomplished.

Some of the job factors which have been concentrated by the social scientists in this respect are : repetitiveness, variety in the job, skill requirement, knowledge of results, autonomy to take decision, a degree of responsibility, freedom of movement, interaction with co-workers, opportunity to learn and opportunity to complete the job.

In general job-enrichment refers to providing opportunity for the employee's psychological and material growth. Therefore, job enlargement can provide job enrichment which is more important than mere job enlargement. Merely providing a larger element of routine in the job cannot motivate the employee. For effective motivation, the employee must be provided intelligent and responsible jobs likely to harness his full capacities and provide an outlet for his creativity and imagination. Job enrichment is a very powerful motivating tool besides being needed for developing the individual for higher appointments visualised in his career planning. Job enrichment thus, involves changing a job both horizontally and vertically. It comprises two types of programmes :

- I. Orthodox job enrichment
- II. Job characteristics approach to enrichment

I. Orthodox Job Enrichment :

The orthodox job enrichment follows Herzberg's motivation-Hygiene model. Herzberg (1966), makes a clear distinction between hygiene factors and motivators. His approach to job enrichment is an application of his theory of motivation and more specifically is directed at designing motivators into diluted, over specialized jobs.

In Herzberg's Model the motivator factor is also known as satisfier factor, and hygiene factor as dissatisfier or maintenance factor. These two categories that are primarily associated with high job attitude generally are linked directly or indirectly with the job activities as such; these categories are achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibilities, and advancement. Such factors are thus essentially related to job content, which means that they are intrinsic to the job itself. Because positive expressions relating to these factors generally are associated with high job attitude situations, they are referred to as motivators. On the other hand, the factor categories that were dominantly associated with low job attitude situations are those that are extrinsic to the work itself and that are associated primarily with the job context rather than with the job activities. The more important of these are company policy and administration, technical supervision, interpersonal relations (supervision), and working conditions. Because these deal essentially with the environment or work situation they are called hygiene factors.

Such results have led Herzberg to conclude that only the fulfillment of the motivator factors can lead to positive satisfaction on the job, and that the fulfillment of the hygiene factors can prevent dissatisfaction but cannot

contribute to positive satisfaction. In other words, in Herzberg's view, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction should not be considered as opposite ends of the same continuum, but rather as different factors. Thus, in the words of Whiteset and Winslow (1967), "the opposite of satisfaction is NO SATISFACTION, whereas the opposite of dissatisfaction is NO DIS-SATISFACTION."

Related to Herzberg's theory is the distinction between two sets of human needs. One set stems from man's animal nature and his need to avoid "pain", this set consists of the needs for which the hygiene factors are relevant. Because these factors serve only to reduce pain, they cannot contribute to positive satisfaction but only to the avoidance of dissatisfaction. The second set of needs within this framework relates to the human drive towards self-realization - that is, essentially the self-fulfillment need as postulated by Maslow. According to the theory, self-realization can be achieved only through the fulfillment of factors which are intrinsic to the work itself -- in other words, the motivator factors. Such factors cannot satisfy the avoidance needs, just as the hygiene factors cannot fulfill the need for self-fulfillment.

A number of studies have been viewed as generally supporting Herzberg's two-factor theory, and several of these

are summarized by Herzberg and Whitsett and Winslow (1967). One such study, carried out at Texas Instruments, is reported by Myers (1964). The procedures followed those used by Herzberg with intensive interviewing of 282 subjects (including fifty-two females) in various occupational groups. Although the results generally were in line with what would be predicted from Herzberg's theory, there were some differences in the specific motivator and hygiene factors that were dominant in the responses of individuals in the different occupational groups.

On the other side, there have been numerous studies that have been interpreted as not supporting the two factor theory. Some of these studies have been summarized by House and Wigdor (1967). In one of these, one Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel (1967). The studies reveals that certain motivator factors as well as certain hygiene factors were found to characterize both satisfying and dissatisfying situations, as reported by the subjects. Thus some "motivators" (such as achievement responsibility, recognition and advancement) frequently were used to characterize dissatisfying situations and certain "hygiene" factors were used to describe satisfying situations. These patterns of response are inconsistent with Herzberg's theory.

