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BLOCK I: LEADERSHIP SKILLS



UNIT-1

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Highlights of the Unit

- Objective
- Introduction
- Concept, meaning and functions of leadership
- Attributes Of Leaders
- Dimensions Of Leadership Behaviour
- Effectiveness Of Leadership Behaviour
- Importance Of Leaders' Situation
- Leadership Styles and Group Situations
- What is Leadership Style?
- Emerging Leadership Styles
- Conclusion
- Further Readings/ references

1.0 OBJECTIVES:

The objectives of this unit are to help you to develop:

- An understanding of differences between leader and manager
- Familiarity with meaning, functions, and traits of leadership
- An appreciation of behaviour and styles
- The capacity to know the difference between transactional and transformational leadership

1.1 CONCEPT, MEANING AND FUNCTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is an important role in extension organizations for achieving efficiency and excellence. Many of you may not know the difference between leaders and managers. An analysis of root meaning of the word 'lead' and 'manage' will help to understand differences between concept of leadership and management. It has been reported (Kouzes

and Posner, 1997) that the word 'lead' means 'to go first' or 'to travel'. Thus, the leaders are pioneers or innovators. They are likely to go beyond the beaten path. There is always an urge in their hearts to innovate and to challenge the status quo.

The word 'manage' refers to "hand" which has the meaning of maintenance of order. Thus, a manager is greatly concerned with maintaining the present status quo through an established order and rules. He is obsessed with faithfully implementing a plan handed over to him. And his main focus will be not in creating a future vision or goal but attaining the existing goals or standards of performance. A manager is greatly concerned with organizational procedures and rules, while the leader's heart is after the people. Further, the management focuses in reaching the existing goals and standards of performance, while the leadership focuses on creating a future goal and providing a vision. The greatest asset of a leader is his capacity to persuade and inspire others, while the management tends to manipulate and control the employees.

Based upon our discussion, leadership can be defined as follows: Leadership is an art and science of influencing, motivating and inspiring people towards the futuristic vision or goal through challenging the present status-quo and securing people's trust and confidence. The role of leaders in making impact and influence on others has also been emphasized by Pareek (2004) who defined 'leadership as an act of making an impact on others in a desired direction'.

According to Drucker (2007), management is doing things right and leadership is doing right things. Finally, it can be said that leadership is concerned with doing 'the right things' while management is concerned with 'doing things right'. How does 'doing right things' differs from that of 'doing things right'? Do you see any difference between the above? There is a cardinal difference. Doing 'things right' is concerned with efficiency, which deals with ratio of inputs to the outputs. Doing 'right things' is concerned with effectiveness, which deals with making right decisions or plans under particular circumstance to achieve the objective. There is no use of making wrong decisions or plans



and completing them efficiently. No doubt, we need both effectiveness and efficiency, but without effectiveness, efficiency will not help in obtaining the desired results.

What are all the functions of leadership? Leadership is mainly concerned with the following functions:

1. Providing a futuristic goal or vision
2. Motivating and inspiring
3. Coaching and guiding
4. Problem Solving
5. Providing innovative ideas

1.1.2 The myths of leadership

Some of the most common myths of the leadership are given below:

1. **Intelligence myth:** Often it is assumed that people who are clever with a higher level of intelligent and knowledge are leaders. It is not necessary that people with a higher level of intelligence and knowledge become leaders.
2. **The hereditary myth:** According to this myth, leaders are born with certain characteristics which help them to become effective leaders. Though people are born with different abilities and capacities, everyone becomes a potential leader through proper training and by taking responsibility.
3. **The job hierarchical myth:** One of the most common perception of the people is that the leadership position is based upon the position they hold. The position of a person in any organisation does not necessarily make a person a leader. Most often, the people at the lower level position have provided needed vision, direction, influence and motivation for the employees of an organisation. According to Stanley Huffty, “It is not the position that makes, it is the leader that makes the position.”

4. **The Pioneer myth:** Most often people believe that people who are pioneers or those who gave innovative ideas or developed products or established enterprise are all leaders. The pioneers, entrepreneurs and innovators need not have leadership potential and people may not follow them.

1.2 ATTRIBUTES OF LEADERS

A survey conducted by Kouzes and Posner (1997) among thousands of employees in business and government organizations has shown that the top four important characteristics which are sought in leaders by the followers are as follows: 1.Honesty, 2.Forward Looking, 3.Inspiring and 4.Competent.

Being honest is the number one quality or attribute, which is sought in leaders by the followers. People follow you “whether it be into battle ground or into the board room, into the class room or into the back room, into the front office or to the front lines” if they perceive you to be of worthy their trust. Important components of honesty are as follows: I. Being truthful, II. Being ethical, III. Being principled.

Forward looking deals with challenging the status quo and having a focus on creating a future vision. The vision of a leader helps the followers to have clarity of purpose and direction. Ability to inspire refers to capacity of the leaders to motivate team members to believe in a common vision / mission and creating enthusiasm and passion towards realizing the same. Being competent refers to possessing necessary knowledge, skill and wisdom to make decisions and achieve results.

We live in a time when the amount of knowledge gets doubled once in five years. In recent years education has been redefined “as the process of knowing the unknown”. We also live in an exciting world of technological changes. The above scenario points out that an effective leader has to be competent both in human relationship and technical skills. It does not mean that the leader should know the intricacies of technology and operations of a manufacturing factory. However, a leader should have sufficient technical skills, which would help him to make strategic plan in the fast changing environment. The need of



leaders to have technical competency varies from industry to industry. In hi-tech knowledge based industry, one cannot exercise effective leadership unless one has got enough technical skills to know what is happening in his organisation. There is also a need for constant scanning of the environment to make necessary policy changes whenever required.

Apart from the above mentioned four most important attributes of leaders, studies have indicated different personal abilities which are needed for effective leadership functioning. The trait approach to leadership emphasizes that the leaders are endowed with some of these attributes, which makes them successful. Based upon examples and experiences of different leaders, it has been found that a person who is aspiring for leadership position should inoculate the following qualities in his life:

Table 1.1 Qualities of leadership

1	Courage	12	Willingness to work hard
2	Intelligence	13	Physical strength
3	Self-competence	14	Enthusiastic
4	Ability to trust others	15	Ability to withstand failure
5	Creativity	16	Fairness
6	Initiative	17	Innovativeness
7	Communication skills, (a) Speaking, (b) Writing	18	Guidance in spotting opportunities
8	Emotional stability	19	Friendliness
9	Decisiveness	20	Empathy and
10	Conceptual skills	21	Self confidence
11	Flexibility		

1.3 DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

During late 1940's and early 1950s, researchers were interested in identifying the behaviour characteristics of effective leaders. The need, not only to know the traits of leaders which indicate 'what they are' but also to know the behaviour of leaders which indicate 'what they do' which make them effective. Leadership behaviour refers to behavioural styles of leaders in terms of their actions. For example, to what extent a leader organises the work, develops a schedule of work and maintains a standard of performance as well as takes care of welfare of employees? At Ohio State University, studies conducted under the direction of Ralph. M. Stogdill in late 40s revealed the following two important dimensions of leadership behaviour:

- a) Initiating structure (task oriented)
- b) Consideration (employee oriented)

Initiating structure refers to structuring subordinates so as to achieve the goal. This involves organizing and defining relationship in a group.

Examples of initiating structure includes the following:

- a) Assignment of specific task
- b) Development of specific plan of work
- c) Scheduling of work
- d) Maintaining specific standard of performance

A manager who is high in initiating structure helps the employees to have a higher understanding of role clarity, which eventually increases their job satisfaction. Further, in military type organisations, officers without a higher level of initiating structure are considered less effective.

Consideration refers to leadership behaviour, which is related to developing an environment of mutual trust, emotional support and two-way communication between the leaders and subordinates. Activities under this include the following:



- a) Treating subordinates as equal
- b) Listening to subordinates' problems and ideas.
- c) Taking interest in subordinate growth and interest.

Based upon the dimensions of consideration and initiating structure, we can classify the leaders into the following four types:

- a) One who shows low consideration but having a high structure
- b) One who shows high consideration and high structure
- c) One who shows high consideration and low structure
- d) One who shows low consideration and low structure

1.4 EFFECTIVENESS OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Studies have shown that employees' satisfaction was higher under leaders who had a higher level of consideration. Employees were dissatisfied under the leaders who had a high level of initiating structure. What style of leadership behaviour will be considered as effective? Studies at the university of Michigan have shown that the most productive work groups are likely to have employee centered managers, rather than the production-oriented managers. However, the researchers at the Ohio State University found that the employees' perception of effectiveness of leaders depends not upon the styles or behaviours of leaders but upon the situations. For example, the military commanders who were high in consideration were considered less effective while the managers of commercial companies who were high in consideration were considered as effective. This means that authoritarian leadership would be needed under military environment while business, academic and research environment may need employee centered leaders (Stoner *et al.*, 1999). Thus, it is clear that there is a need to strike a balance between the two styles, depending upon the situations.

1.5 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERS' SITUATION

Effectiveness of leaders depends not just upon their attributes, attitudes but also on the situation or environment on which they function. According to Fiedler (1967), the

leadership effectiveness depends upon the 'favorableness of the situation' which indicates the extent to which a leader can positively influence the members of a group. He identified the following three factors or dimensions which contribute towards 'favorableness of situation'. The situation of the leader will be considered favorable if these dimensions are found to be high in the environment.

- a) The leader-member relationship
- b) The tasks structure
- c) The leader's position power

1.5.1 The leader-member relationship

It is one of the crucial factors, which decides the favorableness of the situation. It refers to the extent to which the leader and the members maintain good relationship. If for some reasons the members do not accept the leader whole-heartedly, the effectiveness of leader will be lowered. The leader-member relationship can be affected by various factors like their age, personality, attitude, and openness in communication, style of functioning, ability, and organizational policies. A leader who has a good relationship with members need not use his formal power to get the work done, while a leader who is opposed by the led, may have to exercise his power to get the task completed.

1.5.2 Task structure:

Task structure refers to the extent to which the job is programmed and spelled out giving details of different steps. The degree of task structure has been reported to be the second most important factor contributing towards favorableness of the situation. If the task happens to be highly structured, it will be easy for the manager to get the work done. However, if the task is unstructured, the roles of members may become ambiguous. Under this situation, getting the job done will be relatively difficult and the leader has to exercise a higher amount of creativity.



1.5.3 Leader's position power:

It refers to the formal authority of the leader including his power to reward and punish the employees. This dimension seems to be the third most important factor contributing towards the favorableness of the situation.

1.6 LEADERSHIP STYLES AND GROUP SITUATIONS

The leader's environment or situation is favorable if the leader-membership relationship is high, along with well-structured tasks and high formal authority of leader. The leader's environment will be unfavorable if the opposite situation prevails in the above three dimensions, i.e. lower level of level of acceptance by the members, poor task structure and poor leader power. What style of leadership will be effective under favorable and unfavorable situations?

According to the research findings, under favorable and unfavorable situation the task-oriented leaders are most effective. The reasons for success of leaders through tasks orientation under favorable conditions are quite obvious. Since the leader and the members maintain a good relationship the group is ready to take up the direction from the leader and follow his order. Further, if the tasks is well structured it will bring role clarity and reduce uncertainties. But why the task oriented leader is successful under highly unfavorable situation? Under this situation the leader and the group do not maintain a good relationship with each other. Thus, the disliked leader's efforts to involve members of the team in joint decision making may not result in fruitfulness. The best course of action would be to assign work and give firm directions to the members. What kind of leadership style will be effective in a situation which is neither highly favorable nor unfavorable? Studies have shown that employees or people-centered leadership style is effective in the above situation.

1.7 WHAT IS LEADERSHIP STYLE?

Every leader has different ways of functioning to accomplish the goal. The term 'leadership style' refers to the method of functioning or influencing, which a leader exerts on the followers. There is no single style, which can be effectively used in all circumstances. However, the leadership styles of effective leaders are different from that of ineffective leaders. Each style of leadership has its own strengths and limitations. Often, managers use a combination of different styles to accomplish their objectives. Based upon the leadership styles, leaders can be classified as autocratic leaders, democratic leaders and laissez-faire leaders.

1.7.1 Autocratic Leadership

The most important component of autocratic leadership style is decision-making which is centered on the leader. Davar (1998) has further classified the autocratic leaders into:

- Hard-boiled autocrat
- Benevolent autocrat
- Manipulative autocrat

The hard-boiled autocrat expects that his orders should be followed without any questioning. In case of disobedience, he uses punishment. The benevolent autocrat uses techniques like rewards or praises so as to secure the commitment of people for his ideas. However, the manipulative autocrat makes the decisions himself even though he may seem to involve people in taking decisions. The hallmarks of autocratic leadership are as follows:

- Decision-making centered on the leader.
- Use of several techniques for rewards and punishments.
- Work / tasks dictated by the leader.
- Leader keeps himself away from group participation

An important advantage of autocratic leadership style is quick decision making. However, this style has got a number of limitations such as greater level of job dissatisfaction among employees; lack of enthusiasm and participation; poor employee morale and low motivation.

1.7.2 Democratic leadership

A democratic leader encourages the people to participate in decision making. He believes in the capacity of people to make competent decisions. He also treats the people as responsible, talented and self-controlled. The hallmarks of democratic leadership are as follows:

- Participation of people in decision-making
- Division of the task as decided by the group
- Active involvement of leaders in group activities

1.7.3 Laissez-faire or free-rein leadership

The laissez-faire leaders believe that there is no need for anyone to provide external motivation to the people. They themselves get motivated based upon their own needs. Under this style of leadership, a leader assumes the role of one of the members of the group and whenever, others request his help, he provides it. This means that the leader does not make any conscious efforts to make any interventions. The hallmarks of laissez-fair leadership are as follows:

- Provision of help when asked for
- Minimum influence from the leaders
- Non-participation of leaders in task determination and rewards

1.7.4 Leadership style continuum

A critical analysis of leadership styles reveals that there are many more styles to leadership apart from the above-mentioned styles such as autocratic, democratic and free-

rein. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) have developed a continuum of leadership styles based upon the degree of control exercised over the people. Different styles of leadership according to this continuum are as follows:

1. **Telling:** This style is followed by those who fall into the extreme end of exercising higher level of control. Here, the leader does not consult the members for the decisions. But, he makes the decisions and tells to the people. He believes that it is the most effective way to get the work done quickly as making decisions through participatory mode consumes a lot of time and resources.
2. **Selling:** The second type of leader in the continuum of leadership style makes the decision but tries to sell it to the people. He would use all his wisdom and communication techniques to market his ideas so that the group accepts his decision. This style is better than telling.
3. **Presenting ideas and inviting questions:** Here, the leader calls for a meeting of the people to discuss the problems and arrive at decisions. However, the meeting mainly focuses on the ideas presented by him. No importance is given to the ideas of the people. The members are encouraged to discuss the ideas presented by the leader and the leader makes the decision, which may or may not reflect the discussion carried out by the people.
4. **Presenting tentative decisions:** Here, the leader makes the decisions that are tentative and subject to change. These decisions are presented to the group members. The discussion will be carried out about the soundness of the decisions. Ultimately, the leader is free to make the decision, which may reflect the inputs given by the members of the team.
5. **Presenting problems and getting suggestions:** Under this continuum of leadership style, the leader presents the problem to the entire group. The members are allowed to discuss the problem and give as many suggestions as possible. The leader, based upon the inputs of the group, makes the final decision.

6. Allowing the group to take decisions within fixed limits: Under this style of leadership continuum, the leader allows the group members to make decisions but within certain fixed limits. Here, the leader believes that the members of the group can solve most of the problems.

1.7.5 Leadership styles based on Leadership Grid

According to the 'leadership orientation' questionnaire, a person can fall into one of the following leadership styles:

- a) Social (country) club leadership
- b) Impoverished leadership
- c) Team leadership
- d) Authoritarian or task oriented leadership

The above classification of leadership style is based on the work of Blake and Mouton (1985) who have developed the Leadership Grid (formerly known as Managerial Grid). According to the framework of Leadership Grid, a leader can operate under either one of the following orientations: 'Concern for people' and 'Concern for task or production'. The above two interlocking dimensions are critical factors in deciding the performance of an organization. 'Concern for people' or 'people oriented' leader emphasizes on maintaining healthy relationship among the employees. In contrast, 'concern for production' or production-oriented leader emphasizes on getting the work done or completing the task in time. The above dimensions of leadership are comparable to the dimensions "consideration" and "initiating structure" reported under Ohio State studies.

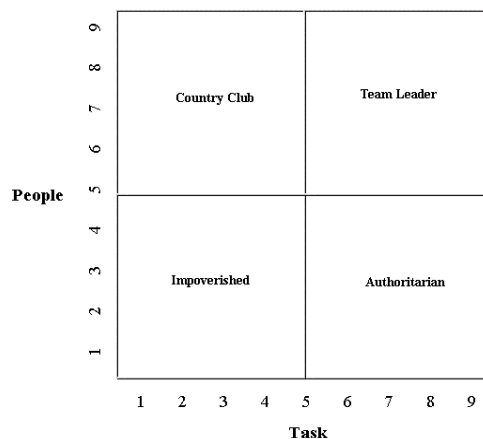


Figure: 1. Leadership grid

Under Blake and Mouton leadership grid, the scores of leaders are plotted in assessing the leadership styles for which they have developed various tests. The test scores are plotted on vertical and horizontal axis in the matrix. The horizontal axis represents the 'concern for production' and the vertical axis represents the 'concern for people'. It should be noted that each axis is on a scale whose values vary from 1 to 9. The value one represents low concern and the value nine represents high concern. Eventhough, 81 possible combinations of leadership styles can be seen under managerial grid, a careful analysis will reveal that only 5 basic leadership styles which can be identified through the grid is enough for the purpose of discussion. Thus, the basic five styles, which can be identified in the grid, are as follows:

- a) 1, 1 leader - Impoverished leadership
- b) 9, 9 leader - Team leadership
- c) 9, 1 leader - Authoritarian leadership
- d) 1, 9 leader - Social or country club leadership
- e) 5, 5 leader - Middle of the road leadership

The above five styles of leadership, which can be seen in Figure: 1 are discussed below:

1.7.5.1 Impoverished leadership

The leader under this approach believes that efficiency, production and productivity cannot be achieved. He thinks that people are lazy and not interested in achieving organizational objectives. The leader also believes that the people in general are not mature enough to develop viable inter-dependent teams. As a result, the leader's concern for either production or people is at a very low level. Only minimum efforts are made which are essential to continue in the organization.



1.7.5.2 Team leadership

The opposite of impoverished leader is team leader who has the maximum concern not only for production but also for people. Even though such leaders may be few in number, yet they are considered to be the most effective leaders. In fact, every organization should have a 9, 9 team builder who has a greater skill in integrating the task of an organization as well as the needs of the employees. The goals of a department or organization become the goals of the employees under this approach. A team of committed members with mutual trust and respect to one another is developed under this approach.

1.7.5.3 Authoritarian or task leadership

The leaders under this approach have the maximum concern for production but the least concern for people. The employees are treated as machines and their welfare and socio-psychological needs are not taken into account while planning for production. Detailed production plans are made without consulting employees which are strictly implemented under authoritarian situation. The employees are often threatened with punishment for not completing the task in time.

1.7.5.4 Social or country club leadership

The opposite of authoritarian leader is social-club leader who has the maximum concern for the people but the least concern for production. Developing and maintaining a friendly relationship is given the maximum attention by the leaders. Attainment of task is kept to the chance and whims of the employees.

1.7.5.5 Middle of the road leadership

The philosophy of middle of the road leader is "don't go too far, but be balanced". He may aim for production, but is more interested in achieving the balance of maintaining the satisfactory level of motivation and morale of the employees. Under this approach the organization may not operate at the maximum efficiency level.

1.7.5.6 How to improve the leadership effectiveness using leadership grid?

1. A test through leadership questionnaire will reveal the particular style of leadership.
2. A discussion on the leadership style based upon Leadership grid helps the leader to evaluate his extent of concern for people and production and identify his weak points.
3. Since, the most effective leader operates at a 9,9 style, every leader will have to strive himself to become a team leader.

1.7.5.7 Situational Leadership

The situational leadership model developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1988) is based on three variables such as task behavior, relationship behavior and readiness of the followers.

The task behavior of leader refers to extent of direction and guidance given by a leader. It is mostly a one-way communication which tells the followers what to do and what not to do and how to accomplish a task given. The relationship behavior is mostly two-way communication and it refers to socio-emotional support provided by a leader to help the employees to accomplish the task.



Figure 2: Situational Leadership Styles

The readiness of the employees refers to the maturity of the followers in performing a given task. The readiness of the employees is a continuum which can be seen at four levels such as Low level readiness (R1), Low to moderate level (R2), Moderate to- high level (R3) and High level (R4). The R1 level or low level refers to unwillingness to do a job as well as inability to do a job. The R2 level employees are willing to do a job but they are unable to do it. The R3 level employees are unwilling to do a task but are able to do it. The R4 level the employees are able to do a job as well as willing to do it confidently

Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard (1988), *Management of Organization behavior: Utilizing Human Resources*, Englewood Cliffs, and NJ: Prentice-Hall.

The focus of situational leadership theory is on the followers or the employees. As per this theory, the success of leadership depends upon the selection of right leadership style according to the maturity or readiness of the employees. This model proposes four styles of

leadership to be followed based upon the readiness level of the employees. These styles are as follows:

- 1. Telling:** Here the employees are unwilling as well as not having the ability to do the job. Under this situation the leader has to follow a high level of task behaviour and low level of relationship behaviour. The leader has to give more specific and clear cut instructions and to provide a close supervision of performance.
- 2. Selling:** Here the employees are not having the ability to do the job but are willing to do it. Here the leadership style involves a high level of task behaviour and high level of relationship behaviour. The leader makes the decision and explains to the followers and provides opportunities and learns the skills needed to do a job.
- 3. Participating:** Under this condition, the employees are able to do a job but not motivated or unwilling to do it. Here the leader has to provide high level of relationship behaviour and low level of task behaviour. The leader has to share ideas and facilitate the participation of employees in decision making which provides motivation for the employees.
- 4. Delegating:** Here the employees have the ability to do a job and they are also willing to do it. This style involves low level of relationship behavior and low level of task behaviour. Here the leader makes the employees responsible for decision making as well as implementation.

1.8. EMERGING LEADERSHIP STYLES: TRANSFORMATIONAL VS. TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

James McGregor Burns developed the concept of transformational leadership in 1978. It was initially used in the context of political leadership. But in recent years, the idea of transformational leadership has been applied to business and developmental organizations. We all know, that organizations have followed a bureaucratic model in its development and continuance. A bureaucratic model plays a strong emphasis on formal structure,



authority, clear-cut chain of command, detailed rules and regulations etc. The recent explosion in science and technology has resulted in increased growth in the development of knowledge workers, who need organisations which are less bureaucratic and having leaders who practice transformational leadership styles.

Before we understand the meaning of transformational leader, we should understand the meaning of transactional leadership.

Transactional leadership is based upon some kind of exchange or barter system. Under this approach, a leader controls the behaviour of the followers through rewards and punishment. The distinguishing features of transactional leadership are as follows:

- a) It involves exchanging one thing for another (Burns, 1978).
- b) It meets the lower level needs of people, such as physiological and safety needs.
- c) The leader indicates what is needed by him as well as what is expected level of performance from the followers. It involves contractual dimensions including agreed upon goals and minimum level of performance.
- d) Rules and regulations are formed about rewards and punishments.
- e) The leader intervenes only if the agreed upon level of performance is not met and the leader actively looks for deviation from rules and regulations. This is known as Management by Exception (Bass, 1985).
- f) Avoiding of responsibility and delaying decision-making.

Transformational leadership:

Transformational leadership is much more powerful than transactional leadership and it occurs "when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers rise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (Burns, 1978).

The four components of transformational leadership are as follows (Bass, 1985):

- a. Charisma
- b. Inspirational motivation
- c. Intellectual stimulation
- d. Individual consideration

Servant Leadership:

"Let the greatest among you, become as the least and the leader one who serves"

- Jesus Christ.

The heart of servant model of leadership is a genuine concern and care for others. Unfortunately, most of the leaders practice a style, which is domineering, opportunistic and self-serving. But what is needed in this hour, is to enhance the growth of the people and the prosperity of the organisation which is only possible through servant leadership. Today, all over the world, servant leadership style is gaining popularity. It is important to know that it can be practiced by Government, business and non-Government organizations including universities, hospitals and profit and non-profit corporations. According to Robert Greenleaf who popularized this concept in recent years "the servant leader is servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The difference manifest itself in the care taken by the servant to make sense that other people's highest priority needs are being served. "The best test, though difficult to administer is: "do those serve grow as persons; do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, free, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society: will they benefit, or at least, not be further deprived?"

1.9 LET'S SUM UP

Leadership is an art and science of influencing, motivating and inspiring people towards the futuristic vision or goal through challenging the present status-quo and securing



people's trust and confidence. It is concerned with doing 'the right things' while management is concerned with 'doing things right'. Leadership is mainly concerned with functions such as providing a futuristic goal or vision, motivating and inspiring, coaching and guiding, problem solving, and providing innovative ideas. The top four important characteristics of which are sought in leaders by the followers are honesty, forward looking, inspiring and competency.

Leadership behaviour refers to behavioural styles of leaders in terms of their actions which shows to what extent a leader organizes the work, develops a schedule of work and maintains a standard of performance as well as takes care of welfare of employees. This unit discussed different leadership behaviour and styles. Transactional leadership is based upon some kind of exchange or barter system. Under this approach, a leader controls the behaviour of the followers through rewards and punishment. Transformational leadership is much more powerful than transactional leadership and it occurs "when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers rise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. The four components of transformational leadership are; Charisma, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation, and Individual consideration

1.10 SELF-CHECK EXERCISES/ SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the differences between a manager and a leader?
2. What are the qualities or traits needed for leadership? Can you train people to improve these traits.
3. Enumerate different leadership behaviour and styles and their implication
4. Give examples of transformational leadership in extension organizations

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UNIT-2

MOTIVATING EXTENSION PROFESSIONALS

Highlights of the Unit

- Objective
- Introduction
- Concept and Meaning Of Motivation
- Theories of Motivation
- Maslow's Principles of Motivation
- Practices to enhance Motivation of Employees
- Practices to enhance Motivation of Employees
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Readings

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you should be able to:

1. Describe meaning of motivation and its importance for extension professional
2. Explain different theories of motivation and their implications for extension supervisors
3. Understand different techniques and practices for motivation

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The work motivation and morale of extension staff, are very poor in many countries. The reasons are many. The bureaucratic structure of extension administration, lack of rewards and incentives, poor facilities, poor promotional avenues, and the low esteem given to extension are the major causes of poor motivation and morale. Extension supervisors should have the ability to motivate and lead the field extension workers so that

the field agents perform more than routine jobs, and supervisors should be involved in attaining excellence in extension work. This calls for extension managers having an understanding of various theories of motivation as applicable to frontline extension agents.

2.2 CONCEPT AND MEANING OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is a force, which helps a person to move towards action through persuasion and conviction. Motivation is a predisposition of an individual to act towards meeting a particular goal which reflects one's unfulfilled needs. Motivation is an interaction of needs, drives and incentives (Luthans, 1995). The root meaning of the word 'motivation' is to move which is derived from the Latin word *movere*. According to Luthans (1995) "motivation is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive".

What is a need?

A need refers to a gap or imbalance or deficiency related to one's physiological or mental realm. Thus if one's physiological need like sleep or hunger is not satisfied sufficiently, he will have the need for sleep or food. The person who does not have enough friends may be eager to form friendship with others. However, it should be noted that it is not necessary always that the deficiency creates needs. For example, a person who possesses greater material wealth may still be desirous of gaining much more money and materials. Also a person who already has a great amount of knowledge may still like to gain more knowledge.

What are drives?

Take for example, a person who lacks sleep. Soon this individual will be pre-occupied with the thought of sleep and make every effort to go for sleep. Likewise, a person who lacks good friends will be striving for affiliation or love. Thus, physiological drive can be defined as a deficiency or imbalance with direction (Luthans, 1995). The imbalances or gap will give direction to the concerned individuals to reduce it.

What are incentives?

Look at a man who lacks a house or shelter, which can satisfy his safety need. Provision of a decent house will satisfy security need, which is also called an incentive. Thus an incentive helps in reduction of the imbalance or the gap and reduce a drive.

The above brief discussion of need, drives and incentives has clearly pointed out the relationship among them.

2.3 HUMAN MOTIVES

Motives can be classified as primary, general and secondary motives. Primary motives are essentially physiological such as need for hunger, sleep, sensory satisfaction, sex etc. These needs have the basis in the genetical make up of a man and are wired-in or unlearned. The general motives are unlearned but are not physiologically based. As pointed out by Luthans (1995) "While the primary needs seek to reduce the tension or stimulation, these general needs induce the person to increase the amount of stimulation." Examples of general motives are curiosity, manipulation, affection or love and activity drives.

Secondary motives are learned and are important in the context of improving motivation in organizations. The need for personal achievement, social achievement, power or influence, affiliation, security and status are good examples in this category.

Internal/Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation refers to the needs or desires, which exist within an individual, and helps in determination of one's thoughts and behavior. For example, a field level extension officer who wants to improve his knowledge level will consider enrolling himself for a degree course through Open University system. Examples of intrinsic motives are: self-esteem, hunger for knowing, need for achievement, recognition and self-actualization. Individuals widely vary with regard to internal motivation and their behavior will be influenced by different situational factors.

External/ Extrinsic Motivation

The extrinsic motivation theories do not nullify the theories of intrinsic motivation but builds on it. Thus, extrinsic motivation includes the needs existing within individual as well as other factors which are controlled by the manager. These factors are as follows: Salary, working condition, organizational policy, rewards, promotional possibilities and Status. It is clear that an extension manager can make use of either external or internal motivational forces to get responses from his or her employees. One can use either positive or negative external motivation to modify employees' behavior. A reduction in salary or withholding of promotion is examples of negative external motivation. Improving work environment through provision of air-conditioners or canteen facilities and creating clean environment are examples of positive external motivation.

2.4 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

2.4.1. Maslow's hierarchy of needs

According to Abraham Maslow an employee is motivated not by external means such as rewards or punishment, but by an internal program of needs. The concept of need has been found to be the foundation of many theories of motivation. According to Maslow, the needs are arranged in hierarchy (Figure-1) when one set of needs are satisfied they no longer motivate a person (Maslow, 1943). But another set of needs comes into force that has to be satisfied.

The starting point of motivation is physiological needs such as hunger, thirst, sleep and sex. If a person' physiological needs are not met continually, he or she will be only occupied about eating or drinking or fulfilling the need for hunger or thirst. The concern for all other needs will be washed away. Once the physiological needs are relatively met, safety needs such as desire for protection, security and freedom from fear come into picture. At work place, the safety needs are expressed through security of job, pension benefits, insurance cover and well protected environment for work. Further, one of the aspects of safety need is employee's preference for familiar or known activities rather than

unfamiliar and unknown activity. Once physiological and safety motives are met, the need for friends, affection, acceptance, belonging etc. emerges as the dominant aspect of motivation. At work place, the social needs are met through interaction among work groups, interpersonal communication, development of cliques, developing friendship and other internal social activities, which promote interactions and belongingness.

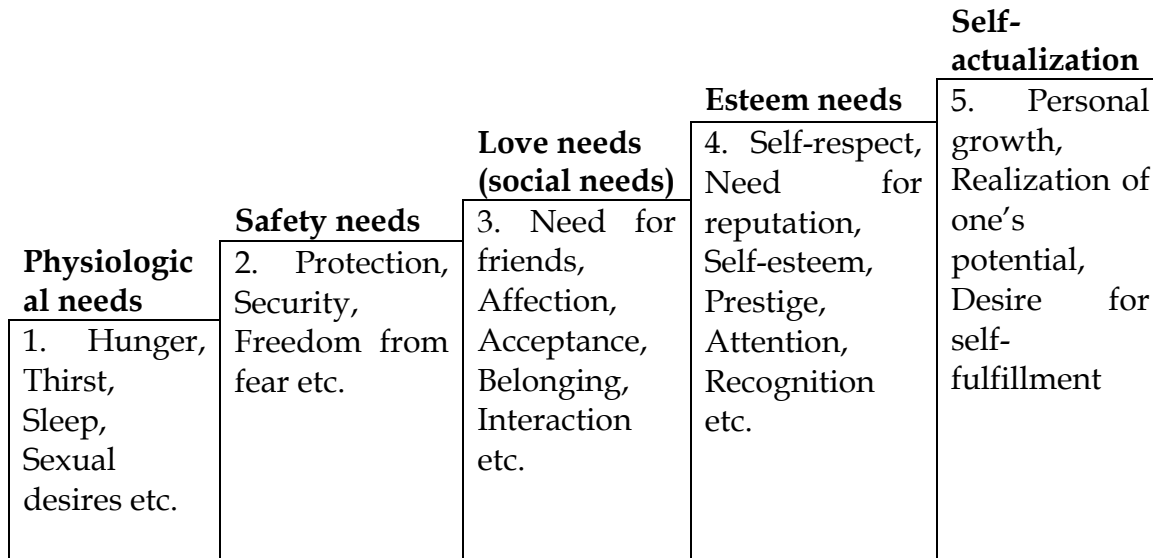


Figure: 1. Maslow's hierarchy of needs

The esteem or ego need such as desire for self-respect, recognition, self-esteem, prestige, attention recognition etc. will not become motivators till lower level of needs are satisfied to a reasonable extent. Though these needs are not completely satisfied, but once they become important to an individual in an organization, he or she will try to find satisfaction from them. In any organization, an employee who is desirous of esteem needs is likely to work hard and to start new projects and willing to take risk and involve in innovative work. It has been reported that satisfaction of esteem needs is likely to produce a feeling of worth and being useful. Those who fail to achieve their esteem needs are likely to become inferior. According to Maslow, even if all the above mentioned needs are met, an employee may soon find himself discontented and restless. For a man to have ultimate peace with him, he should realize his fullest potential. This is called self-actualization need which is related to one's personal growth and desire for self-fulfillment. Self-actualization

need in job situation can be satisfied through providing opportunities for continuous learning and growth; creative work; and freedom to pursue one's interest; and opportunities to satisfy intellectual curiosity through work.

2.4.1.1 Maslow's Principles of Motivation: Implications for Managers

1. Understand the variation in need among employees and adopt different strategies for various groups of employees. For employees, at the lower level of organizational hierarchy, meeting of basic needs related to higher salary, security of job, interaction with co-workers will be relatively more important than higher level of needs such as self-actualization. In case of employees at a higher level of hierarchy, the opposite may be true. Even among the employees who belong to the same level of organizational hierarchy, there will be variation with regard to needs. Therefore, an effective manager will be carefully analyzing the needs of every individual and adopt suitable motivational strategies.
2. You may find that the needs of most of the employee related to salary, security and safety needs have been met in an organization. Does it mean that the employee of that organization will identify themselves with objectives of the manager and cooperate with them in achieving them? Probably not. Even if you meet the lower level of needs, the employees will not actively involve themselves in achieving the managers' objectives unless the organization also help the employee to meet their esteem and self-actualization needs. Thus, it is clear that it is the duty of manager to provide proper organizational climate to satisfy the higher level of needs of employees through following means:
 - Improvement in job status
 - Providing opportunities for creative work
 - Appreciation for good work
 - Recognition of employees' work at different levels.
 - Sufficient level of freedom to pursue once' interest related to job.

- Providing opportunity to satisfy intellectual stimulation and curiosity
- Providing opportunities for training in different areas, which will help the employees to develop new skills
- Helping the employees to take up innovative and creative projects.
- The manager should exercise a leadership style which should promote good relations among the employee devoid of authoritarian behaviour which will come against the self-esteem of the employee.
- To carry out survey or studies about unfulfilled needs of employees and trying to help them in meeting their needs. Even if a manager is unable to satisfy every one of the unfulfilled need, at least showing concern in fulfilling his or her need will go long way in motivating the employees.
- The manager should know that an employee will never come to a place of satisfaction even if he comes to the top position of an organization. He will have some unfulfilled needs which is a part of human nature.

2.4.2. Herzberg Two Factor Theory

The two factor theory of motivation was proposed by American psychologist Frederick Herzberg. According to him, there are two sets of factors that operate in any work situation of an organization, namely, hygiene factors and motivator factors. Presence of motivator factor results in satisfaction while the absence of hygiene factor causes dissatisfaction. However, presence of only hygiene factor does not result in satisfaction.

The hygiene factors that causes dissatisfaction are poor working condition, inadequate salary, poor policy for management of people, unsatisfactory relationship with coworkers, unsatisfactory relationship with supervisors, and absence of a climate of openness and thrust, poor job security and poor job status. A close look at what causes dissatisfaction will reveal that most of the time, dissatisfaction occurred due to poor organizational environment. These factors are also called hygiene factors because they operate in similar way to the principles of hygiene in relation to human health. Maintaining a proper

hygienic condition such as having a clean environment will only prevent the occurrence of disease. Presence of clean environment does not guarantee robust health of an individual. However, absence of a hygienic condition is bound to result in sickness. According to Herzberg, conditions for satisfaction or motivation of employees are the presence of factors such as achievement, recognition for work, challenging work, responsibility, conditions for personal growth and the work itself. These factors are known as motivators. Thus, it is clear that presence of hygienic or job context factors can prevent the employees from being dissatisfied, and create a neutral condition for work. This means that hygienic factors are not good enough to act as motivators. In order to increase the motivational level of the employees, the managers should promote the following conditions or factors which are related to job content such as Achievement, Recognition for work, Responsibility, and Conditions for personnel growth.

To sum up, the managers should know that providing hygienic environment is the first step which will prevent employees getting frustrated or sick in any organization. But an effective manager not only prevents dissatisfaction among employee, but also provides motivators which will result in greater organizational performance and productivity.

A comparison of Maslow and Herzberg view of motivation will reveal that both theories emphasise a similar set of relationship. The lower level needs of Maslow such as physiological, safety and social needs are nothing but hygiene factors of Herzberg theory. These lower level needs which are related to salary, security of job and informal relationship among co-workers, are not motivators, but absence of them will result in dissatisfaction and frustration. The higher level needs of Maslow such as esteem and self-actualization need are nothing but motivators of Heizberg theory. Thus, the motivators such as achievement, recognition, responsibility etc. will result in increased job productivity and production.

2.4.3. Goal Setting and Employees' Motivation

The importance of goal setting in employee motivation and performance was extensively researched by Edwin Locke, a Professor at the University of Maryland, USA. The experiment on goal setting has shown the following interesting results (Locke and Bryan, 1966):

1. An individual who has specific goals or standard of performance is likely to achieve a higher level of performance as compared to a situation when specific goal is missing.
2. A higher level of job satisfaction will be experienced by an individual with a specific goal or standard of performance as compared to a situation where one is required to do your best and no specific goal is given.
3. Achievement of goal leads to a higher level of job satisfaction.
4. Assigning target to be achieved by an individual is not enough. The individual has to be mentally accept the goal. The goal has to be perceived as attainable.
5. Participatory goal setting, feedback and incentives have positive effect on achievement of goal and performance.

Goal setting is an effective tool which can be used by every manager to increase motivation. In setting goals, the following points should be considered:

- a. Set goal for every employee through participatory method. The goal should be achievable.
- b. It is better to have small goals rather than a large one.
- c. Make arrangements for facilities to achieve the goal.
- d. Reward the achievement of goal.

2.4.4 Theory X and Theory Y

Motivation theory known as 'Theory X and Theory Y' was develop by Douglas McGregor. This theory is based on the assumption regarding human nature.

Theory X assumes that most of the employees have inherent dislike work, low level of ambition, and avoid responsibility. Further it assumes that they want job security, and must be directed, coerced, and threatened with punishment to perform. It can be seen that theory X assumes that people have lower order needs such as physiological and safety needs. According to Mc Gregor Theory Y assumes that employees inherently like work, exercise self-control and self-direction in achievement of objectives. Further the employees seek responsibility, are creative and capable of making decisions. Theory X managers try to control their employees while Theory Y managers try to help employees to manage themselves, Theory Y managers assumes that that people have higher order needs such as self-actualisation. Of the two theories X and Y, theory Y is important for motivation of employees which help them to achieve higher performance. Some of the strategies used by theory Y managers are empowerment of employees through decentralisation of decision making, participatory management and capacity building of employees.

2.4.5. Equity Theory

Feeling of unfairness is one of the main sources of job dissatisfaction which can cause motivational problems among the employees. When an employee perceives that the total efforts he makes into a job is not commensurate with the returns he receives then the situation of inequity arises. More often an employee compares the inputs made by him with that of other's inputs and outputs. According to Adams (1963) "Equity is attained when the ratio of an individual's perceived outcome to inputs equals the ratio of other person's outcomes to inputs." This can be stated as follows:

Table 2.1 Person's outcomes to inputs

	Individual		Compared with others
Equity	Output/Input	=	Output/Input
Negative Inequity	Output/Input	<	Output/Input
Positive Inequity	Output/Input	>	Output/Input



Perceived inequality may arise out of the following situation (Assuming similar level of inputs).

- i). When an employee perceives, that he receives less salary, perks and other facilities compared to the salary perks of his counterparts.
- ii). When an employee perceives that he receives a higher salary, perks and facilities compared to the salary and facilities of their counterparts.

What do the employees compare?

As far as the inputs, an employee will compare his position with others in the following components: Job efforts, Education, Experience, Specialized training, Age, Intelligence, and Loyalty, As far as the outcome the comparison are made in the following item: Salary, Perks, Promotional avenues, Recognition by co-workers, Job satisfaction, Job status and Recognition in society.

Examples of perceived inequality:

- a) A situation when a Government doctor receives a lower salary compared to his counterpart employed in a private hospital.
- b) An employee who is working in a backward and hazardous area receives the same level of salary of his counterpart who is posted in the headquarters and enjoys all the comforts of city life.

Methods of restoring equity

Perceived inequity will result in dissatisfaction among the employee which will be expressed in the form of anger and guilt. The tension created due to perceived inequity will act as a motivating force to reduce it through one of the following ways according to Adam's equity theory:

- i). **Alteration or distortion of inputs:**An employee who feels that he is inequitably treated may reduce the quantity or quality of work so as to reduce the extent of inequity.
- ii). **Alteration of outcome:**In case of perceived unfavorable inequity employee may attempt to alter the outcome through putting pressure on management to increase the pay and other allowances through:
 - Employee union
 - Fighting against perceived discrimination through law suits
 - Undertaking national or state wide strike through federation of unions of employees demanding reduction in inequality
- iii). **Distortion of one's own inputs and outcome through rationalization:** In contrast to actual alteration of inputs or outcomes, the employees distort them cognitively to achieve the desirable result. The following strategies may be used which involve rationalization:
 - Inflation of the status or value of the job saying that an excellent service to poor farmers is done, the value of which cannot be measured in monetary terms.
 - The efforts made for the job may be distorted saying "the nature of my job is very easy and I do not put hard work" but in reality the employee may actually work very hard.
- iv). **Leaving field:** The employee may look for alternative job and when he finds a suitable one, he may leave the present field where he has perceived inequity. This will happen when the opportunities for jobs are more. For example, a Joint Director of Agriculture who is presently working in the state Government may opt to join a multinational firm dealing with seed production and distribution when he finds out that his counterparts in that organization is receiving much higher level of salary.
- v). **Changing the object of comparison:** The employee will make a shift to a new reference source for making comparison in order to reduce the perceived inequity.



Thus, for example, a professor in the central university who previously compared his position with his counterpart at Indian Institute of Management will choose to compare himself with the Head of the Department of a local college.

Implications for the managers

Since feeling of unfairness is one of the main sources of job dissatisfaction and demotivation, it is essential that the management should try to remove all practices, which may promote inequity. The managers should not only develop policies and practices which will be fair but make sure that they are seen as fair by employees as the perception of employees are subjective. Proper communication and interaction between employees will help in this regard. Care should be taken to develop an effective reward and promotional system, which is linked with actual performance of the employee devoid of bias. A grievance redressal mechanism should be developed which will provide opportunities for the employees to solve their problems related to inequity.

2.5 PRACTICES TO ENHANCE MOTIVATION OF EMPLOYEES

2.5.1. Reward Performance

Employees join organizations to achieve their personal goals. The organizations expect employees to contribute to the organization, their time, expertise and efforts. Thus, an exchange relationship exists between an individual and organization. Often, an employee wants the reward to exceed the level of his contributions. Organization will keep an individual as long as the cost of keeping is less than the contributions he or she makes. Thus, the expectation of rewards or achievement of goals by an employee is a critical factor in establishment and maintenance of any organization. If any existing institution fails to satisfy the expectations of individuals with regard to the rewards, it should either change or go out of existence or else it has to content itself with poor level of performance and productivity which may result in loss to the organization. Thus, an understanding of rewarding system is essential for not only to motivate employees but also for the very survival of the organization. With this brief introduction, the trainer may ask the

participants the following question. “What are the objectives of an employee in joining any job or what are the rewards an employee expects for his work and performance?” You are likely to get a number of responses, which should be written down in a blackboard.