Some of the principles involved in Herzberg's approach for enrichment are as follows :

- (1) Removing some controls, while retaining accountability.
- (2) Increasing the accountability of individuals for own work.
- (3) Giving to an individual a complete natural unit of work.
- (4) Granting additional authority to an employee in his activity.
- (5) Making periodic reports directly available to the worker himself rather than to the supervisor.
- (6) Introducing new and more difficult tasks not previously handled.
- (7) Assigning individuals specific or specialized tasks, enabling to become experts.

The motivators that are influenced by such principles include responsibility, personal achievement, recognition, achievement, growth and learning and advancement.

The steps that managers should take in using the principles of job enrichment are outlined briefly by Herzberg as follows :

- (1) Select those jobs in which (a) the investment in industrial engineering does not make changes too costly (b) attitudes are poor (c) "hygiene" (i.e.,

job context) factors are becoming very costly, and (d) motivation will make a difference in performance.

- (2) Approach these jobs with the conviction that they can be changed.
- (3) Brainstorm a list of changes that may enrich the jobs.
- (4) Screen the list to eliminate those that involve "hygiene" rather than "motivation" factors.
- (5) Screen the list to eliminate any "generalities."
- (6) Screen the list to eliminate any "horizontal" loading suggestions.
- (7) Avoid direct participation by the employees whose jobs are being enriched since the job content itself will produce motivation, not attitudes about being involved or the challenge in changing the job.
- (8) In the initial introduction of job enrichment, set up a controlled experiment by selecting two equivalent groups - one an experimental group and the other a control group. The motivators are systematically introduced over a period of time for the experimental group while no changes are made for the control group. Pre and post

enrichment tests of performance and job attitudes are made to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme.

There are many ways in which a job can be enriched.

The following are some of the methods :

- (1) The boundaries of the individual's responsibility can be extended. He can be allotted duties which are closely related to the ones he is presently performing.
- (2) Using the principle of management by objective, the individual can be given greater freedom to set his own objectives. Side by side, his accountability for achieving such objectives must be increased.
- (3) The extent of supervision over an individual can be reduced.
- (4) The individual can be given more exacting or difficult jobs.

However, to avoid frustration, he must first be given the requisite training.

Thus it becomes necessary in organisations to provide intrinsic satisfaction and motivation to the employees. Very often jobs have been designed merely on technological

considerations, void of consideration of the human factor. Extreme division of labour results in minute fractionalisation of work processes. This results in a number of routine and repetitive jobs, particularly at the lower levels. To provide motivation a movement must therefore take place to reverse this trend by enriching the job content, enlarging its scope and giving the employee more control over his own work. Job enrichment can make work easier by making it less dull. However, the fact remains that it is necessary to create a work climate where the individual's need for self-actualisation is met at least partially from the work he performs daily.

II. A new strategy for job enrichment based on Job Characteristics Model :

This model focuses on the features of the job itself. It traces motivation and satisfaction to psychological states experienced by individuals, then links these states to the characteristics of jobs. Thus in the job characteristics model, core characteristics of the job significantly influence the behaviours and attitudes of employees. This model emphasizes five characteristics of job, which are very crucial in determining the motivation of an employee, they are viz;

- (1) Skill variety : The degree to which a job requires the worker to perform activities that challenge his or her skills and abilities.
- (2) Task identity : The degree to which a job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work - doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome.
- (3) Task significance : The degree to which the job has a substantial and perceivable impact on the lives of other people.
- (4) Autonomy : The degree to which the job gives the worker freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining how he or she will carry it out.
- (5) Feedback : The degree to which a worker, in carrying out the work activities required by the job, gets information about the effectiveness of his or her efforts.

Skill variety, task identity, and task significance influence the extent to which an individual job holder experiences the job as meaningful. Autonomy in the job, influences the extent to which an individual believes he or

she is responsible for outcomes of the job. Feedback in the job increases the third psychological state : knowledge of results.