Typical responses may include the following:

- i). Enough money
- ii). Promotion
- iii). Security
- iv). Satisfaction out of doing the work
- v). Want to help the poor or public
- vi). Achieve something worth
- vii). To increase one's self-esteem
- viii). Want to develop new skills

An analysis of rewards expected by the employees which are needed to keep them continuously motivated will fall into two categories; intrinsic and extrinsic. The extrinsic rewards are those, which come outside of an individual and include money, cash awards, promotion, certificates and prizes. The intrinsic rewards are those which issue within an individual and include satisfaction from work, feeling of accomplishments, increased self-esteem and the happiness in helping clientele.

2.5.2. Guidelines for rewarding employees

The following guidelines (Wadler and Lawler as reported by Stoner and Freeman, 1999) may be used in rewarding the employees:

- i). Determine what kind of rewards your employees' value.
- ii). Link the rewards with performance. Inform the employees about the performance level expected to set the reward.
- iii). Let the performance standards to be achieved by the employee be attainable.
- iv). Critically study the factors, which may lower the effectiveness of rewards.



- v). Make sure that the reward be adequate in terms of quality and quantity.

2.5.3. Provide opportunities to acquire new skills

The acquisition of new skills to employees provides satisfaction and work motivation. This calls for providing opportunities for training of extension personnel. The effectiveness of training programs depend upon the opportunity it provides for acquisition of new knowledge and practices. Thus, every training program need not result in improving enthusiasm. Training itself can be motivating if it results in learning of new ideas and skills, which can lead to self-fulfillment and pride. Some of the points to be remembered are:

- i). The effect of training is short lived and therefore, training has to be given on continual basis.
- ii). The employees should see the need for training as the learning takes place only in case of willing employees.
- iii). Facilities and encouragement should be provided to practice the newly acquired skills by the employees.

2.5.4. Provide Feedback at Appropriate Time

One of the effective ways to improve employees' motivation is through constructive feedback about their style of functioning, achievement and other aspects of job performance. An atmosphere of openness and trust has to be created to express the feelings and impressions about role related matters. Further, the boss should not only be willing to give feedback but also receive feedback from his subordinates. Constructive feedback helps in improving the motivational and personal effectiveness. Some of the advantages of feedback according to Pareek (1981) are:

- i). Improves interpersonal relationship.
- ii). Helps to establish a culture of openness.
- iii). Promotes trust.
- iv). Facilitates autonomy.

- v). Provides verifiable data about behaviour.
- vi). Increases self-awareness.

Some of the characteristics of effective feedback according to Pareek (1981) are:

- Descriptive and not evaluative. One who gives feedback should not pass judgment but describe what he/she has seen focus on behaviour of a person and not the person himself
- Data-based and specific and not impressionistic
- Reinforce positive behaviour
- Suggestive and not prescriptive
- Continuous
- Need based
- Intended to help
- Well timed

2.5.5. Develop and execute a mentoring program

Development and execution of a mentoring program is one of the important sources of motivation for employees.

What is mentoring?

Mentoring refers to one-to-one job situation wherein a competent and experienced employee helps a junior to acquire new knowledge and skill over a fixed period of time. Mentoring involves relationship of a mentor and a mentee (or protege) and the mentor has the responsibility of transferring his skills and abilities to mentee. The mentoring process also helps in identification of talent and abilities of a mentee for further development.

Mentoring program can be developed either as a formal or an informal program. It helps the young mentees to learn from their seniors through the method of questioning, observation, exploration and discussion. The whole process of mentoring promotes

building the capacity of junior employees through internal coaching by seniors. The mentees can learn from the successful and failure experiences of mentors.

2.5.6. Communicate high expectations (Self-Fulfilling Prophecy or Pygmalion Effect)

The concept of self-fulfilling prophecy was developed by Merton (1957) and reported in his book on Social Theory and Social structure. According to Merton, we respond to the expectation which is set by others, and we want to come up to it even if it is not a part of our normal behaviour. This is also known as 'Pygmalion' effect. According to Greek mythology, there was a prince called Pygmalion who was also a famous sculptor. This sculptor prince was interested in creating an ivory statue of ideal women. Using all his skills along with hardwork, the statue of the ideal women was made who was named as Galatea. It so happened that Galatea was so beautiful and the prince Pygmalion fell in love with her. With an intense passion for Galatea, Pygmalion offered prayer to Goddess Venus to give life to Galatea. Every day, he would arise from his bed with an expectation of seeing Galatea alive. His dream one day comes true and he married Galatea and lived merrily ever after. The above story is an example to the power of expectation, which can even give life to a statue or stone.

Pygmalion effect at work

The above imaginative story might have helped you to understand the concept of Pygmalion. How is it applicable in work situation? It is very simple. Most of the employees are likely to behave according to the way they are treated by their supervisors or colleagues. If you keep on telling an employee "you are useless and inefficient", the employee will respond accordingly in most occasions. But if you keep on telling an employee "you are important to me. I believe in your excellence and you will contribute more", then you will see that the employee coming up to your expectation.

Forming expectations about employee is natural and unavoidable and your expectation is going to have a definite bearing in their motivation. However, we should be clear that expectation has a limitation. Often employees through positive expectation

change their behaviour and improve their performance. However, the extent of improvements cannot go beyond their potentialities. Further, in some cases, people can perform contrary to your expectations. Thus, it is possible that those you expected to be high performers turned to be low performers and those whom you thought to be poor performers turned to be high performers.

It is also important to know that the effect of a very high expectation will be equivalent to that of a very low level of expectation because a very high level of expectation will only bring a lot of fear and anxieties. What is needed is to have a very reasonable and above average level of expectation.

2.6 LET'S SUM UP

Motivation is a predisposition of an individual to act towards meeting a particular goal which reflects ones unfulfilled needs. Motivation is an interaction of needs, drives and incentives (Luthans, 1995). The root meaning of the word 'motivation' is to move which is derived from the Latin word *movere*. According to Luthans (1995) "motivation is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive".

Extension supervisors should have the ability to motivate and lead the field extension workers so that the field agents perform more than routine jobs, and supervisors should be involved in attaining excellence in extension work. This unit has discussed various theories of motivation such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's two factory theory, and equity theory.

Some of the practices to enhance motivation of extension professionals are rewarding performance, providing opportunities to acquire new skills, providing feedback at appropriate time, developing and executing a mentoring program, communicating high expectations (Self-fulfilling prophecy or Pygmalion effect) and treating employees with fairness.



2.7 SELF-CHECK EXERCISES/ SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Why motivation of employees is important in any organization?
2. Explain different human motives with examples.
3. What are the implications of Maslow's theory of motivation?
4. What practical measures you would suggest to improve motivation of village level workers?

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UNIT-3

CREATIVITY PROCESS AND PRACTICES

Highlights of the Unit

- Objective
- Introduction
- Concept and Meaning of Creativity
- Components of Creativity
- Process of Creativity
- Nature of Creative Thinking
- Self-Check Exercises on Divergent Thinking
- Methods to improve Divergent Thinking
- Techniques for Creative Problem Solving
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Readings

3.0 OBJECTIVES:

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

- Understand the meaning, components and process of creativity
- Explain the differences between analytical and divergent thinking
- Appreciate different methods to enhance divergent thinking
- Know different techniques for creative problem solving

3.1. INTRODUCTION

In the context of socio-economic and environmental changes, extension organizations have to constantly develop new ideas and design better extension models to enhance farm production, productivity and income. Further extension organizations in developing countries need innovative training methodologies and reward system to deal



with problems of professional incompetence and lack of motivation among their employees.

Two qualities which distinguish effective extension managers from others are creativity and innovativeness. When faced with problems, non-creative and traditional extension managers will be paralyzed with fear and worries. However, a creative mind helps in finding varied solutions to the problems.

3.2 CONCEPT, AND MEANING OF CREATIVITY

The term creativity means different things to different people. It is very difficult to define creativity precisely. According to Young (1985), the word creativity derives from the Latin word 'creare' and the Greek word 'krainein'. The meaning of 'creare' is to make and the meaning of 'krainein' is to fulfil. Thus, an analysis of root meaning of the word creativity reveals that creativity has to do with making something new or better. Guilford (1967) has defined creativity as divergent thinking ability involving sensitivity to problems, flexibility, fluency, originality and elaboration. According to Torrance (1962) creativity is a "process of becoming sensitive to problems, deficiencies, gaps in knowledge, missing elements, disharmonies and so on, identifying the difficulty, searching for solution, making guesses, or formulating hypotheses about the deficiencies, testing and retesting these hypotheses and possibly modifying and retesting them, and finally communicating the results."

A creative person contributes through his innovativeness by modification of old things. What is done through creativity helps a person in realising his fullest possible potential. Maslow (1968) as quoted by Young (1985) says "It is better to make a first rate soup than a second rate painting". It is needless to say that creativity involves expression of one's fullest potential and becoming what one could be. According to Young (1985), creativity is the paradoxical integration of doing and being. Thus, it is a flexible encounter with our world - an active letting go, an aggressive receptivity, a passive responding. It is the assimilation and integration of polarities to find new directions, new solutions, and a

fresh viewpoint. It is the integration of our logical side with our interactive side, our left brain with our right". Creativity can be defined as an ability to produce useful new ideas, techniques or products to solve problems; an attitude of openness to new ideas, willingness to experiment and explore; and an urge to realise one's fullest potential. It has been reported that creativity is not related to intelligence, neither a function of education nor mere accumulations of information. But creativity can be considered as ability, an attitude and a process. (Harris, 1998)

Creativity involves discovery and exploration, and calls for a thinking which is far beyond the ordinary way of looking at things. Thus creativity is related to psychological or personality traits of an individual which involves an attitude which is open for new ideas. For example, when a person gets confronted with a problem, a creative person is more likely to have positive attitude and with open mind looking for innovative ideas within or outside his organization.

A creative person also has adventure spirit and has capacity to see a pattern out of confusion. The adventurous spirit shown by Columbus to reach India through sea route is an excellent example in this case, which resulted in discovery of America. Columbus was willing to go beyond the limit set by those who were living in his time. His thinking pattern was unique, which involved self-actualization through undertaking hazardous journey. This reaffirms that creativity involves those attitudes which help in realization of one's potential. Another aspect of attitude is the way in which you look at things. Creativity not only involves innovative thinking which results in discovery but also looking the same object or situation with different viewpoints. Thus, a problem confronted by an individual can be seen as an obstacle for growth by less creative mind while the same problems can be seen as a challenge or opportunity for growth.

3.3 COMPONENTS OF CREATIVITY

Creativity is not a single component of a personality of a person as it has many dimensions. According to Guilford (1967) different components of creativity are as follows:



- a) **Ideational Fluency:** It is the ability to develop many ideas to solve problems.
- b) **Flexibility:** It refers to the ability to change behaviour to meet changing environments and situations.
- c) **Originality:** Originality involves development of ideas that are unique, novel and useful. We are all familiar with development of hybrid varieties using the principle of cross-pollination. However, development of transgenic varieties is a novel and useful idea which holds greater promises in increasing crop production and productivity
- d) **Elaboration:** the ability to explain in greater details with specific and relevant information without any gap.

It is commonly believed that creativity involves a sudden discovery of ideas or development of products generated out of a sudden flash of inspiration. This statement is not true in many occasions. Though new ideas have been developed out of sudden flash of inspiration (Example: Einstein's discovery of the formulae to convert mass into energy and vice versa). Such developments are very rare and not a common occurrence. Development of creative ideas and products involves a continuous and a slow process. It consists of the following stages: preparation, incubation, illumination, distillation, perspiration and evaluation.

3.4 PROCESS OF CREATIVITY

According to Wallas (1926), creative process involves four steps such as preparation, incubation, illumination and verification. Petty (1998) has identified the following six stages of creative process: inspiration, clarification, evaluation, distillation, incubation and perspiration. An analysis of different steps in creative process indicates that the following stages are important in creative process: preparation, incubation, illumination, distillation, perspiration and evaluation.

Preparation

The preparation stage involves identification and analysis of a problem from different angles or perspectives. It calls for collection of relevant data and materials related to the problem so as to get oneself familiarized with it. Apart from analyzing the strengths, weaknesses and opportunities related to the issues, the act of familiarization also involves activities like listening, absorbing, comparing and contrasting. It has been found that creative individuals are likely to listen and read from different sources so as to get a detailed picture of the problem. Once sufficient materials are collected, it is necessary to analyze the information through comparison and contrasting.

Incubation

The incubation consists of two components namely putting off the problem from our conscious mind and allowing the unconscious mind to deal with the problem. During this stage, the problem gets deeply immersed below the level of conscious mind. Thus, during the incubation period, one is called to do nothing related to the problem, through our conscious mind which helps in making a way for illumination of ideas. According to Petty (1998), the period of incubation has the following advantages:

- It provides time for unconscious mind to search for solutions
- A time of relaxation and free from impatience helps the mind to think clearly
- A period of incubation also helps in evaluation of idea objectively

Illumination

During the stage of incubation the conscious mind forgets about the problem. However, the unconscious mind actively searches for solution, which may result in revelation of solution in an unexpected "eureka" like manner. This process is called illumination.

An example of discovery of an equation known as 'Fuchsian Fusion' function by the French mathematician Henri Poincare makes this point clear. Henri Poincare was



attempting to solve a mathematical problem. But he could not come out with any success. The more he tried to solve the problem, the greater he was confused. One day, he was called to attend a conference on a topic, which was unrelated to mathematics. He started for the journey forgetting about his mathematical problem. As he stepped into a bus for the journey, the solution to the problem struck his mind though he was not thinking about the mathematical problem. It has been reported that great scientists like Newton, Edison and others have found solution to tricky issues through similar experiences. Most of us might have also experienced similar situations which testify the power of unconscious mind.

Distillation

You have developed a number of ideas for the solution of a problem through the process of illumination. Now the question before you is, 'which idea will to be chosen to solve the problem'? This process is called distillation. It is important to note that creative people do not necessarily get better ideas than other people. They just have the ability to spot the better ideas and more particularly have the courage to work on them (Petty, 1998). The selection of a particular idea depends upon one's need and goal. The following questions should be asked: "where will these ideas take me?" and "Is that where I want to go" (Petty, 1998).

Perspiration

You may recall that at the preparation stage, data related to problems are collected. The incubation phase helps us forget about the problem by our conscious mind. At illumination stage you receive a number of ideas. At distillation phase, you choose the right idea which will suit to our purpose or objective. According to Petty (1998), perspiration refers to perseverance or persistence in working on the idea selected and bringing it into completion. You may recall the famous quotation of Edison that 'genius is one percent inspiration and 99 per cent perspiration'. In many occasions, there are no dearth of creative ideas but there is a lack of self-confident individuals who can continue

work on the ideas and to put hard work against all odds of life. The following psychological characteristics should be selected for becoming successful at perspiration:

- ✓ Commitment to the ideas, which helps the individual not to give up when faced with difficulty
- ✓ Having a greater amount of trust and confidence in the idea chosen Ability to work with a greater amount of zeal and power
- ✓ Ability to undertake a moderate amount of risk

Evaluation

Evaluation consists of verification of the idea chosen for improvement. The process of evaluation may consume a few days to a few years according to the nature of ideas chosen and it involves identification of parameters as well as to what extent these parameters of success have been achieved through implementation of the new ideas.

3.5 NATURE OF CREATIVE THINKING

You are requested to solve the following problems:

Problem No. 1

- ✓ Find the 'odd man' out.

ELPPA OGNAM EGNARO TNA

- ✓ What is the missing number?

1	2	3	4
2	4	6	8
4	8	12	16
8	16	24	?

Did you find the answers to the above problems? What was the odd man? If you go through the problem once again, you will find out that the four words have been written in



the reverse order and the first three words refer to fruits and the last word refers to an insect. Thus the odd word that does not fit to with the rest is 'TNA'. In case of second problem what was the missing number? You can easily find out that the missing number was 32. What kind of thinking involved in finding solution to the above problems? It is called analytical or convergent thinking. Now let us go to problem No.2

Problem No. 2

"You have been promoted as Deputy Director of Agriculture and transferred to a new district. As soon as you join the post you are confronted with the problem of chronic failure of cotton crops. Majority of the farmers were found to spray chemical pesticides more than the recommended times and quantity. The cotton pests have developed resistance to the insecticides. The issue seems to be how to control cotton pests. How will you solve this problem and increase the productivity and revenue to farmers".

What is your answer to the second problem? Is your answer restricted to one correct solution or several alternatives? If you compare your answer with that of others, do you find a common solution or divergent views? What kind of thinking is involved in solving the above problem? It is called divergent or creative thinking.

3.5.1 Analytical v/s divergent thinking

Your experience with finding solution to problem 1 & 2 has shown that basically there are two kinds of thinking or problem-solving activities. One is called analytical thinking and the other is known as divergent or creative thinking. You may be aware that the brain has got two parts namely, right brain and left brain. Left brain is actively involved in analytical thinking. Our formal education system has over-emphasized the use of left brain or analytical thinking. The problems that are analytical in nature will have few or restricted solutions. For example, for the question 'what is the distance between the city Bangalore and Hyderabad by train', there is only one right answer. Logical and mathematical operations are needed to solve analytical questions. The analytical thinking is also known as convergent or vertical thinking. The correct or unique answer is found

from materials drawn from different sources. Only few solutions will be available based upon collection of different facts.

In contrast to analytical thinking, creative or divergent thinking involves several solutions. There are no correct or good answers. It is imaginative. The following questions call for divergent thinking for solutions: How will you prevent corruption in Government offices? What would happen if man has got wings? What would happen if fertilizers have not been discovered? Divergent thinking is inductive and imaginative in nature. A large number of ideas are produced to solve a particular problem. It gives freedom to move in different ways to find several possible solutions.

3.5.2. Complementarity of Convergent and Divergent thinking

It is important to note that in real life situation, there is no separation of divergent or convergent thinking. Both are needed to solve the problems and they complement each other. Everyone is got an adequate amount of abilities related to both divergent and convergent thinking. In finding solution to a particular problem, we make use of both convergent and divergent thinking. There is a need to deliberately separate divergent thinking from convergent thinking since our modern education system has given more importance for convergent thinking. The divergent thinking is not been given adequate importance since it seems to have got lost in the sea of convergent thinking.

3.5.3 Lateral and Vertical thinking

The famous author on creativity, Edward De Bono has popularized the term lateral and vertical thinking which is nothing but divergent and convergent thinking respectively. For those who want a detailed understanding of lateral thinking, De Bono's book, entitled "Lateral Thinking - A Text Book of Creativity" is recommended. It may again be reiterated that the difference between lateral and vertical thinking is fundamental and distinct. Both kinds of thinking are necessary for problem solving. It should not be falsely assumed that convergent thinking is effective than divergent thinking or vice versa.

De Bono (1970) has given the following differences between lateral and vertical thinking.

I. Selective Vs. Generative

- a. According to De Bono, the vertical thinking is concerned with what is right. However, the lateral thinking is concerned with richness or variety. Further, vertical thinking selects a pathway by excluding other pathways. Lateral thinking does not select but seeks to open up other pathways. Thus, the emphasis on lateral thinking is to find out a promising approach to a problem while the emphasis on lateral thinking is to find as many alternatives as possible.

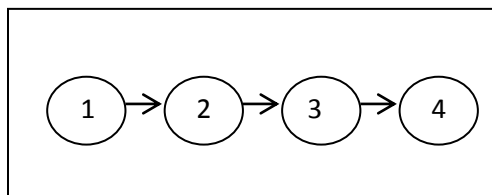
II. Analytical Vs Provocative

- a. Vertical thinking is analytical while lateral thinking is provocative.

III. Sequential Vs. Making jumps

- a. Vertical thinking always goes one step at a time and each step is related to the preceding step. However, lateral thinking do not proceed in a sequential way. It may involve thinking which jumps to a new point and later on filling up the missing point.

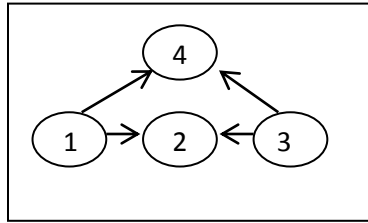
For example, the Figure 1 represents the vertical thinking:



a. Fig.1.Sequential Steps (De Bono, 1970)

- b. It starts from one and goes to two and proceeds to three and four. But in case of lateral thinking (Figure 2.) it starts at one, goes to four then comes back to three and then two.

Fig 2: Making Jumps



IV. Need to be right Vs. Need not be right

- a. It is very interesting to note that in vertical thinking process, one need to be right in each and every step. For example, in order to solve a mathematical problem, which involves a number of steps, one has to be right at every stage to arrive at the final correct answer. However, in case of lateral thinking, there is no need to be right at every step. Sometimes, one has to take wrong step in order to arrive right answer at the end.

V. Exclusion of what is irrelevant Vs Inclusion of intrusions

- a. Vertical thinking excludes those things, which are irrelevant while lateral thinking invites outside influences and chance intrusions. The irrelevant chance intrusions are likely to change and challenge established patterns, which may result in new pattern or practices.

VI. Following most likely paths Vs. exploring the least likely paths

- a. Vertical thinking involves following the beaten track, which is wide and clear. The risk involved in following the beaten track is very low which points out the right direction. However, the lateral thinking involves exploring the least likely paths to reach the goal. Many a times, one may not find any merit in exploring such least likely paths which involves a higher level of risk.

VII. Finite process Vs. Probabilistic

- a. An answer to a problem is generally expected with vertical thinking. However, there is no definite answer to a problem with lateral thinking. "Vertical thinking promises at least a minimum solution. Lateral thinking increases the chances of a maximum solution, but makes no promises" (De Bono, 1970).



3.6. SELF-CHECK EXERCISES ON DIVERGENT THINKING

1. Write the opposite of following:
(a) Blue (b) Red (c) White (d) Orange (e) Chair (f) Table
2. What is the smell of the following?
(a) Anger (b) Happiness (c) Friendship (d) Enemy
3. What is the shape of?
(a) Love (b) Jealousy (c) Divorce (d) Marriage
4. What are the consequences if,
(i) All farmers switch over to organic farming
(ii) Petrol is available free of cost
5. Give innovative ways to eradicate
(i) Corruption
(ii) Poverty

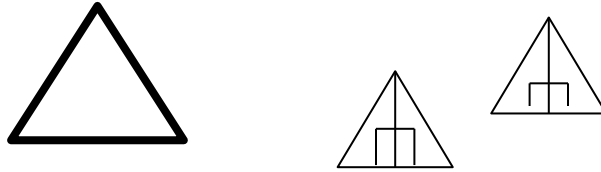
3.7 METHODS TO IMPROVE DIVERGENT THINKING

3.7.1 Think in terms of alternatives (ideational fluency)

Thinking in terms of alternatives refers to ability to generate as many alternatives as possible as a solution for a particular problem. It may be mentioned here that finding of alternatives using lateral or divergent thinking goes beyond ordinary way of finding alternatives. In ordinary approach of finding out alternatives, one is interested in best possible alternatives. But in case of lateral thinking, one is not interested in the best or right way to solve a problem but in finding as many alternatives as possible. An important component of generating alternatives under divergent thinking is to "loose up rigid pattern and to provoke new patterns" (De Bono, 1970).

Example: Generating alternatives for a geometric figure.

Problem: Describe (as many as possible) the following geometric figure using simple words:

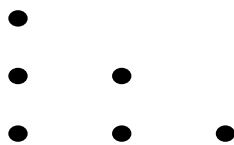


Alternative descriptions:

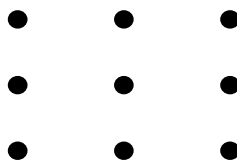
1. Triangle which is used in mathematics
2. Social pyramid
3. Management hierarchy in an organization
4. Slogan for family planning
5. Triangle within a square where the two upper corners are missing
6. The triangle can be seen as two right angled triangle
7. Steeple of a church or a building
8. A hut

3.7.2 Learn to challenge assumptions

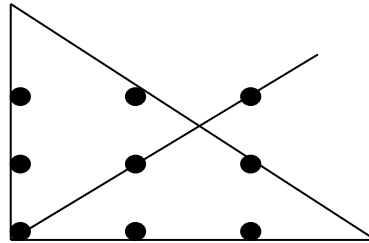
You are faced with the following problem: Using only three straight lines and without lifting pen as well as retracing, can you join the following six dots?



I hope you have solved the above problems without any difficulty. Now you may attempt to solve the following nine dots problem: Using only four straight lines and without lifting your pen or pencil and also without retracing, can you join the nine dots?



Did you succeed in joining the nine dots? Most probably not. Why? Before finding out why you did not succeed, let us see the answer to your problem. The answer is given below:



Why did you fail to join the nine dots? You were making attempts to join dots within the boundary set by the outer line of dots. You made an assumption that you should not go beyond the boundaries set by the outer dots. Once you go beyond this self-imposed limit, the problem can be easily solved.

We all have self-imposed limits or assumptions based upon our past experience. There is a need to challenge or break these assumptions so as to make us more creative in dealing with the problems. For example, a manager based upon his past experiences may assume that employees in general are lazy and need close supervision. His self-imposed assumption about employees may result in close supervision and not providing enough freedom for the employees. However, an innovative manager may always be ready to challenge the assumptions through openness and experimentation.

3.7.3 Become like child in asking 'why'?

We all know that children are known for their questions which start with 'why'? When children see or experience something new, they become curious and want to find out answer. However, as we grow old we forget to ask 'why'? May be, we know the answers of many of the questions. However, our lateral and divergent thinking can be improved by asking 'why'. According to De Bono (1970) the difference between children and adults in asking why is as follows:

The children usually ask why since they do not know the answer. But the adults ask 'why' even when they know the answer. In asking 'why', we start a question or statement

which is followed by, 'why'. And the response to that statement is also questioned with 'why'. An example is given below:

- Why do birds have wings?
- Because they have to fly.
- Why they have to fly?
- To get their food
- Can't they get food without flying?
- Yes, with most of the birds.
- Why?
- Because they have no capacity to produce food.
- Why they have no capacity to produce food?
- So that they can be free of worries and fly freely.

3.7.4 Practice designing

According to De Bono (1970), the process of designing is one of the most effective ways for lateral thinking. One can be involved in designing to improve the existing products or creation of an entirely new product. An exercise of designing is likely to come out with new and original ideas, which will be of practical use in solving problem or looking at problems in a new way. It may be mentioned here that an exercise in designing is to help the participants to improve their lateral thinking, not their designing skills. Critical evaluation of ideas is postponed.

Example: 1. designing of a coconut-harvesting machine.

Aim: To show different ways of designing a coconut-harvesting machine.

The exercise can be conducted with an idea of showing different ways of designing a machinery for the purpose of harvesting of coconut. While designing, it is better to break down the entire operation into different functions. For example, in case of designing a



coconut harvesting machine, the following questions show the different functions which should term the part of the machine:

1. How will you mechanically reach the coconut from the ground?
2. What mechanism will be adopted in plucking the coconut?
3. How will you transport the coconut to the desired place?
4. How will you dehusk the coconut?

Take the function of reaching the coconut; you are likely to get some design which will be purely mechanical which does not involve any help of man to pluck coconut. Some others may design a machine with a provision to carry the man to the top of the tree and pluck the coconuts. Some others may develop a design to harvest the coconut using vibration. Likewise you are likely to get various designs for the same function from different people.

3.7.5 Think in terms of originality

Originality involves development of ideas that are unique, novel and useful. We are all familiar with development of hybrid varieties using the principle of cross-pollination. However, development of transgenic varieties is a novel and useful idea which holds greater promises in increasing crop production and productivity. Take the classical cases of development of products like electric bulb, television, steam engine. In the development of every one of the above innovations, original thinking has been involved. Let us see another example in the field of health. Traditionally sicknesses has been treated by taking medicines which fought against the diseases. However, homeopathy is a novel method of treating sickness where the patients is cured through giving medicine which actually produces the symptoms, corresponding to the disease if taken by healthy people. Originality can be developed through the following ways:

1. Practicing to generate alternative ideas
2. Encouraging the people to find solution through non-conventional ways.

3.8. TECHNIQUES FOR CREATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING

3.8.1. Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a group-based creativity technique designed to encourage lateral thinking around a stated question or problem. It is one of the problem solving techniques developed during 1930's by Osborn, to help an individual to freely express his idea without any inhibition.

Principles of Brainstorming

1. **Suspended Judgment:** One of the important aspects of brainstorming is that the ideas generated are judged only at the end of the session. It should be born in mind that no one is allowed to judge or criticize the ideas at the stage of idea generation. This means that even the trivial idea will be accepted. The participants will be tempted to judge or evaluate the ideas saying "this idea will not work under our situation or this solution is not at all new or this product was tried but failed". The leader of brainstorming session should take care that all the above mentioned remarks are not to be entertained and make it clear that the evaluation of ideas will be done only at the end of the session.
2. **Freewheeling:** An essential component of brainstorming is to encourage the participants to freely come out with new ideas, without any hesitation. New ideas will come only in an atmosphere of freedom, mutual respect and openness. Freewheeling refers to creating an atmosphere where the participants shed away their inhibitions and come out with ideas whether good or bad.
3. **Wild catch:** Wild catch refers to trapping wild or very unusual ideas. The purpose is to generate as many wild ideas as possible. Who knows that some of the wild ideas generated may happen to be effective and useful.
4. **Ensure quantity:** Even though quality is the key word in most of the occasions, but under brainstorming situation, quantity is given a prominent place. The quality of the ideas will be taken care of at the stage of evaluation. Therefore, during the process of generating



ideas, the leader of group encourages the participants to come out with as many solutions as possible.

5. **Cross fertilization:** During the brainstorm session, the ideas generated are also picked up by others to generate new ideas. Thus, the idea generated, however, small or great prompt the entire participants which help in bringing out more ideas. Even a trivial idea can be combined with other ideas and the net result will be an effective and original ideas. The participants should not feel angry if someone develops an idea based upon the ideas suggested by them.

Brainstorming is a group exercise, though there is no ideal size of the group, it has been found out that a size of 15-20 people will be ideal. A chairman of the group who guides the session needs to be nominated. It should be born in mind that the role of Chairman is not only to facilitate the activities of group but also to contribute towards generation of ideas. The roles of chairman are as follows:

1. Explains the purpose of the exercise
2. Announces the rules of the game
3. Encourages the participants to contribute ideas one by one
4. In the event of entire group remaining silent, the chairman himself offers his own ideas and encourages the participants to think creatively

It is also the responsibility of chairman to make arrangements for recording of the ideas generated. Finally, it is important that the session is completed within the time limit and evaluation of ideas is undertaken. The ideas can be evaluated either by the entire group or by a select group of people. The ideas finally selected are made known to every participant of the group.

The ideas have to be recorded with the help of a note taker. A person who is efficient in writing down the ideas needs to be chosen for this purpose. He/she should be capable of writing down quickly all ideas generated. Further, care should be taken to

record the ideas in a clear and short sentences. It has been found that recording of generated ideas will be effective if the chairman himself/herself acts as a note-taker and writes down the ideas on a flip chart with sketch pen.

How much time is needed to conduct a brainstorming session? In most cases, the time required for brainstorming is 20 to 40 minutes. The sessions should stop when enough ideas have been generated and people are still enthusiastic to contribute ideas. Some authors suggest a warm-up session to introduce the participants to concept of brainstorming. Simple problems like finding out alternate designs for items like soap, telephone, book etc. can be undertaken for warm-up sessions, which should not take more than five to ten minutes.

It has been found that the participants are likely to generate ideas even after session is over. They should be encouraged to pass on the ideas to chairman whenever some bright ideas strike them.

3.8.2 Attribute Analysis

The technique of attribute analysis was developed by Crawford. The principles of attribute analysis are given below (Crawford, 1954, as reported by Khandwalla (1988) :

- a. Creativity depends to a greater extent on adaptation and experimentation though inspiration is one of the essential components of it.
- b. Creativity involves modification of attributes or characteristics of a product or process. It does not depend merely upon a combination of different ideas or products.
- c. Finding out alternatives is an essential component in modification of current attribute of an object or product.
- d. Through generating suitable alternatives for current attributes, on step by step basis, creativity can be systematized.
- e. Creativity involves continuous modification of attributes of a product over a time. For example, look at the changes made for the printers of computer. It started with dot

matrix and over the years, the modifications have resulted in printers based upon laser techniques.

An example of application of attribute analysis

Problem: A company is interested in developing ideas for development of Almirahs. According to attribute analysis, the steps involved would be as follows:

1. List the attributes of existing model

- a. Made up of steel
- b. Shape of the Almirah
- c. Locking system
- d. Facilities for movement of Almirah.
- e. Racks inside the Almirah.

After listing the attributes of existing model, each attribute is analyzed and ways for improvement are found out. Evaluation of best ideas for each attribute is also done.

Attribute No.1: Materials for main body of Almirah made up of steel

Is it possible to replace steel with the following materials, which are cheap and durable: wood, plastic, aluminum etc.

Attribute No.2: Shape of the Almirah

The present shape is fixed rectangular shape with three dimensions. Is it possible to make dismantable type which is portable and refixable. Is it possible to go for a cylindrical shape with a central axis, which can provide facilities for circular movement of the inside cupboard.

Attribute No.3: Type of lock

The existing type of lock is of traditional model lock system.

- a. Is it possible to develop an electronic lock, which opens based upon fingerprint?

- b. Is it possible to develop a mechanically operating number lock system?
- c. Is it possible to develop a locking system operating on magnetism?

Attribute No.4: Cupboards for Almirah.

Existing attribute is traditional rack, which is rectangular in shape and fixed.

- a. Is it possible to develop an adjustable rack (which can be removed or the length of the rack can be adjusted)?
- b. Is it possible to develop a rack, which is circular in shape, fixed on a central axis which is rotatable?

Points to be considered in Attribute analysis

1. Concentrate upon those attributes which are essential for the functions of the product.
2. Analyze only five to ten attributes at a time which will be manageable.
3. Consider what function the current attribute serves and find out alternative ideas which will serve the function in an efficient and cheap way.
4. Make sure to list out all the possible attributes of a product such as shape, size, different functions, different parts, colour, texture and nature of materials for each part. While finding out the alternatives, you should be careful not to alter the main function of the product. You are only required to find out alternatives which can improve the function.

Problem: Analyse the properties of the following products, which are modifiable. List such attributes and find out the alternative ways of meeting the function of each attribute.

- a. Tea cup.
- b. Chair
- c. Book



- d. Organizing a self-help group
- e. Organization of a campaign to popularize farm technologies.

3.8.3 Mind Mapping

Mind mapping is one of the techniques, which helps in creative thinking. It helps to use the left and right brain traits. It was developed by Tony Buzan (1993). Mind mapping is based upon the nature of memory. What is the nature of human memory? Let us take a test. So far you have been reading about creativity. Can you recall whatever you have read? Write down those things you remember. If you analyze what you can recall, you will find that you are not able to recall all that you have read, word by word. You are able to recall only the main ideas such as different meanings of creativity, nature of creative thinking, divergent and critical thinking. You may also recollect the major methods and techniques to improve creative thinking. What does it show?

You are able to remember only those main concepts, examples, experiences, incidence which had some impact on your emotion or thought. This indicates that you are able to remember only the key concepts or key words. Though the brain may record every incidence or experience of your life, your recalling is not done in a linear fashion, i.e. based upon the order of occurrence of the incidence. You're recalling works both in an associative and linear way which involves comparing, integration and synthesis. In every mental function, the association of one concept with another plays a very important role.

It is clear that the storing of information in the brain is based upon linking of one key word with another. For example, the major key word is creativity. From that major key there is a branch leading to definition of creativity. Once the key words related to definition is completed, then the chain of key word is broken and another chain starts with nature of creativity and so on. This indicates that, if you recall one key word, all other related will come into your mind.

A mind map essentially consists of a key word or a concept and around each key word, several ideas are related. As indicated earlier, mind maps tend to have similar structure as memory itself and thus help in organization of information through association.

3.8.3.1 Creativity and Mind maps

How does the mind map help in improving creativity? Mind maps helps in increasing creativity through association of one idea with another which helps in generation of new ideas and new association. Every concept in a mind map can become the centre of another mind map. Thus mind map is very useful in brainstorm sessions. The basic problem is given to the participants which acts like the key concept. As ideas are generated from the main concept in different directions, the mind also helps to find association. Apart from brainstorming, the application of mind map can be seen in the following:

- I. **Creative writing:** Using mind map technique, one can break writers' block and get a flow of rich and diverse idea for writing a story or preparing a report.
- II. **Creative study:** An understanding of mind map will help you to recall the material you read in an effective way. As you start reading a book, take a piece of paper and start writing the major key idea. Every time you get some interesting idea, you link it to key concepts. This small exercise of preparing a mind map based upon your reading will provide not only a summary of the book you have read, but will help you to get a better understanding of the topic under study through cross fertilization of ideas. It has been reported that group study with family members or friends using mind map on a particular topic or subject helps children to get more interested in their studies and make it as a fun exercise. Finally a mastermind map using the individual mind maps can be prepared.
- III. **Creative meetings and think tanks:** It has been reported that every meeting should start by requesting the people to spend two minutes in developing individual mind



maps with regard to their main items to be discussed. As the meeting progress, every individual is requested to share or discuss the ideas or problems developed by his or her mind map. This helps in giving attention to problems and ideas which never occurred to the Chairman of the meeting.

- IV. **Improve talk delivery:** Lot of people have problem in giving a talk without referring to note. They may carry lecture note, which run into several pages. And such people are tempted to read their speech which will be an ineffective presentation. One can give an effective talk by preparing notes in the form of mind maps. It will help you to recall every bit of outline.

3.8 LET'S SUM UP

In this unit, we have discussed different elements, process and nature of creative thinking. A brief introduction to lateral and vertical thinking was also done along with the importance of divergent thinking in solving field problems faced by extension officers.

- There are different methods to improve the divergent thinking such as thinking in terms of alternatives, challenging self - imposed assumption, asking 'why' like children, practicing designing and thinking in terms of originality.
- This unit also explained techniques for creative problem solving such as brainstorming and attribute analysis.

3.9 SELF-CHECK EXERCISES/ SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Describe the meaning and different components of creativity.
2. What are the steps involved in the process of creativity?
3. How will you make use of divergent thinking in solving problems of farmers?
4. What practical measures you would suggest to improve creativity of village level workers?
- 5.

3.10 FURTHER SUGGESTED READING/REFERENCES

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UNIT-4

EVOLUTION OF MANAGEMENT THOUGHT

Highlights of the Unit

- Objectives
- Introduction to Management Thought
- Evolution and development of management thought at global level
- Administrative theories
- Contributions and limitations of administrative management
- Scientific management approach
- Scientific recruitment and training
- Human relations approach
- Behavioral approach
- Modern approaches to management
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Reading

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able

- To discuss various theories of Management
- To extrapolate about the principles of Management
- To gain knowledge on neo-classical management theories

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In today's world, management has become a challenging task. New concepts, theories and techniques are emerging every day all over the world to solve problems related to leadership, human values, Corporate Social Responsibility, ethics and values,

culture and many more management issues which are directly or indirectly affecting the sustainability and growth of organizations, employees and Nations. The culture of every country is different. Management concepts developed in Western countries have not given the same result in Indian context because western management concepts are rooted in certain implicit assumptions (Vinayshil Gautam, 1993). This chapter takes a review of the evolution and development of management thought at global level.

4.2 EVOLUTION AND DEVELOPMENT OF MANAGEMENT THOUGHT AT GLOBAL LEVEL

4.2.1 Pre-classical

The Industrial Revolution, which began in Europe in the mid-1700s, was the starting point for the development of management concepts and theories. The rapid growth in the number of people in the production process necessitated the development of management theories and principles. Many theorists and practitioners in the mid and late 1800s (**Pre-classical period**) contributed valuable ideas that laid the foundation for subsequent, broader inquiries into the nature of management.

Five principal contributors can be identified in this early period of development of management thought.

Name	Period	Contribution
Robert Owen	1771-1858	Improvement of working conditions
Charles Babbage	1792-1871	Division of Labor
Andrew ure	1778-1857	Advocated the study of management
Charles Dupin	1784-1873	
Henry R.Towne	1844-1924	Systematic study of management



Limitations

Pre-classical theorists generally tried to find solutions to contemporary managerial problems. The early pioneers, with their technical backgrounds, did not regard management as a separate field of study. However, their ideas did lay the foundation for the management theorists of the 1900s.

4.2.2 Classical Approach

Classical management thought can be divided into three separate schools: Scientific management, Administrative theory and Bureaucratic management. Classical theorists formulated principles for setting up and managing organizations. These views are labeled “classical” because they form the foundation for the field of management thought.

The major contributors to the three schools of management thought are

Bureaucratic management - Max Weber

Administrative theory - Henry Fayol

Scientific management - Frederick W. Taylor

4.2.3 Bureaucratic Management

The term “Bureaucracy” referred to organizations that operated on a rational basis. According to Max Weber, “a bureaucracy is a highly structured, formalized and impersonal organization”. In other words, it is a formal organization structure with a set of rules and regulations. The characteristics of Weber’s ideal bureaucratic structure are:

Table 4.1. Characteristics of Weber’s ideal bureaucratic structure

Characteristic	Description
Work specialization and Division of Labor	The duties and responsibilities of all the employees are clearly defined. Jobs are divided into tasks and subtasks. Each employee is given a particular task to perform repeatedly so that he acquires expertise in that task.

Abstract rules and regulations	The rules and regulations that are to be followed by employees are well defined to instill discipline in them and to ensure that they work in a coordinated manner to achieve the goals of the organization.
Impersonal Relationships	Managers make rational decisions and judgments based purely on facts. They try to be immune to feelings like affection, enthusiasm, hatred and passion so as to remain unattached and unbiased towards their subordinates.
Hierarchy of organization	The activities of employees at each level are monitored by employees at higher levels. Subordinates do not take any decision on their own and always look up to their superiors for approval of their ideas and opinions.

They also failed to consider the impact of the external and internal environment upon employee behavior in organizations.

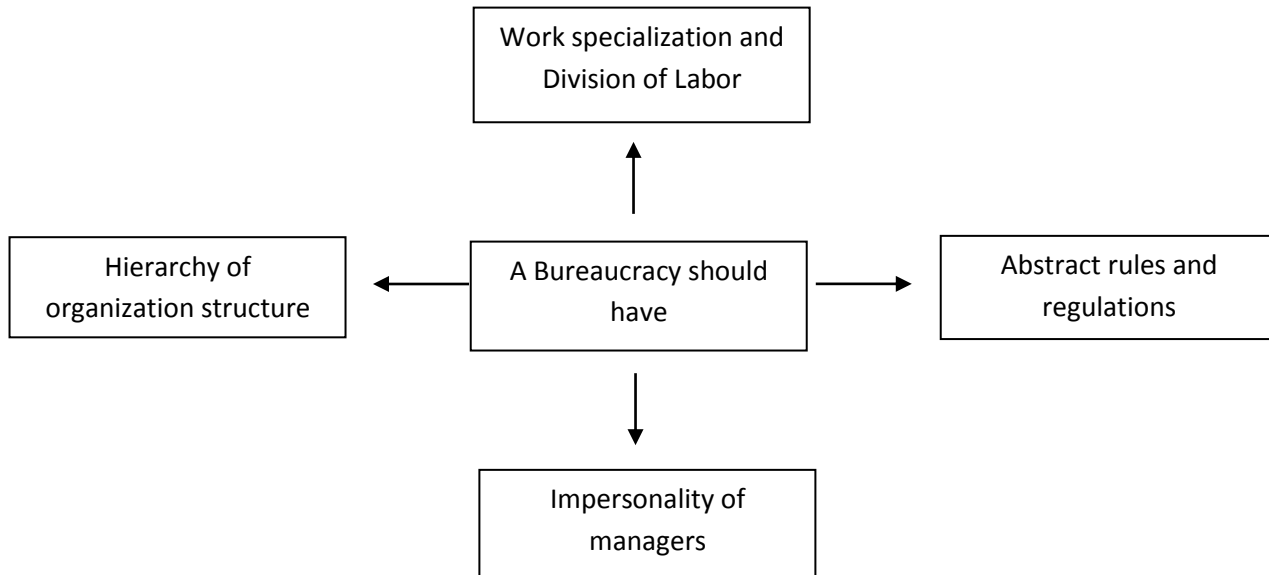


Fig 4.1 External and internal environment upon employee behavior in organizations



4.3 ADMINISTRATIVE THEORIES

This theory focused on principles that could be used by managers to coordinate the internal activities of organizations. The most prominent of the administrative theorists was Henri Fayol.

Contributories

- **Fayol:** Functions - 14 principles of management
- **Max Weber:** Task defines, division of labor, clear chain of command, impersonal relationship, defined hierarchy
- **Chester Barnard:** Authority - functions
- **Herbert Simon:** Bounded rationality

Contributions - Functions and principles of management.

According to Fayol, the business operation of an organization could be divided into six activities

- Technical - Producing and manufacturing products
- Commercial - Buying, Selling and exchange.
- Financial - Search for and optimal use of capital.
- Security - Protecting employees and property.
- Accounting - Recording and taking stock of costs, profits and liabilities, maintaining balance sheets, and compiling statistics.
- Managerial - Planning, Organizing, Commanding, Coordinating and Controlling.

Fayol focused on the last activity, managerial activity. Within this, he identified five major functions: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling that are clearly similar to the modern management functions - Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Leading and controlling.

4.3.1 Fayol outlined fourteen principles of management:

1. **Division of work.** Output can be increased by specialization, making employees more efficient.
2. **Authority.** The right or power to give orders to subordinates is authority. Wherever authority exists, responsibility arises.
3. **Discipline.** Employees must obey the organizational rules. Good discipline must result from an agreement between firm and employees with fairness and clear understanding of both sides. Penalties can be applied to violations of rule.
4. **Unity of Command.** Each subordinate should receive orders from one superior.
5. **Unity of Direction.** Organizational activities that have the same objective should be guided by one manager, using one plan.
6. **Subordination of individual Interests to the General Interest.** The interests of one employee (or group of employees) should not precede over the interests of the organization as a whole.
7. **Remuneration.** Employees must be paid a fair wage. Rewards should be used as a tool of encouragement.
8. **Centralization.** The degree to which subordinates are involved in decision-making. Whether the decision is centralized or decentralized is a question of proportion.
9. **Scalar Chain.** The line of authority from top to the lowest ranks of management. Communication should go along this chain. To avoid delays, cross communications can be allowed if agreed by all involved parties.
10. **Order.** Materials and people should be in right place at right time.
11. **Equity.** Managers should be kind and fair to their subordinates
12. **Stability of Tenure of Personnel.** High employee turnover causes inefficiency. Managers should ensure replacements at hand when vacancies arise.
13. **Initiative.** The power of thinking out, proposing and executing. Management should encourage employees to originate and carry out plans. This urging tends to boost levels of effort.



14. *Esprit de Corps*. Fostering team spirit is the way to construct harmony and unity among employees.

4.3.2 Chester Barnard

When Chester Barnard retired as the CEO of New Jersey Bell Telephone, he recorded his insights about management in his book, *Functions of the Executive*. It outlined the legitimacy of the supervisor's directives and the extent of the subordinates' acceptance. He developed the concepts of strategic planning and the acceptance theory of authority. Strategic planning is the formulation of major plans or strategies, which guide the organization in pursuit of major objectives. Barnard taught that the three top functions of the executive were to

- Establish and maintain an effective communication system,
- Hire and retain effective personnel, and
- Motivate those personnel.

His 'Acceptance Theory of Authority' states that managers only have as much authority as employees allow them to have. The acceptance theory of authority suggests that authority flows downward but depends on acceptance by the subordinate. The acceptance of authority depends on four conditions.

- (1.) Employees must understand what the manager wants them to do.
- (2.) Employees must be able to comply with the directive.
- (3.) Employees must think that the directive is in keeping with organizational objectives.
- (4.) Employees must think that the directive is not contrary to their personal goals.

Barnard believed that each person has a zone of indifference or a range within each individual in which he or she would willingly accept orders without consciously questioning authority. It was up to the organization to provide sufficient inducements to broaden each employee's zone of indifference so that the manager's orders would be obeyed.

4.4 CONTRIBUTIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT

Both Taylor and Fayol had essentially the same goal of increasing production but they tried to reach this goal from different directions. Taylor worked from the bottom of the hierarchy upward, whereas Fayol worked from the apex downwards.

Fayol's principles met with widespread acceptance among writers on management and among managers themselves. In the United States, the most important acceptance of his principles came from two General Motors executives - James D. Mooney and Alan C. Railey. These executives wrote a book *Onward Industry* in 1931, later revised and renamed as *Principles of Organization*.

Drawing inspiration from Fayol, a new school of thought, known as the Management Process School came into existence. Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell are the champions of this school. They believe that management is a dynamic process of performing the functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. Similarly, management functions are not confined to business enterprises alone but are applicable to all organizations wherever group effort is involved.

4.4.1 Limitations of Bureaucratic management and Administrative theory

The management principles propounded by the classical theorists were not universally applicable to today's complex organizations. Moreover, some of Fayol's principles, like that of specialization, were frequently in conflict with the principle of unity of command.

Weber's concept of bureaucracy is not as popular today as it was when it was first proposed. The principal characteristics of bureaucracy - strict division of labour, adherence to formal rules and regulations, and impersonal application of rules and controls - destroy individual creativity and the flexibility to respond to complex changes in the global environment.



Classical theorists ignored important aspects of organizational behavior. They did not deal with the problems of leadership, motivation, power or informal relations. They stressed productivity above other aspects of management.

They also failed to consider the impact of the external and internal environment upon employee behavior in organizations.

4.5 SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT APPROACH

Frederick Winslow Taylor, considered as “Father of scientific management” wrote the “The principles of management” in 1911. The scientific management approach involved using scientific methods to determine how a task should be done instead of depending on the previous experiences of the concerned worker.

4.5.1 Features

- Use of scientific method to define “One best way”.
- Conducting business by standards established by facts or truth gained through systematic observation experiment.
- Increase efficiency of labor by management of those workers.

4.5.2 Contributories

Charles Babbage	: Specialization of labor, times study, work study
Gilbreths	: Performance improvement
Henry L Gantt	: Gantt chart - flow of work and time
F.W Taylor	: Science for each job – time and motion. Scientifically select workers – select and train. Ensure cooperation through incentives – incentive Piece rate incentives. Divide responsibility for managing – promote leaders

4.5.3 Four Steps in Scientific Management

Step 1 : Develop a science for each element of the job to replace old rule of thumb methods.

Step 2: Scientifically select employees and train them to do the job

Step 3: Supervise employees to make sure they follow the prescribed methods for performing their jobs.

Step 4: Continue to plan the work but use workers to actually get the work done.

In essence, scientific management as propounded by Taylor emphasizes:

- a. Need for developing a scientific way of performing each job.
- b. Training and preparing workers to perform that particular job.
- c. Establishing harmonious relations between management and workers so that the job is performed in the desired way.

The two major managerial practices that emerged from Taylor's approach to management are the piece-rate incentive system and the time-and-motion study.

4.5.4 Piece-rate incentive system

The aim of this system was to reward the worker who produced the maximum output. Under this system, a worker who met the established standards of performance would earn the basic wage rate set by management. If the worker's output exceeded the set target, his wages would increase proportionately. The piece-rate system, according to Taylor, would motivate the workers to produce more and thus help the organization perform better.

4.5.5 Time-and-motion study

Taylor tried to determine the best way to perform each and every job. To do so, he introduced a method called "time-and-motion" study. In a "time-and-motion" study, jobs are broken down into various small tasks or motions and unnecessary motions are removed to find out the expected amount of goods that can be produced each day. The

objective of a time-and-motion analysis is to ascertain a simpler, easier and better way of performing a work or job.

4.5.6 Limitations

- Managers frequently implemented only the increased output side of Taylor's plan.
- Workers did not share in the increased output.
- Specialized jobs became very boring, dull.
- Workers ended up distrusting the Scientific Management method.
- Workers could purposely "under-perform."
- Management responded with increased use of machines and conveyors belts.

4.6 SCIENTIFIC RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Taylor emphasized the need for scientific selection and the development of the worker. He said that the management should develop and train every worker to bring out his best faculties and to enable to do a higher, more interesting and more profitable class of work than he has done in the past.

Taylor's concept of scientific management developed into a movement and dominated the industrial management scene for several decades after him. His principles and concepts were refined and enlarged by several of his followers, notable among them being Henry.L.Gantt and the Gilbreths.

4.6.1 Frank and Lillian Gilbreth

Frank and Lillian Gilbreth made numerous contributions to the concept of scientific management. Frank Gilbreth is considered the "Father of motion study". Lillian Gilbreth was associated with the research pertaining to motion studies. Motion study involves finding out the best sequence and minimum number of motions needed to complete a task. Frank and Lillian Gilbreth were mainly involved in exploring new ways for eliminating motions and reducing work fatigue.

4.6.2 Henry Laurence Gantt

Gantt insisted that willingness to use correct methods and skills in performing a task is important as knowing the methods and having the skills in the first place. Thus, he saw the importance of the human element in the productivity and propounded the concept of motivation. Every worker's progress was recorded on individual bar charts, inked in black on days he/ she completed the standard and red on days he/ she fell below going beyond this. Gantt originated a charting system for production control.

Henry.L.Gantt made several contributions to the field of management. He is probably remembered for his work on the task-and-bonus system and the Gantt chart. Under Gantt's incentive plan, if the worker completed the work fast, i.e. in less than the standard time, he received a bonus.

The Gantt chart is still used today by many organizations. It is the first simple chart that compares actual and planned performances. The Gantt chart was the first simple visual device to maintain production control. The chart indicates the progress of production in terms of time rather than quantity. Along the horizontal axis of the chart, time, work scheduled and work completed are shown. The vertical axis identifies the individuals and machines assigned to these work schedules. The Gantt chart compares a firm's scheduled output and expected completion dates to what was actually produced during the year. Gantt's chart procedures were precursors of today's program evaluation and review techniques.

4.6.3 Limitations of Scientific Management

- Revolve around problems at the operational level and do not focus on the management.
- People were 'rational' - desire for material gain. Taylor and his followers - overemphasize their economic and physical needs.
- Ignored the human desire for job satisfaction.

4.7 HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH

Elton Mayo, the “Father of the Human Relations Approach” is known for his research, the Hawthorne Studies. The research he conducted under the Hawthorne Studies showed the importance of groups in affecting the behavior of individuals at work.

Hawthorne experiments were a series of studies on the productivity of workers, wherein various conditions were manipulated (pay, light levels, humidity, rest breaks, etc.). Surprisingly, each change resulted in a productivity rising, including eventually a return to the original conditions. This was true of each of the individual workers as well as of the group mean.

The experiments were primarily started with the intention of studying the relationship between productivity and work conditions vis-à-vis examining the physical and environmental influences of the workplace (e.g. brightness of lights, humidity) and then moved on to the psychological aspects (e.g. breaks, group pressure, working hours, managerial leadership).

Study of Hawthorne Effect along with Frederick Taylor’s experiment paved the way for a very new field known to management world i.e. “Industrial Psychology”. Now people in this field started giving importance to group behavior influences and interpersonal communication while doing efficiency research related to time and working potential of workers as well as overall factors of Productivity.

4.7.1 Limitations

1. The procedures, analysis of findings, and the conclusions reached were found to be questionable.
2. The relationship made between the satisfaction or happiness of workers and their productivity was too simplistic.
3. These studies failed to focus attention on the attitudes of employees at the workplace.

4.8 BEHAVIORAL APPROACH

The behavioral approach to management emphasized individual attitudes and behaviors and group processes, and recognized the significance of behavioral processes in the workplace.

4.8.1 Contributories

- Robert Owen (1771-1858) - Human behavior
- Hugo M. Berg (1863-1916) - Psychology and Industrial efficiency, Psychology test for selection, training and motivating.
- Elton Mayo - Group norms and behavior
- Mary Parker Follet - Group consent
- Maslow - Motivation - Hierarchy of needs
- McGregor - Human side of enterprise

4.8.2 Contributions

- Needs of workers, human side of enterprise, leadership, motivation, culture, personality, conflict management etc.
- The study of how managers should behave to motivate employees and encourage them to perform at high levels and be committed to the achievement of organizational goals
- Focuses on the way a manager should personally manage to motivate employees.

4.8.3 Theory X and Y

Douglas McGregor developed two assumptions about human behavior which he labeled "Theory X" and "Theory Y". According to McGregor, these two theories reflect the two extreme sets of belief that different managers have about their workers. Theory X presents an essentially negative view of people.



Theory X managers assume that;

- workers are lazy,
- have little ambition,
- dislike work,
- want to avoid responsibility
- need to be closely directed to make them work effectively

Theory Y is more positive and presumes that

- workers can be creative and innovative
- willing to take responsibility
- exercise self-control
- enjoy their work
- Have higher-level needs which have not been satisfied by the job

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y influenced many practicing managers. It helped managers develop new ways of managing the workers.

4.8.4 Quantitative Approach

The quantitative approach to management includes the application of statistics, information models and computer simulations. More specifically, this approach focuses on achieving organizational effectiveness through the application of mathematical and statistical concepts. The three main branches of the quantitative approach are:

- i. Management science
- ii. Operations management
- iii. Management Information Systems

4.8.5 Management science

The management science approach stresses the use of mathematical models and statistical methods for decision-making. It visualizes management as logical entity the action of which can be expressed in terms of mathematical symbols, relationships and measurement data. Another name commonly used for management science is operations research. To apply a quantitative approach to decision-making, individuals with mathematical, statistical, engineering, economics and business background skills are required. Since one person cannot have all these skills, the quantitative method requires a team approach to decision-making.

4.8.6 Limitations

- This approach has been criticized for its overemphasis of mathematical tools.
- Many managerial activities cannot be quantified because they involve human beings who are governed by many irrational elements.

4.8.7 Operations Management

Operations management is an applied form of management science. It deals with the effective management of the production process and the timely delivery of an organization's products and services. Operations management is concerned with inventory management, work scheduling, production planning, quality assurance etc. The tools used by operations manager are forecasting, inventory analysis, networking models, statistical quality control methods etc.

4.8.8 Management Information Systems

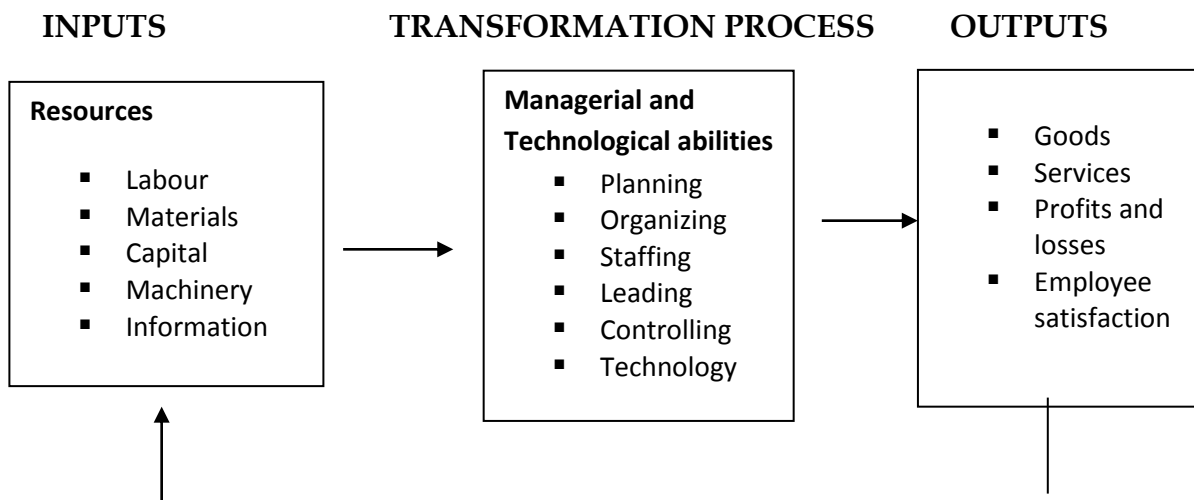
Management Information Systems focuses on designing and implementing computer-based information systems for business organizations. In simple terms, the MIS converts raw data into information and provides the needed information to each manager at the right time, in the needed form.

4.9 MODERN APPROACHES TO MANAGEMENT

4.9.1 Systems Theory

The systems approach gives managers a new way of looking at an organization as a whole and as a part of the larger, external environment. According to this theory, an organizational system has four components: inputs, transformation process, output and feedback. Inputs - money, materials, men, machines and informational sources - are required to produce goods and services. Transformation processes or throughputs - managerial and technical abilities - are used to convert inputs into outputs. Outputs are the products, services, profits and other results produced by the organization. Feedback refers to information about the outcomes and the position of the organization relative to the environment it operates in.

4.9.1.1 Systems view of Organizations



4.9.1.2 Feedback

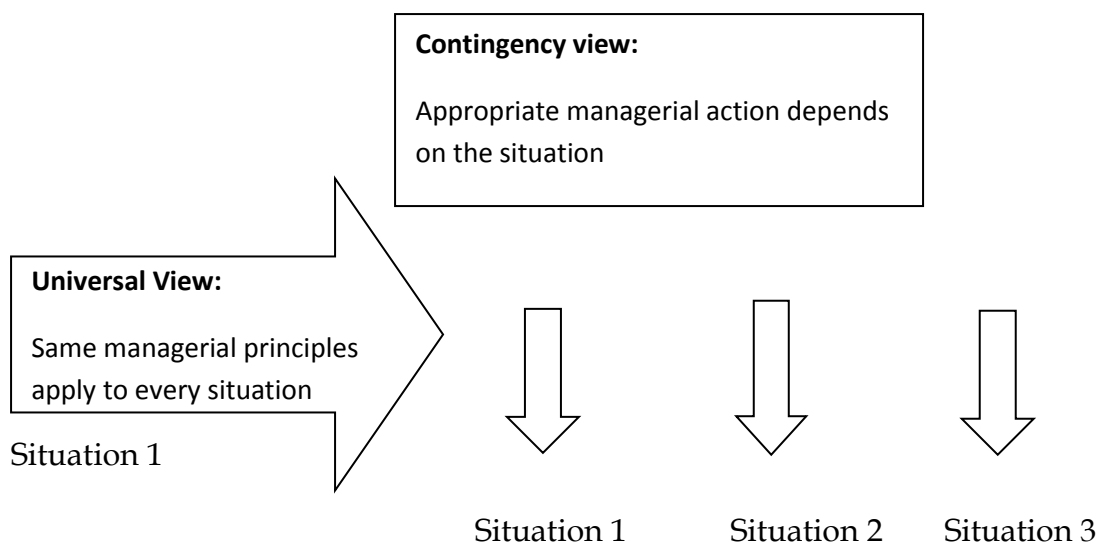
The two basic types of systems are closed and open systems. A system that interacts with its environment is regarded as an **open system** and a system that does not interact with its environment is considered a **closed system**. Frederick Taylor, for instance, regarded people and organization as closed systems. In reality, all organizations are open systems as they are dependent on interactions with their environment. Whether it is a new

product decision or a decision related to the employees of the organization, the organization must consider the role and influence of environmental factors. The above figure depicts open system.

4.9.2 Contingency theory

This is also known as situational theory. This approach has been widely used in recent years to integrate management theory with the increasing complexity of organizations. According to this theory, there is no one best way to manage all situations. In other words, there is no one best way to manage. The contingency approach was developed by managers, consultants, and researchers who try to apply the concepts of the major schools of management-thought to real life situations. Managers, who follow this approach, make business decisions or adopt a particular management style only after carefully considering all situational factors. According to the contingency approach, “the task of managers is to identify which technique will, in a particular situation, under particular circumstances, and at a particular time, best contribute to the attainment of management goals”

4.9.2.1 The Contingency Managerial Viewpoint





4.10 LET US SUM UP

It can be argued that since management actually involves the managing of human resources, financial resources, time resources and material resources; the various approaches to management are actually looking at the same thing but from different perspectives. This can be said to be the semantic complexity associated with management. Whether it is managing people to build a pyramid in ancient Egypt or managing a complex, dynamic organization in the 21st century, provided it involves planning, organizing, motivating, leading and coordinating, then it is Management.

The unit discussed the Pre-classical, Classical and Modern Approaches to Management. Characteristics of Bureaucracy, Fayol's principles of management, features and steps of scientific management, Hawthorne studies, Behavioral Approaches are explained briefly. System's view of Organization and Contingency theory are described shortly.

4.11 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. What are the characteristics of Bureaucratic management?
2. What is Hawthorne effect?
3. What are the steps in Scientific Management?

4.12 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES:

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BLOCK II: MANAGERIAL SKILLS



UNIT-1

TASKS AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF EXTENSION MANAGERS AND MANAGERIAL VALUES AND ETHICS

Highlights of the Unit

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Roles of Managers
- Managerial skills
- Responsibilities of Manager
- Responsibilities of Agricultural Extensionists
- Values and ethics
- Let's sum up
- Check Your Progress
- Further readings/ references

1.0 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this unit are:

- To know different roles and tasks of agricultural extension managers
- To delineate skills needed for managerial skills.
- To brief out the ethics of management.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In any organization all those who are responsible for the work of others are known as managers. Though their primary task remains the same - getting the things done by other people, wide variances exist with regard to the authority and responsibility of managers. These differences are largely due to the differences in the levels of management. Based on the scope of authority and responsibility, management job requires many skills and talents.

1.2 ROLES OF MANAGERS:

Five managerial roles can be identified in organizations (Ansoff 1984). These managerial roles fit certain managerial levels, in organizations. These managerial roles are:-

1. Manager – Leader
2. Manager – controller
3. Manager – Administrator
4. Manager – Planner
5. Manager – Entrepreneur.

A. Manager – Leader: Managers play the role of leadership in organizations especially when they lead groups within the organizations. Under this condition their major role is to influence the group of members towards goal setting and goal attainment. They may perform task related and social related functions in other to influence group members to action. Some other views suggest that leadership roles demand concern for employees and concern for task or responsibility. However, the contingency approach to leadership suggests type of leadership and subordinate relationship, task structure and power position of the leader as critical factor in leadership influence. Looking at the definitional discussions so far on leadership, we can visualize managerial decisions through group activities in organizations. Managerial leadership demands ability to communicate effectively, identify skills in human beings, and motivate people and performance measurement.

B. Administrative Management (Controller): General control is the process of ensuring the activities that are planned and the activities that are implemented. So, control has to do with measurement of performance and taking corrective actions. The administrative manager plays the control function in an organization. To be an administrator, one must have a thorough understanding of the variables which are critical to the firm's success. There is need for a skill in pin pointing the sources of action. While aware of the human elements, the administrator does not allow personal loyalties and influences to becloud the



substantive problems. He is prepared to face up to personal conflicts which are precipitated by through-minded decisions - (Ansoff 1965).

C. Manager - Planner: The planner Manager is also concerned with the present and future performances of an organization. So, he is concerned with performance and measurement. The planner is devoted to optimizing the firm's future performance, though capitalizing in future opportunities in the firm's historical business and guiding the firm towards attaining the goals for the firm's future performance. The Planner is analytical, methodical and future oriented.

D. The Entrepreneur Manager: The entrepreneur Manager is a risk taker who does not intend extrapolating the present internal dynamics of a firm into the future. In the real sense an entrepreneur is someone who assumes risk of business ownership and manages it for profitable purposes. Entrepreneurial Managerial characteristic, are needed during the period of strategic change with flexibility, in considering alternative portfolios of business which are needed. During this period, Planner Managers may likely remain incremental by trying to extrapolate the present dynamics of business into the future. However, an entrepreneurial manager will take the risk of diversifying the present business activities of a firm.

Henry Mintzberg published ten Management Roles in his book, "Mintzberg on Management: Inside our Strange World of Organizations," in 1990. He identified ten roles of a manager played in organization which fall into three basic categories: interpersonal roles, informational roles and decisional roles. Following figure depicts the different roles and its categories.

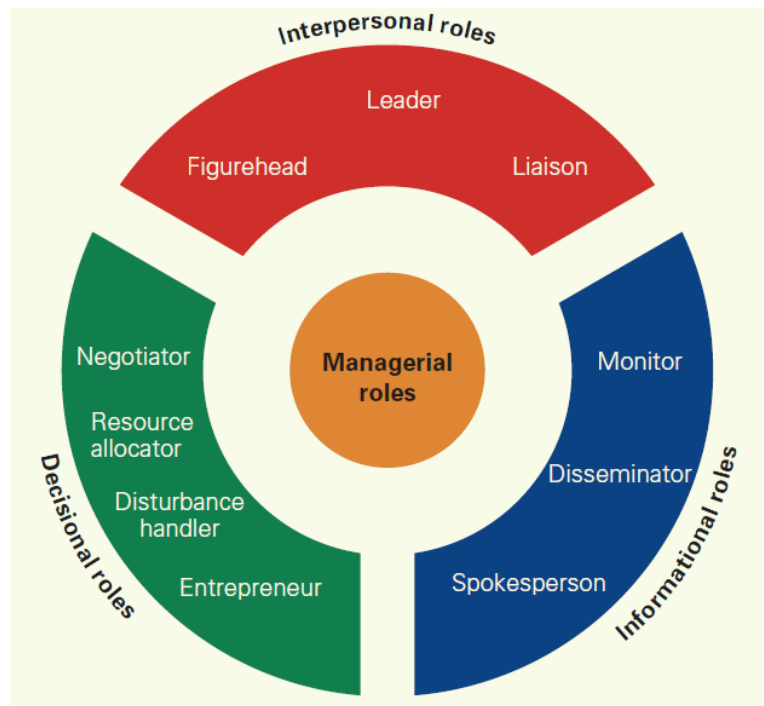


Fig 1.1 Managerial roles

Ten roles are then divided up into three categories, as follows:

Table 1.1 Managerial roles

Category	Roles
Interpersonal	Figurehead Leader Liaison
Informational	Monitor Disseminator Spokesperson
Decisional	Entrepreneur Disturbance Handler Resource Allocator Negotiator



1.2.1 Interpersonal Roles

- It is related to the manager's behavior and focuses on interpersonal contact.
- These roles that involve people (subordinates and persons outside the organization) and other duties those are ceremonial and symbolic in nature.

Three interpersonal roles *viz.*, figurehead, leader, and liaison are discussed below

- **Figurehead:** It performs symbolic legal or social duties, inspiration and ceremonial obligations. Executives/ managers are viewed as symbol of status and authority.
- **Leader:** He builds relationships with employees and communicates with, motivates, and coaches them. Superior - subordinate relationship, motivating subordinates, overseeing their progress, promoting and encouraging their development, and balancing effectiveness are some important aspects of leadership role.
- **Liaison:** The liaison maintains a network of contacts outside the work unit to obtain information. Describes the information and communication obligations of a manager. One must network and engage in information exchange to gain access to knowledge bases.

1.2.2 Informational Roles

Informational roles involve receiving, collecting, and disseminating information. The three informational roles include a monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson.

These informational roles are all about receiving and transmitting information so that managers can serve as the nerve centers of their organization. The informational roles are;

- **Monitor:** The monitor seeks internal and external information about issues that can affect the organization. Duties include assessing internal operations, department's success and the problems and opportunities which may arise. All the information gained in this capacity must be stored and maintained
- **Disseminator:** The disseminator transmits information internally that is obtained from either internal or external sources, highlights factual or value based external views into the organization and to subordinates.

- **Spokesperson:** The spokesperson transmits information about the organization to outsiders. Serves in a PR capacity by informing and lobbying others to keep key stakeholders updated about the operations of the organization.

1.2.3 Decisional Roles

The four decisional roles include being an entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator.

- **Entrepreneur:** The entrepreneur acts as an initiator, designer, and encourage of change and innovation. Roles encourage managers to create improvement projects and work to delegate, empower and supervise teams in the development process.
- **Disturbance handler:** The disturbance handler takes corrective action when the organization faces important, unexpected difficulties. A generalist role that takes charge when an organization is unexpectedly upset or transformed and requires calming and support.
- **Resource allocator:** The resource allocator distributes resources of all types, including time, funding, equipment, and human resources. Describes the responsibility of allocating and overseeing financial, material and personnel resources.
- **Negotiator:** The negotiator represents the organization in major negotiations affecting the manager's areas of responsibility is a specific task which is integral for the spokesman, figurehead and resource allocator roles.

1.3 MANAGERIAL SKILLS

Management is a challenging job. It requires certain skills to accomplish such a challenge. Thus, essential skills which every manager needs for doing a better management are called as Managerial Skills. In 1974, According to Professor Robert Katz, there are three managerial skills, viz.

- A. Conceptual Skills,
- B. Human Relations Skills, and



- C. Technical Skills.
- D. Institution Building Skills

All managers require above four managerial skills. However, the degree (amount) of these skills required varies (changes) from levels of management and from an organization to organization.

A. Conceptual Skills

Conceptual skill is the ability to visualize (see) the organization as a whole. It includes Analytical, Creative and Initiative skills. It helps the manager to identify the causes of the problems and not the symptoms. It helps him to solve the problems for the benefit of the entire organization. It helps the manager to fix goals for the whole organization and to plan for every situation. According to Prof. Robert Katz, conceptual skills are mostly required by the top-level management because they spend more time in planning and problem solving.

B. Human Relations Skills

Human relation skills are also called Interpersonal skills. It is an ability to work with people. It helps the managers to understand, communicate and work with others. It also helps the managers to lead, motivate and develop team spirit. Human relations skills are required by all managers at all levels of management. This is so, since all managers have to interact and work with people.

C. Technical Skills

A technical skill is the ability to perform a given job. Technical skills help the managers to use different machines, tools, procedures and techniques. The lower level managers require more technical skills. This is because they are in charge of the actual operations.

D. Institution Building Skills

Top executives are generally regarded as the individuals who make key decisions in an organizational set up. A manager requires skills which help in building an institution or organization. A manager must have technical, human and conceptual skills; along with efficiency of the organization he is equally worried about attaining better satisfaction of employees, their welfare, their development which could create an impact on the society and their morale. Decisions such as expanding a plant, dropping a major product, or purchasing another company are made at this level. Broadly speaking, they are expected to utilize human and non-human resources to achieve their organization's goals, such as making profits for owners, paying good wages to employees and produce quality goods and services with a view to serve customers. In short, they must build institutions.

Top level executives perform eight key roles while building institutions of lasting values.

1. Identity creating role of the top level manager
2. Enabling role of the top level executive
3. Synergizing role
4. Balancing role of the top executive
5. Linkage building role
6. Futuristic role
7. Making impact
8. Giving super ordination to the employees

1.4 RESPONSIBILITIES OF MANAGER

- Setting of organizational objectives
- Policy formulation and implementation in the organization
- Strategic Planning for the growth of an organization
- Formal communication Organizing the various events
- Motivating subordinates and team



- Controlling Administrative tasks
- Planner Implementer
- To produce results through people
- To take decisions
- To cooperate under constraints

1.5 RESPONSIBILITIES OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSIONISTS

- **Programme planning and implementation:** An extension agent needs to be able to plan an extension Program to the last detail. They also have to be able to help their clients to understand how to do and use meticulous planning.
- **Communication:** Good communication skills are one of the most important skills in extension. Extensionists have to be able to effectively communicate agricultural innovations to clients, but also effectively listen to their needs. Extension agents should also be able to communicate confidently with other stakeholders such as investors or government officials.
- **Leadership:** Extensionists have to be able to effectively lead, coordinate and facilitate different stakeholders involved in the agricultural extension environment.
- **Organizational management:** Professional Extensionists need to have excellent organizational skills and be able to mobilize and monitor their resources effectively.
- **Programme monitoring and evaluation:** There is always competition for resources in the agricultural extension environment. An effective extension agent will need to be able to monitor and evaluate the success of extension programs in order to avoid previous mistakes and to report to stakeholders whether programs have had the desired effects.
- **Sensitivity to diversity and multiculturalism:** Many extension agents will work in developing countries with many different races, religions and ethnicities. Professional

Extensionists have to be familiar with these differences and value the diversity of their audience.

- **Education and informational technology: Information and communication technologies (ICTs)**, such as mobile phones and tablet computers, are becoming very important in agricultural extension. These ICTs are an effective way to communicate with a large number of users and extension professionals should ensure that they are familiar with them. They should also try to encourage their clients to use these ICTs.
- Good agriculture extension officer has a **comprehensive knowledge bank** to convince farmers adopting new technology.
- Farmers can only be motivated if they are assured that their income will increase by following new and innovative technology in farming. Thus an extension officer should be motivational and have good communication qualities.
- Extension worker should perform the role of a **bridge between farmers and scientific and research institutes**. He should have good networking and working linkages with top scientific national and international institutes where he can take the problems of farming community to get scientific and logical solutions.
- Without **feeling the problems of farmers and farming community**, village extension worker cannot bring desire change in attitude as well as the farming practices of the farmers.

1.6 VALUES AND ETHICS

Values and ethics are central to any organization. Based on ethics and values, goodwill and image of the organization is determined. Values and ethics of the organisation facilitate and add economic value to the organisation. Morally, right and wrong behavior in the business context, including questions of fairness, justice, and equity, which require application of moral standards by persons in the organizations, and the moral standards that are not separate, but derived from society.



'Ethics' is defined as a right or wrong of actions, motives and the results of these actions. In short, it is a discipline that identifies good or evil, just or unjust, fair or unfair practices about moral duty. It has well defined standards that a person should do, concerning rights, obligations, fairness and benefits to society and so on.

There are four important subject areas of study:

- **Meta-ethics:** Ethical philosophy that analyses the meaning and scope of moral values.
- **Descriptive ethics:** The branch of ethics that deals with psychology, sociology, anthropology, etc.
- **Normative Ethics:** The study of the moral course of action through practical means.
- **Applied ethics:** This branch tells us how we can achieve moral outcomes, in a particular circumstance.

1.6.1 Characteristics of values and ethics

Values can be defined as those things that are important to or valued by someone or third party persons. The organization's core values can be integrity, professionalism, caring, teamwork and stewardship. It is important and included with the statement of the organization's vision. When values are shared by all members of an organization, they are important tools for making judgments, assessing probable outcomes of contemplated actions and choosing among alternatives.

Values are of different types *viz.*, organizational values(i.e) loyalty, duty, selfless service and integrity. Individual values are commitment, competence, honesty and courage.

Values determine what is right and what is wrong, and doing what is right or wrong is what we mean by ethics. Organizations, to some extent, define what is right or wrong for the members of the organization.

1.6.2 Ethics

Ethical behavior sometimes is difficult to define, especially in a global economy with its myriad beliefs and practices. The ethical issues facing managers and employees have grown in significance in recent years. Ethics are the values and rules that distinguish right from wrong. Ethics is the science of morals in human conduct, a moral principle or code. So the word ethics encompasses the entire spectrum of human conduct.

Following are some of the ethical principles for business executives

1. Honesty
2. Trustworthiness
3. Integrity
4. Loyalty
5. Promise keeping
6. Fairness
7. Concern for others
8. Respect for others
9. Law abiding
10. Commitment to excellence
11. Leadership
12. Accountability

1.6.3 Code of ethics

A code of ethics is a document, usually issued by a board of directors that encourages specific behavior. This document, sometimes referred to as a value statement, provides guidelines for behavior during difficult situations. These guidelines are usually more general and non-specific and allow members to make independent judgments about the most appropriate behavior in a given situation. A code of ethics represents aspirational standards of behavior that members should strive to uphold, however, this is not necessarily easily measured. A code of ethics can greatly benefit any organization.



A code of ethics:

- Promotes reputation and enhances trust;
- Encourages and provides guidance for ethical decision-making;
- Makes social integration easier; and
- Legitimizes ethics.

Ethical responsibilities that relate to employees are

1. To provide eco system and work conditions that respect each employee's health and dignity
2. Be honest in communication with employees and open in sharing information, limited only by legal and competitive restraints;
3. Listen to and, where possible, act on employee suggestions, ideas, requests, and complaints;
4. To avoid discriminatory practices and guarantee equal treatment and opportunity in areas such as gender, age, race, and religion;
5. To promote in the business itself the employment of differently abled people in places of work where they can be genuinely useful; and
6. Be sensitive to serious unemployment problems frequently associated with business decision and work with governments, employee groups, other agencies, and each other in addressing these dislocations.

1.6.4 Key Differences between Ethics and Values

The fundamental differences between ethics and values are described in the points below:

1. Ethics refers to the guidelines for conduct, that address question about morality. Value is defined as the principles and ideals, which helps them in making the judgment of what is more important.
2. Ethics is a system of moral principles, in contrast to values, which are the stimuli of our thinking.
3. Values strongly influence the emotional state of mind. Therefore, it acts as a motivator. On the other hand, ethics compel to follow a particular course of action.

4. Ethics are consistent, whereas values are different for different persons, i.e. what is important for one person, may not be important for another person.
5. Values tell us what we want to do or achieve in our life, whereas ethics helps us in deciding what is morally correct or incorrect, in the given situation.
6. Ethics determines to what extent our options are right or wrong and values defines our priorities for life.

1.6.5 Outcomes of Effective Ethics Programs:

Studies have recognized eight generally expected outcomes of ethics compliance programs:

- **Unethical/ illegal behavior** - People are able to differentiate between ethical and illegal behaviour that causes havoc.
- **Awareness of ethical/legal issues** - Participants become aware of all the behaviour and action that may lead to ethical/ legal issues.
- **Seeking advice** - Employees seek advice on matters they do not know how to proceed, having fear for their impact on the bottom line.
- **Willing to report wrongdoing** - Employees become very frank in keeping their superiors informed on any mistakes.
- **Bad news to management** - Keeping the management informed even the bad news.
- **Values in judgment processes** - Values are considered while judgments.
- **Employee commitment to organization** - Commitment is seen as an ethical attitude.
- **Meeting external stakeholders' needs** - A high concern for the needs of the stakeholders are shown by avoiding all unethical behaviors and acts.

1.6.6 Ethical practices and organizational integrity include (Impact):

- Profitability and growth.
- Human resource data, employee absentee, turnover, grievance rates.
- Physical and mental health records.
- Safety records.
- Discovered misconduct versus reported misconduct.



- Frequency, nature, and subject of helpline calls for advice.
- Employment discrimination claims, including sexual harassment.
- Labor-management disputes.
- Customer satisfaction

Actions and behaviour that impact on business and profit

- Any dishonest or fraudulent act
- Forgery or alterations of documents
- Misappropriation of funds
- Impropriety with respect to reporting financial transactions
- Profiting from insider knowledge
- Disclosing security transactions to others
- Accepting gifts offered or receiving secret commissions
- Destruction or disappearance of records or assets
- Theft of proprietary information
- Benefiting from illegal or unethical practices which impact on the employer and industry as whole, such as breach of trust, conflict of interest, and or breach of fiduciary duties breach of contract
- Willful noncompliance of directives, procedures, etc.
- Lack of due diligence particularly with respect to supervisors and purchasing agents
- Neglect
- Time theft

1.7 LET'S SUM UP

According to Mintzberg, Ten management roles are categorized into three group's viz. Interpersonal, Informational and Decisional roles. Managerial Skills are the essential skills needed by every manager for doing a better management. Robert Katz classified managerial skills into three concepts as Conceptual Skills, Human Relations Skills, and

Technical Skills. There are certain values and ethical principles that should be followed by a manager to maintain the organizational integrity and it results in effective outcomes.

1.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the three categories of roles?
2. What are the responsibilities of a manager?
3. Bring out the difference between Ethics and Values?

1.9 FURTHER READINGS/ REFERENCES

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UNIT-2

FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

Highlights of the Unit

- Introduction to functions of management
- Planning
- Organizing
- Staffing
- Directing
- Motivation:
- Types of control
- Reporting
- Budgeting
- Let's sum up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Readings

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you will be able

- To understand the various functions of management.
- To realize the steps of planning and its process.
- To perceive about Human resource planning

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT:

According to Peter Drucker, four major functions of Management are,

1. Setting Objectives & Planning

- To determine the objectives aligned with the corporate vision and mission statement
- To determine the goals in each area of objectives

- To decide what has to be done to reach the objectives
- To communicate the objectives to the people whose performance is needed to attain them

2. Organizing the Group

- To analyze the activities, decisions, and relations needed
- To classify the work
- To divide the work into manageable activities and further divide the activities into manageable jobs
- To group units and jobs into an organization structure
- To select people for the management of the units and for the job to be done

3. Motivating & Communicating

- To make a team out of the people that are responsible for various jobs
- To empower employees and motivate them to follow through on your strategic focus
- To take relationship responsibility
- To make decisions on pay, placement, and promotion
- To communicate constantly to and from his subordinates, superior, and colleagues

4. Measuring Performance

- To establish yardsticks and few factors that are as important to the performance of the organization and every man in it
- To make the measurements focused on the performance of the whole organization and every individual available to each staff member
- To analyze, appraise, and interpret performance
- To communicate the meaning of the measurements and their findings to your subordinates, to his superiors, and to colleagues



Luther Gulick coined the word 'POSDCORB' and described the functions of management. The word is made up of the initials of the following functions Viz.,

- Planning
- Organizing
- Staffing
- Directing
- Coordinating
- Reporting
- Budgeting

2.2 PLANNING

Planning is a mental process. It requires the use of intellectual faculties, foresight and sound judgments. It is the determination of a course of action to achieve the desired result. It is the selecting and relating of facts by using assumptions regarding the future in the visualization and formation of proposed activities believed necessary to achieve desired results. This involves predetermined course of action. In this process, organizational goals and formulation of policies and program for achieving them are chalked out. A well thought out plan makes execution perfect and easy. It involves deciding in advance what to do, when to do it, where to do it, how to do it, who has to do it and how the results are to be evaluated. Planning bridges the gap between where we want to go and where we are and ensure effective utilization of human and non-human resources to achieve the desired goals.

2.2.1 Nature of Planning:

- i. Planning is an intellectual activity
- ii. Planning involves selection among alternatives
- iii. Planning is forward-looking
- iv. Planning is futuristic in nature

- v. Planning specifies the objectives to be attained in the future and steps necessary to reach them
- vi. Planning is the most basic of all management functions
- vii. Planning is a pervasive function of management
- viii. Planning aims at efficiency

2.2.2 Benefits of Planning

Good planning results in the following advantages:

- i. **Focuses Attention on Objectives:** If the objectives are clearly laid down, the execution of plans will also be directed towards these objectives.
- ii. **Ensures Economical Operation:** The resources are efficiently utilized and cost also minimized.
- iii. **Facilitates Control:** Planning helps the managers in performing their function of control. Planning and control are inseparable in nature.
- iv. **Reduces Uncertainty:** Planning helps in reducing uncertainties of future because it involves anticipation of future events. It involves forecasting also.
- v. **Encourages Innovation and Creativity:** Planning is basically the deciding function of management. It helps in innovative and creative thinking among the managers as many new ideas will be generated in the minds of managers while planning.
- vi. **Improves Motivation:** A good planning system ensures participation of all managers, which improves their motivation.
- vii. **Achieves Better Coordination:** Planning secures unity of direction towards the organizational objectives. Thus, facilitates better co-ordination in the organization.

2.2.3 Steps in planning

The steps, which are commonly applicable to the plans, are discussed below.

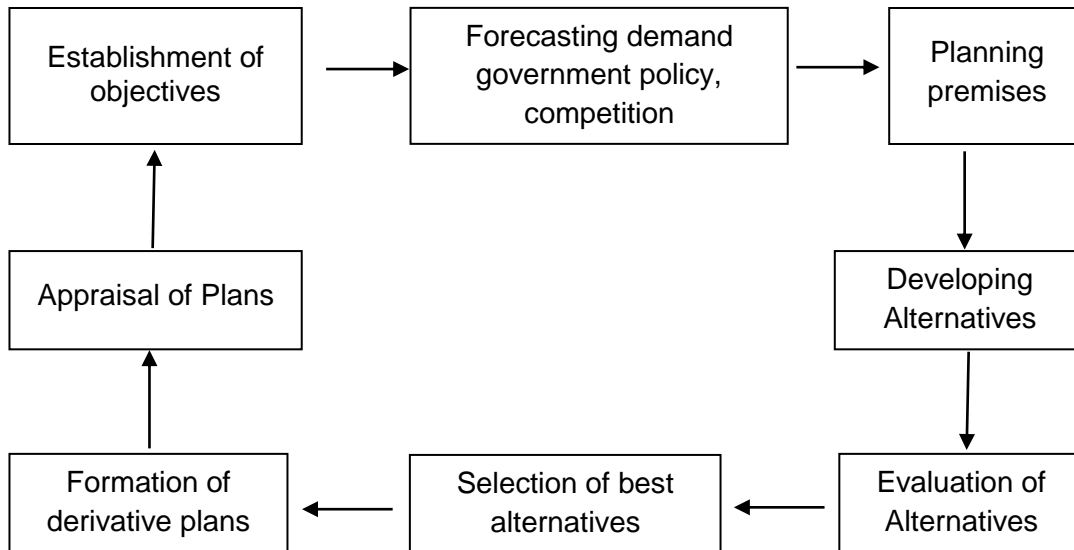


Figure 1. Steps in Planning

i. Establishment of Objectives

- The overall objectives define what is to be accomplished in general terms.
- The derivative objectives focus on more details, that is, what is to be accomplished, where action is to be taken place, who is to perform it, how it is to be undertaken and when it is to be accomplished.

ii. Collection and Forecasting of Information:

- The collection and forecasting of information should be done in terms of external and internal environment.
- The assessment of external environment should include consideration of competitors now and in the future and internal environment may consider the strong and weak points of the organization.

iii. Development of Planning Premises:

This step involves making assumptions concerning the behavior of internal and external factors.

iv. Search Alternatives:

The planner must try to find out all the possible alternatives and screen out most unviable alternative so that there are only few alternatives.

v. Evaluation of Alternatives:

Evaluation considers aspects like cost, objectives, resources, payback, risk etc., The manager may choose the best possible alternative after detailed analysis.

vi and vii. Selection of Best Plan and Development of Derivative Plans:

The next step in the planning process is to select the most feasible plan and develop its derivative plans. The plan must also include the feedback mechanism.

viii. Appraisal of Plans:

When the selected plan is implemented, it is appraised for its effectiveness which enables the management to correct deviations or modify the plan.