The job characteristics approach calls for enrichment of a job by increasing one or more of the core dimensions. The following actions increase one or more of these :

- (1) Combining tasks (such as by having a typist proofread his or her own work) can increase skill variety and tasks identity.
- (2) Forming natural work units (such as by having a nurse do all nursing tasks for a given patient, to distribute work in a natural and logical way) can increase tasks identity and task significance.
- (3) Establishing client relationships can increase skill variety, autonomy, and feedback, e.g., by having groups of bank loan officers always deal with the same clients.
- (4) Loading a job vertically which combines implementation and control (such as by giving production workers responsibility for quality control or meeting schedules) can increase autonomy.

- (5) Opening feedback channels, by letting the workers know about his or her performance while the job is being done (such as by setting and monitoring goals) can increase knowledge of results.

Researches have suggested that job enrichment does improve productivity and satisfaction, as well as decrease turnover and absenteeism. The impact of job enrichment depends on the following :

Organizational variables :

- (1) the job itself
- (2) technology
- (3) the workers and
- (4) management

The choice of work design as a prescription for organizational problems depends on the nature of problems diagnosed. Redesign often offers a good solution to poor motivation, ineffective communication, stress, issues of individual development, and nonproductive group behaviour. Work simplification corrects problems associated with overly complex jobs in which the job holder experiences role conflict, role ambiguity, or role overload. Job enlargement responds to the reverse, where jobs have become overly simplified, often because of the specialization of routine tasks.

Job enrichment can correct problems of poor motivation resulting from work that has become meaningless, devoid of responsibility, or detached from its consequences. The sociotechnical approach deals with situations where introduction of a new technology infringes on, limits, or eliminates the social interactions of the work place. Finally, alternative schedules redesign work to meet the unique needs of individuals at different stages of development. Symptoms of poor performance, employee dissatisfaction, high turnover, and high absenteeism call for a review of work design as one part of diagnosis.

This type of diagnosis should take into account the nature and type of organisations since public and private sector organizations differ strikingly in the functional areas, the same type of enrichment programme may not result in improvement in work performance in both these types of organizations. The brief description of the public and private sector organizations highlighting the important differences between them follows :

#### PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECTOR ORGANISATIONS :

##### Private sector organisations :

The development of private sector organisations as such has a long history in India. The initial successful efforts were made by the 'Parsis' and 'Marwaris' to establish

factory way of production system in India. There was a rapid growth in the number of firms since the end of second world war. During this time India was not free from the impact of industrialization.

As stated above, traditionally, a limited number of Hindu Vaisyas (Gujaratis and Marwaris) and Parsis dominated in the big business and entrepreneurship. Recently partly due to the policy of the Government a very large number of small entrepreneurs from varied social strata has emerged in different regions of the country.

Under the system of private enterprises the means of production are controlled or owned by a single individual or by an association of persons with a view to make profit out of their business venture. The main ingredient which distinguish private sector and public sector is the type of ownership. The private sector organisations are owned, managed, and controlled by a single person or by a group of persons. The proceedings of the venture constitute the reward of the proprietor.

In case of private sector organisation the owner occupies the top most and key position, having all controll over the business affairs. He possesses almost all powers in his hand. He is a policy maker and a decision maker,

Other subordinates including managers, supervisors, workers etc. work in a structured manner, so as to fulfill the organisational goal. The main goal of private sector organisation is to make profit.

As regards the working and expansion of private sector organisations it is believed that private sector command sufficient technical or administrative personnel and because of this reason it's rhythm of work is very fast, not only that, but it also shows very fast adjustment to the changing circumstances. Mainly these two reasons among others are responsible for rapid growth of private sector organisations in comparison to public sector organisations.

As regards promotion policy in private sector organisations, relatively there is no written policy. Since the owners of such organisations are maximally concerned about profit maximization, they would prefer to promote only those who can substantially contribute to the organisation mission. In such a case the most competent person may get a rapid rise and a relatively less competent person may remain until retirement at his own position for which he was originally appointed. There is nothing like time bound promotion in such organisations as is the case in public sector organisations.

Unlike public sector organisations, private sector differ in business principles and philosophy. Private sector organisations are profit oriented organisations. The endeavours of private sector organisations are mainly concentrated around getting maximum benefits/profits out of its capital investment. Many a times this types of orientation results in the exploitation of employees. As is true in the capitalistic society this types of business attitude results in the concentration of wealth and economic resources of the community in fewer hands. Sometimes particular private sector industries may even create business monopolies. It is an established fact that unbridled monopolies lead to concentration of wealth, economic power, and political power to the detriment of public interest. Every Government, therefore, takes steps to curb monopolistic practices which prove prejudicial to 'common good'. Our constitution amply makes it clear that we should move towards building an equitable society. In addition to legislative measures, the Government had also embarked upon a massive programme of countervailing measures, such as enlarged role of public sectors and protection of cottage industries. Public sector provide a counter-vailing power to the growth of large houses and large enterprises in the private sector. There is an expanding role for the public sector in several fields.

In short in private enterprise profit motive is the prime mover of business life, and individual urge to maximise profits is the prime force in the economy as a whole. Therefore, public ownership becomes necessary to ensure that society gets all the basic necessities of life at reasonable prices and in reasonable quantities.

#### Public sector organisations :

Under the system of public enterprises the means of production are controlled or owned by the state with a view to increase the national income and distributing it more equitably. State ownership and operation of industrial and commercial undertakings has become a common feature of the economic organisation in most of the countries today. The concept of welfare state, the ideology of socialism, and the adoption of economic planning are the chief motivating factors behind the recent expansion of state enterprises in both developed and developing countries. Welfare of the community is the main purpose behind public ownership.

Public sector organisation is defined as a recognisably distinct organisation of the Government, whether Central, State or Local, involving the manufacture and production of goods or making available a service for a price. Such activity being managed departmentally or through an autonomous

body, with the Government having a majority ownership, that is more than 50 percent equity. Public sector is a new discipline - in fact, its acceptance as a distinct field of study has not been made and emphasised adequately. Public sector management has its own identity and problems, though like many other disciplines, it draws heavily from numerous other fields.

Public sector in India is largely a post independence phenomenon. The industrial policy resolution of 1948 represents the first articulate enunciation of the respective roles of public and private enterprises in the economic development of India. The emergence and growth of the public sector in India is based on the Directive Principles of the State Policy, which says that "the operation of the economic system shall not result in concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment", and further "the ownership and control of economic resources of the community are so distributed as to subserve the common good." So it emphasise decentration of wealth and means of production forms part of the policy of the Government.

In India since the advent of economic planning state undertakings have been increasing in number. Government has nationalised quite a few enterprises and has also established new undertakings in various spheres of the

national economy. The Industrial Policy Resolutions of 1948 and 1956 have progressively assigned dominant role to the state in the spheres of industrial and public utility undertakings.

Industrial Policy Resolution 1956, stated the following chief objectives :

- (1) accelerated economic growth and speedy industrialisation,
- (2) public sector expansion,
- (3) increasing direct State interest in setting up new industrial undertakings, for developing transport facilities and State trading activities in foreign trade.

The 1956 policy statement rightly stressed the need for management of public enterprises strictly along business lines. It stressed the ambitious role of the public sector in our mixed economy, primarily responsible for establishing a sound base of accelerated economic growth through developing key and basic industries, e.g., iron and steel industries, fertiliser and chemical industries, heavy engineering and heavy electrical industries, aircraft, machine tool and defence industries and so on. It pointed out roughly where the Government owns, where it will own, and lastly where it will merely regulate, viz., the categories

of industries.

Under planned economy for quick industrialisation and balanced economic development we have an ever-increasing role to be played by public enterprises for the purposes of production and equitable distribution. The need for public enterprises is even greater in a socialist pattern of society wherein public sector economy acts as a major partner and private sector economy has to play a complementary role.

All public sector enterprises and undertakings have the following main objectives :

- (1) To accelerate and maximise the rate of capital formation or economic growth.
- (2) To provide sound economic foundation for increasing opportunities of gainful employment and for increasing standard of living of masses.
- (3) Vigorous industrial development of the backward and underdeveloped regions.
- (4) Prevention of the evils of monopoly.
- (5) Reduction in the disparities in income and wealth, i.e., equitable distribution of wealth and income.

- (6) General objective of replacing profit motive by those of responsibility and service to the community.
- (7) Extension of industrial democracy and removal<sup>g</sup> of exploitation of labour.
- (8) Social control and regulation of short-term as well as long-term finance through public financial institutions.
- (9) Social control over sensitive areas e.g., public distribution of essential goods-- better quality and fair price.
- (10) Self reliance in science and technology or research and development.