2.2.4 Types/ Kinds of Planning

We can classify planning on the basis of the following dimensions.

i. Organizational Level -Corporate, divisional and sectional planning.

ii. Focus -Strategic, operational and tactical planning.

iii. Time Period -Long-range, medium-range and short-range planning.

iv. Based on Approach -Proactive and reactive Planning.



2.2.5 Organizational Level

a) Corporate Planning (Top Level):

It lays down the basic objectives, policies and strategies for the organization as a whole. It usually covers a long period of five years or even more.

b) Divisional Planning (Middle Level)

It relates to a particular division/ department. The divisional head and middle level managers are responsible for divisional plan. Ex: Financial Planning is the responsibility of financial manager.

c) Sectional Planning (Lower Level)

Its focus is to lay down detailed plans for a particular unit for the day-to-day guidance of personnel working there. The first line managers are responsible for developing plans for their units in the light of the divisional plans.

2.2.6 Focus of Planning

a) **Strategic Planning:** It is the process of deciding the objectives of the organization and determining the manner in which the resources of the enterprise are to be deployed to realize the objectives in the uncertain environment.

b) **Operational Planning:** It is concerned with the efficient use of the resources already allocated and with the development of a control mechanism to ensure efficient operation, so that organization objectives are achieved.

c) **Tactical Planning:** It is made for short periods. They are required to meet the challenges of sudden changes due to environmental forces for e.g., it may be made to handle a sudden fall in the demand of firm's products or unexpected move by a competitor.

d) **Contingency Planning:** It is a forward planning process in a state of uncertainty, in which scenarios and objectives are agreed, managerial and technical actions defined, and

potential response systems put in place, in order to prevent or better respond to an emergency.

2.2.7 Time Span of Planning

- a) Long-range planning** - It generally covers a period ranging from five years to 20 years.
- b) Medium range planning** - They may relate to development of new products and markets, product publicity and markets etc. It covers a period ranging from one year to five years.
- c) Short-range Planning** - It relates to a period of up to one year. It is generally action-oriented and is the responsibility of lower level managers.

2.2.8 Based on Approach

This type of classification will be based on the organization response to the different environmental factors.

- a) Proactive Planning** - Planning the actions in anticipation of likely changes in the environment
- b) Reactive planning** -This type of planning is done based on the changes taken place in the environment.

2.2.9 Limitations of Planning

Planning is an important function in any organization but there are many barriers and limitations in planning. Some of the limitations of planning are listed below:

- i. Planning is a time consuming and costly process.
- ii. Management at different levels in the organization need to properly contribute to plan activities.
- iii. Poor information and inadequate inputs may form the basis for planning.
- iv. Management is not always willing to cancel or modify poor plans.
- v. Resistance to change by organizational members.
- vi. Lack of contingency plans.



2.10 Decision Making

Decision making is the process of making choices by identifying a decision, gathering information, and assessing alternative resolutions. Using a step-by-step decision-making process can help you make more deliberate, thoughtful decisions by organizing relevant information and designing alternatives. This approach increases the chances to choose the most satisfying alternative possible.

2.2.10.1 Seven Steps to Effective Decision Making

1. Identify the decision: You realize that you need to make a decision. Try to clearly define the nature of the decision you must make. This first step is very important.

2. Gather relevant information: Collect some pertinent information before you make your decision: what information is needed, the best sources of information, and how to get it. This step involves both internal and external “work.” Some information is internal: you’ll seek it through a process of self-assessment. Other information is external: you’ll find it online, in books, from other people, and from other sources.

3. Identify the alternatives: As you collect information, you will probably identify several possible paths of action, or alternatives. You can also use your imagination and additional information to construct new alternatives. In this step, list all possible and desirable alternatives.

4. Weigh the evidence: Draw on your information and emotions to imagine what it would be like if you carried out each of the alternatives to the end. Evaluate whether the need identified in Step 1 would be met or resolved through the use of each alternative. As you go through this difficult internal process, you’ll begin to favor certain alternatives: those that seem to have a higher potential for reaching your goal. Finally, place the alternatives in a priority order, based upon your own value system.

5. Choose among alternatives: Once you have weighed all the evidence, you are ready to select the alternative that seems to be the best one for you. You may even choose a

combination of alternatives. Your choice in Step 5 may very likely be the same or similar to the alternative you placed at the top of your list at the end of Step 4.

6. Take action: You're now ready to take some positive action by beginning to implement the alternative you chose in Step 5.

7. Review your decision & its consequences: In this final step, consider the results of your decision and evaluate whether or not it has resolved the need you identified in Step 1. If the decision has not met the identified need, you may want to repeat certain steps of the process to make a new decision. For example, you might want to gather more detailed or somewhat different information or explore additional alternatives.

Detailed information is available in this booklet at Unit 8 - Decision making and Communication Process

2.3 ORGANIZING

Organization is the process of establishing relationships among the members of the enterprise. The relationships are created in terms of authority and responsibility. Each member in the organization is assigned a specific responsibility or duty to perform and is granted the corresponding authority to perform his duty. Organizing involves the determination of activities performed, grouping and assigning them to various individuals and creating a structure of authority and responsibility among the individuals to achieve organizational goals.

2.3.1 Meaning and Definition of Organization

Once the plans have been laid down and objectives specified therein, the next step is to organize resources in a manner which leads to the accomplishment of objectives. A critical issue in accomplishing the goals specified in the planning process is structuring the work of an organization to adapt to the dynamic business environment. The activities of an enterprise must be organized in such a manner that plans can be successfully implemented.

The organizing function leads to the creation of an organizational structure which includes the designing of roles to be filled by suitably skilled people and defining the inter relationship between these roles so that ambiguity in performance of duties can be eliminated. Not only is this important for productive cooperation between the personnel but also for clarification of extent of authority, as well as responsibility for results and logical grouping of activities.

Organizing can be defined as a process that initiates implementation of plans by clarifying jobs and working relationships and effectively deploying resources for attainment of identified and desired results (goals). Organizing is the process of identifying and grouping the work to be performed, defining and delegating responsibility and authority, and establishing relationships for the purpose of enabling people to work most effectively together in accomplishing objectives. (Louis Allen).

2.3.2 Steps in the Process of Organizing

Organizing involves a series of steps that need to be taken in order to achieve the desired goal.

1. **Identification and division of work:** The first step in the process of organizing involves identifying and dividing the work that has to be done in accordance with previously determined plans. The work is divided into manageable activities so that duplication can be avoided and the burden of work can be shared among the employees.
2. **Departmentalization:** Once work has been divided into small and manageable activities then those activities which are similar in nature are grouped together. Such sets facilitate specialization. This grouping process is called departmentalization. Departments can be created using several criteria as a basis. Examples of some of the most popularly used basis are territory (north, south, west etc.) and products (Fertilizers, seeds, plant protection, Extension, etc.).

3. **Assignment of duties:** It is necessary to define the work of different job positions and accordingly allocate work to various employees. Once departments have been formed, each of them is placed under the charge of an individual. Jobs are then allocated to the members of each department in accordance to their skills and competencies. It is essential for effective performance that a proper match is made between the nature of a job and the ability of an individual. The work must be assigned to those who are best fitted to perform it well.
4. **Establishing reporting relationships:** Merely allocating work is not enough. Each individual should also know who he has to take orders from and to whom he is accountable. The establishment of such clear relationships helps to create a hierarchal structure and helps in coordination amongst various departments.

2.3.3 Organization Structure

Organization structure is the outcome of the organizing process. An effective structure will result in increased profitability of the enterprise. The need for an adequate organization structure is felt by an enterprise whenever it grows in size or complexity. It is only those enterprises which do not focus on growth that can maintain a particular structure for a long period of time. However, it is important to understand that such stagnancy may prove to be detrimental to an enterprise as those companies which do not change at all may close down or cease to grow.

2.3.4 Types of Organization Structures

The type of structure adopted by an organization varies with the nature and types of activities performed by an organization. The organizational structure can be classified under two categories which are as follows:

- (i) **Functional structure:** Grouping of jobs of similar nature under functional and organizing these major functions as separate departments creates a functional structure.

(ii) **Divisional structure:** Many large organizations with diversified activities have reorganized themselves away from the simpler and basic functional structure towards a divisional structure which is more suited to their activities. This is particularly true of those enterprises which have more than one category of products to offer. This is because although every organization performs a set of homogenous functions, as it diversifies into varied product categories, the need for a more evolved structural design is felt to cope with the emerging complexity.

2.3.5 Formal and Informal Organization:

In every entity, both formal and informal organizations exist.

Table 2.2 Difference between formal and informal organisations

Basis	Formal organization	Informal organization
Meaning	Structure of authority relationships created by the management	Network of social relationships arising out of interaction among employees
Origin	Arises as a result of company rules and policies	Arises as a result of social interaction
Authority	Arises by virtue of position in management	Arises out of personal qualities
Behavior	It is directed by rules	There is no set behavior pattern
Flow of Communication	Communication takes place through the scalar chain	Flow of communication is not through a planned route. It can take place in any direction
Nature	Rigid	Flexible
Leadership	Managers are leaders.	Leaders may or may not be managers. They are chosen by the group.

2.3.6 Delegation:

Delegation of authority merely means the granting of authority to subordinates to operate within prescribed limits. (Theo Haimman).

Delegation is the process a manager follows in dividing the work assigned to him so that he performs that part which only he because of his unique organizational placement, can perform effectively and so that he can get others to help with what remains. (Louis Allen)

Delegation refers to the downward transfer of authority from a superior to a subordinate. It is a prerequisite to the efficient functioning of an organization because it enables a manager to use his time on high priority activities. It also satisfies the subordinate's need for recognition and provides them with opportunities to develop and exercise initiative.

2.3.7 Delegation of Authority

Authority refers to the right of an individual to command his subordinates and to take action within the scope of his position. The concept of authority arises from the established scalar chain which links the various job positions and levels of an organization. Authority also refers to the right to take decisions inherent in a managerial position to tell people what to do and expect them to do it.

In the formal organization, authority originates by virtue of an individual's position and the extent of authority is highest at the top management levels and reduces successively as we go down the corporate ladder. Thus, authority flows from top to bottom, i.e., the superior has authority over the subordinate. Authority relationships help to maintain order in the organization by giving the managers the right to exact obedience and give directions to the workforce under them. Authority determines the superior subordinate relationship wherein the superior communicates his decision to the subordinate, expecting compliance from him and the subordinate executes the decision as

per the guidelines of the superior. The extent to which a superior can exact compliance also depends on the personality of the superior. It must be noted that authority is restricted by laws and the rules and regulation of the organization which limit its scope. However, as we go higher up in the management hierarchy, the scope of authority increases.

Table 2.3 Differences between Delegation and Decentralization

Basis	Delegation	Decentralization
Nature	Delegation is a compulsory act because no individual can perform all tasks on his own.	Decentralization is an optional policy decision. It is done at the discretion of the top management.
Freedom of action	More control by superiors hence less freedom to take own decisions.	Less control over executive's hence greater freedom of action.
Status	It is a process followed to share tasks.	It is the result of the policy decision of the top management.
Scope	It has narrow scope as it is limited to superior and his immediate subordinate.	It has wide scope as it implies extension of delegation to the lowest level of management.
Purpose	To lessen the burden of the manager.	To increase the role of the subordinates in the organization by giving them more autonomy

2.3.8 Some terms used in Organization:

- **Organisation structure** is influenced by the objectives of the enterprises hence, it should be clear.
- **Span of control:** It refers to the number of subordinates a supervisor has. As there is a limit to the number of persons that can be supervised effectively by one boss, the span of control should be as far as possible, the minimum.

- **Specialization:** The activities of the enterprise should be divided according to functions and assigned to persons according to their specialization
- **Exception:** As the executives at the higher levels have limited time, only exceptionally complex problems should be referred to them and routine matters should be dealt with by the subordinates at lower levels.
- **Scalar Principle:** This principle is sometimes known as the 'chain of command'.
- **Unity of Command:** Each subordinate should have only one supervisor whose command he has to obey.
- **Delegation:** Proper authority should be delegated at the lower levels of organisation also.
- **Responsibility:** The superior should be held responsible for the acts of his subordinates.
- **Authority:** The authority is the tool by which manager is able to accomplish the desired objective.
- **Efficiency:** The organisation structure should enable the enterprise to function efficiently and accomplish its objectives with the lowest possible cost.
- **Simplicity:** The organisation structure should be as simple as possible and the organisation levels should, as far as possible, be minimum.
- **Flexibility:** The organisation structure should be flexible, should be adaptable to changing circumstances and permit expansion and replacement without dislocation and disruption of the basic design.
- **Balance:** There should be a reasonable balance in the size of various departments.
- **Unity of direction:** There should be one objective and one plan for a group of activities having the same objective.
- **Personal Ability:** As people constitute an organisation, there is need for proper selection, placement and training of staff.



2.4 STAFFING

- According to Koontz and O'Donnell, "The managerial function of staffing involves managing the organisation structure through proper and effective selection, appraisal and development of personnel to fill the roles designed into the structure".
- S.Benjamin has defined staffing as, "The process involved in identifying, assessing, placing, evaluating and directing individuals on work".
- Staffing is defined as filling, and keeping filled positions in the organisation structure.

2.4.1 Human Resource Planning

Human Resources management has an important role to play in equipping organizations to meet the challenges of an expanding and increasingly competitive sector. Increase in staff numbers, contractual diversification and changes in demographic profile which compel the HR managers to reconfigure the role and significance of human resources management.

Meaning:

- HRP is the process of forecasting an organization's future demand for, and supply of the right type of people in the right number.
- It involves analyzing and identifying the need for and availability of human resources so that the organization can meet its objectives.

2.4.2 Human Resource Planning - The planning process:

HRP essentially involves forecasting personnel needs, assessing personnel supply and matching demand - supply factors through personnel-related programs. The planning process is influenced by overall organizational objectives and the environment of business.

2.4.3 HR Demand forecast

- Demand forecasting is the process of estimating the future quantity and quality of people required.

- The basis of the forecast must be annual budget and long-term corporate plan, translated into activity levels for each function and department.
- Demand forecasting should consider both internal and external factors.
- External factors are competition, economic climate, laws and regulatory bodies, change in technology, and social factors.
- Internal factors include budget constraints, production levels, new products and services, organizational structures and employee separations.

2.4.4 HR Supply forecast

It measures the number of people likely to be available from within and outside an organization, after making allowance for absenteeism, internal movement and promotions, wastage and changes in hours and conditions of work.

Supply analysis covers:

- Existing human resources
- Internal sources of supply
- External sources of supply

2.4.5 HR programming

Supply forecast and demand forecast must be reconciled or balanced in order that the right employees can fill vacancies at the right time.

2.4.6 HR Plan implementation

Implementation requires converting HR plan into action. A series of action programs are initiated as a part of HR plan implementation namely, recruitment, selection and placement, training and development, retention plan, succession planning etc.

2.4.7 Control and Evaluation

HR plan includes budgets, targets and standards. It should also clarify responsibilities for implementation and control, and establish reporting procedures which will enable achievements to be monitored against the plan.



2.4.8 Role of HR manager in organization

Human Resources Manager plays a vital role in the modern organization. He plays various strategic roles at different levels in the organization. The roles of the HR Manager include roles of conscience, of a counselor, a mediator, a company spokesman, a problem solver and a change agent.

The Conscience Role: The conscience role is that of a humanitarian who reminds the management of its morals and obligations to its employees.

Counselor: Employees who are dissatisfied with the present job approach the HR manager for counseling. In addition, employees facing various problems like marital, health, children education/marriage, mental, physical and career also approach the HR managers. The HR Manager counsels and consults the employees and offers suggestions to solve/overcome the problems.

Mediator: As a mediator, the HR manager plays the role of a peace-maker. He settles the disputes between employees and the management. He acts as a liaison and communication link between both of them.

Spokesman: He is a frequent spokesman for or representative of the company.

Problem-solver: He acts as a problem solver with respect to the issues that involve human resources management and overall long range organizational planning.

Change Agent: He acts as a change agent and introduces changes in various existing programs.

2.5 DIRECTING

- “Directing is the inter-personal aspect of managing by which subordinates are led to understand and contribute effectively and efficiently to the attainment of enterprise objectives”.
- “Directing is the guidance, the inspiration, the leadership of those men and women that constitute the real core of the responsibilities of management’.

- It includes assigning tasks and duties, explaining procedures, issuing orders, providing on-the-job instructions, monitoring performance, and correcting deviations.
- Directing must have two dimensions, namely a) magnitude and b) aim or direction.

2.5.1 Nature of Directing

- i. Directing is the **inter-personal aspect of managing**; i.e human beings dealing with human beings. Accordingly, directing is a complex aspect of managing.
- ii. It is the **actual management performance function**. It is concerned with activating subordinates and moving them into action. **Hence, directing is often called - management in - action.**

2.5.2 Elements of Directing

Directing - a comprehensive managerial function - could be best understood, with reference to the following aspects; which form sub-components of this function:-

- (i) Leadership
- (ii) Motivation
- (iii) Communication

2.5.3 Communication Process and the Key Elements:

Communication is the process of sharing our ideas, thoughts, and feelings with other people and having those ideas, thoughts, and feelings understood by the people we are talking with. When we communicate we speak, listen, and observe. The communication process is a simple model that demonstrates all the factors that can affect communication. Communication is effective if the message that is received is the same one that is sent. Communication is a two-way process. The information goes out to a person on the other end. There is a sender and a receiver. Simply put, effective communication is getting your message across to the receiver. It is the sender's responsibility to make sure that the receiver gets the message and that the message received is the one sent.



Detailed information on Communications is available in this booklet at Unit 8 - Decision Making and Communication Process

2.5.4 Motivation:

Motivation is the strength of the drive towards an action. It takes place within a culture, reflects on organizational behavior model and requires communication skills. It also requires discovering and understanding the employee's drives and needs, since it originates within an individual and employees will be more motivated when they have clear goals to achieve (Lewis, 1998).

Finding the motivation techniques to put meaning and purpose in our life, developing a vision and becoming highly motivated can lead us towards a successful and exciting life. There are general techniques of motivation, each with one main goal: to make the day-to-day jobs more purposeful and interesting to employees.

Motivation is "an internal force which arouses regulates and sustains a person's more important actions. Its existence and nature is inferred from observation and experience of behaviour." Motivational methods help in raising the level of personal motivation so that each person uses more of their capabilities. Techniques for motivation can either be intrinsic (related to job content) or extrinsic (related to job context).

A motivated work effort increases the person's drive to perform better, which results in improved performance, higher quality of work and increased satisfaction. Quality of work life is quite important in improving productivity and achieving integration. Some of the important methods for improving performance through increased motivation are described below

- Job enrichment
- Management by objectives
- Achievement-cum-power training and
- Positive reinforcement programmes.



2.5.4.1 Effective Motivation Techniques:

1. Recognize the Importance of Player Motivation
2. Do NOT Run at the End of Practice
3. Be a Teacher
4. Explain the Reason Why
5. Show Improvement and Growth the Entire Season
6. Celebrate Small Successes Both Team and Individual
7. Reward Hard Work and Offer Positive Reinforcement
8. Set Tangible Goals
9. Measure Performance
10. Conduct Occasional Tests
11. Show You Care and Improve Relationships
12. Inspire Players
13. Find Out What Makes Each Player Tick
14. Make Practice and Drills Fun & Competitive
15. Establish Habits
16. Competition
17. Create Unparalleled Drive by Promoting Teamwork
18. Keep Practice Fresh, Fast-Paced, and Moving
19. Implement a Reward System
20. Take a Break

2.5.5 Meaning and Importance of Leadership:

To be a leader, one has to make a difference and facilitate positive changes. Leaders inspire and stimulate others to achieve worthwhile goals. A useful definition of leadership is the ability to inspire confidence and support among the people who are needed to achieve organizational goals. Understanding leadership roles helps explain leadership. A role is an expected set of activities or behaviors stemming from the job.



The nine leadership roles covered here are:

- Figurehead (ceremonial activities)
- Spokesperson (keeping key groups informed about the activities of the organization or organizational unit)
- Negotiator (making deals with others for needed resources)
- Coach and motivator (recognizing achievement, giving feedback, and giving suggestions for performance improvement)
- Team builder (building an effective team)
- Team player (being a good team member oneself)
- Technical problem solver (advising others on solving problems and being an individual contributor)
- Entrepreneur (suggesting innovative ideas and furthering the business)
- Strategic planner (setting a direction for the organization, helping the firm deal with the external environment, and policy setting)

2.5.5.1 Improve the Quality of Leadership in an Organization

Seven steps to be followed to improve the quality of leadership in an organization,

1. Determine the Best Leadership Style for Your Organization.
2. Identify Current and Potential Leaders within the Company.
3. Identify Leadership Gaps.
4. Develop Succession Plans for Critical Roles.
5. Develop Career Planning Goals for Potential Leaders.
6. Develop a Skills Roadmap for Future Leaders.
7. Develop Retention Programs for Current and Future Leaders.

Detailed information on Leadership is available in this booklet at Unit 1 - Leadership Development

2.6 TYPES OF CONTROL

Control may be of different types and these can be classified on the basis of elements to be controlled and stage at which control can be exercised in controlling the work outcome.

Based on elements to be controlled, control can be divided into two forms:

- Strategic and
- Operational control

2.6.1 Strategic and Operational Control

Table 2.3 Strategic and operational control

Factors	Strategic Control	Operational Control
Aim	Proactive, continuous questioning of the basic direction of the strategy	Allocation and use of organizational resources
Main Concern	Steering the future direction of the organization	Action Control
Focus	External Environment	Internal Environment
Time horizon	Long term	Short term
Exercise of control	Exclusively by top management, may be through lower-level support	Mainly by executive or middle management on the direction of top management
Main Techniques	Environmental Scanning, Information gathering, questioning and review	Budgets, Schedules and MBO

2.6.2 Forms of control

Based on the stages, control can be in three forms:

Feed forward Control: Feed forward control involves evaluation of inputs taking corrective action before a particular sequence of operation is completed. Feed forward control monitors inputs into a process to determine whether the inputs are as planned.

Concurrent Control: Concurrent control is exercised during the operation of a programme. It provides measures for taking corrective action or making adjustments while the programme is still in operation and before any major damage is done

Feedback Control: Feedback control is based on the measurement of the results of an action.



Based on this measurement, if any deviation is found between performance standards and actual performance, the corrective action is undertaken.

2.7 REPORTING

Reporting refers to keeping the channels of communication open both the ways throughout the organization. This helps in reporting the progress of the work to the superior authorities and lets them make modifications to the plan if required. Similarly, all the essential exchange of information such as problems of employees, new regulations, appreciation etc. can be easily shared with the concerned parties in very less time and minimal distortions. E.g. there will be weekly or bi-weekly meetings held in each of the departments where the progress of the period will be reported to and discussed with the departmental head.

2.8 BUDGETING

- A budget is both- a method of planning and an instrument (or device) for controlling.
- It is a plan so far as the numerical expression of the standards of performance (i.e. anticipated results) is concerned.
- However, when the actual operational performance is judged against these standards the budget assumes the role of a control technique. As such, a budget is properly called a budgetary control, the suffix “control” usually being omitted.
- A budget might be defined as the expression of a management plan in numerical terms (financial, quantitative or time); being a statement of anticipated results expected of the working of a particular aspect of organizational operational life, for a specific future period of time, say a month, a quarter, a half year, a year or so.

2.8.1 Types of business budgets

Some important types of business budgets are described below:

(a) Sales budget - A sales budget is a statement of expected volume of sales, flowing in to a business enterprise over a specific future period of time.

(b) Production budget - A production budget is a statement of anticipated production to be done by an industrial enterprise during a specific future period of time; Production budget might be expressed in terms of **Man-hours**; where most of production work is done by manual labor or **Machine-hours** where production activities are mechanized.

(c) Production-facilities budgets - Based on the need and requirements of the overall production budget; budgets for various productions facilities are prepared- as branches of the production budget. Some of such ancillary budgets are as follows:

- Materials budget
- Labour budget
- Factory overheads budget
- Administrative (or office) overheads budget
- Selling and distribution overheads budget

(d) Cash budget - A cash budget is a statement of anticipated cash receipts and cash disbursements, occurring during a specific future period of time to find out the likely surplus or shortage of cash during that period.

(e) Capital expenditure budgets - A major aspect of financial budgeting concerns with designing capital expenditure budgets, for items like plants, machines, equipment, furniture, etc.

(f) Balance sheet budgets - Balance-sheet budgets are statements of forecast of capital account, liabilities and assets. In fact, sources of changes in balance sheet items are the



outcome of the functioning of budgetary control system, as a whole. Hence, balance sheet, budgets, proves the accuracy of all other budgets.

2.9 LET'S SUM UP

Luther Gulick coined the word 'POSDCORB' and described the functions of management. First and important function of management is planning. Planning is the determination of a course of action to achieve the desired result. Organization is the process of establishing relationships among the members of the enterprise. For effective function of management, objectives of organization must be followed. Staffing involves identifying, assessing, placing, evaluating and directing individuals on work. Human Resource Demand forecasting is the process of estimating the future quantity and quality of people required. Directing includes assigning tasks and duties, explaining procedures, issuing orders, providing on-the-job instructions, monitoring performance, and correcting deviations. Controlling is the continuous process of checking actual performance against the agreed standards with a view to ensure satisfactory results. Reporting deals with exchange of information from superiors to subordinates and vice-versa. Last function of management is budgeting; it is a plan so far as the numerical expression of the standards of performance is concerned.

2.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Enumerate the steps in planning
2. What are the objectives of organization?
3. How the demand for HR will be forecasted?
4. What are the elements of directing?
5. What are the types of budgeting?

2.11 FURTHER SUGGESTED READING/REFERENCES

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UNIT-3

MBO AND STRATEGIC PLANNING

Highlights of the Unit

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Meaning and principles of management by objectives
- Steps in MBO process (Maheshwari, 1980)
- Strategic planning
- Historical analysis
- Stakeholder analysis, stakeholder analysis
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Readings

3.0 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to understand:

- The meaning and principles of Management by Objectives (MBO)
- Different steps in MBO and its advantages and disadvantages.
- The importance and scope of strategic planning
- Steps in strategic planning

3.1 MEANING OF MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

Management by objectives (MBO) is a management approach which focuses on key objectives of an organization. It was popularized by Peter Drucker during mid-1950s, through his writings. It became very popular during 1960s and 1970s and adopted by various companies. Though MBO is about 70 years old, yet it is not obsolete. Unlike several management fads, MBO still remains as one of the effective planning and control

mechanisms. Even today, MBO is practiced by several Government and Non-Government organizations.

Having mere objectives and fixing targets for different departments do not qualify for MBO, for MBO goes much beyond setting objectives. 'Even though objectives become a focal point of MBO, the major thrust of MBO is on management' (Maheshwari, 1980). For example, an organisation can have objectives and target at various levels. But it may follow the style of Management by Command, where very little support, motivation, feedback are provided to the employees. The managers who practice MBO lay emphasis not only on participation of employees in goal setting but also in provision of all facilities, support and feedback to achieve the objectives. The success of MBO depends not only on fixing objectives, but also on implementation of a course of actions to achieve each objective with a participatory and supportive style of management and leadership.

The definitions and practices of MBO widely differ. According to some definitions, MBO is nothing but a tool for performance appraisal and motivation. According to Wehrich and Koonz (1994) "Management by objectives is a comprehensive managerial system that integrates many key managerial activities in a systematic manner and that is consciously directed towards the effective and efficient achievement of organisational and individual objectives".

According to Odiorne (1965), MBO is "a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organisation jointly define its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the result expected of him and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution for each of its members".

3.1.2 PRINCIPLES OF MBO

The principles behind MBO can be stated as follows:

- i). Improvement in productivity and effectiveness through identification of right objectives to be achieved.



- ii). Improvement in employees' motivation and morale through awareness of goals to be achieved and roles to be performed.
- iii). Periodic review and feedback helps in effective implementation.
- iv). Empowerment of employees through giving freedom to challenge the existing practices, training and involvement in decision making which helps in improved performance.

3.1.3 FROM ACTIVITY BASED MANAGEMENT TO RESULTS BASED MANAGEMENT

Most of the organisations practice activity based management, where the employees remain very busy with different activities, yet the final outputs are very less. Even though the activities the employees performing may be necessary, yet these activities have very little connection with the results. The MBO emphasizes results-based management. The shift of emphasis from activities to results implies the following according to Maheshwari (1980):

An emphasis on effectiveness rather than efficiency:

In order to achieve the goal, the manager has to be effective, i.e. he has to 'do right things' rather than 'do things right'. 'Doing right things' rather than 'doing things right' will contribute more towards goal achievement. 'Doing right things' is related to effectiveness while 'doing things right' deals with efficiency. "Efficiency deals with the ratio of inputs to outputs. Therefore, even if both the inputs and outputs are low, efficiency could be 100 percent. Effectiveness, on the other hand, focuses on the contribution to the higher level objectives" (ibid). The differences between efficiency and effectiveness can be seen from Table 1.

Table 3.1 Efficiency and Effectiveness

Efficiency	Effectiveness
Do things right	Do right things
Solve problems	Produce creative alternatives
Safeguard resources	Optimize resource utilization
Discharge duties	Obtain results

Source: Reddin (1971) as quoted by Maheshwari (1980)

3.1.4 CONCENTRATION ON KEY PERFORMANCE OR RESULTS AREAS OR FOLLOWING 80/20 PRINCIPLE

“The 80/20 principle asserts that there is an in-built imbalance between inputs and outputs, causes and consequences, and efforts and results. It states that a minority of causes, inputs or efforts usually lead to a majority of the result, outputs or rewards. A few things are important; most are not” (Kotelnikov, 2002). The 80/20 principles is also known as Pareto principle, named after an Italian economist namely Vilfredo Pareto. He discovered a startling fact that 20 percent of Italian people owned 80 per cent wealth of the country. One can observe the operation of the above principle in many areas. For example, twenty per cent of the employees will account for 80 per cent of the productivity. Or twenty per cent clients will be responsible for eighty per cent of purchase. Similarly, 20 per cent of activities of an employee will be responsible for 80 percent of productivity or results. Employees including managers tend to spend a large percentage of their time on unimportant activities which do not contribute much to their results. Then, what is the secret of achieving more results? Identify and concentrate on those 20 per cent activities or tasks which contribute towards results. In other words, the managers should not waste their time on unimportant activities but pay their attention to priority areas or activities which are likely to result in higher productivity and profit.

3.2. STEPS IN MBO PROCESS (MAHESHWARI 1980)

Though different authors have given different steps in MBO process, the basic steps of MBO can be stated as follows:

- A. Setting objectives
- B. Working towards the objectives
- C. Reviewing the performance

A. Setting Objectives

The process of objective setting consists of the following steps:

- i. Formulating organisational or corporate objectives
- ii. Formulating departmental, unit or individual objectives

3.2.1 Formulating organisational or corporate objectives

Development of organisational or corporate objectives will involve the following components:

- i. Defining mission or purpose of organisation
- ii. Development of key results or performance areas
- iii. Formulation of objectives

(i) Defining mission or purpose of organization

The first step towards setting objectives of an organisation is to define its purpose or mission. The purpose of any organisation can be defined by answering the question, “Why do we exist?” Since we live in an environment which is changing very fast and dynamic, the purpose or mission of any organisation has to be redefined in the context of changing environment. ‘Strategic planning exercise is an effective tool to define the mission or purpose of an organization.

(ii) Development of Key Results or Performance Areas (KPA's)

Identification of KPA's are more important than formulation of objectives, as KPA's hold the key to achievements of an organisation. They indicate the priority areas which are essential to achieve the profitability or productivity within limited resources available to an organisation. You may recall the 80/20 principle. In any organisation, 20 percent of the activities contribute to 80 percent of the productivity. Some of the points in identification of KPA's are as follows (Kotelnikov, 2002):

- a). "Concentrate on the small parts of the system that can exert influence on productivity and production or generation of wealth.
- b). Learn to be selective instead of exhaustive. Find out where 20 percent efforts can lead to 80 per cent results. This will help you to strive for excellence in selected few key areas, rather than average performance in many areas.
- c). Have a limited number of important goals, rather than several ordinary goals.
- d). Concentrate on doing things on which you are best at doing. Delegate the rest of the things".

3.2.2 SWOT Analysis

In order to arrive at the corporate KPA's for the entire organisation, an analysis of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats is essential. The corporate KPA's are likely to change due to changes in internal and external environments of the organisation. Identification of KPA's needs thinking and technique like brain storming can help in this process. Peter Drucker (1964) has identified the eight KPA's for business type organisations such as Market share, Profitability, productivity, Physical and financial resources, Manager Performance and development, Employee performance and attitude and Social responsibility.

In case of organisations dealing with agricultural extension, the KPA's can be identified as follows: Diffusion and adoption of farm technology, productivity of farm, profitability of farm, innovation, farmers' capacity building, and mobilization of farmers,



extension personnel performance and development. An example of KPA of Agricultural Extension Officer is given below:

Example: KPAs and objectives to be achieved by Sh. Kesavan, Agricultural Extension Officer

1. Name : Sh. Kesavan
2. Designation : Assistant Extension Officer
3. Key Result Areas:
 - a. Capacity building of farm women
 - b. Mobilisation of small farmers
 - c. Diffusion of farm technology
4. Objectives under each KPA
 - a. Farmers' capacity building
 - i) To conduct five training programs (each program consisting of 20 farm women) in ten villages within 12 months.
 - b. Mobilization of farmwomen
 - i) To organize seven self-help groups among farm women to help them to start agro-based enterprise within 12 months.
 - c. Diffusion of farm technology
 - i). To conduct six village campaigns to popularize improved vegetable cultivation practices during the next 12 months and
 - ii). To print and distribute 20,000 pamphlets on improved cultivation practices of rice, sorghum and pulses among 10 villages within the next 12 months

(iii) Formulation of objectives

Development of corporate objectives consists of identification of strategic objectives, long-term objectives and short-term objectives. It should be mentioned here that objectives have to be developed for each corporate key result area. A question may arise here. Do

KRAs precede objectives or objectives precedes KPAs? As far as corporate KPAs are concerned, KPAs precede objectives. As pointed out earlier, the organisational KPAs have to be derived out of its mission or purpose. However the KPAs of department, units or employees have to be worked out based upon the respective objectives of departments, units, etc.

B. Working toward objectives

Working toward the objectives consists of the following steps:

- i). Formulate plan of action including time schedule
- ii). Assignment of tasks and responsibilities to the employees
- iii). Allocation of resources
- iv). Implementation of plan of action

C. Reviewing of Performance

Performance review is one of the important components of MBO. As pointed out earlier, a lot of organisations use MBO as a performance appraisal technique. However, it should be remembered that “appraisal by objectives’ is not management by objectives”. In fact, appraisal by objectives can be practiced without adopting the philosophy and process of MBO. MBO is a comprehensive approach to management. It focuses on organisational development and not appraisal. MBO, therefore, should not be adopted merely for the purpose of improving the appraisal system”. (Maheshwari, 1980)

The steps in performance review under MBO can be outlined as follows:

- i). Formulate objectives
- ii). Develop performance standards
- iii). Compare actual performance with performance standards
- iv). Analyze the reasons for gap in performance
- v). Take corrective measures

It should be noted that performance review under MBO has to be done periodically, either monthly, quarterly or six monthly. The focus of review is not to find faults but to promote performance through providing positive feedback as well as taking steps to solve problems related to performance.

3.2.3 ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF MBO

The advantages of MBO can be stated as follows: Result oriented planning. Level of performance at various levels helps to focus on priority areas, higher level of clarity of organisational and individual goals, secures personal commitment to achieve goals, and helps in effective performance appraisal.

The major problem or limitation of MBO are as follows: Failure in understanding the philosophy of MBO, Difficulties in providing guidelines and training to sub-ordinates, Time and cost involved in MBO process, Problems related to identification of KPAs and objectives, Problems of inflexibility, Poor acceptance by the employees, Over emphasis on achievement of short-term goals.

3.3 STRATEGIC PLANNING

Strategic planning has been defined in a wide variety of ways. An analysis of various definitions will reveal that:

- i. It is a management tool.
- ii. It is constantly asking the questions “Are we doing ‘the right thing’ under present circumstances”?
- iii. It deals with making fundamental decisions such as organisational vision, mission, goals and policies under changing internal and external environments such as economy, technology, clients, resources etc.
- iv. It involves assumptions about future to make the present decisions or directions.
- v. It deals not only with deciding the ends (mission and goals) but also means (effective approach) to achieve the ends.

According to Bryson as quoted by Gregersen *etc. al.*, strategic planning is “a disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions that shape and guide what an organization . . . is, what it does, and why it does”.

Strategic planning attempts to answer the following questions: Are we doing the right things under present circumstances? What are our present roles and what are new roles due to changes in the changing circumstances? Where do we want to go? How can we reach our goals?

3.3.1 Concept of strategy

What is the meaning of the word ‘strategy’? According to Miller and Dess (1996), strategy in its simplest form refers to “either the plan made or the actions taken, in an effort to help an organization fulfill its intended purposes. When we speak of strategy as plans for future, we are referring to what is called an intended strategy, and when we speak of strategy as action taken, we are referring to a realized strategy. In either case, we are considering the efforts directed toward fulfilling the organizational purpose . . . strategy comprises the most fundamental ends and means of an organization”.

It has been reported that the word strategy has been derived from Greek word *strategia*, “which means the art or science of being a general”. In fighting against enemy, strategy means actual actions taken to defeat the enemy. Successful strategy in war calls for more than fighting with enemies. It involves decisions about when to fight, securing help from other nations etc. Thus, a strategy involves a planning as well as action components (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 1999).

3.3.2 Strategic Versus Long Term Planning

Even though strategic planning may have long-term scope, it differs from long-term plan in the following ways:

1. Strategic planning is done under changing environmental circumstances and the focus is on fundamental decisions concerning vision, mission and goal.



2. The long-term plan deals with achievement of goals set for a long period under stable conditions.

For example, the changing technological and economic scenario calls for strategic planning to redefine the roles of agricultural extension at various levels. One of the new roles identified through strategic planning may be to help farmers to get organized into groups.

3.3.3 Strategic Plan versus Operational Plan

While a strategic plan deals with redefining the mission and goals of an organization in the context of changing environment, operational or program plan is done to implement the strategic plans. Thus, program or operational plans are outcomes of strategic plans. The operational plans are generally done annually.

3.3.4 Why strategic planning?

The single most important reason for strategic planning is the need for responding to changing environments. Thus, the need for strategic planning can be stated as follows:

- i). To respond effectively to changing environments.
- ii). To develop a vision and create successful future
- iii). To provide directions for organisational efforts and to make effective decisions and resource allocations
- iv). To help in identification of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats
- v). To help in achieving effectiveness and efficiency by the organizations
- vi). To promote strategic thinking and action

3.3.5 Steps in strategic planning

The steps in strategic planning consists of the following:

- Step 1 Historical analysis.
- Step 2 Stakeholder analysis
- Step 3 Development of vision, mission and objective statements
- Step 4 Strategic analysis of organizations

- Step 5 Identification of strategic issues
- Step 6 Identification of critical issues
- Step 7 Development of strategies to tackle strategic issues
- Step 8 Implementation of strategies

3.4. HISTORICAL ANALYSIS:

The first step towards strategic planning is to analyze the organization in terms of its history and growth. This will give information about the following: when the organisation was established; how it was established; growth and changes over the years; organisational structure; functioning; staff pattern; budget; achievements and problems faced over the years.

3.4.1 Stakeholder analysis

Stakeholders are those who have a stake or claim or interest in the organisational performance. For business organisations, the stakeholders are shareholders, clients, managers and employees. In case of agricultural extension organizations, the stakeholders are farmers and farm women, Governing Body of research and extension departments, all the employees like extension agents and subject matter specialists, tax payers, local community, research organisations and inputs suppliers.

Stakeholders' analysis is essential to find out what they (stakeholders) expect from the organisation, and how do they judge its performance? Therefore, the answers to the following questions have to be provided in the stakeholders' analysis (Gregersen *et.al.*, 1990).

- i). Who are the stakeholders?
- ii). What do the stakeholders expect from the organization?
- iii). How do the stakeholders evaluate the performance of organization or what are the criteria used by the stakeholders in evaluating the performance of the organization?
- iv). To what extent the organisation is meeting the criteria of performance?

3.4.2 Development of vision, mission and objective statements

Vision: A vision refers to a desirable future state which is qualitatively and quantitatively different from the existing situation. According to Miller and Dess (1996), the characteristics of vision statements are:

- i. It refers to aspiration for the future
- ii. It is all inclusive and forward thinking
- iii. It provides inspiration in the form of seeking the best
- iv. It has an appeal for emotions and aspirations
- v. It is communicated in the form of mission statements

Mission Statements: 'A vision becomes more tangible when it is expressed in the form of a mission statement which can verbalize the beliefs and the directions of a visionary manager who wants to lead the organisation' (Miller and Dess, 1996). A mission statement can be developed by providing answer to the following questions:

- i). Why the organisation exists? Or what is the purpose of the organisation ?
- ii). How can we meet the expectations of different stakeholders?
- iii). What are our values and philosophies?
- iv). What is the unique feature or contribution of our organisation?
- v). Who are our clients?
- vi). What will be the likely changes in the business of the organisations in the coming years?

AN EXAMPLE OF VISION, MISSION AND OBJECTIVE STATEMENTS.

An example of vision, mission and objective statements of a Non-Government organisation dealing with rural health service is given below:

Vision:

We are dedicated to help rural people to have access to best yet inexpensive medical facilities at village level so that they can lead a life free of sickness and pain.

Mission:

To provide rural people with best and inexpensive and sustainable medical facilities through dedicated team of staff and participation of entire village population.

Objectives:

- i). To open medical centres at every block headquarters which comes under our area of operation within two years.
- ii). To enhance the knowledge and skills of rural people about disease preventive measures through rural health extension education programs.

3.4.3 Strategic analysis of organization

A strategic analysis of organisation consists of an analysis of internal and external environments so that organisation can effectively respond to changes in environment. This process is known as SWOT analysis which calls for an analysis of strengths and weaknesses of organisations and opportunities and threats of environment.

Analysis of internal environment

The internal environment of an organisation has to be analyzed for its strengths and weaknesses in terms of different resources (manpower, infrastructure and communication facilities, equipments, finance positions etc.) technology development process, organisational climate (leadership styles, decision making, motivation, morale etc.) and organisational output (performance of employees and organisation).

Analysis of external environment

The external environment analysis refers to impact of the following trends on the organisation:

- i). Population
- ii). Socio-economic situation at national and global level
- iii). Technological and economic changes
- iv). Political situation

The main purpose of strategic analysis is to match the strengths and weaknesses of organizations with opportunities and threats of external environment, so as to achieve the strategic objectives effectively. The strategic analysis has to be undertaken periodically which is essential to make different decisions as well as necessary changes in its mission and goals.

An example, of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats identified as a part of strategic extension plan of Kangra district (Himachal Pradesh) is given below:

Table 3.2 SWOT Analysis to Improve Agricultural Production in Kangra District (AES-I), Himachal Pradesh

S. No.	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
1.	Fertile Soil with Sandy Loam to Clay loam texture	Lack of Irrigation	Climate suitable for growing high value cash crops i.e. flowers, straw berry and vegetable etc.	Level of river is lowering due to stone crushers.
2.	Mechanised farming possible due to plain area.	Seeds of varieties opted by farmers are not available locally.	Climate suitable for seed multiplication of cereal crops.	Direct pollution from stone crushers affects agriculture crops.
3.	Easy access to input supply like seed, fertilizers and feed etc.	Decline in vegetable cultivation	Good quality planting material of Mango, Straw berry available in Pvt. Regd. Nurseries and in nursery of RHRS Jachh.	Three prominent weeds i.e. Ageratum, Lantana and Parthenium causing havoc especially in

				grass & common lands.
4.	Area well connected with roads and has easy access to market specially for grains	Water harvesting techniques not adopted by farmers	Feed concentrate can be prepared with locally available grains	Soil erosion near river bed area.
5.	Regional Horticulture Research Station situated in this area provides technical know-how.	Improper use of chemical fertilizers & FYM	Scope of milk consumption due to easy access to market.	Frost sensitive area and late harvested fruits of mangoes are sensitive to fruit fly.
6.	Majority of cows are crossbred	Only single variety of Mango i.e. Dashehari existing in the area which causes glut in the market	-	Poultry farms not maintaining hygienic conditions creating chances of outbreak of diseases.

3.4.4. Identification of strategic issues

Strategic issues are those issues that need reexamination or fundamental policy issues of an organisation in order to achieve its goals. Strategic issues can be identified, based

upon the findings of strategic analysis. According to Bryson *et al.*, (1985) as reported by Gregersen *et al.*, (1990), strategic issues usually arise under the following circumstances:

- i. “External events beyond the control of the organisation make or will make it difficult to accomplish objectives with the resources available.
- ii. Choices for achieving organizational objectives change or are expected to change (e.g. changes in technology, financing, staffing or management),
- iii. New opportunities arise”.

3.4.5. Identification of Critical Issues

Even though strategic planning is primarily used to identify strategic issues of any organisation by top management, it has been found that several organisations use it to identify critical issues at lower levels of organisations. Critical issues are those important issues which affect the achievement of objectives. For example, National Agricultural Technology Project (NATP) had introduced decentralized district level strategic planning to prepare Strategic Research and Extension Plan (SREP) by Agricultural Technology Management Agency (ATMA) for the project area. The SREP has been prepared by a team of extension personnel using different participatory techniques, field surveys including SWOT analysis. The SREP plan has a focus on understanding the existing farming system, identification of adoption gap, and critical and strategic issues of sustainable production as well as working out strategies for increasing productions.

An example, of critical issues related to sustainable agricultural production, identified through strategic planning for Kangra District of Himachal Pradesh is given below:

Table 3.3 Critical Issues Identified Through SWOT Analysis for Improving Agricultural Production in Kangra District (Himachal Pradesh)

S. No.	Critical gaps / Issues	AES1	AES2	AES3	AES4	AES5	AES6
Low Productivity of Crops							
1.	Non-adoption of high yielding varieties / hybrids	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2.	Imbalanced fertilizer use	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3.	Non-adoption of drought resistant varieties for rainfed areas	Y	Y	Y	-	-	-
4.	Improper weed management	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-
5.	Poor adoption of plant protection technique	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

AES 1-6 refers to Agricultural Ecological Situation Y - Yes

Source: ATMA, Kangra District (2001)

3.4.6 Development of strategies to tackle strategic issues

Development of strategies to tackle strategic issues consists of finding alternative courses of action as well as evaluation of alternatives in terms of their effectiveness and problems related to implementation. It may also be necessary to work out the ways to overcome the problems in implementation of alternatives.

3.4.7 Implementation of strategies

Implementation of strategies calls for preparation of action plan for each strategy, allocation of resources and follow-up activities. Needless to say that often implementation of strategies also calls for changes in organisational structure and development of appropriate policies and facilities. Further, the organisation should have effective leadership which will help it to become learning organisation which will be in a position to discover new ways of doing and adapting itself to changes (Miller and Dess 1996).



3.5 LET US SUM UP

Management by objectives (MBO) is a management approach which focuses on key objectives of an organisation. It was popularized by Peter Drucker during mid-1950s, through his writings. Though MBO is about 70 years old, yet it is not obsolete and relevant today.

The MBO is a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organisation jointly define its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the result expected of him and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution for each of its members". The basic steps of MBO are setting objectives. Working towards the objectives and reviewing the performance.

Strategic planning is a disciplined effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions that shape and guide what an organization is, what it does, and why it does. It will attempt to answer the following questions: Are we doing the right things under present circumstances? What are our present roles and what are new roles due to changes in the changing circumstances? Where do we want to go? How can we reach our goals? The single most important reason for strategic planning is the need for responding to changing environments.

The steps in strategic planning consists of the following: Historical analysis, Stakeholder analysis., Development of vision, mission and objective statements, Strategic analysis of organizations, Identification of strategic issues, Identification of critical issues, Development of strategies to tackle strategic issues and Implementation of strategies.

3.6 SELF-CHECK EXERCISES/ SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Why MBO is needed in extension organizations?
2. Explain the concept of "from activity based management to results based management"

3. What are the steps in MBO?
4. How will you prepare strategic planning?

3.7 FURTHER SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT-4

DECISION MAKING AND COMMUNICATION PROCESS

Highlights of the Unit

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Decision Making
- Decision Making Models, Decision tree, consensus building and competencies
- Ethical Dimension of Decision Making
- Communication Process, directions, levels and methods of communication
- Listening Empathy, Assertiveness and Feedback
- Barriers to Communication
- Conclusion
- Check Your Progress
- Further Reading

4.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit we will be in a position to

- Appraise and explain different models, styles of decision making, and justify consensus building and required competencies
- Interpret and explain the communication process, methods and feedback as well as recognise barriers to communication.

4.1 INTRODUCTION:

Managers in organizations around the world confront endless challenges. Organisational success is driven by capabilities of its managers. Decision making and communication represents two of the most common and crucial work roles of a manager. It

is essential to learn and benefit from existing knowledge in these important areas for establishing an environment for effective and efficient performance of individuals working in organizations.

Section one of this unit covers various models and styles of decision making, it also introduces consensus building and factors hindering and impeding it. Understanding and developing competency in consensus building is an essential requirement of present day organization.

Second section of this unit has a focus on communication process. It also discuss about direction, methods and feedback in communication. Understanding barriers to communication has been addressed towards the end. To aid learning there are two self-check exercises at the end of each section. Answer key has been provided to facilitate self-check of progress.

4.2 DECISION MAKING MODELS

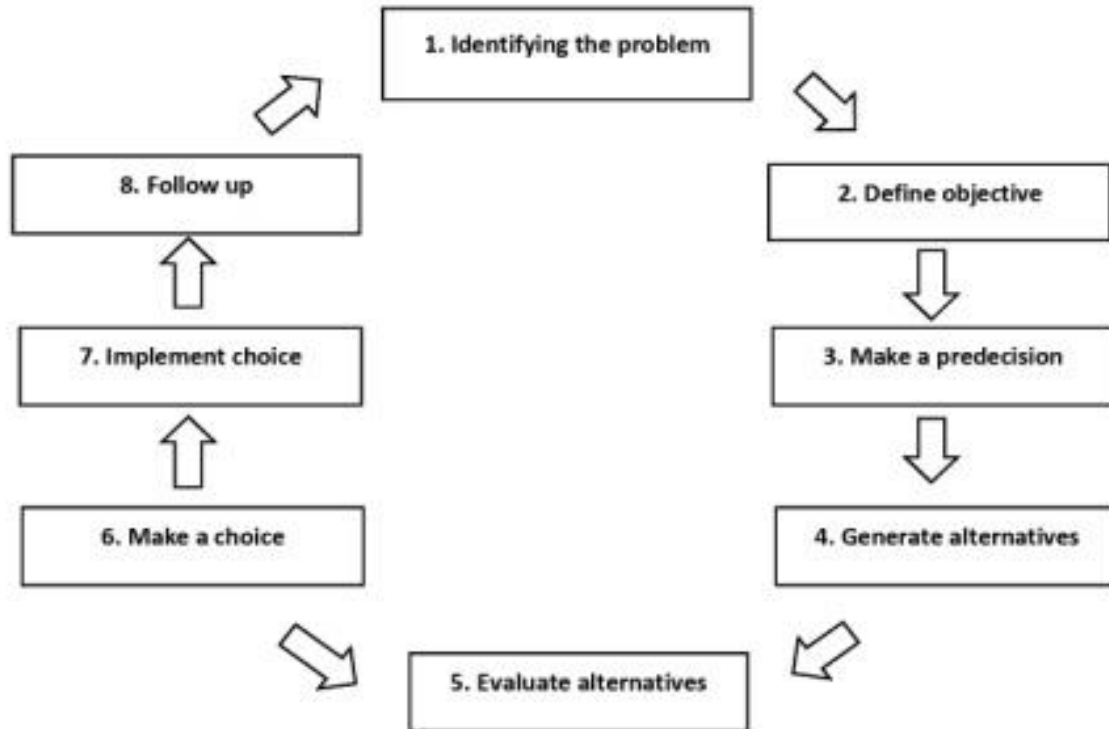
Decision making represents one of the most common and most crucial work role of a manager.

4.2.1 The Traditional Analytical Model:

Traditional decision making is considered as a process of decision making as a series of steps that are taken to solve problems. The model is quite useful in describing how the decision making process operates. According to this model, the process of decision making follows eight step as follows:

Fig 4.1 Traditional Analytical Model

1.



Problem Identification: People do not always accurately perceive the existence of problem. They fail to recognize a problem if that makes him or her uncomfortable. This may become first impediment to solve problems.

2. Define the Objectives to be met in solving the problem: It is very important to describe problems in such a way that possible solution can be identified.

3. Makes a Pre-decision: The pre-decision is a decision about how to make a decision. Based on the assessment of the type of problems and situation, you may decide to make a decision yourself, delegate the decision to another person or have a group to make the decision.

4. Generating Alternative: In this step possible solution to the problem are identified.

5. **Evaluating alternative solutions:**—Once appropriate alternative have been found, the next step is to evaluate them. Some may be more effective than others and some may be easier to implement than others.

6. **Selecting an alternative:** After evaluating several alternatives, one that is considered acceptable is chosen.

7. **Implementation** of the chosen alternative.

8. **Follow up:** It is important to seek feedback about the effectiveness of selected alternative. In this model the process of decision making is presented in a circle.

4.2.2 The Rational Economic Model

This model assumes that decisions are perfect and rational in every way. A person following this model attempts to maximize his or her profit by systematically searching for the optimal solution to a problem. This requires that decision maker must have complete information, and be able to process all this information in an accurate and unbiased fashion.

Although this model follows the same steps as given for traditional analytical model of decision making recognizing all possible alternative courses of action (step 4 of traditional model) and accurately and completely evaluating each one, (Steps 5) makes it distinct from traditional model. As this model is based on the assumption that decision maker has access to complete and perfect information and use it to make perfect decision. This model can also be considered as normative or prescriptive approach. It describes how decision maker ideally should behave so as to make best possible decision.

4.2.3 The Administrative Model

This model recognizes that decision maker may have a limited view of the problem confronting him. Instead of considering all possible solutions, this model recognize that decision maker considers solutions as they become available. The first alternative that meets the criteria for acceptability is selected as a solution that may be just good enough,

although not optimal. These type of decisions are also referred to as satisfying decisions. It is also impractical for people to make completely optional, rational decision. Restriction posed by the innate capabilities of the decision makers themselves and the social environments in which decision are made limits optimal decisions. This model recognizes the Bonded Rationality under which most organization decision makers operate. As this model describes how decision maker actually behaves, this approach can be called descriptive or proscriptive in nature.

4.2.4 Image Theory

As per this theory the decision process is very rapid and simple. Not all decisions are made following the logical steps of the traditional analytical model of decision making. Individual may make decisions in a more automatic, intuitive fashion than is traditionally recognised. This theory suggests that people do not ponder and reflect over decisions but use intuitive process with minimum cognitive processing.

According to this theory, decisions are made by people on the basis of two-step process depicted below.

The first step is the compatibility test, in this a comparison is made of the degree to which a particular course of action is consistent with various images (individual principles, present goals and plans for the future).The decision is rejected if there is lack of compatibility with respect to these considerations.

After passing compatibility test, profitability test is carried out in which the extent to which using various alternatives best fit values, goals and plans. The decision is then made to accept the best.

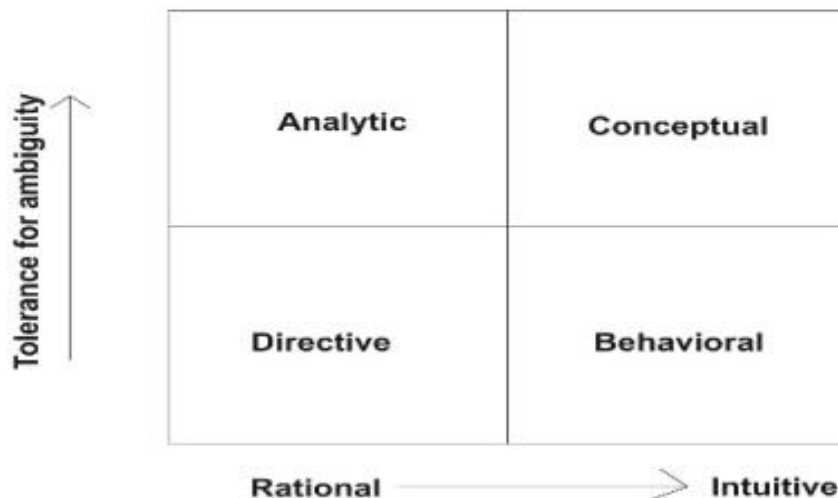
All approaches to decision making have received support and none should be seen as a replacement for the other. Instead, several different processes may be involved in decision making as not all decision making is carried out the same way.

4.2.5 DECISION MAKING STYLES

Since decision making is affected by bounded rationality, human biases, intention and individual difference, there are deviation from the rational model. Everyone has an individual style to the decision they make in the same decision situation. Four different individual approaches have been identified these are directive, analytic, conceptual and behavioral.

Individuals differ along two dimensions i.e. their “Way of thinking” and second their “tolerance for ambiguity”. In terms of “Way of Thinking”, some are logical and rational and process information seriously. On the other hand some people are intuitive and creative and perceive things as a whole.

In terms of ‘tolerance for ambiguity’, some individuals have high need to structure information for minimizing ambiguity, whereas others have the ability of processing many thoughts at the same time.



Thinking pattern

Table 4.2 Decision Making Styles

Following four styles emerge based on these two dimensions.

I. Directive Style:

Directive types have low tolerance for ambiguity and they seek rationality in decision making. They make decision fast and focus on short run. They are efficient and logical, but sometimes, this style may result indecision made with minimum information and assessing few alternatives.

II. Analytic style:

Analytic decision makers have much tolerance for ambiguity than directive decision maker. This results in careful decision making and decision made with more information and consideration of more alternatives.

III. Conceptual Style:

These types use data from multiple sources and consider many alternatives. They focus on long range and are very good at finding creative solutions to problems.

IV. Behavioral Style:

In this type of style, decision makers have a strong concern for people in the organization and their development. They focus on short term and down play the use of data in decision making. They are characterized by their concern for well-being of subordinates and also receptiveness to suggestions from others. Some managers are flexible they can shift in these four distinct styles of decision making depending on situation. Some managers rely almost exclusively on their dominant style. Most of the managers fall into more than one style of decision making, one becomes manager's dominant style and the others, his or her back up style.

4.2.6 Decision tree concept

Decision tree is a graphic method by which a decision maker sketches in form of a 'tree' all decision points, chance events, the probabilities and risk involved. This approach

helps in visualizing the various courses of action open to decision maker. By expressing all outcomes or events in quantitative form can provide precision in decision making. A manager can make use of decision tree for decision making under uncertainty.

4.2.7 Integrating logic and creative thinking in Decision making

Creativity is a vital ingredient in successful decision making. Effective decision maker needs creativity for identifying all viable alternatives. Creativity and logical thinking helps decision maker in combining ideas in a unique ways or to make unusual association between ideas which further helps in fully appraising and understanding the problem. Following Techniques helps in stimulating Individual creativity:

Direct Instruction: Mere action of instructing someone to “be creative” and to avoid obvious approaches to a problem results in unique ideas. Usually people tend to accept obvious solution and this tendency prevents them from performing up to their capability. So the instruction that, unique and creative alternation are sought, acts to encourage people to look for such ideas.

Attribute listening: In this technique decision maker isolates the major characteristics traditional alternatives. All major attribute of the alternative is then considered in turn and is changed in every conceivable ways. Once this list is completed, the constraints of the problem are imposed, which helps in selecting viable alternatives.

Lateral thinking: Lateral thinking is not sequential like traditional vertical thinking in which each step in the process follows the previous step in an unbroken sequence .With lateral thinking decision maker emphasis thinking sideways or practicing Zigzag thinking. Lateral thinking is not restricted to relevant information,

Decision maker deliberately uses random or irrelevant information to bring about of new way of looking at the problem. Techniques for enhancing creativity of a group include:

Brain storming: Brain storming is an idea generation process, encouraging all alternatives with holding any criticism of those alternatives.

Nominal group technique: This technique is termed as nominal because it restricts discussion and interpersonal communication during the decision making process. All groups' members are physically present but operate independently.

Delphi Technique: In a Delphi decision group a panel of relevant people is chosen to address an issue .A series of questionnaire are sequentially distributed to the participants who do not meet face to face. This process is repeated several times until responses converge satisfactorily. The key to success of this technique lies in its anonymity .Keeping the responses of Delphi group members anonymous encourages the experts to be more flexible and creative.

Dialectic Decision Method: In group decision making there is a common problem of group members converging too quickly on one alternative while overlooking others .In order to overcome this problem Dialectic Decision Method has been evolved which begins with a clear statement of a problem to be solved generating two or more competing proposals. Participants identify the explicit or implicit assumption that underlies each proposal. The group then breaks in to advocacy subgroups. After processing, entire group makes a decision based on competing presentations.

4.2.8 Effective Decision Making

Successful managers have an ability to make effective decisions. Whether decision is effective depends on criteria we use for defining effectiveness. Group decision tends to be more accurate. Individuals are superior, if decision effectiveness is defined in terms of speed. On the other hand if effectiveness means the degree which a solution demonstrates creativity, groups are more effective than individuals. If effectiveness is the degree of acceptance that the final decision achieves, group decisions are likely to result in decisions that will be widely accepted. There are two critical factors which must be accounted for creating an effective decision. The first factor contributing to quality decision is the level of analysis of defining the actual problem, defining the outcome desired. The second factor is level of acceptance or the degree to which the members impacted are going find the

decision acceptable to them. Effectiveness should not be considered without also assessing efficiency. Generally groups are less efficient than individuals. Primary consideration must be given to assessing whether increases in effectiveness are enough to offset the losses in efficiency.

Creating effective decisions requires necessary interpersonal skills such as: the ability to empathetically listen to all viewpoints with respect to why others see things differently, the ability and willingness to differ in opinion, ability to support others' views and ideas.

4.2.9 Consensus Building

During the process of decision making, a group may range between two extremes. It can be either by the process of division or by the process of consensus. The strength of various members is tested and the group gets divided in the process of division. Process of consensus emphasises on pooling of strength of various levels, which is brought to bear on the best possible decision. Consensus decision making can be a powerful tool for developing strong groups and excellent decisions.

Decision consented by all members is the goal of consensus. It does not mean that everyone must be completely satisfied with final decision as total satisfaction is rare. The emphasis in decision making is on taking all concerns into consideration in an attempt to find most optimum solution at a particular time. This way, commitment of the members to the implementation of the solution is assured.

Factors Supporting Consensus:

Unity of Purpose: unifying base is required to be there that is accepted as a common starting place by all members.

Power Equality: The effort should be made to share informal distribution of power, so that all members can contribute and participate equally. There may be differences in seniority,



assertiveness and other personal qualities. There should be autonomy from external hierarchical structure.

Time: Time spent on group process and relation between members as well as time spent on making decisions are important for decision making by consensus.

Communication Skills: Decision making by consensus is facilitated by good communication skills of the members. Members must be encouraged and assisted for utilising these skills. Besides speaking their ideas, members must also listen carefully to what others say.

Orientation to Process: members must be willing to attend to process to develop consensus faster. While attending to task and decision, members should have concern about the way people are feeling. Consensus is achieved faster when matters such as the way the people are feeling, if some people have withdrawn or remain silent etc. are discussed from time to time. Each member must be considered as special resource and in order to make good decision all the resources must be utilised. Discussing the rationale of suggestions and ideas will make movement towards a common understanding easier.

Members Attitudes: Consensus works well when members have attitudes such as, Cooperation, mutual trust, idea of common ownership, valuing feelings, valuing conflict, valuing contribution of all members, and respect and concern for others.

Checking Consensus and Disagreements: Disagreements must be allowed to discuss from time to time to help consensus. It must be checked by the group to see whether enough consensus exist for the decision.

Synergy: Research on groups has shown that in most conditions, groups outperform even their best members. This phenomenon is called synergy. This happens because discussion within group generates more alternatives than individuals, inferior contributions are eliminated and errors are averaged, out and creative thinking is supported. Better synergetic generated in the group results in better consensus decision making.

Factors Impeding Consensus:

If decision making by consensus is used inappropriately, it can result in confusion and disruption in a group. Certain skills and attitudes are assumed from the group as a whole, and from the individual member.

Low Participation: As a result of domination by a few several members may withdraw due to shyness or lack of necessary communication skills. Silent members lack trust in the group or fear conflict. These members may need special support from the groups as they may not get an opportunity to express themselves freely and influence the process of decision making. Some members may lack commitment or don't care what the group decides. As member avoid confronting differences and avoid discussion, possibility of consensus decrease.

Domination by some Members:

Domination by a few interferes with the consensus process.

Polarised Functions: Sometimes, because of disagreement, instead of moving towards consensus, there is a tendency to move towards split in the groups. Group members' breakup in two or more small fraction that may disagree with one another on a variety of issues hindering consensus building process and resulting in endless discussions.

Time Pressure: When decision gets rushed due to time pressure, the possibility of consensus decreases. Patience and inclination to pay attention to opinion of others is required for decision making by consensus, which demands time.

Trading/ Compromising: In order to get their suggestion or point of view accepted, some people may trade their point of view with others (suggestion given by one member is accepted in exchange for another suggestion given by another member). Consensus is hindered by this strategy.

Hidden Agendas: Discussion is floundered hopelessly by unrecognized hidden agendas. Sometime participants don't realise they are being influenced by a hidden agenda.

Poor Facilitation: Consensus requires focus on topic of discussion and the direction where the discussion is moving. The more members skilled in facilitation, the better the process will be. **Attitudes of Members:** Attitudes like prejudices biases, tendency to owning ideas, personal feelings, self-centredness, competitiveness to foster inequality, as member try to outdo each other in performance and prestige can block the process of decision making by consensus.

Groups Think: Decision making efficacy of highly cohesive but not reflexive group can be drastically reduced due to group think. This results from deterioration of mental efficiency, reality testing, and moral judgment due to in-group pressures. Some individuals become victims of group think and avoid deviating from consensus and keep silent about doubts.

Members can avoid it by actively searching out information even if it is contrary to the group's decision.

Group Polarisation: Research has shown that groups tend to make more extreme decisions, compared of the same decision made alone by individual group members. This process is called risky shift. Sometimes, there may be opposite tendency of a caution shift. Group polarization is the tendency for the group decision to be more extreme than those of individuals, for both risky shift and caution shift.

4.2.10 Consensus Competencies

Skill set required for decision making through consensus can be classified in following three categories of competencies:

- I. **Problem Solving Competencies:** As in decision making the main focus is on solving some specific problem, the decision making process can be considered similar to that of problem solving. Several problem solving skills are useful for this process.
- II. **Deciding Priorities:** If there is an agreement on priorities, consensus can be achieved faster in a group. Disagreement among group members delays consensus. Different members may have different priorities in mind, some discussion on priorities may help

in bringing out the basic difference. Clarity about priorities is very crucial in problem solving and decision making.

- III. **Analysing Problem:** The problem to be solved may appear simple, but it may have several directions. Analysis of these factors at several levels may be needed. Understanding of these dimensions is crucial for successful consensus on a decision.
- IV. **Generating Alternatives:** Collective decisions are better as several persons in a group are able to generate a number of ideas. Synergy is achieved through group work and a better solution than the best suggested in the group may be evolved by combining the good features of several of them.
- V. **Analysing consequence of each alternative:** Both positive and negative consequence of each alternative solution needs to be thoroughly discussed in the group. This helps the group members to give up their original idea and accept a better idea proposed by somebody else.
- VI. **Developing Criteria for Decision Making:** It is useful to discuss and agree on main criteria which will be used for taking decision on a particular problem. Evolving such criteria help in consensus binding.
- VII. **Reviewing:** Reviewing after a decision has been taken ensures that significant points have not been left out. Looking back and thoroughly examining the decision provides an opportunity to those people who still may have some doubt about some aspects of the decision to reflect on them.

4.2.11 Task Facilitation Competencies:

Besides problem solving skills, several other skills help in working effectively on the task of decision making. These are as follows:

Initiative: Taking initiative in proposing some discussion is required for generating ideas. Initiative may be taken for expression of opinion, providing information, asking questions, raising, doubts etc. Such acts should be encouraged and used for generating ideas.



Information seeking: New dimensions are identified and problem is analysed in depth if information is asked for and collected from various members in the group. Expression of opinion by the members in the group may result in asking for more information from him/her by other member.

Giving Information: A Consensus cannot emerge unless group members volunteer to give the information they have. All members in the group must provide necessary and relevant information they have. This pool of information helps in understanding various dimensions of the issues. Involvement of members also increases when information is provided. When a member provides necessary information, his/ her commitment to the decision which are taken is high. All these factors help in evolving consensus.

Summarizing: Summarizing what has been discussed helps the group to move forward. This clarifies where the differences continue to exist, where agreements are emerging and the points on which further discussion is needed.

Expressing opinion: Expression of one's opinion involves more risk taking. The movement towards consensus is faster if more members express their opinion clearly and openly. Members in the group must be encouraged to express their opinion. This also increases member's commitment to the group as well as to the decision.

Synthesizing: Synthesizing involves evolving a common point or idea which contains strengths of various ideas or opinion expressed. Such competency for seeing common things in the various opinion expressed, and bringing them out in the form of a new idea, which contains the strengths of different points of view is needed for developing consensus. This also requires listening carefully to each other and looking for common elements.

Focusing on Strategies: Decision to be taken may involve acting on certain dimensions. Planning with a focus on strategies may help in making action more relevant. This also helps in relating action to several other elements. Focus has to be on total approach rather than specific action.

Time keeping: Keeping time is an important skill of effective groups. Time budgeting may be done in advance and someone from time to time may review the progress of the group according to the time schedule agreed on. This also helps in moving systematically according to the agenda.

4.2.12 Group Building Competencies:

Group building skills helps in facilitating consensus building by helping the group to functions as an effective group. These skills are described below:

Listening: Listening skills are crucial for effective consensus building. By careful and deliberate listening to other members, members increase respect for each other, and his/her skill of learning from various ideas and points of view expressed in the group also increases. Listening involves paying attention and simultaneously giving clear clues of interest and eagerness.

Expressing and Responding Feelings: Consensus may not be possible without attending to feelings. By expressing own feelings, a member legitimizes the expression of feelings and indicates his/her confidence in the group. This also encourages other persons to express their feelings. It may also be useful to respond to the feelings being expressed. Ability in expression of and responding to feelings may help the group in consensus building.

Gate Keeping: It is essentials to ensure that people listen to each other and wait to take their turn to express their opinions. As everyone wants to express his/ her opinions, many people may speak simultaneously resulting in communication getting blocked. Some order in the discussion on a decision is necessary to be observed.

Supporting:-In a group, when a person presents his point of view or opinion, if he or she is supported by some other member in the group, his commitment to the group increases. This skill of supporting builds a general climate of acceptance and eventually helps in evolving consensus.



Building other's Ideas: Expressing one's opinion and relating them to what someone else has said in the group helps in recognising contribution of other members and form a basis for further building up of ideas. This skill of building on others' ideas is necessary for consensus building as this curtails the general tendency of people to give an idea and try to prove or demonstrate that his idea is an entirely new one.

Encouraging Silent members:-It is quite useful to encourage those members who are silent by emphasizing from time to time the need of hearing from those who have not spoken so far in the group. Otherwise the group cannot get the ideas from some members as many times, these ideas may be very useful. If these members continue to remain silent, they eventually lose interest and their commitment to the group and its decision decreases causing hindrance in consensus building.

Process Reviewing:-Reviewing from time to time positive and negative aspects in functioning of the group helps in consensus building. Consensus Building skills have been described above. The more the group members are efficient in these skills, the better it is for the group to take advantage of synergy and making better decisions. Organizational performance depends on quality of decision. Probability of high quality decisions can be increased with the knowledge about the process of decision making.

4.2.13 Ethical Dimension of Decision Making

In today's organizations, ethical consideration should be important criteria in organizational decision making. Many decisions have an ethical dimension. Ethics involves moral issues and deals with right and wrong behaviour. Different people impose different ethical standards on their decision based on their level of moral development. Three levels of moral development have been reported in different research studies. At each successive level an individual's moral judgment grown less and less dependent on outside influences. These levels are listed as below:

Pre-conventional level: Decision maker respond to notion of right and wrong only when personal consequences are involved (punishment, reward or favors exchange).

Conventional level: At this level of moral development of decision maker, moral values reside in maintaining the conventions order and expectation of others.

Principled level: Individuals make a clear effort to define moral principles apart from the authority of the groups they belong or society. The higher the stage of moral development a manager reaches, the more he or she will be predisposed to make ethical decisions. Ethical Standards vary across national cultures and there are no global ethical standards.

4.3 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS-I

1. Which of the following Decision making Model recognizes bounded rationality

- a) Traditional Analytical Model c) Administrative Model
- b) Rational Economic Model d) Image Theory

2. Style focus on long range and uses data from multiple sources.

- a) Directive Style c) Conceptual Style
- b) Analytic Style d) Behavioural Style

3. List any four factors supporting consensus.

- a) c)
- b) d)

4. List any four factors hindering consensus.

- a) c)
- b) d)

5. List any two categories of consensus competencies.

- a)
- b)

4.4 COMMUNICATION PROCESS

The most crucial element of any organization is communication. Communication is used in organization not only to direct individual action, but also to achieve coordinated action. Effectiveness of communication depends on fulfillment of its purpose. Organization communicates externally with their environment and internally through specific system. Organisational communication plays important role in information sharing, feedback, control influence, problem solving, decision making, facilitating change through motivation, group building and even gate keeping, as it helps to build linkages of the organization with the outside world.

4.4.1 The Communication Process

The Communication Process

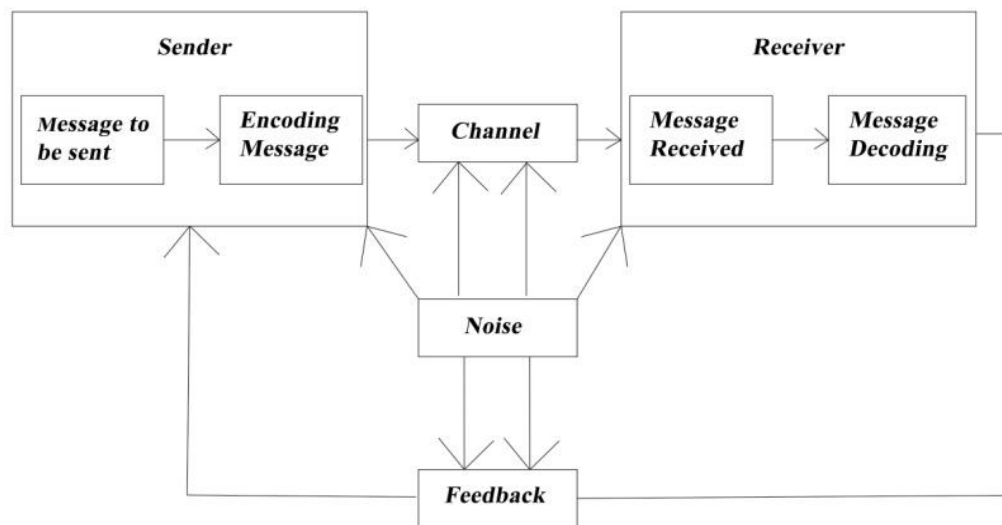


Fig 4.2 Communication process

Communication is the process through which people seek to exchange ideas and understanding among themselves via the transmission of symbolic messages.

The given diagram depicts this communication process: As shown in the diagram, the process consists of the following key elements.

The Sender: - The sender is the source of message. The sender is the initiator of communication process. The Communication process begins when sender has an idea that he wishes to transmit to receiver.

Encoding: It is translating an idea in to a form that can be recognized by the receiver is called encoding. This is a crucial process for successful communication.

The Message: - The product from sender's encoding is message. The message represents the meanings the sender wants to convey to the receiver. The symbols in it must be translated into form that can be understood by the receiver.

The Channel: The medium through which the message travels between a sender and a receiver.

The Receiver: -Receiver is the one to whom the message is directed.

Decoding: After receiving a message, the recipient must begin the process of decoding. This is a process of converting the message back in to sender's original idea.

Feedback: After decoding a message, the communication process can continue with the receiver transmitting a new message back to the sender. This is known as feedback. Through feedback sender is able to determine whether the message has been understood properly and the impact of message on receiver. **Noise:** Factors that distort the clarity of a message is called noise. Noise can occur at any point along the communication process.

4.4.2 Direction of Communication

Communication in organizations takes place in different directions, which establish the framework within which communication takes place. These are discussed as under:

- I. **Downward Communication:** This is the most common communication system used in an organization. Downward communication flows from higher level to the next lower one and slowly trickles down to the bottom. Distortion of communication in this system may occur because the message passes through various levels and it may become inaccurate. The most frequently used means of communication is writing. It's used by



managers to assign goals, convey job direction, organization policies and performance feedback.

- II. **Upward Communication:** Upward communication flows from lower levels to higher levels within an organization generally following reporting channel of command. It is not simply the reverse of downward communication; it has been observed that in organizations, upward communication occurs less frequently than downward communication and suffers from serious inaccuracies. Accuracy of information passed in this system depends on sincere and trusting relationship between manager and employees.
- III. **Horizontal Communication:** Communication that flows laterally i.e. at the same organization level is horizontal Communication. This system is less formal than vertical communication system. Communication is more casual and occurs more quickly because fewer social barriers exist. This type of system usually involves problem solving and the coordination of work flow between peers or groups.
- IV. **Diagonal Communication:** Diagonal communication is important in those situations where communication through other channels is not effective. This framework is the least used channel of communication in organizations, but in some cases this becomes most efficient in term of time and effort for the organization.
- V. **Communication Network:** A network is a group of people who develop and maintain contact to exchange information informally, usually about a shared interest. Organizational structure determines to a great extent the communication Network. It is generally found that in a centrally controlled organization communication, there are many different possible communication networks within organization which revolve around a pivotal person. In centralized organization chain, inverted “Y” and wheel type of communication is used. In organization where information flows upward and downward in a hierarchical manner and there is no lateral communication, chain type of communication is found. It is best suited for organization where jobs are well defined,

and reporting is strict. When one person has two subordinate inverted “Y” of type of communication is found. Wheel type of communication depicts manager as a central figure who acts as the conduit for all groups’ communication. A team with a strong leader, practice this type of communication network. Members to adjoining members communicate through circle type of communication. All channel type of communication is used by a member to any other member of the organization. A greater level of satisfactions is experienced by the members. This type of network is found in self-managed teams in which all group member are free to contribute, and no one person takes on leadership role.

- VI. **Informal Communication:** Informal communication system coexists with organizations formal communication system.
- VII. **The Grapevine:** The grapevine is an important informal communication system that exists in all organizations. Grapevine grows primarily to meet organization’s innate need for information. Basically it serves as a bypass of formal mechanism and in many instances is faster than formal system it bypasses. A grapevine arises from social interaction, it is as dynamic and varied as people are. It is in a way, an expression of their natural normal motivation to communicate. It is a normal activity, and is the exercise of their freedom of speech. The grapevine acts without conscious direction. It carries any information at anytime, anywhere in the organization. The grapevine grows most vigorous in organizations where secrecy, poor communication and autocratic leadership behaviour exists. Negative aspects of the grapevine system include rumour carrying, untruths and irresponsible communication. As both managers and followers have links in to grapevine system, integrating the grapevine in to more formal communication system can help decreasing the negative aspects of the grapevine system. Manager should seek to utilise it or at least attempt to increase its accuracy.



8.4.3 Levels of Communication

The communication process can be visualized from four distinct levels of analysis. These are as follows:

Intrapersonal: At this level communication can be thought of as a continuous, outgoing process which is determined by an individual's abilities and susceptibility. Those processes of communication which takes place either in the individuals itself, or in people in general is analyzed in order to understand how an individual gets communicated with, what the process incorporate and allied issues.

Interpersonal: At this level focus is upon a two person communication system and how individual tend to influence each other through communication with a view to mutually regulate and control each other's behavior pattern.

Organisational: At this level focus is upon the network of data system which binds the entire individual together in the organization settings.

Inter-organisational: At inter-orgainsational level it is considered that communication is unique to living systems and organization by them do not communication beyond what takes place between the individuals forming these.

8.4.4 Methods of Communication

Written, verbal and nonverbal forms of communication are three primary methods of communication. The choice of method largely depend upon the location of the sender and receiver, ability, nature of message, urgency and the cost involved in passing the information.

VIII. **Oral:** oral communication is the most popular method of communication. Speed and feedback are the biggest advantages of oral communication. However, the major disadvantage is the potential for distortion, if the message has to be passed through a number of people. There is increased potential for distortion with increased number of

people a message must pass through, as each person interprets the message in his or her own way.

IX. **Written:** Communication via written words or symbols is tangible and verifiable. Written communications are more likely to be well thought out, clear and logical. Both the sender and the receiver has a record of the communication and the message can be stored for an indefinite period. Written communication is time consuming and that becomes the biggest drawback. Another major disadvantage is lack of feedback. The examples include: letters, memo, mail, notices, mobile SMS and social networking forums.

X. **Non-verbal:** Non-verbal communication adds to verbal communication. While giving verbal message to someone, nonverbal message is also conveyed. Sometimes nonverbal message may stand alone. Non-verbal communication can also be considered as speaking without words. Non-verbal signals include proximity, body motion, posture, physical appearance, gesture, facial expression and eye movement.

XI. **Kinesics:** It is the Study of body language. It includes gestures, facial configuration and other movement of the body. Facial expression can convey emotion that cannot be expressed through written or oral communication.

XII. **Optemics:** It is the study of eye contact.

XIII. **Proxemics:** It is the study of spacial separation or the practice of maintaining proper physical distance between two people as they communicate.

XIV. **Paralanguage:** It is the ability of the voice to affect how something is said. Characteristic of the voice such as speed of speech, tone, rhythm, volume etc. can convey enthusiasm, confidence, anxiety, urgency and other state of mind.

XV. **Intonation** is the way you say a sentence and placement of emphasis change your meaning.

XVI. **Artifacts:** Articles you carry like pens, spectacles etc. communicate a great deal about you.

- XVII. **Haptics:** Touching can also communicate emotion like anger, trust, interest etc.
- XVIII. **Chronemics:** Time used in interaction can also have meaning. Knowledge of nonverbal communication is very important for manager in organisations to communicate effectively. Transmission of cognitive messages can be more effectively dealt with written communication whereas oral communication is more effective in bringing about changes of opinion and attitude.

4.4.5 Listening Empathy

Listening demands intellectual effort and is often more tiring than talking. Active listening demands total concentration. Active listening is possible when receiver develops empathy with the sender. Receiver tries to place himself in the senders' position. Empathy makes it easier to understand the message. Empathetic listener carefully listen to what is being said, without having it distorted by premature judgment or interpretation. By not judging message content one's, ability to receive the full meaning of a communication is improved.

4.4.6 Assertiveness:

When the need to negotiate with others arises some managers may feel inferior, lack necessary skill or out of fear are likely to suppress their feeling or show anger, which is not truly productive. Under such situation practicing assertive behavior is a constructive alternative. Assertiveness is defined as a process of expressing feelings, asking for legitimate changes and giving and receiving honest feedback. Five stages are involved in being assertive under intolerable situation: Describing the behavior, expressing emotional reaction feelings, empathizing with the others position, then offering problem solving alternatives and indicating the consequences that follow. Integrating a number of verbal and nonverbal components make assertive behavior most effective.

4.4.7 Feedback

While interacting in day today work situation, people need to communicate their perceptions, feelings and their views. Communication of these perceptions, feelings and

views by one individual to another individual about the latter’s style of working, behavior etc. is called feedback.

I. Types of Feedback: Feedback may come in various way for example, in face to face communication, direct feedback is possible through verbal exchanges as well as facial expressions. Feedback is also possible indirectly through signs such as increased absenteeism, conflict, productivity decline or poor quality production etc. Feedback can be positive or negative. A complete circle of feedback from the persons concerned like sub ordinates, seniors, peers, clients and other stakeholders is called 360° feedback.

II. Functions of Feedback: At least two persons are involved in interpersonal feedback. One is who gives feedback and the other is who receives the feedback.

According to Pareek specific functions of giving feedback and receiving feedback are as follows:

Table 4.1 Specific functions of giving and receiving feedback

S.No.	Giving Feedback	Receiving Feedback
1.	Provides verifiable data about behavior	Helps in processing behavioral data
2.	Encourages collecting data from various sources	Increases self-Awareness
3.	Suggests alternatives to be considered	Increases Sensitivity in picking up cues
4.	Improves interpersonal communication	Encourages experimenting with new behavior
5.	Establishes Culture of openness	Helps in building integrated self
6.	Promotes interpersonal trust	Encourages openness
7.	Facilitates autonomy	Develops mutuality

Guidelines for Effective Feed Back: The effectiveness of feedback depends on both the feedback provider and the feedback receiver. Guideline for enhancing effectiveness on both the dimension of giving and receiving feedback are listed below.



I. Giving Feedback:

1. Don't be evaluative or judgmental, describe what you see happening.
2. Give specific feedback in terms of observations of various facts to help the person. General feedback tends to be more judgmental which may not be helpful.
3. Continuous feedback is likely to produce better results than one act of feedback.
4. While giving feedback, assess the need of the person to whom you are giving feedback. If feedback is solicited, it is more effective. Giving feedback require sensitivity in person who is imparting it.
5. Accurate timing is essential for effective feedback, immediate feedback helps more. However, care should be taken to check whether the other person is in a position to receive and use it.
6. Negative feedback requires that a minimal level of trust is established with the receiver.
7. Focus of Feedback should be on behavior of a person rather than the person so that receiver can change it accordingly.
8. Positive feedback is more helpful in reinforcing new behavior and stabilizing it as a part of personality.
9. While giving feedback, one should be suggestive rather than prescriptive.
10. Mostly feedback should be given with a personal touch, which requires sharing of your own perception and feelings.
11. Feedback given with an intention to help is likely to be very helpful.
12. Feedback serves its purpose better if it's checked and verified with various other persons involved in the process.

II. Receiving Feedback:

1. Own up your behavior rather than denying it or becoming defensive.
2. Don't rationalize or find reasons to explain your behavior. Instead, self-analysis may help in improving your behavior.

3. While receiving negative feedback, instead of projecting resentment, empathize with the person giving negative feedback and try to see his point of view.
4. Ask questions from the person who is giving it and from other sources.
5. Positive critical attitude always helps in receiving negative feed backs.
6. It helps to carefully express your feelings to the person who is giving negative feedback.
7. Seek help of the person giving feedback in knowing more about the behavior.
8. Show your concern rather than covering up to reduce anxiety.
9. Discussing in details with the person who has given feedback may help in getting more evidence and receive it in the spirit of learning.
10. Accept feedback that enhances your self-awareness, so ask for it. Feedback is a powerful instrument and it is desirable to have provision for feedback.

4.5 BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

Communication may not always be effective; it is retarded by various factors. There may be several sources of distortion in communication. These problems are called '**Noise**' in communication. Communication barriers can be classified as physical and interpersonal.

Frame of Reference: The previous experience determines how an individual interpret a message. Variation in encoding and decoding processes occur because of individual differences in experience. Research has found that this is the most important factor that breaks down the 'commonness' in communication. Distortion in communication occurs because of differing frames of reference. Different levels in the organization have different frames of reference because their need, values, attitudes and expectation differ, which may result in unintentional distortion of communication.

Selective Perception: There is a general tendency to block out new information if it conflicts with our belief. We are apt to notice only those information that reaffirms our beliefs. Those things that conflict with our preconceived notices, we either do not note at all, or we distort to confirm our preconception.



Filtering: Deliberate manipulation of information to make it appear more favourable to the receiver is called filtering. Vertical levels in the organisation hierarchy provide more opportunity for filtering which is a common occurrence in upward communication. Within organizations, managers are motivated to alter communication in their favour based on organization culture.

Emotion: Receiver's emotion at the time of receipt of a message influences its interpretation. Extreme emotion hinders effective communication, as in that state, we are prone to disregard our rational and objective thinking processes and substitute emotional judgment.

Value Judgments: Assigning an overall worth to a message prior to receiving the entire communication is called value judgment. Value judgments are made by the receiver in every communication situation. Receiver's evaluation of the communication determines value judgment. Source credibility is the trust, confidence and faith the receiver has in the message of the communicator.