The development of public sector <sup>mainly</sup> ~~is more~~ depends on the policy of the Government. The attitude of Government towards public sector vary from the highly empirical to the rigidly ideological. The factors that determine a Government's attitude toward public enterprises may be Political (Ideology), economic, social (welfare) or administrative, and the same factors determine the mode of organisation of Public Enterprises.

The activities of Public sector range from production of sophisticated items to heavy equipments and from area of

financial management to construction of bridge, roads, consultancy and research and development. They are now the basis for the economic growth of the country. The vast majority of Public enterprises established in the areas such as fertilisers, ship building, machine tools, heavy engineering, heavy chemicals, petroleum and so on.

The fact that the Government's approach is not dogmatic is proved by the fact that public enterprises have substantially helped the private sector by providing finance, infrastructure and technical help to accelerate industrial development in all possible ways.

As regards the working and expansion of the public sector it is believed that, the public sector do not command sufficient technical or administrative personnel, and because of this reason it has no rapid growth.

In case of public sector, an important aspect of the management structure is its slow adjustment to the changing circumstances. Public sector generally takes a much longer time to adjust their organisation to meet the changing requirement of the situation because of their close linkages with the bureaucracy in the Government. Moreover, policy boards, functional boards, policy-cum-functional boards, political force etc. has unique effect on working of the public sector, while in case of private sector one policy

board with Chairman, or full time Managing Director will run the whole business affairs.

As regards the working and expansion of the public sector it is believed that the public sector do not command sufficient technical or administrative personnel and because of this reason it has no rapid growth. In short both private and public sector differ in communication, hierarchy of positions, promotion policy, service rules, autonomy of work, finance, materials, employment, decision making, co-ordination and ministerial control. Besides do differ in business principles and Philosophy. These variation has profound effect on labour relations, management of personnel, cost, efficiency, internal organisation, delegation of authority, price control, line and staff relationship, the rhythm of work and so on.

So it can be seen that the infrastructure and the suprastructure do differ in case of both, private and public sector organisations. Thus it is apparent that both public and private sector organisations have differing goals and differing modes of working, and hence it is expected that these two types of organisation would differ in respect of job motivation, potential, individual growth need, experienced psychological states, and affective outcomes. In the present investigation the postulated

linkages have been tested empirically using both public and private sector organisations.

DEFINITION OF THE CONCEPTS INVOLVED IN THE MODEL :

(1) Job motivating potentials : Job motivating potentials denotes core characteristics of jobs that elicit the psychological states of high job motivation. Recent research has identified five "core characteristics" of jobs that elicit the psychological states of high job motivation. These five core job dimensions provide the key to objective measuring jobs and to changing them so that they have potential for motivating people who do them. The five core dimensions are viz., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job. Three of the five core dimensions contribute to a job's meaningfulness for the employees : skill variety, task identity, and task significance.

(i) Skill Variety : The degree to which a job requires the employee to perform activities that challenge his or her skills and abilities when even a single skill is involved, there is atleast a seed of potential meaningfulness. When several are involved, the job has the

potential of appealing to more of the whole person, and also of avoiding the monotony of performing the same task repeatedly, no matter how much skill it may require.

(2) Task Identity : The degree to which the job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work - doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome. For example, it is clearly more meaningful to an employee to build complete toasters than to attach electrical cord after electrical cord, especially if he never sees a complete toaster, note that the whole job, in this example, probably would involve greater skill variety as well as task identity.

(3) Task Significance : The degree to which the job has a substantial and perceivable impact on the lives of other people, whether in the immediate organisation or the world at large. The worker who tightens nuts on aircraft brake assemblies is more likely to perceive his work as significant than the worker who fills small boxes with paper clips -- even though the skill levels involved may be comparable.

Each of these three job dimensions represents an

important route to experienced meaningfulness. If the job is high in all three, the employee is quite likely to experience his job as very meaningful. It is not necessary, however, for a job to be very high in all three dimensions. If the job is low in any one of them, there will be a drop in overall experienced meaningfulness. But even when two dimensions are low the worker may find the job meaningful if the third is high enough.

- (4) Autonomy : Autonomy is the fourth core dimension which leads a supervisor or a worker to experience increased responsibility in his job. This dimension deals with the degree to which the job gives the worker freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining how will carry it out. People in highly autonomous jobs know that they are personally responsible for successes and failures. To the extent that their autonomy is high, then, how the work goes will be felt to depend more on the individual's own efforts and initiatives -- rather than on detailed instructions from the boss or from manual of job procedures.

- (5) Feedback : The fifth and last core dimension is feedback. This is the degree to which an employee, in carrying out

the work activities required by the job, gets information about the effectiveness of his efforts. Feedback is most powerful when it comes directly from the work itself -- for example, when an employee has the responsibility for gauging and otherwise checking a component he has just finished, and learns in the process that he has, lowered his reject rate by meeting specifications more consistently.

The Concept of Individual Growth Need :

Every individual would like to use his potentiality and would aspire for self-actualization. But they differ in the level of growth need strength. Employees who have strong <sup>growth</sup> needs are more likely to be more responsive to job enrichment than employee with weak growth need. Therefore, it is important to know at the outset just what kinds of satisfactions the people who do the job are (and are not) motivated to obtain from their work. This will make it possible to identify which persons are best to start changes with, and which may need help in adapting to the newly enriched job.

So before thinking about the specific action steps for job enrichment, an important factor should be taken into account is the growth needs of the employee, since employees high on growth needs usually respond more readily to job enrichment than do employees with little need for

growth. The Job Diagnostic Model (JDS) provides a direct measures of the growth-need strength of the employees. This measure can be very helpful in planning how to introduce the changes to the people, and in deciding who should be among the first group of employees to have their jobs changed.

#### Experienced Psychological States :

Behavioural scientist have found out that there are three psychological states or phases experienced by the persons and which are critical in determining a person's motivation and satisfaction on the job. They are :

experienced meaningfulness - the individual must perceive his work as worthwhile or important by some system of values he accepts. Second state is the experienced responsibility - he must believe that he personally is accountable for the outcomes of his efforts. And last one is the knowledge of results - i.e., he must be able to determine, on some fairly regular basis, whether or not the outcomes of his work are satisfactory.

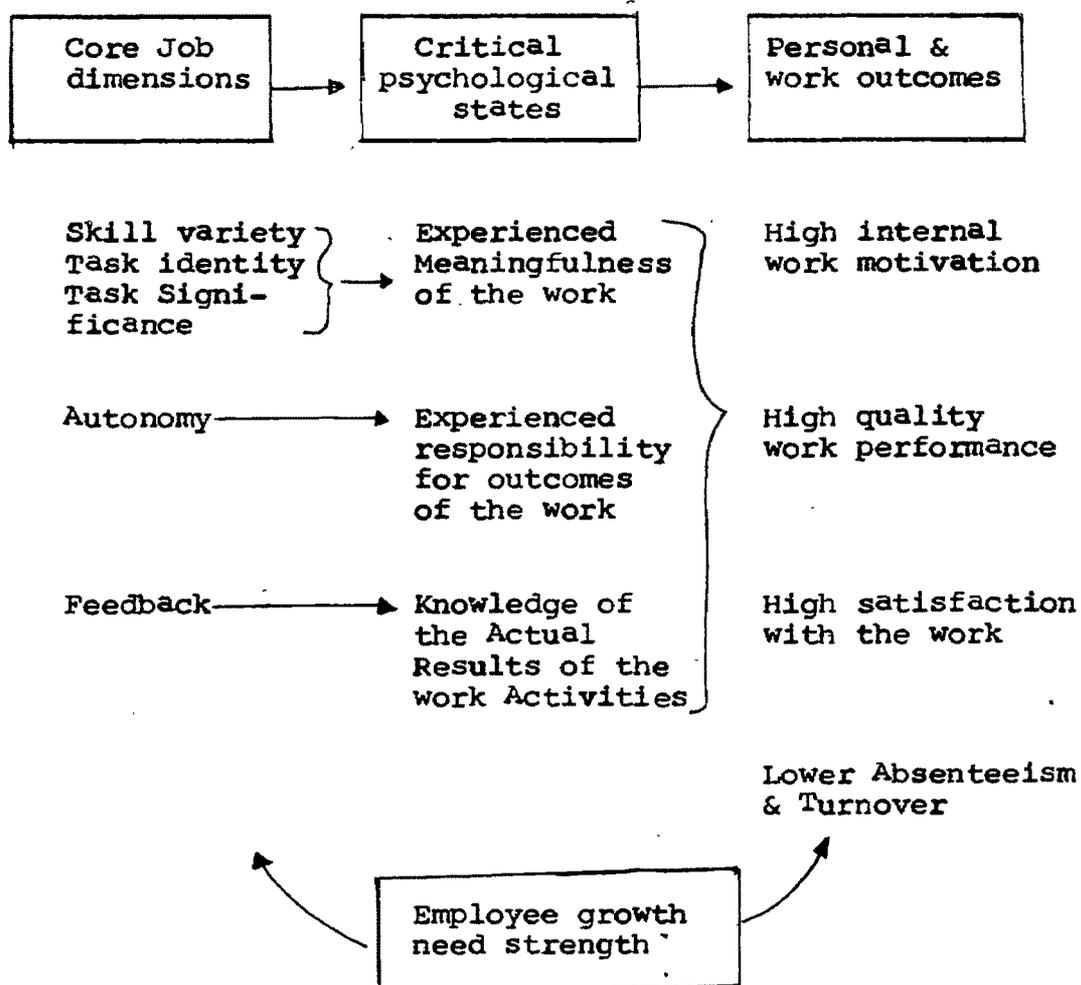
When these three conditions are present, a person tends to feel very good about himself when he performs well. And those good feelings will prompt him to try to continue to do well - so he can continue to earn the positive feelings in the future. That is what is meant by "internal