Semantic Problems: In communication, common symbols are used for transmission of information. Limitations in the symbols with which we communicate cause semantic barriers. Understanding cannot be transmitted, only information is transmitted in the form of words. The understanding is in the receiver and not in the words, so the same words may have different meaning to different people. Therefore, it is possible that a communicator may speak the same language as a receiver but may still not transmit understanding.

Information Overload: We have a finite capacity for processing data. Information and data are required by managers to perform the vital task of decision making. When the information they have to work with, exceeds processing capacity, the result is information overload. This may result in selection, ignoring the information, passing over or forgetting due to retention capacity. So there is loss of information and less effective communication.

Silence: silence represents inaction or non behaviour but it can be a powerful form of communication. In organizational behaviour, silence is a critical element of group think, in

which it implies agreement with the majority. Failure to pay attention to the silent portion of a conversation can cause missing a vital part of the message.

Poor Timing: Message should be sent at an appropriate time to give receiver adequate time to implement the instruction. Inappropriate timing is a critical barrier in effective communication.

Channel Choice: Choice of channel determines effectiveness of communication, as channel differs in their capacity to convey information. Inappropriate channel choice may result in retarded communication.

Stereotype Effect: Manager may categorise people based on stereotypes, this limits the managers ability to effectively deal with different situations and individuals. This hinders effective communication as it is based on preconceived notions. Similarly power position of on individual in an organisation can affect communication with people at different levels of hierarchy. Restricted communication may result because of gap that may be created due to social distance.

Organisational Structure: Communication is influenced by the organisational structure. If the channels of command and communication are not clear in the organisational structure, communication may not be directed towards the correct person resulting in delayed decision making which is formally prescribed pattern of organization structure of interrelationship between people in organisations.

Cultural Barriers: Communication effectiveness can be adversely affected by cultural differences. Barriers in effective communication may be caused by differences in semantics, word connotations, tone differences etc. Some cultures rely heavily on nonverbal and subtle situational cues while communicating with others, what is not said may be more significant than what is said. A better understanding of cultural barriers results in effective communication. Communication in organizations can be improved in various ways like following up, regulating information flow, utilizing feedback, developing empathy,



repetition, encouraging, mutual trust, effective timing, using simplified language, developing effective listening skills and using the grapevine.

Communication Apprehension: Communication apprehension or anxiety affects communication. Experiencing tension and anxiety in oral or written communication is reported by people suffering from communication apprehensive. Some people may find it extremely difficult to talk with others face to face.

4.6 LET'S SUM-UP:

Decision making and communication are the most crucial skills required by a manager. It is important to understand various models of decision making. Several processes may be involved in decision making as not all decision making is carried out the same way. Variation due to various factors results in different styles of decision making i.e. Directive, Analytic, Conceptual, and Behavioural. Decision in organisational situation very frequently requires consensus. Consensus building can be a powerful tool for enhancing organisational efficiency. Problem solving, Task facilitation and Group building competencies are required for effective consensus building. Communication plays an important role in organisations. The process consists of a number of key elements. Organisational communication takes place in different directions. It can be downward, upward, horizontal and diagonal or through communication networks. Methods of communication include oral, written and non-verbal communication. Feedback plays an important role in organisations. Various barriers to communication exist in organization. It is very important to understand these barriers for enhancing efficiency of managers in organisations.

4.7 Check the Progress

1. What are the types of communication?
2. List the barriers in communication.
3. Enlist the functions of feedback after communication.

4.7 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT-5

WORK GROUP BEHAVIOUR

Highlights of the Unit

- Definition of Group
- Features of group
- Nature of groups
- Characteristics of Group
- Types of Group
- Stages of Group Development
- Theories of Group Development/ Formation
- Types of group roles
- Group efficiency
- Group Decision Making Process and tools
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Reading

5.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this module, the learners will

- Recognize the importance of group approach in extension and
- Understand the tools for group decision making

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Extension through group approach is gaining tremendous importance due to its effectiveness in enhancing the adoption of farm technologies. The cost per effort, convincing role, face to face interaction and immediate impact are the greater advantages of group extension approach. The work group behaviour often decides its performance and therefore, it is vital to understand the concepts, techniques and utility of work group behaviour in agricultural extension.

Group work can stimulate creativity, help people relax, improve morality, and create relationships and bonds. Many people and farmers feel comfortable and enjoy listening and communicating in the small group settings (Gorse and Sansderon, 2007). But there could be cases where group work can invoke fear, generate boredom and make people dissatisfied and annoyed (McCroskey, 1997). Hence, a vivid picture of these positive and antagonistic views could help to understand work group behaviour which can accelerate the agricultural extension work.

5.1.1 Basics of Work Group Behaviour

Work group behavior can be defined as attitude, feeling and thought of people working together in a group to achieve a predefined goal. It is guided by certain rules and regulations which may or may not be so with an individual.

Two Types of Work Group Behaviour

- **Communal Labour:** This refers to a situation where members in a group jointly carry out a task beneficial to the entire organisation. It is constructive or positive group behaviour.
- **Mass Action:** It is the reaction of the group members towards management's action or inaction through peaceful protest or violent demonstration. It is destructive or negative group behaviour.

5.2 DEFINING GROUP

When two persons or more come together and interact at one place it may be called as group. Few important definitions as given below reflect one or the other important features of the group.

- A social group is a given aggregate of people playing inter-related roles and recognized by themselves or others as a unit of interaction (R.M. Williams, 1951).
- A social group is any collection of human beings who are brought into human relationships with one another (Maclver and Page, 1959).

- A social group consist of two or more individuals who are interrelated to perform performs some functions and possess a standard set of the role relationship among them which regulate the function of the group and each of its members (Ponnusamy and Kale, 2019).

Thus, group is an aggregate of some people with certain roles and social relationship of group members with each other and is considered as unit.

5.3 IMPORTANT FEATURES OF GROUP

The important features of group are:

- Two or more individuals come together and influence each other.
- Social interactions and relationships take place amongst the members of a group.
- There exists some common motives, drives, interests and emotions among group members.
- Both verbal and or non-verbal communication occurs among group members.
- The group members have some common object of attention and group members stimulate each other.
- They have common loyalty and participate in similar activities.
- The action of the members is influenced by the group.

5.4 NATURE OF GROUPS

Different approaches explain the nature of the group differently as indicated below.

- **Perception approach:** People who see themselves as a part of group constitute a group. Mature groups have a degree of member interdependence and motivation to achieve common goals.
- **Organization approach:** This approach emphasizes the group characteristics in defining a group: an organized system of individuals who are connected with one another.

- **Motivation approach:** This approach implies a group as a collection of individuals whose collective existence satisfies needs.
- **Interaction approach:** Two or more individuals interacting with each other in order to accomplish a common goal forms a group.

Why People Join Groups?

- **The satisfaction of needs:** Group members can fulfil their following need:
 - Social needs - groups provide a vehicle for interacting with other.
 - Security needs - groups can act as an effective buffer between the members and the stresses of the organization/ society.
 - Esteem needs - often fulfilled by the prestige of the group that group membership conveys on the member.
- **Proximity and Interdependence (Two facets of interpersonal relationships)**
 - Proximity involves the physical walking distance between people performing a job in the group. Interdependence prompts group formation because of perceptual, attitudinal, performance, or motivational similarities.
- **Group goal:** Individuals join groups because they are involved to the group's goals.
Eg. Self Help Group
- **Economic reasons:** Individuals join groups because they believe membership will result in economic betterment. Eg. Farmers club of NABARD

5.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUP

Characteristics can be defined as a quality or features that distinguish one from other and is specific and indicative of a distinctive quality.

- **A sense of togetherness/ we-feeling:** The feeling of belongingness among the members of the group helps them in performing their duties and work collectively against all odds. They always try to make the group self-sufficient.

- **Common interest:** Each and every member of the group has a common interest which also promotes unity.
- **A feeling of unity:** Members of the group treat each other as their own and thereby developing a sense of camaraderie among them.
- **Related to each other:** Reciprocal communication strengthens the social relations among the group members.
- **Influence of group characteristics:** Every group has some social characteristics which separate it from similar and dissimilar groups. These characteristics affect the members of the group. The nature may be different for different persons, but still all the members are affected by the group
- **Common values:** There are certain values which are common among members and are traditionally respected and communicated to the succeeding generation. Members of the social group are bound together in terms of these common values.
- **Control of group:** In each group, there are some customs, norms and procedures which are acceptable to everyone. The reasons behind the similarity of behaviours in a group life imply that the actions of the members are controlled by the group (Ponnusamy *et al*, 2017).
- **Obligation:** The complimentary obligations of group members strengthen the mutual relationship and common social values.
- **Expectations:** Not only mutual obligations, the members of the group also expect love, compassion, empathy and co-operation from all other members of the group. A group can maintain its existence only if the constituent members fulfil their responsibility by satisfying the desires among themselves.

5.6 TYPES OF GROUP

The groups can be classified in different ways as described in the following manner:

5.6.1 Based on the Degree of Intimacy

- **Primary group:** Intimate face-to-face relationship and having maximum 'we feeling' can be observed among the members of the group. Family, play groups and village community come under this category.
- **Secondary group:** Here, the relationships are more or less casual and marked by common interest. Farmers Producers Company and trade unions belong to this category.

OR

- **In-group/ we group:** Here, groups are represented by a common object, common interest and a sense of 'we' feeling. The members of the in-groups treat others as outsiders. These groups can be formed on the basis of relationship, same country, similar political interests and economic interests etc.
- **Out-group:** It is the group in which the members are considered as outsiders. Groups other than the in-group are generally called out-groups. Eg. Cooperative society treats non-members as outsiders.

5.6.2 On the basis of Norms and Rules

- **Formal group:** It is generally formed on the basis of specific norms, rules and values. The group of students in a classroom comes under the category of formal group. So, college is one of the formal group settings.
- **Informal group:** The nature of the group is not formed at all. The rules are usually flexible. Play groups, peer group and social clubs etc. are examples of informal groups.

Another type of group is called as spontaneous group such as college team, army unit and audience in the farmers meeting. Spontaneous time period is must task group.

5.7 STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Group Development is the process of forming association of people to work together and direct their actions towards the accomplishment of a common goal. The work of each group

member is interdependent and hence the performance of one will affect the entire group's performance. It is synonymous with terms like 'group formation' or 'team building'.

Stages of Group Development

Different stages of group development could be visualised while dealing with the task.

Bruce Tuckman (1965) described five stage model for group development as below:

Table 5.1 Five stage model for group development

S. No.	Stages of Group Development	Description of each stage
1.	Forming-Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High dependence on leader for guidance and direction • Little agreement on team aims other than those received from the leader • Individual roles and responsibilities are unclear • Leader must be prepared to answer lots of questions about the team's purpose, • Objectives, and external relationships • Members test the tolerance of system and leader • Leader directs
2.	Storming-Power Struggle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decisions don't come easily within group • Team members vie for positions • Clarity of purpose increases but plenty of uncertainties persist • Cliques and factions form and there may be power struggles • The team needs to focus on its goals to avoid becoming distracted by relationships and emotional issues • Compromises may be required to enable progress • • Leader coaches
3.	Norming - Cooperation and Integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agreement and consensus are largely formed among members • Roles and responsibilities are clear and accepted • Big decisions are made by group agreement and smaller decisions may be delegated to individuals or

		<p>small teams within group</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitment and unity are strong • The team may engage in social activities • The team discusses and develops its processes and working style • There is general respect for the leader • Leader facilitates and enables
4.	Performing-Synergy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The team is more strategically aware • There is a focus on achieving goals, and the team makes most of the decisions against criteria agreed by the leader and the team • Disagreements occur but now they are resolved within the team positively • The team is able to work towards achieving the goal • Team members look after each other • The team leader delegates tasks and projects as well as oversees • The team does not need to be instructed or assisted • • Team members might ask for assistance from the leader with personal and inter-personal development
5.	Adjourning-Closure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involves the termination of task behaviour and disengagement from group relationships • Establish closing procedures with the group • Help design closing ritual or ceremonies • Discuss endings with members and encourage them to talk about how they feel • Provide a vehicle for people to say what they appreciate about each other • • End with a celebration that honours the group and its members

It should be noted that the fifth stage “Adjourning” was added to group development stage in 1977 by Tuckman himself (Tuckman and Jensen, 1977).

5.8 THEORIES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT/FORMATION

There are several theories regarding group formation and development. The theories explained here are classic theory, social exchange and social identity theory.

i) **Classic Theory:** A classic theory, developed by George Homans (1961) suggests that groups develop on the basis of activities, interactions and sentiments mainly. Basically, this theory indicates that when individuals share common activities, they will have more interaction and will develop either positive or negative attitudes toward each other. The main element is the interaction of the individuals involved.

ii) **Social Exchange Theory:** This theory stresses that individual form the relationship on the basis of implicit expectation of mutually beneficial exchanges based on trust and felt obligation. It can further be said that a perception that exchange relationships will be positive if persons are to be attracted to and affiliate with a group.

iii) **Social Identity Theory:** This theory suggests that individuals get a sense of identity and self-esteem based on their membership in salient groups. The group is demographically, culturally and socially connected.

5.9 TYPES OF GROUP ROLES

In any group, members tend to perform three major types of roles namely task oriented, relationship oriented and self-oriented roles which play critical role in success of any group. Task-oriented roles refer to behaviours directed toward the achievement of a group goal which includes initiator, recorder, coordinator, guider, information seeker/giver, summariser, critic and orienter. Relationship oriented roles or maintenance-oriented roles signify behaviours concerned with the relationship between group members which include encourager, follower, gate keepers, standard setters, harmonizer and observer. Self-oriented or individual roles imply someone who cares only about themselves and may undermine the people playing the other roles which include aggressor, blocker, recognition seekers, attacker, distracter, deserter, dominator and playboy or girl.

Each of these roles is part of the group process. Which role a person plays depends his/her abilities, personality and preferences. Some may fill more than one role, at the same time or over a period of time.

5.10 GROUP EFFICIENCY

Group efficiency is increased due to its dynamics especially how the group norms are evolved, maintained and how the conflicts are managed for its sustainability.

5.10.1 Group Norms

Group norms represent description of social standards or rules which are expected to be performed by members in a social setting. These norms are widely accepted, unwritten, and unspoken. Informal rules are adopted to regulate and regularize group members' behaviours and do not govern all behaviours, except those a groups feels are important for their effective performance.

5.10.2 Group Cohesiveness

This implies the extent to which group members like and trusts one another and keeps a group together. The various factors which affect group cohesiveness include group homogeneity, stability of membership, isolation, outside pressure, group size and group status. Certain interpersonal loops tie the group together which are especially important for job satisfaction, work commitment etc.

5.10.3 Group Consensus

Consensus decision making signifies decision making based on 100% member agreement would strengthen the group solidarity. The advantages of consensus are working from a broad knowledge base, acceptance of decision by members, critical analysis of decision and sorting out the problems while disadvantages of consensus decision making are slow process, inter-group conflict and possibility of dominance of certain members of group.

5.10.4 Group synergy Vs Ringelmann effect

Synergy denotes the combined power of a group when they are working together that is greater than the total power achieved by each working separately. It is also stated as "the whole is greater than the sum of its parts". Effective groups actively try to look for the points in which they disagreed and in consequence encouraged conflicts amongst the

members in the early stages of the discussion. But, the ineffective groups try to find a need to establish a common view quickly and focus on completing the task rather than on finding amicable solutions they could agree on.

The Ringelmann effect refers to individuals expending less individual effort on a task when working as part of a group than when working alone. Experts opine that there are coordination loss, motivational loss and relational loss. It is also known as social loafing. However, the studies indicate that several variables have been found to moderate or mediate the extent to which individuals will tend to loaf while performing a group task. A few of these variables are identifiability, personal relevance, group cohesiveness, and task interdependence. For instance, individuals are less likely to decrease their individual effort within a group if they believe their individual effort is identifiable, the group task has some personal relevance for the individual, the group is more cohesive or tight-knit and successful completion of a task depends on the effort of all group members. Use of effective communication tools, providing frequent feedback, promoting transparency and showing gratitude, appreciation and as well as responding to distress signals are likely to reduce the Ringelmann effect in any group. The magic number for the most effective groups varies, falling anywhere between four to nine, and more often six or seven.

5.10.5 What does make/break a great group?

Groups are complex dynamic systems that encounter many challenges. Organisations such as NABARD, rural livelihood missions, NGOs and line departments of government create number of groups which often break or fail to reach their full potential despite their best efforts. The major attributed reasons are lack of clear purpose and role, lack of trust among members, lack of accountability and shared leadership, fixed mindset, poor decision making and lack of adequate resources.

The group members may be located at different places making it difficult for them to meet frequently. Members do not participate in setting goals. It reduces the commitment of the group members. Poor defining of responsibilities leads to ambiguity as well as lack of

commitment. Members refuse to recognize their interdependence and act as if they were independent. This will lead to the failure of the group. Meetings are unproductive where negligible points are debated continuously. This leads to waste of time and energy. Members are unwilling to be identified with the group. There is disguised conflict between the group members as well as severe personality conflicts. Relationships are competitive.

5.11 GROUP DECISION MAKING PROCESS

Group decision can simply be understood as a process of aggregating different individual preferences on a given set of alternatives to a single collective preference. It is also called as ‘Collective Decision Making’. The decision made is not attributable to any single individual member of the group.

Effective Group Decision Making involves following steps:

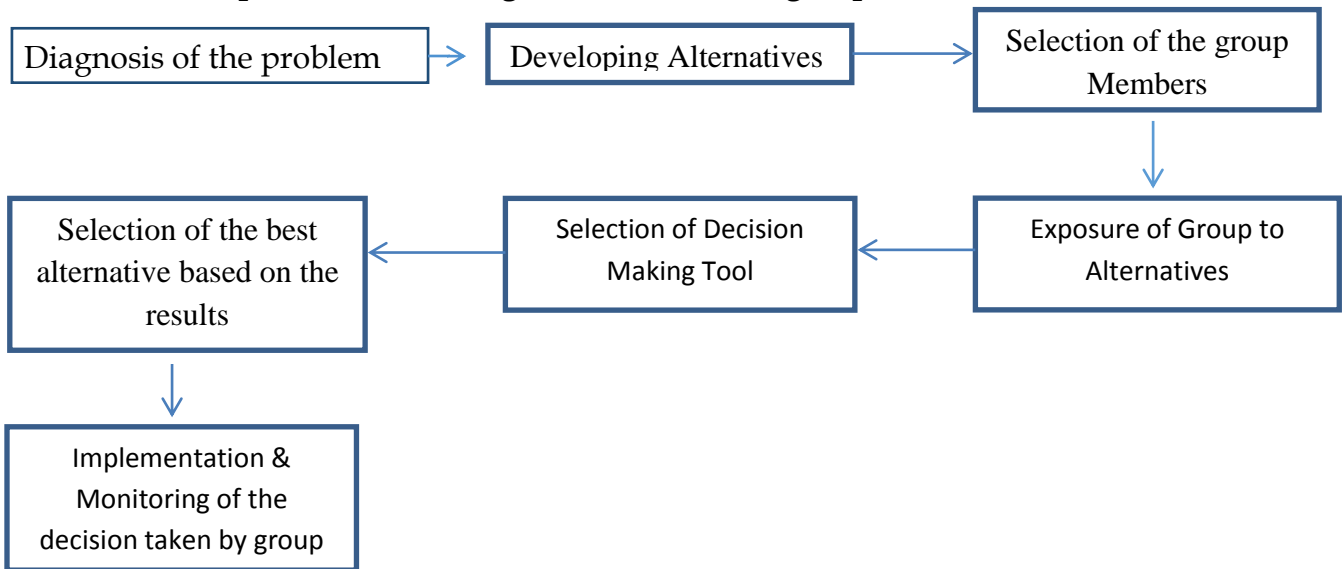


Figure 1: Steps for effective Group Decision Making (Source: Author)

5.11.1 Factors Affecting Effective Group Decision Making

- **Group size:** A group with five to seven members is more ideal rather than too large or small.



- **Group Composition:** Group Decision gets influenced by the opinion of group members with higher status.
- **Unanimity of Group Consensus:** A united group exerts more pressure to confirm than a group divided by disagreement.
- **The Risky Shift:** People tend to make more risky decision as a group, rather than as an individual.

5.11.2. Tools for Group Decision Making

The process of decision making in group is a difficult task and needs certain formal well standardised tools for analyzing and prioritizing the best available options.

5.11.2.1. Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

It is a group consensus-building and ranking technique for facilitating group decision making and useful for data collection. The term 'nominal' used here signifies bringing together of a group for the purpose of pooling ideas around a particular issue and then ranking of those generated ideas is done. The technique provides a structured process for working with group members to prioritize their ideas, concerns, or other decision inputs in a format that is both inclusive and consensus-building. Nominal Group Technique (NGT) can be defined as a weighted ranking method that enables a group to generate and prioritize a large number of ideas related to issues within the group structure that ensures everyone an equal voice.

When to Use Nominal Group Technique

- When a group needs to create a list of options and rank them
- When the group is dealing with controversial or emotional issues
- When a group is stuck or there is no consensus among the group members

How to Use Nominal Group Technique

NGT is conducted in two parts; part 1 deals with steps required for letting the group know about the issue and then for the team to generate ideas on the same; part 2 involves steps

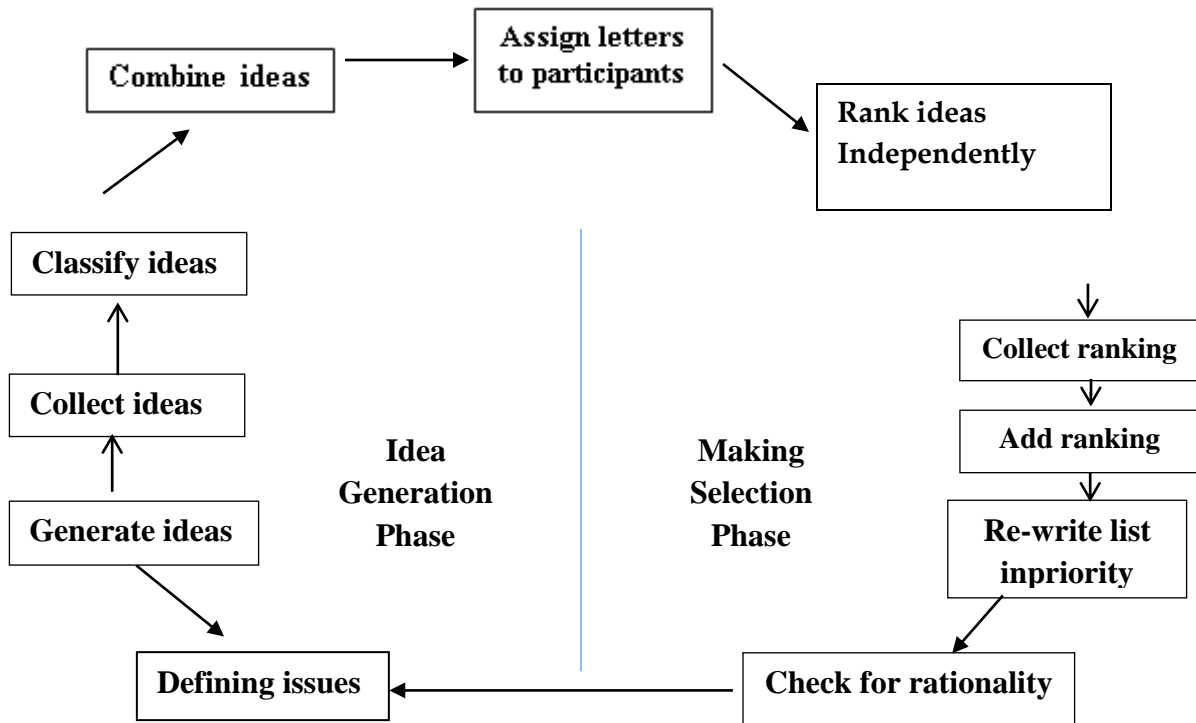


Figure 2: Steps involved in Nominal Group Technique (Sources: Author with slight

2.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Technique

Table 5.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Technique

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Everyone in the group is given an opportunity to contribute to the discussion and decision thus, ruling out the situation where one person dominates the group process. ✓ The nominal group technique can be used with small as well as with larger groups. ✓ The method gives sense of priority concerns to the group members. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Synergism between group members is difficult to develop. ✓ The NGT may sound mechanical to some participants. ✓ Although nominal group technique can be used with a range of group sizes, it is hard to implement the technique.

5.11.2.3 Other Tools for Group Decision Making

Table 3 Tools for Group Decision Making

S.No.	Name of the Tool	Description
1.	Brainstorming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ In this method, group generates ideas in the form of free association. ✓ The primary focus is on generation of ideas rather than on evaluation of ideas. ✓ It involves two phases: Green phases (phase of unlimited idea generation) and Red phase (phase of idea selection)
2.	Delphi Technique	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The Delphi is an iterative process of data collection and analysis designed to search for consensus among the anonymous experts by a series of intensive questionnaires interspersed with controlled feedback
3.	Fishbone Diagram	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Fishbone diagrams provide a structure for a group's discussion about the potential causes of a problem. ✓ The fishbone diagram is called so because of its resemblance to a fish skeleton (cause and effect diagram) that can be used to identify the potential cause(s) for a performance problem.
4.	Fault Tree Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ A fault tree analysis (FTA) is a step-by-step procedure that is used to logically identify, evaluate, and quantify potential problem causes for a performance gap (failure) in a system and to determine strategies for preventing these causes.

5.	Concept Mapping	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Concept mapping is a method used to make a visual representation (a picture or a map) of concepts or ideas and to illustrate their relationships which further helps in decision making. ✓ Terms such as mind map, and idea map are essentially synonymous with the term concept map.
6.	Future Wheel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The future wheel is a future-oriented technique. Future wheel activities are conducted to help participants analyse and explore effects of a trend, event, circumstance, or issue. ✓ Future wheels are laid out as graphic depictions with the future event in a circle in the centre, the first-order effects of the event comes out from this circle placed at centre, the second-order effects comes out from second circle and so on.
7.	Performance Pyramid	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Given by John Wedman (2010) ✓ The performance pyramid is a framework for ensuring that all possible alternatives are addressed under each component of decision making

5.12 LET'S SUM UP

The technology dissemination is currently given more impetus by developing more of the groups through different organisations. Farmers join different groups for satisfaction of their needs, interdependence and economic goals. The sustenance of various groups with their intended purpose is becoming a greater challenge and concern for development agencies especially in agriculture where government is vigorously promoting producer companies and custom hiring centres. It is important to understand the reasons for breaking up of groups in order to save considerable time, money and energy. The various



stages of group development, their characteristics and techniques for better group decision making can immensely facilitate the planners and extension functionaries for speeding up the efforts of technology transfer in agriculture.

5.13 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1.	The work group behaviour implies _____ working together in a group to achieve a predefined goal		
A	Attitude	C	Feeling
B	Thought of people	D	All of the above

2.	One of the following is a feature of group _____		
A	Common motives, drives and emotions	C	Superiority complex
B	Inner feelings	D	None of the above

3.	Which approach implies a group as a collection of individuals whose collective existence satisfies needs?		
A	Perception approach	C	Organisation approach
B	Motivation approach	D	Interaction approach

4.	Which one of the following represents the prestige of the group		
A	Social need	C	Esteem need
B	Security need	D	All of the above

5.	Farmer producer company can be categorised under _____		
A	Secondary group	C	In-group
B	Primary group	D	We group

6.	Which one of the following is expected by group members?		
A	Love and compassion	C	Empathy
B	Co-operation	D	All of the above

7.	Spontaneous groups represent _____		
A	College team	C	Army unit
B	Audience in the farmers' meeting	D	All of the above

8.	Spontaneous time period is must in _____		
A	Commodity interest group	C	Spontaneous group
B	Trade union group	D	Task group

9.	Who described five stage model for group development _____		
A	Bruce Tuckman	C	Robbins, P S
B	McCroskey	D	Gorse, C A

10.	In which stage, members of the group test the tolerance of system and leader _____		
A	Storming	C	Norming
B	Performing	D	Forming

11.	Clarity of purpose increases but plenty of uncertainties persist in _____ stage		
A	Storming	C	Norming
B	Performing	D	Forming



12.	While big decisions are made by group agreement, smaller decisions may be delegated to individuals or small teams within group in _____ stage		
A	Storming	C	Norming
B	Performing	D	Forming

13.	In _____ stage, the team does not need to be instructed or assisted.		
A	Storming	C	Norming
B	Performing	D	Forming

14.	In _____ stage, members get an opportunity to appreciate each other after the accomplishment of the purpose for which the group was formed.		
A	Storming	C	Norming
B	Performing	D	Adjourning

15.	The main reason for breaking up of a group is		
A	Poor trust among members	C	Disguised conflict
B	Lack of clear purpose	D	All of them

16.	The main element in classic theory of group development is _____		
A	Perception	C	Self esteem
B	Interaction	D	None of the above

17.	Effective group development is possible if there is a _____		
A	Rotation of group responsibility	C	Monitoring of ground rules
B	Periodic revisiting of group mission	D	All of the above

18.	The ideal group size is _____ which can ensure effective decision making		
A	18-20	C	5-7
B	22-30	D	31-35

19.	Which tool will be more helpful when a team needs to create a list of options and rank them_____		
A	Multi criteria analysis	C	Summated ratings
B	Normative group technique	D	Pair-wise comparison

20.	Which technique is more concerned about anonymous experts for decision making?		
A	Fishbone diagram	C	Brainstorming
B	Concept mapping	D	Delphi technique

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UNIT-6

TEAM BUILDING AND CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Highlights of the Unit

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Groups and Teams Differences
- Types of Teams
- Types of Teams
- Stages in Team Development
- Conflict Management
- Negotiation Skills
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Reading

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After end of the unit, the successful student should be in a position to -

- a) Describe the team building process.
- b) Differentiate between different approaches and steps in team building.
- c) Compare conflict management through collaboration, cooperation, competition, withdrawing and accommodation.
- d) Discuss collective bargaining and different negotiation skills in conflict resolution.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Teams and team work are the key to productivity and improvement in quality of working life in the new work place. Team work is an essential ingredient and a major benchmark of successful extension organizations. Teams are a proven valuable asset to those extension institutions that have learnt to build them and then look after them. The coming years will gain momentum in high-intensity collaboration and team work as teams



bring together knowledge, skills, and experiences which collectively exceed those of individuals.

Team work results in creative accomplishment and innovation with a 'third fresh eye'. Teams can respond to challenging proposals more readily and can also result in higher motivation and enthusiasm emanating in encouragement of cross functional working. A team rather than an individual can increase personal and organizational effectiveness. Individual biases are overcome in teams. Teams meet psychological needs of being with others and there is improved learning & decision-making. The process of team building necessarily generate commitment and satisfy important membership needs. Teams are great tools for implementation, better discipline and control of individual members.

They prevent steep hierarchy and individuals from getting lost in the crowd. Members are happier and more satisfied in a team since there is personal growth and quality of work is superior.

6.2 GROUPS AND TEAMS DIFFERENCES

A group is a collection of two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives. Groups can be either formal or informal. A formal group is defined by the organization's structure, with designated work assignments establishing tasks whereas, an informal group is neither formally structured nor organizationally determined. They are natural formations in the work environment that appear in response to the need for social contact. A work group is a group that interacts primarily to share information and make decisions to help each member perform within his or her area of responsibility. Work groups have no need or opportunity to engage in collective work that requires joint effort. So their performance is merely the summation of each group member's individual contribution. There is no positive synergy that would create an overall level of performance greater than the sum of the inputs. Work groups and

work teams are not the same thing as a work team generates positive synergy through coordinated effort. Work team is therefore, defined as a group whose individual efforts result in performance that is greater than the sum of the individual inputs. The Management increasingly looks for positive synergy that allows the organization to increase its overall performance. The extensive use of teams creates the potential for an organization to generate greater outputs with no increase in inputs. The following diagram (Fig. 1) succinctly distinguishes a work team from a work group:

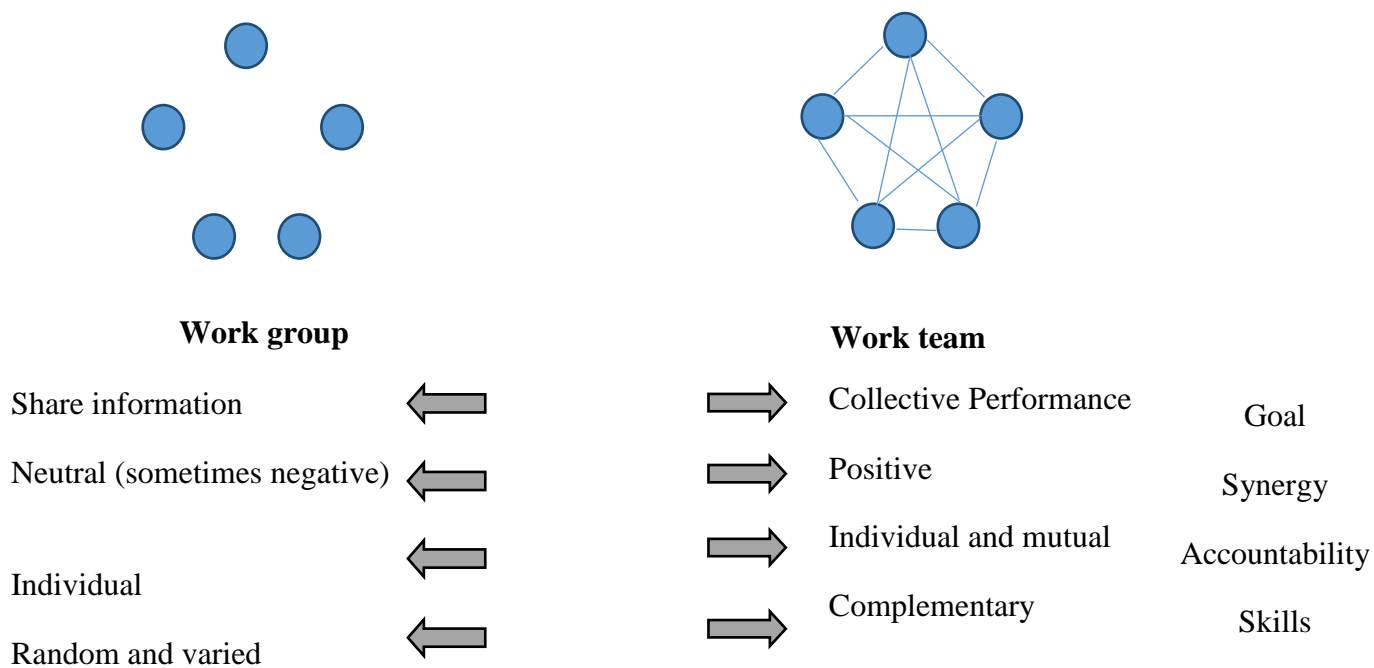


Fig. 1: Comparing work groups and work teams (adopted from Robbins and Judge, 2013)

6.3 TYPES OF TEAMS

Teams can make products, provide services, negotiate deals, coordinate projects, offer advice, and make decisions. In this section, we describe the four most common types of teams in an organization: problem-solving teams, self-managed work teams, cross-functional teams, and virtual teams.



Problem-Solving Teams

A problem solving team comprises 5 to 12 employees from the same department who meet for a few hours each week to discuss ways of improving quality, efficiency, and the work environment. These teams rarely have the authority to unilaterally implement any of their suggestions as they only make recommendations. Some organizations have gone further and created teams those not only solve problems but implements solutions and take responsibility for outcomes.

Self-managed work teams

Self-managed work teams are groups of employees (typically 10 to 15 in number) who perform highly related or interdependent jobs and take on many of the responsibilities of their former supervisors. Typically, these tasks are planning and scheduling work, assigning tasks to members, making operating decisions, taking action on problems, and working with different stakeholders. Fully self-managed work teams even select their own members and evaluate each other's performance. Supervisory positions take on decreased importance and are sometimes even eliminated. However, the self-managed teams suffer from some drawbacks:

- (1) They do not typically manage conflicts well. When disputes arise, members stop cooperating and power struggles ensue, which leads to lower group performance.
- (2) Although individuals on these teams report higher levels of job satisfaction than other individuals, they also sometimes have higher absenteeism and turnover rates.

Cross-functional teams

Employees from about the same hierarchical level, but from different work areas, who come together to accomplish a task form cross-functional teams. Many organizations have used horizontal, boundary-spanning groups for decades. The teams are the equivalent of social-networking groups that collaborate in real time to identify new business opportunities in the field and then implement them from the bottom up. Cross-functional

teams are an effective means of allowing people from diverse areas within or even between organizations to exchange information, develop new ideas, solve problems, and coordinate complex projects. Their early stages of development are often long, as members learn to work with diversity and complexity. It takes time to build trust and teamwork, especially among people from different backgrounds with different experiences and perspectives.

Virtual Teams

The teams described in the preceding section do their work face to face. Virtual teams use computer technology to unite physically dispersed members and achieve a common goal. They collaborate online—using communication links such as wide-area networks, videoconferencing, or e-mail—whether they're a room away or continents apart. Virtual teams are so pervasive, and technology has advanced so far, that it's probably a bit of a misnomer to call them virtual. Nearly all teams today do at least some of their work remotely. Despite their ubiquity, virtual teams face special challenges. They may suffer because there is less social rapport and direct interaction among members. Evidence found that virtual teams are better at sharing unique information (information held by individual members but not the entire group), but they tend to share less information overall. As a result, low levels of virtuality in teams' results in higher levels of information sharing, but high levels of virtuality hinder it. For virtual teams to be effective, management should ensure that –

- (1) Trust is established among members, e.g., one inflammatory remark in an e-mail can severely undermine team trust),
- (2) Team progress is monitored closely, so the team doesn't lose sight of its goals and no team member disappears, and
- (3) The efforts and products of the team are publicized throughout the organization, so the team does not become invisible.



Multi-team systems

Multi-team systems (MTSs) refer to 'teams-of-teams' organizational form. MTSs is defined as two or more teams that interface directly and interdependently in response to environmental contingencies toward the accomplishment of collective goals. MTS boundaries are defined by virtue of the fact that all teams within the system, while pursuing different proximal goals, share at least one common distal goal; and in doing so exhibit input, process, and outcome interdependence with at least one other team in the system. MTSs is described in terms of their goal hierarchies, the nature of their operating environments, their component teams' interdependencies, and how they operate over time in an episodic framework.

6.4 HOW TO CREATE EFFECTIVE TEAMS

Teamwork is preferable to individual work particularly to solve complex problems. Accordingly, teams differ in form and structure. Creating effective teams requires understanding the available resources within the organization and contextual influences. A team's composition and the process of functioning also exerts great influence on its effectiveness. The following description may act as a guide to understand creating an effective team.

Clear objective

Effective teams begin by analyzing the team's mission, developing goals to achieve that mission, and creating strategies for achieving the goals. Teams that consistently perform better have established a clear sense of what needs to be done and how. Successful teams translate their common purpose into specific, measurable, and realistic objectives. Specific and clear objectives facilitate clear communication. They also help teams maintain their focus on getting results. Team objectives should always be challenging. Difficult but achievable objectives raise team performance on those criteria for which they are set. So, for instance, goals for quantity tend to raise quantity, goals for accuracy raise accuracy, and so on.

Clarity of specific roles and responsibilities

Members of successful teams put a tremendous amount of time and effort into discussing, shaping, and agreeing on a purpose that belongs to them both collectively and individually. Teams have different needs, and members should be selected to ensure all the various roles are filled. We can identify nine potential team roles: creator (initiates creative ideas), promoter (champions ideas after initiated), assessor (offers insightful analysis of options), organizer (provides structure), producer (provides direction and follow-through), controller (examines details and enforces rules), maintainer (fights external battles), adviser (encourages search for necessary information), and linker (coordinates and integrates). Successful work teams selects people to play all these roles based on their skills and preferences.

Competent leadership

Teams can hardly function without agreeing upon who is to do what and without ensuring all members share the workload. Agreeing on the specific activities to be undertaken by each of the team members requires competent leadership either from management or from the team members themselves. It is true in self-managed teams that team members absorb many of the duties typically assumed by managers. However, a manager's job then becomes managing outside, rather than inside the team. Leadership is especially important in multi-team systems in which different teams coordinate their efforts to produce a desired outcome. Here, leaders need to empower teams by delegating responsibility to them, and they play the role of facilitator, making sure the teams work together rather than against one another. Teams that establish shared leadership by effectively delegating it are more effective than teams with a traditional single-leader structure.

Adequate resources

Teams are part of a larger organizational system. For accomplishing each and every work, team relies on resources outside the group to sustain it. A scarcity of resources



directly reduces the ability of a team to perform its job effectively and achieve its goals. One of the most important characteristics of an effective team is the support the group receives from the organization. This support includes timely information, proper equipment, adequate staffing, encouragement, and administrative assistance.

Competent members

Part of a team's performance depends on the knowledge, skills, and abilities of its individual members although, a team's performance is not merely the summation of its individual members' abilities. However, these abilities set limits on what members can do and how effectively they will perform in a team. High-ability members are more adaptable to changing situations; they can more effectively apply existing knowledge to new problems. Many of the dimensions identified in the personality models are also relevant to team effectiveness. Specifically, members who rate higher on mean levels of conscientiousness and openness to experience tend to perform better within a team. The minimum level of team member agreeableness also matters: teams do worse when they have one or more highly disagreeable members.

Collaboration within team members

Not every employee is a team player. Given the option, many employees will select themselves out of team participation. When people who prefer to work alone are required to team up, there is a direct threat to the team's morale and to individual member satisfaction. Therefore, when selecting team members, extension managers should consider individual preferences along with abilities, personalities, and skills for harnessing better collaboration within team members. High-performing teams comprise collaborative team members, and are composed of people who prefer working as part of a group.

Commitment of members

Effective teams have members who believe in the team's capabilities and are committed to a common plan and purpose. Explanations increase team members' commitment and

support of decisions. Team members' commitment to the organization is strengthened when the leaders are seen as embodying the values and identity of the organization.

Climate of trust

Trust is the foundation of leadership. It allows a team to accept and commit to its leader's goals and decisions. Members of effective teams trust each other. They also exhibit trust in their leaders. Interpersonal trust among team members facilitates cooperation, reduces the need to monitor each other's behavior, and bonds members around the belief that others on the team won't take advantage of them. Team members are more likely to take risks and expose vulnerabilities when they believe they can trust others on their team.

Innovativeness and Creativity of members

Innovativeness and creativity of the extension manager, and team members help in finding innovative solutions to the organizational activities and team conflicts. Openness to experience, experimentation and flexibility fosters innovativeness and divergent thinking among team members.

Reward System

Individual performance evaluations and incentives may interfere with the development of high-performance teams. So, in addition to evaluating and rewarding employees for their individual contributions, extension organizations should modify the traditional, individually oriented evaluation and reward system to reflect team performance and focus on hybrid systems that recognize individual members for their exceptional contributions and reward the entire group for positive outcomes. Group based appraisals, profit sharing, gains sharing, small-group incentives, and other system modifications can reinforce team effort and commitment.



6.5 STAGES IN TEAM DEVELOPMENT

Teams go through various stages and the duration of each stage depends upon experience, maturity, complexity of task, leadership pattern etc. The following stages are crucial in building an effective team (Tuckman 1965):

1. **Forming** - Team acquaints and establishes ground rules. The members also decide whether they want to work together for a common purpose. This stage is also known as 'confusion stage' and 'awareness stage.'
2. **Storming** - Members resist control and show hostility, disagreements and frustrations. Conflict followed by clarification is characteristic feature of this stage.
3. **Norming** -Members work together developing close relationships and feeling of camaraderie. Understanding on resolving conflicts, reaching decisions, measuring work completion, handling communications and managing meetings develops in this stage. This stage is characterized by cooperation, involvement and support.
4. **Performing** -Team members work towards getting their job done. Commitment, consensus, achievements and pride are common in this stage.
5. **Adjourning** - Team may disband on achieving their goals. Separation, recognition and satisfaction distinguishes this stage.

6.6 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Conflict is a topic of increasing importance in all human systems. It is inevitable and ever present in our lives. About 24 - 42 percent of the time of managers is spent dealing with conflicts. Dealing successfully with conflicts is a daily challenge for most the extension professionals. Since conflict is inevitable, bound to happen, then the next important point is to understand and manage it. There is a need for effective and productive ways of managing conflicts

Definition of Conflict

Conflict occurs when two or more parties (individuals, groups, organizations, nations) perceive mutually exclusive goals, values or events. Conflict is that behaviour of organization members which is expended in opposition to other members (Thompson 1960). Conflict is a process in which an effort is purposively made by one person or unit to block another that results in frustrating the attainment of the other's goals or the frustrating of his or her interests.

The Traditional and Interactionist View of Conflict

The early approach to conflict assumed all conflict was bad and to be avoided. Conflict was viewed negatively and discussed with such terms as violence, destruction, and irrationality to reinforce its negative connotation. This traditional view of conflict was consistent with attitudes about group behavior that prevailed in the 1930s and 1940s. Conflict was a dysfunctional outcome resulting from poor communication, a lack of openness and trust between people, and the failure of managers to be responsive to the needs and aspirations of their employees. The view that all conflict is bad certainly offers a simple approach to looking at the behavior of people who create conflict. We need to merely direct our attention to the causes of conflict and correct those malfunctions to improve group and organizational performance. This view of conflict fell out of favor for a long time as researchers came to realize that some level of conflict was inevitable.

The interactionist view of conflict encourages conflict on the grounds that a harmonious, peaceful, tranquil, and cooperative group is prone to becoming static, apathetic, and unresponsive to needs for change and innovation. The major contribution of this view is recognizing that a minimal level of conflict can help keep a group viable, self-critical, and creative. The interactionist view does not propose that all conflicts are good. Rather, functional conflict supports the goals of the group and improves its performance and is, thus, a constructive form of conflict. A conflict that hinders group performance is a destructive or dysfunctional conflict. What differentiates functional from dysfunctional

conflict? The evidence indicates that we need to look at the type of conflict – whether it's connected to task, relationship, or process.

6.6.1 The basis and sources of Conflict in Extension Organizations

There are several sources or basis of conflicts in extension organizations as given below:

Self-interest: The extension managers and other functionaries may have self-interests which may be in contrast, and supersede the team interest.

Different goals and resources: The goals and resources under control among different levels of extension managers, are different.

Values and emotions: There are deep differences in values and emotions among extension functionaries and managers.

Personality of people: There are differences between employees in terms of their styles and personalities.

Problems and causes: There are differences in perception about problems in the workplace and their causes.

Strategies and solutions: There is disagreement over how goals are achieved or how problems are solved using different strategies and solutions.

6.6.2 Types of conflicts

Different types of conflicts are given below:

Institutional conflict: It arises due to differences that result because of the structural relationships, e.g., inter-departmental conflicts.

Inter-personal conflict: It arises due to personality differences, value difference, and faulty communication.

Vertical conflict: It arises between hierarchical levels.

Horizontal conflict: It arises within the same hierarchy, line – staff.

Intra group conflict: When conflict arises within a group among the group members, it is called intra-group conflict.

Inter-group conflict: When conflict arises between different groups within the same organization, it is called inter-group conflict.

Role conflict: When simultaneous demands are made by two superiors at a time, it is known as role conflict.

Issue conflict: Such conflicts are mainly related to solution to the problems of objectives and methods.

Interaction conflict: It arises when others' success and failure is viewed differently from one's own.

6.6.3 Stages and Process of Conflict

The arousal of conflict follows certain stages. The important stages are discussed below:

Stage I: Latent conflict- At this stage, the basic conditions for potential conflicts exist but have not yet been recognized.

Stage II: Perceived conflict- The cause of the conflict is recognized by one or both of the participants at this stage.

Stage III: Felt conflict- Tension starts building between the participants, although no real struggle begins yet.

Stage IV: Manifest conflict- Here the struggle is under way, and the behaviour of the participants makes the existence of the conflict apparent to others who are not directly involved.

Stage V: Conflict aftermath- The conflict has been ended by resolution or suppression. This establishes new conditions that will lead either to more effective co-operation or to a new conflict that may be more severe than the first.



The conflict process also has five stages: potential opposition or incompatibility, cognition and personalization, intentions, behavior, and outcomes.

Stage 1: Potential Opposition or Incompatibility

The first step in the conflict process is the appearance of conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise. These conditions need not lead directly to conflict, but one of them is necessary if conflict is to surface. Conditions which can be considered as causes or sources of conflict, are divided into three general categories: communication, structure, and personal variables. Differing word connotations, jargon, insufficient exchange of information, and noise in the communication channel are all barriers to communication and potential antecedent conditions to conflict. The potential for conflict increases when either too little or too much communication takes place. Apparently, an increase in communication is functional up to a point, after which it is possible to over-communicate, with a resultant increase in the potential for conflict.

Size and specialization can stimulate conflict. The larger the group and the more specialized its activities, the greater the likelihood of conflict. Tenure and conflict have been found to be inversely related; the potential for conflict is greatest when group members are younger and when turnover is high. The greater the ambiguity about where responsibility for actions lies, the greater the potential for conflict to emerge. Such jurisdictional ambiguities increase intergroup fighting for control of resources and territory. Diversity of goals among groups is also a major source of conflict.

The last category of potential sources of conflict is personal variables, which include personality, emotions, and values. Personality does appear to play a role in the conflict process: some people just tend to get into conflicts a lot. In particular, people high in the personality traits of disagreeableness, neuroticism, or self-monitoring are prone to tangle with other people more often, and to react poorly when conflicts occur. Emotions can also cause conflict.

Stage 2: Cognition and personalization

If the conditions cited in Stage 1 negatively affect something one party cares about, then the potential for opposition or incompatibility becomes actualized in the second stage. As we noted in our definition of conflict, one or more of the parties must be aware that antecedent conditions exist. However, because a conflict is a perceived conflict does not mean it is personalized. Stage 2 is important because it's where conflict issues tend to be defined, where the parties decide what the conflict is about.

Stage 3: Intentions

Intentions intervene between people's perceptions and emotions and their overt behavior. They are decisions to act in a given way. We separate out intentions as a distinct stage because we have to infer the other's intent to know how to respond to his or her behavior. Many conflicts escalate simply because one party attributes the wrong intentions to the other. There is also typically a great deal of slippage between intentions and behavior, so behavior does not always accurately reflect a person's intentions.

Stage 4: Behaviour

When most people think of conflict situations, they tend to focus on Stage 4 because this is where conflicts become visible. The behavior stage includes the statements, actions, and reactions made by the conflicting parties, usually as overt attempts to implement their own intentions. As a result of miscalculations or unskilled enactments, overt behaviors sometimes deviate from these original intentions. It helps to think of Stage 4 as a dynamic process of interaction.

Stage 5: Outcomes

The action-reaction interplay between the conflicting parties results in consequences. These outcomes may be functional, if the conflict improves the group's performance, or dysfunctional, if it hinders performance. It is hard to visualize a situation in which open or violent aggression could be functional, but it is possible to see how low or moderate levels



of conflict could improve the effectiveness of a group. Conflict is constructive when it improves the quality of decisions, stimulates creativity and innovation, encourages interest and curiosity among group members, provides the medium through which problems can be aired and tensions released, and fosters an environment of self-evaluation and change.

Conflict is an antidote for groupthink: It doesn't allow the group to passively rubber-stamp decisions that may be based on weak assumptions, inadequate consideration of relevant alternatives, or other debilities. Conflict challenges the status quo and therefore furthers the creation of new ideas, promotes reassessment of group goals and activities, and increases the probability that the group will respond to change. An open discussion focused on higher order goals can make these functional outcomes more likely. Groups that are extremely polarized do not manage their underlying disagreements effectively and tend to accept suboptimal solutions, or they avoid making decisions altogether rather than working out the conflict. Groups whose members have different interests tend to produce higher quality solutions to a variety of problems than do homogeneous groups. Team members with greater differences in work styles and experience also tend to share more information with one another. These observations lead us to predict benefits to organizations from the increasing cultural diversity of the workforce. Heterogeneity among group and organization members can increase creativity, improve the quality of decisions, and facilitate change by enhancing member flexibility.

The dysfunctional consequences of conflict on the performance of a group or an organization are generally well known: uncontrolled opposition breeds discontent, which acts to dissolve common ties and eventually leads to the destruction of the group. Dysfunctional conflicts can reduce group effectiveness. Among the undesirable consequences of conflict are poor communication, reductions in group cohesiveness, and subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting among members. All forms of conflict, even the functional varieties, appear to reduce group member satisfaction and trust. When active discussions turn into open conflicts between members, information

sharing between members decreases significantly. At the extreme, conflict can bring group functioning to a halt and threaten the group's survival.

6.6.4 Approaches to Managing Conflict in Extension Organizations

Conflict in extension organizations, is unavoidable, but that does not mean it cannot be diffused when it occurs. Handling conflict correctly helps in resolving the problem whereas, mishandling results in eruption of the problem in ways not imagined. Approaches of conflict resolution and management as may be effective in extension organizations, are discussed below:

6.6.4.1 Competition

It is also known as 'forcing.' An individual firmly pursues his or her own concerns despite resistance from the other person. This may involve pushing one's viewpoint at the expense of another or maintaining firm resistance to another person's actions. It reflects the desire to meet one's own needs and concerns at the expense of the others. Here power (whatever available and acceptable) is used to achieve the desired outcome using position, expertise, persuasive ability, forces or coercion etc. In certain situations when all other less forceful methods do not work or are ineffective such as, when one needs to stand up for his/ her own rights, resist aggression and pressure, when a quick resolution is required and using force is justified (e.g., in a life-threatening situation, to stop aggression), and as a last resort to resolve a long-standing conflict, competition is effective.

Advantages of competition

Competition may provide a quick resolution to a conflict. It increases self-esteem and draws respect when firm resistance or actions were the response to aggression or hostility.

Limitations of competition

It may negatively affect relationship with the opponent in the long run. It may cause the opponent to react in the same way, even if the opponent did not intend to be forceful



originally. It cannot take advantage of the strong sides of the other side's position. Taking this approach may require a lot of energy and may be exhausting to some individuals.

6.6.4.2 Collaboration

It is also known as confronting the problem or problem solving. Collaboration involves an attempt to work with the other person to find a win-win solution to the problem in hand - the one that most satisfies the concerns of both parties. The win-win approach sees conflict resolution as an opportunity to come to a mutually beneficial result. It includes identifying the opponent's underlying concerns and finding an alternative which meets each party's concerns. Needs and concerns of both the parties are satisfied here. Here firstly, there is an acknowledgement of the conflict. Secondly, there is also identification and acknowledgement of the needs, concerns and goals of one another. Then comes the identification of alternative resolutions and their consequences and selection of the alternatives that satisfy both parties concerned. Lastly, there is implementation of the alternative selected, followed by evaluation. Collaboration may be essential when consensus and commitment of other parties is important, when addressing the interests of multiple stakeholders is required, when a long-term relationship is important, when one does not want to work through hard feelings and animosity, and when one does not want to take full responsibility. Collaboration becomes the automatic choice when a high level of trust is present between the parties.

Advantages of collaboration

Collaboration leads to solving the actual problem as it results in a win-win outcome. It reinforces mutual trust and respect, and builds a foundation for effective collaboration in the future. Responsibility of the outcome is shared, as a result the outcome of the conflict resolution is less stressful.

Limitations of collaboration

Collaboration requires a commitment from all the parties to look for a mutually acceptable solution. It may require more effort and more time than some other methods. A win-win solution may not be evident. However, for the same reason, collaborating may not be practical when timing is crucial and a quick solution or fast response is required. Once one or more parties lose their trust in an opponent, the relationship falls back to other methods of conflict resolution. Therefore, all involved parties must continue collaborative efforts to maintain a collaborative relationship.

6.6.4.3 Compromising

This approach of conflict resolution is also known as reconciling. Compromising looks for an expedient and mutually acceptable solution which partially satisfies both the parties. Compromising may be appropriate when the goals are moderately important and not worth the use of more assertive or more involved approaches, such as forcing or collaborating, when it is first important to reach temporary settlement on complex issues, when it is necessary to reach expedient solutions on important issues, when the involved parties do not know each other well or haven't yet developed a high level of mutual trust, and when collaborating or forcing do not work.

Advantages of compromising

Issues are resolved faster. Compromising may be more practical when time is a factor. It can provide a temporary solution while still looking for a win-win solution. It lowers the levels of tension and stress resulting from the conflict.

Limitations of compromising

Compromising may result in a situation where both parties are not satisfied with the outcome (A lose-lose situation). It does not contribute to building trust in the long run. It may require close monitoring and control to ensure that the agreements are met.

6.6.4.4 Withdrawing

This approach is also known as avoiding. This is adopted when a person neither pursues his/ her own concerns nor those of the opponents. He or she does not address the conflict but sidesteps, postpones or simply withdraws. Withdrawing may be resorted with success when the issue is trivial and not worth the effort, when more important issues are pressing, and one does not have time to deal with it, in situations where postponing the response is beneficial, when it is not the right time or place to confront the issue, when time is needed to think and collect information before getting into the act, when one sees no chance of getting his/ her concerns met or he/ she would have to put forth unreasonable effort, when one would have to deal with hostility, and when one is unable to handle the conflict.

Advantages of withdrawing

Withdrawing is a low stress approach when the conflict is short. It gives the ability and time to focus on more important or more urgent issues instead. When the opponent forces or attempts aggression, one may choose to withdraw and postpone to respond until he/ she is in a more favorable circumstance to push back. It gives time to better prepare and collect information before somebody acts.

Limitations of withdrawing

Withdrawing may lead to weakening or losing position; not acting may be interpreted as an agreement. Using withdrawing strategies without negatively affecting own position requires certain skill and experience. When multiple parties are involved, withdrawing may negatively affect relationship with a party that expects action.

6.6.4.5 Accommodating

It is also known as smoothing. Smoothing is accommodating the concerns of other people first, rather than prioritizing one's own concerns. Accommodating may be appropriate when it is important to provide a temporary relief from conflict or buy time

until someone is in a better position to respond or push back, when the issue is not as important to one party as it is to the other one, when one party accepts that he/ she is wrong, when one has no other choice, and when continued conflict would be detrimental.

Advantages of accommodating

In some cases smoothing will help to protect more important interests while giving up on some less important ones. It gives an opportunity to reassess the situation from a different angle. As a rule, it does not require much effort.

Limitations of accommodating

The risk of being abused is real, i.e., the opponent may try to constantly take advantage of someone's tendency toward smoothing/accommodating. Therefore, it is important to maintain the right balance and this requires certain skills. It may negatively affect confidence in the ability to respond to an aggressive opponent. Accommodating makes it more difficult to transition to a win-win solution in the future. Some of the team members may not like the smoothing response and be turned off.

6.6.4.6 Conflict Resolution through Negotiation

Disputes within an extension organization between the subordinates and superior, or between the employees and employer can be settled by discussion and negotiation between these two parties in order to arrive at a decision. This is commonly known as collective bargaining as both the parties eventually agree to follow a decision that they arrive at after a lot of negotiation and discussion. Collective Bargaining is a mode of fixing the terms of employment by means of bargaining between organized body of employees and an employer or an association of employees acting usually through authorized agents. The essence of collective bargaining is bargaining between interested parties and not from outside parties.

The working of collective bargaining assumes various forms as briefly described below:



(i) *Single plant bargaining* - Bargaining may occur between the single employer and the single union, this is known as single plant bargaining. This form prevails in the United States as well as in India.

(ii) *Multiple plants bargaining* - Bargaining may also be there between a single firm having several plants and workers employed in all those plants. This form is called multiple plants bargaining where workers bargain with the common employer through different unions.

(iii) *Multiple employer bargaining* - Instead of a separate union bargaining with separate employer, all the unions belonging to the same industry bargain through their federation with the employer's federation of that industry. This is known as multiple employer bargaining which is possible both at the local and regional levels. Instances in India of this industry--wide bargaining are found in the textile industry.

6.7 NEGOTIATION SKILLS

Negotiation is a method by which people settle differences. It is a process by which compromise or agreement is reached while avoiding argument and dispute. In any disagreement, individuals understandably aim to achieve the best possible outcome for their position (or perhaps an organization they represent). However, the principles of fairness, seeking mutual benefit and maintaining a relationship are the keys to a successful outcome.

6.7.1 Stages of Negotiation

In order to achieve a desirable outcome, it may be useful to follow a structured approach to negotiation. For example, in a work situation a meeting may need to be arranged in which all parties involved can come together. The process of negotiation includes the following stages:

(i) *Preparation* - Before any negotiation takes place, a decision needs to be taken as to when and where a meeting will take place to discuss the problem and who will attend. Setting a limited time-scale can also be helpful to prevent the disagreement continuing.

(ii) *Discussion* - In this stage, individuals or members of each side put forward the case as they see it, i.e., their understanding of the situation.

(iii) *Clarification of goals* -From the discussion, the goals, interests and viewpoints of both sides of the disagreement need to be clarified.

(iv) *Win-Win outcome* -This stage focuses on what is termed a 'win-win' outcome where both sides feel they have gained something positive through the process of negotiation and both sides feel their point of view has been taken into consideration.

(v) *Agreement* - Agreement can be achieved once understanding of both sides' viewpoints and interests have been considered.

(vi) *Implementation of a course of action* -From the agreement, a course of action has to be implemented to carry through the decision.

6.8 LET'S SUM UP

Teams and team work are the key to productivity and improvement in quality of working life in the new work place. Team work is an essential ingredient and a major benchmark of successful extension organizations. A work team is different from a work group, and is defined as a group whose individual efforts result in performance that is greater than the sum of the individual inputs. The four most common types of work teams in an organization are problem-solving teams, self-managed work teams, cross-functional teams, and virtual teams. Multi-team systems refer to 'teams-of-teams' and is defined as two or more teams that interface directly and interdependently in response to environmental contingencies toward the accomplishment of collective goals. Creating an effective team requires clear objective, clarity of specific roles and responsibilities, competent leadership, adequate resources, competent members, collaboration within team members, commitment of members, a climate of trust, innovativeness and creativity of members, and reward system in the organization. There are five stages in development of a team – forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning.



Conflict is a topic of increasing importance in all types of extension organizations. Conflict occurs when two or more parties (individuals, groups, organizations, nations) perceive mutually exclusive goals, values or events. The basis and sources of conflict in extension organizations are - self-interest, different goals and resources, values and emotions, personality of people, problems and causes, and strategies and solutions. The conflict process has five stages- potential opposition or incompatibility, cognition and personalization, intentions, behavior, and outcomes. The main approaches to managing conflict in extension organizations are - competition, collaboration, compromising, withdrawing, and accommodating. Conflict can be resolved through developing suitable negotiation skills also. The stages of negotiation are - preparation, discussion, and clarification of goals, win-win outcome, agreement, and implementation of a course of action.

6.9 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is a team? How is a work team different from a work group?
2. What are the different types of work teams?
3. What are the basic requirement for creating an effective team?
4. Explain the stages of team development.
5. What is conflict? What is its basis and sources in extension organizations?
6. Discuss the conflict process.
7. Discuss the approaches to manage conflict in extension organizations.
8. What is negotiation? How can conflict be resolved through negotiation?

6.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT-7

PROBLEM SOLVING AND TIME MANAGEMENT

Highlights of the Unit

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Problem solving behaviour
- Steps in problem solving
- Time management
- Effective time management practices
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Reading

7.0 OBJECTIVES:

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

- understand the problem solving behavior
- plan different steps in problem solving
- appreciate importance of time management
- become aware of different practices in time management
- plan steps to reduce procrastination

7.1 PROBLEM SOLVING BEHAVIOUR

People respond to problems differently. Also there exists a wide variation with regard to problem solving skills or behavior. It will be foolish to think that every single problem in our life can be solved. However, our success in finding solutions to problems will largely depend upon our attitude towards the problem, as well as the extent of use of creativity in dealing with them.

Problem solving skill is essential for extension professionals. In this competitive and complex world, problem solving has become an important survival skill. Problem solving can cover a wide variety of activities. For a farmer, it is dealing with solving production problems, an agricultural engineer may be interested in designing an effective storage structure, while the problems faced by Village Level Extension Workers will be different.

What is 'problem solving behaviour?' Problem solving behaviour can be defined as the response of an individual when faced with problems in terms of the steps taken to solve them.

7.2 STEPS IN PROBLEM SOLVING

Problem solving is a process which consists of following steps:

- i). Identify and recognise problems.
- ii). Define the problem and find out their causes.
- iii). State the desired state you want to have.
- iv). Workout solutions.
- v). Evaluate alternatives.
- vi). Implement solutions.
- vii). Evaluate solutions.

11.2.1. IDENTIFY AND RECOGNISE PROBLEMS

The first step in the process of problem solving is to identify and recognise the problem. A problem can be defined as the gap between the desired and actual condition. Any obstacle in reaching goal can also be considered as a problem. How can we say that there exists a problem? It is only when you feel bad about certain circumstances and want these circumstances to be changed. In other words, you recognise a gap between the desired and actual situations. For example, the following gap situations can be seen as problems:



- i. Low motivation among field extension agents
- ii. Poor yield of cereal crops
- iii. Falling level of profit in a farm
- iv. Decreasing level of productivity of scientists

7.2.2. DEFINE THE PROBLEMS AND FIND OUT THEIR CAUSES

Correct definition of problem is more important than finding its solution. According to Einstein 'the formulation of a problem is more essential than its solution'. Often we are unable to solve the problem because we have not identified or defined it correctly. You might have come across situations where people keep on discussing about the problem for hours yet at the end fail to define the problem, let alone the solutions.

Problems of definition

Often, the problems defined by many are vague or too general in nature. For example, the Director of a farm research institute may say 'the problem of my institute is low productivity of the scientists who are not interested in their work'? The above problem if investigated further may reveal the following:

- a) The main problem of the scientists is that they are not motivated.
- b) The problem of motivation is due to poor facilities for research and as well as improper reward system.
- c) The root cause of the above problem is due to non-availability of external or internal research grant for work and the present reward system which does not discriminate between good and bad workers.
- d) The real problem may be defined as the inability of the Director of the Institute and the scientists to work as a team and to bring enough fund for research and to devise a suitable reward system.

7.2.3. STATE THE DESIRED STATE YOU WANT TO HAVE

The third step in problem solving is the desired state one wants to reach. The desired state refers to expected state or norms. Any problem can be defined as the deviation from an expected or desired state. The expected state may reflect your values, goals and priorities related to work. For example, your desired state may be 'motivated employees', 'clean office', 'employees arriving to office in time' and a 'higher level of adoption by farmers'. The statements related to desired state have to be precise, devoid of any vagueness. For example, your desired state related to a higher level of adoption of innovations by farmers may be restated as "to make 80 per cent of farmers of a Hajipur village (Maharashtra state) to adopt high yielding varieties of wheat within two years". Description of desired state consists of finding answers to the following questions :

- I. What are the goals we want to achieve?
- II. What will be the situation if things go right?
- III. What are the criteria of achieving success or results?
- IV. When we can say that we have solved the problem?
- V. What are all our values and priorities?

7.2.4. WORK-OUT SOLUTIONS

The fourth step in problem solving is to work out solutions. Finding out the solutions to the problems is the most crucial component of problem solving process. You are likely to come across different types of problems. As a manager or project officer or extension officer, you may have to solve different problems related to issues like poor motivation, interpersonal conflicts, lack of competencies, indiscipline, lower productivity, break down of equipments etc. For some problems, it is easy to find solutions. However, to find solutions to most of the problems is difficult. Here comes the importance of use of



problem solving techniques, which help in generation of alternative ideas. Important problem solving techniques are as follows:

1) Ideational fluency exercise

It refers to thinking in terms of alternatives which has the ability to generate as many alternatives as possible as a solution for a particular problem. It may be mentioned here that finding of alternatives using lateral or divergent thinking goes beyond ordinary way of finding alternatives

2) Flexibility exercise

Flexibility is one of the important dimensions of creativity, which can be improved through proper training and exercise. According to Guildford, flexibility means a change of some kind - a "change in the meaning, interpretation or use of something, a change in the understanding of the task, a change of strategy in doing the task, or a change in direction of thinking, which may mean a new interpretation of the goal

3) Brain storming

Brainstorming is a group based creativity technique designed to encourage lateral thinking around a stated question or problem. It is one of the problem solving techniques developed during 1930's by Osborn, to help an individual to freely express his idea without any inhibition.

4) Attribute analysis

It refers to modification of attributes or characteristics of a product or process. It does not depend merely upon a combination of different ideas or products.

5) Mind mapping

Mind mapping is one of the techniques, which helps in creative thinking. It helps to use the left and right brain traits. It was developed by Tony Buzan (1993). Mind mapping is based upon the nature of memory.

7.2.5 Evaluation of alternatives

The fifth step in problem solving is evaluation of alternatives. You have generated a number of alternative solutions for a given problem. Now the task before you is to evaluate each alternative in terms of pros and cons and make a choice about the solution to be chosen for implementation. Evaluation of alternatives consists of following steps according to Stevens (1998):

- i). Defining the ideal solution.
- ii). Elimination of unviable solutions.
- iii). Evaluation of solutions against the criteria.
- iv). Assessment of risks associated with the solutions.
- v). Taking the decision.

7.2.6 Implementation of solution

Presentation of Solution: The sixth step in problem solving cycle is implementation of solution. Implementation of the chosen solution starts with getting it approved by the concerned authority or members of organisation. Implementation of solutions to routine or simple problems may not warrant approval from concerned people. However, there is a need to convince the concerned authority of the organisation about choice of the solution if the problem is complex and important. In order to get the solution approved, you may have to present it to the concerned authority or members along with a report of the problem, the options available for solution and the ideal solution chosen. Providing necessary data and evidences will be an essential component of your presentation and report.

Steps in implementation

- a) Preparing a plan of action
- b) Allocation of resources
- c) Motivating and training of people
- d) Executing the plan of action

An important component of implementation is deciding about the 'timing'. You should be clear about the time and duration needed for execution of various activities related to implementation of solutions. Also, you should make sure that all those who are to be involved in implementation are motivated and enthusiastic about it. Scheduling of the actions may require breaking down the whole task into small ones followed by finding out time needed to complete each small task. Perhaps, you can make PERT chart which will help you in monitoring the progress of the plan. Completion of each task will need resources in the form of men, materials and money. Necessary arrangements have to be made for availability of these resources in time.

7.2.7 Evaluation of solutions

Evaluation of outcome of solution is the last step in problem solving process. This is done to assess the impact and consequences of implementation of solutions. This is needed to know whether the solution has been implemented properly and the outcome fulfills the desired objectives. The following questions are to be answered in this regard:

1. Are there any problems in implementation of solution?
2. What are the results of implementation?
3. Did the solution work and if yes, to what extent?
4. Did you face any new problems due to implementation of solution?
5. What are the overall gains from implementation of solution? Are the gains greater than that of cost involved and the negative consequences if any?
6. What lessons we learn from the failure of solutions?
7. What lessons we learn from success of the solution?
8. What will be the future courses of action?
9. Is there any need for changes in the plan of implementation?
10. Do you have to go for improvements in the solution?

7.3 TIME MANAGEMENT

Time management can be defined as a process of planning, and controlling of time so as to achieve effectiveness and efficiency in achieving one's goals related to job and other areas. Extension professionals often struggle to manage time effectively, find themselves working overtime, yet failing to meet deadlines and facing the problem of burnout. And ineffective time management results in lower work productivity.

Just imagine that you are running a race. You finished the race as the winner and received prize money of Rs. 10,000/-. Your friend ended as 'No. 2' and received an amount of Rs. 5,000/. Now, you answer the following questions: Did you run twice fast as your friend to get the place of winner? Certainly not. You had to run, may be few yards or even centimetres ahead of your friend that made you a winner. But, did you get the twice the amount of money received by the runner? Certainly yes. What is the lesson do you learn here? In order to receive twice the amount of profit or success than that of others, you need not make twice the amount of efforts. What is needed is meeting the 'deadlines' Effective time management helps in better management of self, reduction in stress, increased work motivation, satisfaction and productivity .

7.4 EFFECTIVE TIME MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

Three most important time management practices are Setting goals, Prioritization of goals, and scheduling of tasks.

7.4.1 Setting goals

What is the heart of time management? Is it getting the work done in time? Is it doing things efficiently? Is it getting more work done in less time? Is it doing 'things right'? Or is it doing 'right things'? Time management is all about doing 'right things'. What is the use of doing 'wrong things' in an efficient way? You have to be sure that you are doing the right things. In other words, you have to answer the following questions: a)



where are you going? What are your goals and priorities? You have to set goal for major areas of your life such as personal, family, job (work) and community.

Characteristics of Goals

- *Time dimension:* You have to make long term as well as short-term goals.
- *Be specific:* One of the most important problems in goal setting is lack of specificity in defining the goal
- *State in measurable terms:* Though every goal may have qualitative and quantitative dimension, it should be stated in a measurable way
- *Be realistic:* One has to set goals, which are realistic in terms of achievement.
- *Set deadlines:* One of the main reasons why people do not realize their goals is due to lack of setting deadline. Without deadlines, your goals will remain as mere wishes or fantasies. You have to be clear about the 'start' and 'end' of your activities, which lead to achievement of your goal.
- *Be positive:* You should have faith in achieving the goal.

7.4.2 Prioritizations of goals

You have identified your goals related to different areas of life. You have before you, a set of several goals. Can you treat each and every goal as having similar priority? No. There will be goals, which are more important than others, which need your attention immediately. You have to work out the priority for each goal which again depends upon your values, demands of family, mission of your organization etc. The priorities will keep on changing as per the changes in your external and internal environments. Therefore, deciding upon priorities is a difficult exercise, though not an impossible one. You may categories your goals into following four groups:

- i). Highly important
- ii). Important
- iii). Less important
- iv). Very less important

7.4.3 Prioritization of tasks – the pareto’s principle

You have prioritized your goals. Your goals have been broken into different tasks. You have started working towards achievement of tasks. What is your everyday experience of working toward your goals? What does your time use analysis reveal? How to improve your effectiveness in time use? Here comes the importance of understanding the Pareto Principle, which has been named after an Italian economist namely Wilfredo Pareto. He discovered a startling fact that 20 per cent of Italian people own 80 per cent wealth of the country, which has been termed as the 80/20 rule. In other words, the most important or significant item of a given group forms a relatively small part of the total (Adair, 1989). We find this principle in many areas. Twenty per cent of employees will account for 80 per cent of productivity in any organization. Or twenty per cent clients will be responsible for 80 per cent of purchase. The above principle is much applicable in time management as twenty per cent of your time or activity will be responsible for 80 per cent of your productivity or results. What is the secret of improving your productivity? Identify those 20 per cent of activities or tasks, which contribute towards your productivity or results. Concentrate on these activities. If you can spend another 15-20% of your time on these activities, your productivity level will certainly increase. This means, you have to identify 80 per cent of those activities which produces only 20 per cent of results and try to find ways to get rid of some. It is not possible to get rid of all of them. But it is possible to get rid of at least 25-30 per cent of them.

7.4.4 PRIORITISATION OF TASKS - USE OF TIME MANAGEMENT GRID

Urgent	Not important but urgent tasks	Important and urgent tasks
Not urgent	Not important and not urgent tasks	Important and Not urgent tasks
	Not important	Important

Figure 1: Time Management Grid

One of the easiest ways to set priorities for different tasks you have to perform in a day is to classify them according to their importance and urgency. This can be achieved by plotting the tasks on a grid based on importance and urgency. The resultant time management grid will consist of four quadrants (Figure 1). You have to know the difference between important tasks and urgent tasks. Important tasks mean those activities, which contribute towards productivity. Urgent tasks need not always contribute towards productivity. Therefore, before start of each working day, make a list of all tasks to be performed on that day. You have to carefully look into each task and put it under one of the following quadrants or categories:

1. Important and urgent tasks.
2. Important and not urgent tasks.
3. Not important and urgent tasks.
4. Not important and not urgent tasks.

Important and urgent: These tasks are both important and urgent. The activities under this category have deadlines and may be seen as management of problems or crises. You are likely to pay more attention for these activities which may contribute only to lesser extent to your productivity. However, these tasks are likely to give you a greater level of stress. Effective managers attempt to cut down the activities under this category so that they can

concentrate more on “important and not urgent” tasks. Some of these activities under this category can be delegated to others.

Important and not urgent: Effective managers concentrate on tasks which fall under this category. The activities under this category include planning, building relationships, renewal and searching for new opportunities for growth and development. Therefore the tasks under this category are important in terms of contribution toward your productivity but not urgent. They may not have any deadlines. Because of less urgency of task, you are less likely to initiate them and keep on postponing them which may result in great loss. Concentration on these tasks is essential for long term growth and development of an employee.

Not important but urgent: The tasks under this category demand our immediate attention but contribute very little towards productivity. In fact one is tempted to pay more attention and time to these tasks as we get pressure from authorities or colleagues to complete them. An effective manager will deal with these jobs but complete them as quickly as possible.

Not important, and not urgent: These tasks are known as routine jobs, which will consume most of your time. You may find them easy to do and as a result you may end up spending most of your time on these activities. But these tasks should be given low priority and be done when you have time. An effective employee will not waste time in concentrating on these activities.

7.4.5 Scheduling of tasks:

A schedule or "to do list" refers to list of activities or tasks to be performed along with details about their expected date or time of start and completion. You have to prepare monthly, weekly and daily schedule of tasks. A monthly schedule will give you long-range views of tasks to be completed while the weekly and daily schedule will give you a short-range view. An example of daily schedule with priorities are given in Table 1.



Table 1: Daily Schedule with priorities

Time	Tasks
9.30 AM	Training of farmers (Important &urgent)
10.00 AM	Training of farmers (Important &urgent)
10.30 AM	Training of farmers (Important &urgent)
11.00 AM	Replying letters (Not important but urgent)
11.30 AM	Replying letters (Not important but urgent)
12.00 Noon	Meeting with Joint Director(Not important Not Urgent)
12.30 PM	Meeting with Joint Director(Not important Not Urgent)
1.00 PM	Lunch
1.30 PM	Lunch
2.00 PM	Planning for next program (Important and Not urgent)
2.30 PM	Planning for next program (Important and Not urgent)
3.00 PM	Planning for next program (Important and Not urgent)
3.30 PM	Discussion with administrative people (Not important and Not Urgent)
4.00 PM	Discussion with administrative people (Not important and Not Urgent)
4.30 PM	Meeting with other AH officials ((Important and Not urgent)
5.00 PM	Meeting with other AH officials(Important and Not urgent)

7.4.6. Importance of preparing daily schedule or ‘to-do’ list’

An advice worth \$ 25,000*

Do you like to know an advice, which is worth \$ 25,000, free of cost? Then not only read it carefully, but also put into practice which can transform your life. Mr. Charles M. Schwab was a president of Bethlehem Steel Company. He was having a dinner with a

* Source: Engstrom and Mackenzie, (1967)

management consultant namely Ivy Lee. During the course of conversation Mr. Schwab challenged the management consultant. "Show me a way to get more things done ...if it works, I will pay anything within reason. "Can you guess the way shown by the management consultant? He simply handed over few pieces of white papers to Mr. Schwab and gave the following instructions:

- a) List all the things you want to complete tomorrow.
- b) Number the above tasks in order of their importance.
- c) Start working on number one task and complete it before you start the next and go on until evening.
- d) Even if you fail to complete all the tasks you had planned for, do not worry, you would have completed the most important tasks.
- e) The secret of your success depends upon using the above system daily.
- f) After you are convinced about the above system, let your employees try it.
- g) Once you test the above system, send me a cheque for an amount for which the above idea is worth.

You will be surprised to know that Mr. Schwab sent Ivy Lee a cheque for \$25,000/- after weeks of time. And it has been reported that Mr. Schwab considered the above time management lesson as one of the most profitable lessons he had ever learned in his business career.

7.4.7 Tools for scheduling time

Several tools or aids are available which can be used in planning and scheduling of time. Do you have a system, which helps you to plan and record your goals, tasks, forthcoming events, appointments etc., which is essential for effective management of time? Some of you may use a conventional diary or personal organiser for this purpose, though in recent times many are switching to electronic planner and computers. Whatever the tool



you are using at present or you want to use in future, you have to develop a physical system through which you can store and retrieve all information about your planning and scheduling of your time. Ideally, such a system should have the following three parts:

- i). Long-term and short-term Goals.
- ii). Monthly, weekly and daily tasks.
- iii). Data about important addresses, telephone numbers, e-mail id etc.

Long-term and short-term Goals: This should constitute your database concerning your long-term and short-term goals along with priorities, for major life areas. You need not carry with you always the data related to your goals, as you don't need to refer it every day.

Monthly, weekly and daily tasks: Ideally you have to prepare monthly, weekly and daily plan. Monthly and weekly plan will show your tasks and results to be achieved in large blocks of time. Your daily plan will give you more details about tasks, results to be achieved, meetings, and appointments along with priorities.

Other Information: You have to record all information related to addresses, telephone numbers, e-mail id, fax numbers, of important people related to accomplishment of tasks.

7.4.8 Dealing with procrastination

Procrastination refers to putting off or postponement of work that should be done today or now. It also refers to not completing the work before deadline and the tendency to wait till the last minute of deadline. It is the mentality of 'I will do it tomorrow' and that 'tomorrow' will never come. It can also be termed as the problem of 'starting trouble'. A large number of people have the problem in starting or initiating a work. Once they start it, it keeps on going smoothly. Studies have shown that more than 90 per cent of people face problems related to procrastination. About 25-30 per cent of those who procrastinate can be classified as chronic procrastinators. The good news is that with little efforts and training, this problem can be solved by more than 60-70 per cent of the people. The bad

news is that procrastination can result in costly negative consequences with at least 80 per cent of those who have this problem.

Many of us like to spend time on low priority tasks instead of concentration of high priority ones. This behaviour is also related to procrastination. Thus, if you spend time with easy jobs by neglecting tough yet productive ones, you can be branded as a procrastinator.

7.4.9 Strategy to overcome procrastination

Realise your problems: You are on the way to overcome procrastination if you genuinely realise it as a problem and you are responsible for it. Often people don't realise the consequences of procrastination. As a procrastinator, you may end up crossing the deadlines but also miss great opportunities which will help your personal and career growth, apart from avoiding emotional pains and disturbances in the form of guilt, frustration and sadness.

Analyse the reasons and deal with root causes: Though there are several causes of procrastination, you should know what causes procrastination in your life. You need to sit down and analyse your life and identify the causes. Record them in a paper. The possible reasons could be fear of failure or indecisiveness or difficulty in concentrating on work etc.

Proper Planning and Scheduling: An overall planning and scheduling of your work will certainly help you in overcoming procrastination through knowing those tasks which are likely to get postponed. Not only include them as a part of your monthly, weekly or daily schedule, but also give special attention in completing them.

Delegate work or get other's help: This is one of the easiest way to get those work done which you are not doing for one reason or another. The tasks you consider as boring may be considered as interesting and rewarding by others. And it is always possible to find some friends, family members or colleagues with whom you can delegate some of the tasks with no additional cost. Another way could be seeking the help of others to share the



burden of your job. Your experience will show that even the dull task done together with a friend or colleague will become a fun or an interesting one.

Set Self-imposed Deadlines: You can overcome procrastination to a great extent if you set deadlines for each task. If this does not work, announce the deadlines to your friends or colleagues who are willing to monitor your progress with strictness. You may be of the type who will respond very well to external deadlines, rather than internal deadlines set by self.

Accept Yourself: You should not be too hard on yourself. Give a reasonable time for changing the habit of postponement. Trust in yourself when you fail and do not give up. Forgive yourself and start again with renewed vigour in case of failures.

Get started at the earliest: Do not wait till 'good mood' or 'perfect time' or 'inspiration' or a 'favourable environment' to hit you. Rather, start working at the earliest possible time and you can always improve the quality of work later on.

Be realistic about your achievement: Do not try to achieve beyond your abilities. Have a very reasonable expectations from you about what can be done and achieved in a day or week or month.

Reduce distraction and interruptions: One of the reasons for procrastination in this modern age is "technology distraction". In this electronic age of internet, mobile phone and p WhatsApp one can easily get addicted to the drug of distraction if one is not disciplined. We crave for the pleasure that comes with mindless surfing the web or being on our phones. Through modern technologies, we are constantly plugged into the people and world around us resulting in information overload, wasting of our time resulting in poor work productivity.

You should reduce interruptions in your work due to unscheduled visitors, unnecessary phone calls by saying a firm 'no' to such interruptions. Also make all arrangements to keep your workplace free from noise pollution and other distractions. Also

train-up your mind in such a way that you can concentrate on work by avoiding all kinds of unnecessary day dreaming. Do not waste your time by worrying about future, for by worrying you can achieve nothing. Do your work and expect rewards for your good work.

7.4.10 Techniques to save time

Learn to relax and do not rush

We have come to the last session of the module on time management. In this session, you will learn about techniques to save time. So far we have seen different aspects of time management. Before investigating different techniques to save time, we should know what would be the end result of practising all methods and techniques of time management? Will you get more obsessed with time, resulting in more anger and frustration? Or will you modify your lifestyle so that you not only have clear goals and concentrate on priorities but also enjoy every moment of time in a reasonably relaxed manner? You have to learn not only to enjoy the time you spend on productive activities but also the time you spend on less productive and unimportant activities. You cannot live by eating concentrates alone, you too need roughage without which your health will be in danger. This is important as we find that the pace of life of many people are becoming hectic. Most of the things in life have become time bound and it is 'rush, rush and rush everywhere'. A majority of the people do not have enough time to do anything in a relaxed manner. For such people even eating a meal has become a nuisance or a necessary evil. You are bound to get into problems both in your organization and with your family members as well as spoil your health if you do the job in a great hurry or rush. And correction of such mistakes will consume more time. Thus a good rule to remember is 'not to do everything in a hurried manner but do the important things in a right and relaxed manner'.

Effective decision making

A lot of time is wasted since you do not make up your mind to make decisions. There are times you need to wait for some more information to make a right decision and



this cannot be called indecisiveness. But if you do the following you will be wasting a lot of time:

- I. Devoting more time for study and analysis related to decision on unimportant and minor matters.
- II. Quick but improper decision which will result in wastage of money, time and resources.
- III. Delay in decision making when all relevant information are available.

Therefore, learn to make right decisions without much delay which saves a lot of time and avoids wastage of resources. When you are in doubt, you can consult your colleagues and friends for ideas.

Learn to say “No” when required

One of the effective yet cheapest time management techniques is the two-letter word “no”. You may be one among the majority who can’t easily say ‘no’ to the demands of others when you are already loaded with much work. The basic reason is you want to please everyone and do not want to offend anyone. And most likely others take advantage of your behaviour and pass on several unproductive tasks, which will affect your overall efficiency. You can use the following strategy to say no:

- i). Ask for more time to make up your decision if you cannot say ‘no’ straightway.
- ii). Say ‘no’ with giving reasons for saying so.
- iii). Do not get worried about consequences of saying ‘no’ as you will be using your time to most useful and productive tasks.
- iv). Be consistent in saying ‘no’ if renewed effort is made to persuade you to say ‘yes’.
- v). Be flexible yet firm and use your wisdom before deciding either to say ‘no’ or ‘yes’.

Organize your office room

Most likely your office or work environment is likely to be unorganized with files out of place, piled up books and documents and cluttered desks. You can safely say that I

do not practice the following most important rule in organisation of my work environment: “a place for everything and everything in its place”. How can you improve the organisation of your office room? The following measures are suggested:

- i). Do not continue to hoard unwanted materials related to files, books, papers, paperweight, pins, and paper clips, etc. You have to throw away the unwanted materials on a continual basis.
- ii). Be careful to keep only those old materials, which may be of use in future.
- iii). In storing the materials you have to follow the following principle: You should know the things you have stored and able to retrieve the materials without any problem when you need them.
- iv). Let your office desk be neat and clean. Do not use it to store files, books, documents etc., but keep only those items, which are needed to do the current job.
- v). Clean your room and desk on daily basis.

Have an effective filing system

You should be receiving a lot of reports, letters, memos, books etc., and the chances are that you fail to file them and keep them in order, which will result their loss as well as creating difficulty in finding them out when needed. Suggestions for improving your filing system are as follows:

- i). Develop a filing system according to the need of your office work which will include creation of separate file for each category of work, customers etc. This system should be efficient enough to retrieve any paper, document or book within few minutes.
- ii). Make sure to file the loose papers at the appropriate file at the earliest possible time.
- iii). Store the files in a modern filing cabinet.
- iv). File only those documents, which are needed for the work and for future reference and discard those documents and files, which are no longer needed.



Effective handling of mails, papers, etc.

Is it possible that one day you will reach a state of paperless office? Has the modern communication technology such as computer, Internet, fax, e-mail reduced the papers work or increased it? Surprisingly, the above technologies have increased the paper work. Just look at the increased output of paper due to computer printout, Photostat machines, fax machines etc. As a result, today you are receiving an enormous amount of information, through mails, memos, reports, books, and other documents. These papers get accumulated in your desk apart from gathering dust. The result is a huge backlog of work related to action to be taken on each paper. Most of us do not have an organised and efficient system for dispensing with incoming snail mail, e-mail, memos or other important documents. You have to pay a heavy price for this situation: lost opportunities, poor performance, frustrated clients, and inordinate delay in submission of vital reports or information, loss of credibility in the eyes of colleagues or clients and reprimand from supervisors for delay in taking action. How to handle the papers effectively? The following suggestions may be useful:

- i) Set a fixed time to deal with incoming papers.
- ii) Go through the papers and sort out them based upon the following:
 - a) Handle it or do it: Important papers, which need your attention immediately
 - b) Delegate it: These are the papers, which need attention but can be done by others.
 - c) File it: These papers are related to non-priority work or needed for future reference and you can act on them later on. However note them down in master list of schedule about the future paper to be completed.
- iii) Practice 'handle only once' policy: It has been reported that at least up to 80 per cent of the mails or memos can be replied when first read. This means that 80 per cent of your mails (snail and e-mails) can be answered then and there. Thus under 'handle only once' policy, you handle the paper only once. If it has to work for you, you should start working on papers only when you have at least sufficient time to act on them. If you do not have time, do not open the mails.