motivation" - being turned on to one's work because of the positive internal feelings that are generated by doing well, rather than being dependent on external factors (such as incentive, pay, or compliments from the boss) for the motivation to work effectively.

Affective Outcomes :

Affective outcomes relates to general satisfaction an employee has for the job and the degree to which the job is intrinsically motivating.

So in short, skill variety, task identity, and task significance influence the extent to which an individual job<sup>holder</sup> influences the extent to which an individual believes he or she is responsible for outcomes of the job. Feedback in the job increases the third psychological state; knowledge of results. Using this, the job characteristics approach calls for enrichment of a job by increasing one or more of the core job dimensions.



The overall "motivating potential" of a job as shown in the chart, the five core dimensions combine to affect the psychological states that are critical in determining whether or not an employee will be internally motivated to work effectively. It is possible to compute a "motivating potential score" (MPS) for any job. The MPS provides a single summary index of the degree to which the objective characteristics of the job will prompt high internal work motivation. Following the theory

outlined above, a job high in motivation potential must be high in at least one (and hopefully more) of the three dimensions that lead to experienced meaningfulness and high in both autonomy and feedback as well. The MPS provides a quantitative index of the degree to which this is in fact the case. The formula for calculating MPS is as per below :

$$\text{Motivating Potential Score (MPS)} = \frac{\text{Skill Variety} * + \text{Task identity} + \text{Task Significance}}{3} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback from the job.}$$

So the motivating potential score (MPS) provides a quantitative index of the degree to which the job provides motivating potential to work, or to take a task on hand. The MPS can be very useful in diagnosing jobs and in assessing the effectiveness of job-enrichment activities. It is useful to construct a "Profile" of the target job, to make visually apparent where improvement need to be made.

On the whole the job-diagnostic survey model of job enrichment provides linkages between three sets of variables. A set of independent variables (Job characteristics) in certain combinations is expected to produce different internal states which are purely psychological in nature. It is through these internal states that the

third set of variables viz; individual and organizational outcomes become linked up with independent variables.

This model thus shows that there are moderator variables which moderate the relationships between independent and dependent variables.

In the present research these various linkages among the sets of variables have been examined. It was also felt that the <sup>†</sup>posulated relationships may vary according to the type of organization. Since public sector organizations differ considerably from private <sup>sector</sup> organizations in certain functional aspects, it was felt that the relationships among the three sets of variables may assume different patterns in these two types of organizations.

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