Decide deadlines for every work

One of the main reasons for delay is not deciding the deadline for work. Through fixing deadlines for your work and assignments you give to others, you will prevent the operation of Parkinson's Law – the work expands to fill up the time available to complete it. Also do not forget to have 'follow-up' through regular monitoring the progress of work so that you complete the tasks according to deadlines.

Learn to delegate the work

You have got only limited hours available each day to do all the planned tasks and activities. How can you get more work done in a day? The answer is delegation, which is one of the effective time savers. Delegation of work will free up time for you to do those critical tasks which can't be done by others. Effective delegation involves the following steps:

- i). It needs courage, trust and thoughtful plan on your part to decide what tasks or work to be delegated.
- ii). Define the tasks to be completed by others in terms of results including the authority and resources granted.
- iii). It is relatively easy to delegate routine tasks and those activities, which do not need much skill. However, delegation of boring and uninteresting tasks may not evoke motivation among the subordinates.
- iv). Learn to delegate interesting and important tasks after assessing the skills of the subordinates, which will bring a higher level of commitment and motivation.
- v). Make arrangements for training of the subordinates or necessary skills needed for the job.
- vi). Make sure to have a systematic monitoring and evaluation of delegated work.

7.5 LET US SUM UP

Problem solving behaviour is the response of an individual when faced with problems in terms of the steps taken to solve them. Problem solving is a process which consists of



following steps: Identify and recognize problems, Define the problem and find out their causes, State the desired state you want to have, Workout solutions, Evaluate alternatives, Implement solutions, and Evaluate solutions.

Time management is a process of planning, and controlling of time so as to achieve effectiveness and efficiency in achieving one's goals related to job and other areas. Three most important time management practices are setting goals, Prioritization of goals, and scheduling of tasks. Procrastination refers to putting off or postponement of work that should be done today or now. It also refers to not completing the work before deadline and the tendency to wait till the last minute of deadline. This unit also explains different strategies to overcome procrastination

7.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What do you understand by problem solving behaviour?
2. How will you improve the problem solving behaviour of field level extension personnel?
3. What are all the time management problems you face in your job?
4. What are the effective time management practices?
5. How will you deal with procrastination?

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UNIT - 8

STRESS MANAGEMENT

Highlights of the Unit

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Concept of Stress and Job Stress in Organizations
- Sources of Stress as Applicable to Extension Professionals
- Symptoms and Consequences of Stress
- Organizational Cost of Stress
- Strategies for management of stress
- Organizational Interventions for reduction of Stress
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Further Reading

8.0 OBJECTIVES

After the end of the unit, the successful student should be in a position to:

- Explain the meaning and importance of stress management
- Discuss different factors contributing to job stress
- Identify and evaluate the symptoms of stress
- Appraise different strategies for management of job stress.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Stress has been referred to as 'the invisible disease' that weakens the body's immune defenses. Stress affects a work place and work productivity. Stress, like hunger and thirst, is an inescapable part of life. We experience it in a wide spectrum of activities in our lives. Although stress is an integral part of our everyday life, it remains remarkably little understood. In the coming years, our success, health and happiness will depend to a very

large extent on our ability to adapt successfully to the stresses we encounter. Ill health, depression, loss of self - esteem and low achievement will result from failure to adapt to stressful situations. "Stability under stress" is the quality which differentiates successful people from those at the bottom of the ladder. Any hiccups in the daily routine become an emotional crisis once the pressure exceeds a certain threshold. As a rule of thumb any changes in our daily routine is a potential trigger for stress. Our peace of mind can be poisoned by stress. Stress can also play havoc with our physical health leading to headaches, heart attacks etc. Optimum stress is the essence of life, it is the master key to the knack of living. Only when we understand this stress, its causes and symptoms, we can master it and use it as a powerful force to produce positive change by treating stress as a friend.

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Since stress is affecting more and more people everywhere, stress management appears to be a real need. Stress is unavoidable and a certain amount is desirable also. Stress is the spice of life and we have to live with stress from womb to tomb. Stress is the disease of the millennium. A growing concern of organizations is the impact of stress on the health and productivity. Extension organizations are also being impacted by stress, especially in the changing scenario of agriculture and demand driven extension. Developing the ability to cope up with and manage stress makes one effective, healthy and happy. Stress affects physical, mental, social and emotional health. Mental disorders are the crisis of this century. There is no magic-wand formula or technique for a stress free life. But, yes, there certainly are proven techniques for minimizing stress.

8.2 CONCEPT OF STRESS AND JOB STRESS IN ORGANIZATIONS

There are three major approaches in defining stress. In the first approach, stress is seen as a response. Stress is the non-specific response of the body to any demand upon it. In the second approach, stress is seen as a stimulus and defined as the environmental factors

which stimulate unhealthy individual reactions. In the third approach, stress is seen as an entire phenomena of stimulus, response and intervening variables. An event can be stressful only if the individual perceived it as such, adopting a transactional view whereby stress refers to the entire phenomenon of stimuli, response, and intervening variables. This approach has been widely accepted.

Stress accumulates in our bodies, it also accumulates in extension organizations. Too much of it destroys organizational climate, lowers performance, productivity and weakens organizational effectiveness. Stress makes some people sick and for some it creates physical, psychological, behavioural and performance problems. With increasing accountability and social responsibility of this era, extension organizations have to pay more heed to job stress. Arnold & Feldman (1986) defined job stress as the reactions of individuals to new or threatening factors in their work environments. It is indeed a fact of life of this millennium that stress can kill. The key question here is “does your job, especially related to extension and advisory services make you sick?” Counselling helps since some of the stress that people experience at work is due to their own personalities or their personal lives. Organizational programs and policies can help individuals deal with their stress more effectively. As a measure, extension managers can lower some of their self-imposed standards of perfection.

The Cognitive Appraisal Theory of Stress

The four-phase cognitive appraisal theory of stress as given by Arnold (1960) and Lazarus (1968) is discussed below:

Phase I: Perception - A person perceives something in the work environment, e.g., a women extension worker observes the behavior of the KVK In-charge.

Phase II: Primary appraisal - In cognitive appraisal theory, the first stage is a person’s assessment of the environment in which he or she judges whether some object in the environment is good or bad, beneficial or harmful, an opportunity or a threat. A positive appraisal leads to satisfaction and a negative appraisal leads to dissatisfaction, e.g., a

woman extension worker perceives that she is being harassed by the In-Charge due to gender difference.

Phase III: Secondary appraisal - This is the second stage in a person's assessment of the environment in which the person judges his or her capacity to cope with perceived threats or opportunities in the environment. e.g., the woman extension worker tries to assess whether she can do something to stop the undesirable behaviour of her in-charge.

Phase IV: Stress - Uncertainty about inability to cope results in stress which motivates the individual to do something about the situation where he/she chooses between 'behavioural' or 'cognitive' responses. A behavioural response is in terms of fight or flight response, e.g., the extension worker can file a case with the Commission for Women (fight) or seek a transfer (flight). The cognitive response is in terms of benign reappraisal which is a response to stress in which the person reassesses an apparently threatening environmental demand and modifies his or her original perception of it by changing his/her goals or values in order to adjust to the problem, e.g., the extension worker changes her attitude as she asks to herself why bother about the in charge's attitude.

8.3 SOURCES OF STRESS AS APPLICABLE TO EXTENSION PROFESSIONALS

There are two basic sources of stress namely, external stressors and internal stressors.

(A) External Stressors

I. Organizational

The factors contributing to organizational stress are related to job design, job role, organizational structure, organizational culture, leadership style, decision making style, reward system, administrative policies and strategies (like merit, promotion, rotation, and downsizing), and appraisal system.

II. Environmental

The factors such as temperature, light, noise, insect pests, air quality, water quality, natural disaster, transport system, commuting to office, and crowding contribute to environmental sources of stress.

III. Social

Social stress has been defined as the "the feelings of discomfort or anxiety that individuals may experience in social situations, and the associated tendency to avoid potentially stressful social situations" (Wadman, Durkin, and Conti-Ramsden, 2011). For example, major life events like changes in relationships, accidents, illness, and deaths may be social sources of stress.

(B) Internal Stressors

The internal stress come from inside of an individual which is related to his psychological and physical health state. The factors such as attitudes, emotions, thoughts, and overall physical and emotional health contribute to internal stressors. For example, perception of extension workers towards their job, attitude towards technology and attitude towards farmers may contribute towards increased job stress among extension workers.

8.4 SYMPTOMS AND CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS

Following are some of the Symptoms of stress which are briefly described below:

- (1) **Physical** – The most common physical symptoms of stress may include irregular breathing, headache, and neck ache.
- (2) **Emotional** – The emotional symptoms of stress mostly are apathy, anxiety, anger, and impatience.
- (3) **Behavioural** – There are certain behavioural stress symptoms also which are distinct from the above two types of symptoms. The behavioural symptoms generally are characterized by escapism, lethargy, and changing work habit.

(4) **Mental** – The mental symptoms of stress among extension workers are the most difficult to detect until ‘burn out’ occurs. The mental symptoms are mainly distorted thinking, over or under alertness, constant worrying, racing thoughts, forgetfulness and disorganization, inability to focus, poor judgment, and pessimistic outlook



Fig. 1: The inverted U relationship between stress and performance

8.4.1 Consequences of Stress

There is usually an ‘inverted U’ shaped relationship between stress and performance. When we are totally relaxed we do not perform at our best on most tasks. A little anxiety and stress can motivate us and help us perform better. Too much stress impairs performance. Elevated levels of cortisol hormone may be one reason for impairing performance on some tasks.

8.4.2 Eustress and Distress

Not all stress is detrimental. Indeed, a certain amount of stress in life is desirable. It relieves monotony, spurs people toward worthwhile goals, and is an integral part of many



pleasurable activities: the joy experienced with successful accomplishments, for example. Selye (1936) coined the word “eustress” (good stress) to refer to stress of this kind, and to distinguish it from distress, which is injurious to health and well-being. Eustress or positive stress occurs when the level of stress is high enough to motivate a person to move into action to get things accomplished. Eustress provides a sense of urgency and alertness needed for survival when confronting threatening situations.

Distress or negative stress occurs when the level of stress is either too high or too low and the body and/or mind begins to respond negatively to the stressors. It is a contributory factor to ill-health, such as headaches, digestive problems, skin complaints, insomnia and ulcers. Excessive, prolonged and unrelieved stress can have a harmful effect on mental, physical and spiritual health.

8.4.3 Positive consequences of stress

Here the pressure leads to favorable consequence like positive anticipation, a feeling of being stimulated and facing an exciting challenge. It helps in overcoming problems, compels us to do a good job, with heightened alertness, and clarity. It makes us work energetically, discard or ignore unimportant issues and see stress as an opportunity to enjoy and meeting goals.

8.4.4 Negative consequences of stress

Stress becomes negative when we stay ‘pumped up’ and the stressed individual just cannot relax after meeting the challenge. When this is constant, it becomes a vicious cycle affecting health and wellbeing. It results in anxiety, depression, hopelessness, anger, helplessness, emotional upheaval, impaired performance, unresolved mental strain, and ill-health.

8.5 ORGANIZATIONAL COST OF STRESS:

Following are some of the organizational costs of stress:

1. Absenteeism

Absenteeism is a habitual pattern of unplanned absences from a duty or obligation without valid reasons. It has been viewed as an indicator of stress induced poor individual performance, and a breach of implicit contract between the manager and the worker. In recent times, more focuses have been directed towards understanding the managerial dimensions of absenteeism, traditionally framed in economic or quasi-economic terms. Absenteeism is a difficult problem to tackle, because there are both legitimate and poor excuses for missing workdays, and it can be challenging for the extension managers to effectively monitor, control and reduce absenteeism. In an effort to curb absenteeism, it is important for extension organizations to adopt a proactive approach, putting policies in place to focus on responses to both physical and psychological health concerns.

2. Low organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is the measure of strength of an employee's identification with the goals and values of the organization and his supervisor. Commitment to organization is related positively to a variety of desirable work outcomes including job satisfaction, motivation and performance. It is negatively related to absenteeism and turnover. Employees with strong organizational commitment are emotionally attached to the organization having a greater desire to contribute meaningfully to the organization, choose to be less absent, and work harder, whereas low commitment to the organization is a vital organizational cost of stress. Lower levels of commitment may indicate a lack of coherent strategies linking human resource development interventions to increasing commitment in the workplace.

3. Poor motivation and morale

Poor motivation and low morale can be attributed to many factors arising due to job related stress, including job insecurity, lack of fair promotion policy, poor working conditions, supervision and monitoring faults and the job structure itself. It affects the overall organizational productivity, dents financial competitiveness and organizational objectives. Low morale may also be an outcome of autocratic managerial behaviour in which



managers address their employees from a top-down command and refuse to communicate directly on workplace issues. Such a kind of communication may result in widening the gap between extension managers' objectively set expectations and extension workers' job outputs, leading to mutual distrust, disrespect, and further deterioration of the status of motivation and morale.

4. Lower job performance

Lower job performance is an inevitable consequence and organizational cost of stress. Performance increases with increased physiological and mental arousal, but only up to a point. When the level of arousal becomes too high, performance decreases. When an individual comes under stress, his cognitive performance and decision making ability may be adversely affected. Even if some level of stress may have a positive effect on performance as suggested by the U-hypothesis, extended exposure to stress or a single exposure to an extreme stressor can have severe negative consequences on non-task performance dimensions.

5. Cost of health care

The most detrimental organizational cost of stress is loss of health as stress may result in acute and chronic health related problems, including depression, neurological disorders, cardiovascular diseases, respiratory disorders, immunodeficiency and loss of mental health.

8.6 STRATEGIES FOR MANAGEMENT OF STRESS

The following strategies may be effective in managing stress at personal level:

- **Understand how you stress.** Everyone experiences stress differently. How do you know when you are stressed? How are your thoughts or behaviors different from times when you do not feel stressed?



- **Identify your sources of stress.** What events or situations trigger stressful feelings? Are they related to your children, family, health, financial decisions, work, relationships or something else? What are the sources of stress in extension organizations affecting you?
- **Learn your own stress signals.** People experience stress in different ways. You may have a hard time concentrating or making decisions, feel angry, irritable or out of control, or experience headaches, muscle tension or a lack of energy. Gauge your stress signals.
- **Recognize how you deal with stress.** Determine if you are using unhealthy behaviors (such as smoking, drinking alcohol and over/under eating) to cope. Is this a routine behavior, or is it specific to certain events or situations? Do you make unhealthy choices as a result of feeling rushed and overwhelmed?
- **Find healthy ways to manage stress.** Consider healthy, stress-reducing activities such as meditation, exercising or talking things out with friends or family. Keep in mind that unhealthy behaviors develop over time and can be difficult to change. Don't take on too much at once. Focus on changing only one behavior at a time. Organizational issues in extension organizations need to be managed through consultation.
- **Take care of yourself.** Eat right, get enough sleep, drink plenty of water and engage in regular physical activity. Ensure you have a healthy mind and body through activities like yoga, taking a short walk, going to the gym or playing sports that will enhance both your physical and mental health. Take regular vacations or other breaks from work. No matter how hectic life gets, make time for yourself – even if it's just simple things like reading a good book or listening to your favorite music.
- **Reach out for support.** Accepting help from supportive colleagues, friends and family can improve your ability to manage stress. If you continue to feel overwhelmed by stress, you may want to talk to a psychologist, who can help you better manage stress and change unhealthy behaviors.



- **Coping with Stress through behavioral techniques-** Along with physical techniques, managers may also choose to use various behavioural techniques to cope more effectively with stress, which include -time management, positive thinking, reframing, ventilation and problem-solving.

8.7 ORGANIZATIONAL INTERVENTIONS FOR REDUCTION OF STRESS

1. Job enrichment program

Job enrichment is a management concept that involves redesigning jobs so that they are perceived more challenging by the employees and have less repetitive work. As the greatest employee motivators reported in literature are achievement, recognition, job structure, responsibility, advancement, and growth, to improve employee motivation and productivity, jobs should be modified and enriched to increase the motivators present for the employees. The objective is to reduce repetitive work, increase the employees' feelings of recognition and achievement, and to provide opportunities for employee advancement and growth. Vertical work-load, i.e., assigning the extension workers more varieties of challenging tasks should be the automatic choice in place of horizontal work load, i.e., assigning the extension worker more quantity of the same repetitive task, while designing a job enrichment program.

2. Flexi work time

Flexible working is a pattern of working arrangements that enable employees to decide the time, duration, and location of their work. Flexible working patterns have gained the interest of organizational practitioners since long, with implementation into law in certain countries. Existing literature highlights the fundamental importance of flexible working time to organizations as a means of establishing a good work-life balance for employees; work-life balance for employees is theorized to increase employee efficiency, which in turn leads to increased productivity of the organization. This is particularly important for extension organizations as the clientele groups served by such grass root organizations

mainly comprise farmers and rural artisans who remain engaged in their daily livelihood activities during the day hours.

3. Balanced work-load

The drudgery and routine pattern of work of extension organizations presents the greatest danger for their employees' physical and psychological conditions as they run the risk of losing focus and motivation over a period of time. A balanced work-load can avoid stress and burnout, and become much more motivating, engaging, creative and productive. Assigning to the extension workers the highest priority works first, is essential to create an environment of balanced work-load in the extension organization. Balancing the start and due dates of extension activities and programmes are especially important. The objective of reaching a balanced work load may fail without matching the right people to a specific kind of organizational activity, including the team members in the conversation and resource allocation process and suggesting them standard prioritization methods.

4. Sabbaticals

Sabbaticals are fundamental to check distress in employees. In addition to relieving stress, sabbaticals can help address employees' personal needs. It is important to the individual and should be regarded as so. That said, the expectation is that the organization benefits from this rejuvenation when the employee returns. In recent times, several organizations have introduced unpaid sabbaticals as an alternative to redundancy. Extension organizations wishing to implement a sabbatical program need to plan carefully to ensure that it meets the needs of the organization and farmers, apart from that of the employees. A well-run program benefits both, helping extension organizations to deliver more meaningfully with skilled, re-energized, and motivated workers.

5. Training in planning techniques and time management

Many a times, stress is the result of poor planning and inability to manage time efficiently. Therefore, there is a need to train the extension workers with planning techniques and time



management. Proper planning and good time management are essential to handle a heavy workload without excessive stress. By using planning and time management skills effectively, one can reduce work stress by being more in control of time, and by being more productive.

6. Improvements in interpersonal relationship among employees

Successful handling of interpersonal relationships at workplace helps to create a win-win situation between and across relationships in all work related encounters. In contrast, the unsuccessful handling of an interpersonal relationship at work is the exact opposite. Many a times, the extension managers in an effort to establish absolute authority, set up a situation of win - loss, which causes conflict and workplace stress between and across relationships. The same should be overcome with self-development of the ability to actively listen, being flexible, and having patience.

7. Participatory planning and decision making

Taking the team colleagues in confidence is crucial for effective execution of a plan. Involving the team workers in the planning process helps in improvisation of the overall program, and knowledge sharing, apart from building confidence within the work-group. It also helps in developing we-feeling, commitment towards successful program delivery and ownership. The sharing mechanism in the process of participation keeps stress under check.

8. Wellness Program for the employees

Employees are invaluable assets of any organization and ensuring their mental and physical health sets them up to perform well. The health and wellness of employees usually have a direct effect on their productivity and performance of the organization. Employee wellness programs are programs undertaken by an employer in order to improve employee health and also help individual employees to overcome stress and other health-related

problems. The employer can offer compulsory employee training, staff seminars, informal get-together, and other kinds of innovative wellness programs for their employees.

9. Identification and reduction of work stressors

Identification and proper management of work stressors are important not only for superior performance, also for a healthy life. The sources of work related stress are dynamic as they keep on changing with time and need. Being rational in approach with a positive attitude, is very important in managing work stressors.

8.8 Concept of Burnout

Burnout is a progressive process of fatigue and depletion of personal resources, a depletion of internal fires (Mitchele, 1977). According to Niehouse (1981), burnout is the total depletion of one's physical and mental resources caused by excessive striving to reach some unrealistic, job related goal or goals. Burnout is a syndrome resulting from prolonged exposure to stress consisting of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion plus feelings of a lack of personal accomplishment. There are three stages of burnout in organizations- confusion, frustration and despair.

8.9 PREVENTION OF BURNOUT AMONG EXTENSION PROFESSIONALS

Extension managers need to give their employees a chance to air their workplace monsters, bringing into consciousness the social meaning of their work beyond the task in hand. It is important to understand at the organizational management level that the purpose is not to remove all pressure and stress, but to recognize that the building blocks of stress arise out of the fact that all our rational, conscious plans turn out to be flawed in execution. This will always be so, and the extension organizations which survive these unpredictable times will be those who provide the opportunity for people to process their feelings and frustrations both individually and together, rather than denying the feelings on counselling them in isolation. The motto should be to build emotionally robust extension organizations which can better achieve their primary task; and as for innovation



and staying ahead, individual creativity rests not only in the interface being suitably settled in the organization but also in one's own individuality, a sort of empowered interdependency. The extension organization needs to instill in its employees a strong conviction. Hence, stress and burnout management in extension organizations requires starting with an understanding of stress along with symptoms and consequences, followed by understanding the various stress management techniques and choosing the appropriate ones with an action plan.

8.10 LET'S SUM UP

Stress is an invisible disease that weakens the body's immune defenses, affects a work place and work productivity, but is an inescapable part of life. The cognitive appraisal theory suggests that there are four phases through which stress arises: perception, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, and stress. There are two basic sources of stress namely external stressors and internal stressors. External stressors may be organizational, environmental and social whereas internal stressors are mostly psychological. Stress has several symptoms and both positive and negative consequences. It has several organizational costs too: absenteeism, low organizational commitment, poor motivation and morale, lower job performance and, health. Identification of stressors and coping up with several behavioral techniques may help in managing stress effectively at personal level. Stress management at organizational level requires certain organizational strategies like, job enrichment program, flexi work time, balanced work-load, sabbaticals, and training in planning techniques and time management, improvements in interpersonal relationship among employees, participatory planning and decision making, wellness program for the employees, identification and reduction of work stressors etc. Excessive striving to reach some unrealistic, job related goal or goals may result in total depletion of one's physical and mental resources, called burnout. To effectively manage stress and burnout in extension organizations, the extension managers need to be practical, rational and optimistic in approach.



8.11 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is stress?
2. What are the external sources of stress?
3. What are the symptoms and consequences of stress?
4. What are the organizational costs of stress?
5. What organizational interventions do you suggest to prevent organizational stress?
6. What do you understand by the term burnout?
7. Suggest measures to prevent burnout among extension professionals.

8.12 FURTHER SUGGESTED READINGS

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BLOCK III: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

UNIT-1**HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT FOR EXTENSION
ORGANISATIONS****Highlights of the Unit**

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Objectives of HRM
- Functions of HRM
- Principles of HRM in Extension
- Human resource planning for extension
- Job analysis
- Recruitment of Extension Personnel
- Training and Development
- Capacity Building and Counseling
- Management of Rewards and Incentives
- Mentoring
- Let's Sum Up

1.0 OBJECTIVES

- To describe the various dimensions of human resource management (HRM) as applicable to extension organizations
- To explain the human resource planning for extension
- To illustrate job analysis
- To discuss recruitment and training of extension personnel
- To appraise capacity building and counseling
- To deliberate supervision and mentoring
- To brief rewards and incentives, etc.



1.1 INTRODUCTION

Proper planning and management of human resources within extension organizations is essential to increase the capabilities, motivation and overall effectiveness of extension personnel. Behind the production of every product or service there is a human mind, effort and man hours (working hours). No product or service can be produced without help of human being. Human being is the fundamental resource for making or constructing anything.

- **Human:** refers to the skilled workforce in the organization.
- **Resource:** refers to limited availability or scarceness.
- **Management:** refers how to optimize and make best use of such limited and a scarce resource so as to meet the ordained goals and objectives.

Altogether human resource management is the process of proper and maximized utilization of available limited skill work force. The core purpose of the human resource management is to make efficient use of existing human resources in the organization. HRM includes:

1. Conducting job analyses
2. Planning personnel needs and recruitment
3. Selecting the right people for the right job
4. Orienting and training
5. Determining and managing wages and salaries
6. Providing benefits and incentives
7. Appraising performance
8. Resolving disputes
9. Communicating with all employees at all levels. Formerly it is called personnel management
10. Maintaining awareness of and compliance with relevant local, state and federal laws

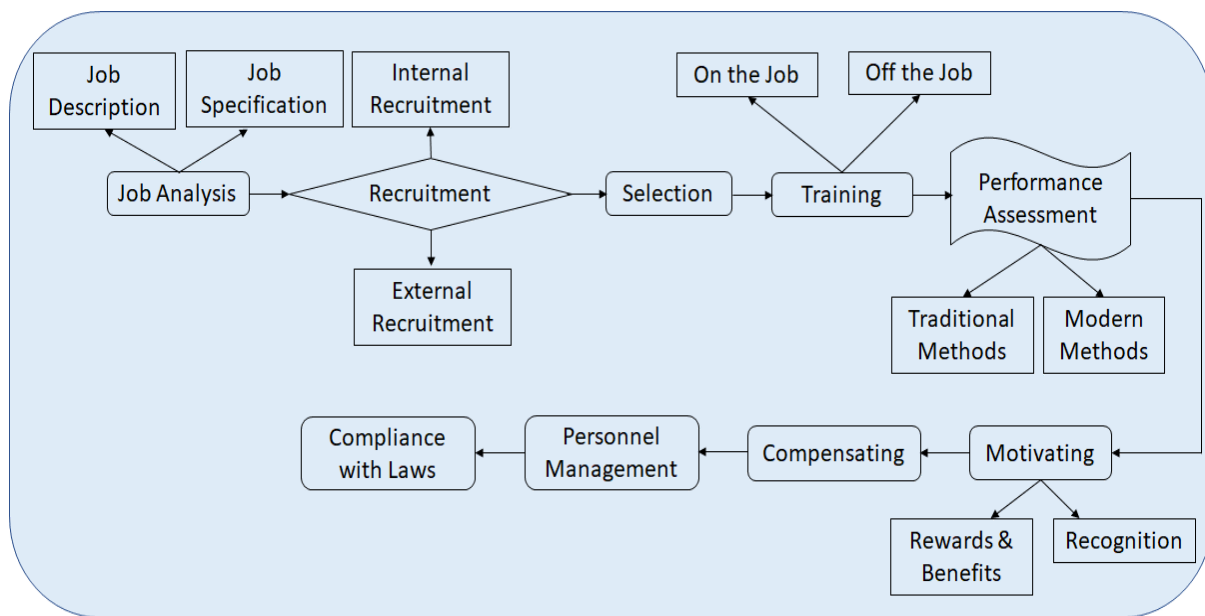


Fig. 1 Human Resource Management Process

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF HRM

The primary objective of HRM is to ensure the availability of right people for right jobs so as the organizational goals are achieved effectively.

This primary objective can further be divided into the following sub-objectives:

1. To help the organization to attain the goals effectively and efficiently by providing competent and motivated employees.
2. To utilize the available human resources effectively.
3. To increase to the fullest the employee's job satisfaction and self-actualization.
4. To develop and maintain the quality of work life (QWL) which makes employment in the organization a desirable personal and social situation.
5. To help maintain ethical policies and behaviour inside and outside the organization.
6. To establish and maintain cordial relations between employees and management.
7. To reconcile individual / group goals with organizational goals.



The objectives of Human Resource Management are classified into four categories as given below:

Societal objective: To be socially responsible to the needs and challenges of society while minimizing the negative impact of such demands upon the organization. The failure of organizations to use their resources for society's benefit may result in restrictions. For example, societies may pass laws that limit human resource decisions.

Organizational objective: To recognize that HRM exists to contribute to organizational effectiveness. HRM is not an end in itself; it is only a means to assist the organization with its primary objectives. Simply stated, the HR department exists to serve the rest of the organization.

Functional objective: To maintain the department's contribution at a level appropriate to the organization's needs. Resources are wasted when HRM is more or less sophisticated than the organization demands. A department's level of service must be appropriate for the organization it serves.

Personal objective: To assist employees in achieving their personal goals, at least in so far as these goals enhance the individual's contribution to the organization. Personal objectives of employees must be met, if workers are to be maintained, retained and motivated. Otherwise, employee performance and satisfaction may decline, and employees may leave the organization.

1.3 FUNCTIONS OF HRM

Human Resources management has an important role to play in equipping organizations to meet the challenges of an expanding and increasingly competitive sector. Increase in staff members, contractual diversification and changes in demographic profile which compel the HR managers to reconfigure the role and significance of human resources management.

Table 1. Objectives and supporting functions of human resource management

HRM Objectives	Supporting Functions
Societal objectives	Legal compliance Benefits Union- management relations
Organizational objectives	Human Resource Planning Employee relations Selection Training and development Appraisal Placement Assessment
Functional objectives	Appraisal Placement Assessment
Personal objectives	Training and development Appraisal Placement Compensation Assessment

The functions are responsive to current staffing needs, but can be proactive in reshaping organizational objectives. All the functions of HRM are correlated with the core objectives of HRM (Table 1). For example, personal objectives are sought to be realized through functions like remuneration, assessment etc. The scope of HRM is, indeed, very vast and wide. It includes all activities starting from manpower planning till employee leaves the organization.

Accordingly, the scope of HRM consists of acquisition; development, maintenance / retention, and control of human resources in the organization.

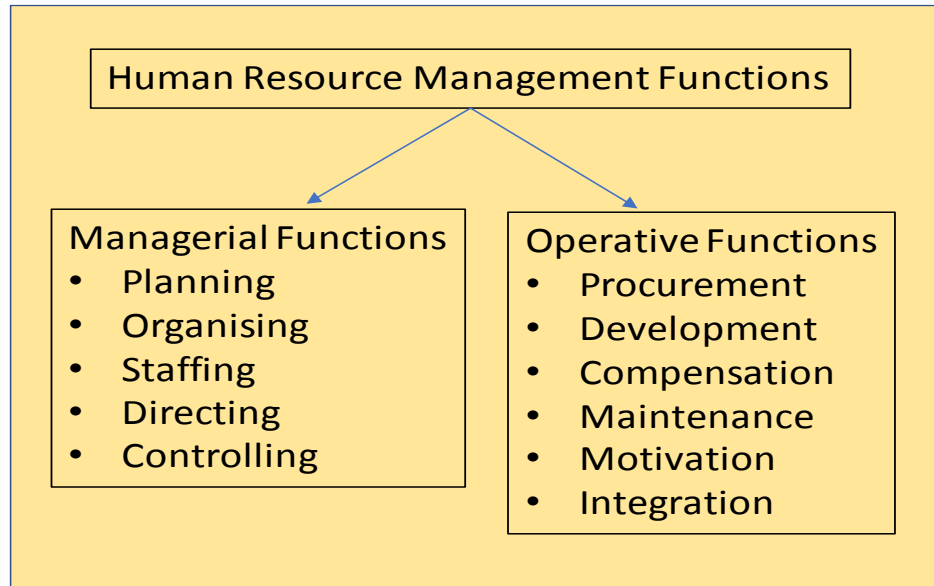


Fig. 2 Functions of Human Resource Management

1.4 PRINCIPLES OF HRM IN EXTENSION

The significance of HRM in extension is well stated by the 10 principles of HRM as mentioned below:

- 1. Principle of individual development:** To offer full and equal opportunities to every employee to realise his/her full potential.
- 2. Principle of scientific selection:** To select the right person for the right job.
- 3. Principle of free flow of communication:** To keep all channels of communication open and encourage upward, downward, horizontal, formal and informal communication.
- 4. Principle of participation:** To associate employee representatives at every level of decision making.
- 5. Principle of fair remuneration:** To pay fair and equitable wages and salaries commensurating with jobs.
- 6. Principle of incentive:** To recognise and reward performance

7. *Principle of dignity of labour:* management co-operation to promote cordial industrial relations.
8. *Principle of labour:* Management co-operation to promote cordial industrial relations.
9. *Principle of team spirit:* To promote co-operation and team spirit among employees.
10. *Principle of contribution to national prosperity:* To provide a higher purpose of work to all employees and to contribute to national prosperity.

1.5 HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING FOR EXTENSION

Human resource planning forecasts the future personnel needs of extension organizations. With the rapid changes in technology, needs of farmers, market situation, and competitive environment, planning for human resources has become an important, challenging task for extension. Human resource planning involves plans for future needs of personnel, their required skills, recruitment of employees, and development of personnel. Human resource forecasting and human resource audit are the two most important components of this type of planning. Human resource forecasting refers to predicting an organization's future demand for number, type, and quality of various categories of employees. The assessment of future needs has to be based on analysis of present and future policies and growth trends. The techniques of forecasting include the formal expert survey, Delphi technique, statistical analysis, budget and planning analysis, and computer models. The human resource audit gives an account of the skills, abilities, and performance of all the employees of an organization (Werther & Davis, 1982).

1.6 JOB ANALYSIS

Job analysis requires a systematic collection, evaluation, and organization of information about the job. This information is collected through interviews, mailed questionnaires, observation, study of records, and similar methods. The collected information becomes a basis for preparing job description and specifications. The job description or job profile, is a written statement which includes detailed specifications of duties to be performed, responsibilities, and working conditions and indicates what is

expected of a job holder. A job specification is a profile of the human characteristics needed for the job, such as education, training, skills, experience, and physical and mental abilities (Werther & Davis, 1982).

Table 2. Job description and job specification under job analysis

Job analysis	
Job description	Job specification
Job title/ name of the job	Educational qualifications
Working hours	Qualities
Duties and responsibilities	Experience
Working conditions	Family background
Salary and incentives	Training
	Interpersonal skills
	Physical abilities
	Mental abilities

Extension organizations in developing countries do not have clearly defined job descriptions for extension personnel. The job descriptions in extension organizations is complicated by factors such as work overload, seasonality of extension, the range of cropping systems, and distribution of extension service over a large area (Hayward, 1990). Studies analyzing the role of extension agents reveal that they face work-related problems such as role ambiguity and lack of job authority, expertise and accountability (Vijayaragavan & Singh, 1989). Thus, job analysis is needed to improve the performance and effectiveness of extension personnel. Job analysis can more effectively contribute towards the development of extension personnel by adopting the following procedures which involve identifying key performance areas (KPA) and critical attributes.

Key Performance Areas for Various Categories of Extension Personnel

A job description consists of many details, but does not specify key areas which need attention. Further, it gives the details of what is expected from the current jobholder. On the

other hand, key performance areas are specific and show the critical functions relevant at present and for the future to achieve the objectives (Pareek & Rao, 1992). The identification of key performance areas helps in role clarity as well as in delegation of functions. This in turn aids in performance appraisal and training. Generally, four or five key areas for a job are identified. The core extension personnel consist of village extension workers, subject-matter specialists, and supervisory staff or extension officers. Examples of key performance areas of core extension personnel are given below.

Village Extension Workers:(1) make regular and systematic visits to villages and farms to develop rapport with the clientele and to understand their problems; (2) undertake educational activities in the form of meetings, campaigns, demonstrations, field days, trainings; and (3) provide advisory services to the farmers and solve their production problems.

Subject-Matter Specialists: (1) keep abreast of current recommendations and findings related to farm production by maintaining continuous contact with agricultural research stations; (2) provide feedback to the research system about farmers' problems which need solutions; and (3) train and backstop village extension workers on the latest farm technology and help them in solving field problems.

Supervisory Staff or Extension Officers: (1) plan, organize, coordinate, and implement extension programmes and activities; (2) supervise and monitor the work of field staff, provide guidance, motivation, and evaluation of performance; and (3) coordinate the programme with inter and intradepartmental agencies.

Critical Attributes for Extension Personnel

The key performance areas indicate the important roles and contributions of different categories of extension personnel. Once the roles are delineated, they can be analyzed to indicate the attributes which can discriminate an effective from an ineffective role occupant. These critical attributes consist of qualities such as educational qualifications, skills, experience, physical characteristics, mental abilities, values, and attitudes needed for



extension. The critical attributes needed for field level and supervisory extension staff are necessary like formal training in agriculture, practical skills and experience in farming, and knowledge of modern farm practices. Abilities in group dynamics, human relations, and communication are also important. Basic skills related to management and leadership are needed by extension supervisors. Values and attitudes such as faith in rural people, commitment to agricultural development, and concern for the whole community are important for all extension personnel.

1.7 RECRUITMENT OF EXTENSION PERSONNEL

Recruitment can be described as the overall process of attracting, shortlisting, selecting and appointing suitable candidates for jobs (either permanent or temporary) within an organization. Recruitment can also refer to processes involved in choosing individuals for unpaid roles. Managers, human resource generalists and recruitment specialists may be tasked with carrying out recruitment, but in some cases public-sector employment agencies, commercial recruitment agencies, or specialist search consultancies are used to undertake parts of the process.

Recruitment is important in selecting the right kind of extension personnel. The success of extension depends heavily upon selection of qualified and motivated personnel. Entry-level positions such as village extension workers and agricultural extension officers are filled by open market recruitment, using the services of government placement agencies. Other channels of recruitment are advertisements, private placement agencies, professional search firms, and educational institutions. Most of the extension departments in developing countries have the policy of promoting or recruiting within for middle-level and top-level positions. For example, In India, positions like deputy director, joint director, and additional director of extension are filled through promotion (Vijayaragavan, 1994). The advantages of this policy are that it promotes loyalty and provides opportunities for existing extension staff to get high-level positions. However, its greatest disadvantage is

that it prevents the lateral entry of talented extension personnel and may promote complacency because seniority ensures promotion.

Methods for Selection of Extension Personnel

The selection of extension staff starts with making the job opportunities known to all potential applicants through advertisement. The help of extension workers' training centres, agricultural colleges, rural institutions, and local government agencies may be sought to give wide publicity, as well as to inform candidates living in rural areas. This is followed by screening applicants to short-list suitable candidates and by evaluating potential candidates. A typical selection process consists of the following steps: completed job application, initial screening, testing, in-depth selection interview, physical examination, and job offer. In general extension organizations in developing countries use a simple knowledge test and a brief interview to select extension personnel. By using the above method, it is difficult to discriminate an effective candidate from an ineffective candidate, because selecting extension personnel demands, in-depth testing of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities.

Testing cognitive ability includes a knowledge test, a skill or ability test, and an aptitude test. A non-cognitive test is a measure of behavioural dimensions which are important for field-level extension personnel, including concern for and commitment to rural people, empathy, problem-solving orientation, high motivation to influence and educate farmers, ability to work under unsupervised and difficult village conditions, patience and persistence, and team spirit.

1.8 TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

The training of extension personnel contributes directly to the development of human resources within extension organizations. "Training programmes direct towards maintaining and improving current job performance; while development programmes seek to develop skills for future jobs" (Stoner & Freeman, 1992). Training has to start with the identification of training needs through job analysis, performance appraisal, and

organizational analysis. Once the training needs of extension personnel have been identified, the next step is to organize training programmes. Methods such as games, role playing, simulation exercises, and case study can be used in extension organizations to create learning situations based on experience (Lynton & Pareek, 1990). Training based on actual field experience, should be emphasized. Emerging new farm technologies call for actual field experience. Extension agents need training not only in the technological aspects but also in human relations, problem solving sensitivity towards disadvantaged groups, and the basic concepts of management (Hayward, 1990).

1.9 CAPACITY BUILDING AND COUNSELING

Capacity building programmes are meant to improve abilities of the extension personnel working at different levels. The managerial skills of senior-level extension officers are improved through management development programme. There is a great need for such programmes in extension organizations because they face complex situations due to changing agricultural scenarios. Further, extension managers have to be exposed to modern management techniques and methods. Management development programmes have to be suited to the needs of top-level extension managers and should be based on needs analysis. Methods such as coaching, job rotation, training sessions, classroom instruction, and educational institute-sponsored development programmes are used to train managers. In India, National Institute of Agricultural Extension Management (MANAGE) has been established to train senior extension managers in managerial skills and human relations.

Capacity building initiatives are based on appraisal of the performance of extension personnel.

The ultimate measure of effective human resources within an extension organization is the performance of extension personnel. The performance appraisal that aims at facilitating employee development has an important purpose to counsel and guide employees towards greater job effectiveness. Thus, a system of performance counseling is

needed in extension organizations. Performance counseling is provided by the manager to the subordinates to help them in the analysis of job performance, identification of training needs, and finding solutions to the problems which hinder job effectiveness. Counseling is an art of communication involving two people - manager and employee. Counseling differs from training in that the former involves a dyadic relationship and establishes more mutuality and confidentiality. The success of performance counseling depends upon the employee's interest, a climate of openness and mutuality, and the counseling process. Extension managers can use directive, nondirective, and cooperative counseling (Werther & Davis, 1982).

1.10 MANAGEMENT OF REWARDS AND INCENTIVES

An important aspect of human resource management which needs special attention in extension organizations is the development of a reward system which will attract, retain and motivate extension personnel, as well as provide training and promotional opportunities. Extension organizations in Asian and African countries have a poor reward system (Vijayaragavan, 1994). Most of the extension services are run by government agencies and operate under rules and regulations of public administration. These rules do not have provisions for rewarding superior performance or for a wage system based on merit. Promotion criteria are based on seniority and length of service. Thus, the bureaucratic structure of extension services is a basic hindrance to designing a better reward system. Among many of the government departments, the agricultural department and extension service have a low public esteem and poor pay structure (Vijayaragavan and Singh, 1992).

The rewards and incentive system can be improved in several ways.

Rewarding Superior Performance: Extension organizations have to develop a reward system which encourage superior performance so that pay and wage administration will be an effective tool to promote performance, motivation, and satisfaction. A clear job description, performance standards, and performance appraisal will help in evaluating



extension work and rewarding people for meritorious service. Ways and means have to be found within the existing framework of public administration for basing pay on performance. Non-monetary rewards such as recognizing good ideas of field workers or awarding achievements will also help in improving performance. Extension personnel may also be encouraged to form professional societies to develop and communicate high standards, as well as to recognize superior performance.

Improved Working Conditions at the Field Level: The reward system must also be internally equitable. The relative importance of field-level extension functionaries has to be realized in terms of pay compensation and other amenities. Lower level extension workers often have to work under unpleasant and isolated conditions. A carefully planned system of field allowance will compensate this (Baxter, 1990). The living conditions of field extension workers must be improved by providing adequate facilities for housing, transport, and medical and educational allowances for children.

Career Planning and Development for Extension Personnel: Career planning is the process by which employees plan their career goals and paths. Career development refers to all of the technical and managerial skills that employees acquire to achieve their career plans. Career advancement, which gives a picture of future opportunities in terms of promotion, is a motivating factor for performance and development of skills. Unfortunately, no career structure exists for extension personnel in many organizations. In countries like India, there are cases where one joins as a village extension worker and retires in the same position after serving thirty to thirty-five years. As a part of improving the rewards and incentives system, extension organizations have to develop suitable career paths and advancement for different categories of extension personnel on a systematic basis.

As part of career development extension personnel should be provided with opportunities to develop their technical and managerial skills to enable them to occupy higher positions. Extension personnel should have a salary structure as well as promotion opportunities comparable to other professions. Recommendations have already been made

to equate the status of agricultural extension with that of agricultural research by offering an equal salary structure, professional advancement, and incentives and rewards (FAO, 1985).

1.11 MENTORING

Two major functions of supervision are task orientation and concern for employees. Therefore, direction and organization of activities, motivation of employees, and management of work groups are the important functions of extension supervisors. Extension supervisors have to plan the work and maintain a high standard of performance. The whole process of job analysis, identification of key performance areas, and performance appraisal will help in planning and organizing extension work. The work motivation and morale of extension staff, as reported earlier, are poor due to many reasons. Extension supervisors should have the ability to mentor and lead the field extension workers so that the field agents perform more than routine jobs and supervisors should be involved in attaining excellence in extension work. This calls for extension managers having an understanding of various theories of motivation such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's two factor theory, McClelland's need theory, theory X and theory Y, and expectancy theory of motivation (Stoner & Freeman, 1992). Special training for developing motivation among field workers has to be undertaken by supervisors.

1.12 LET'S SUM UP

The key factor in the success of extension organisations is improving their human resources. This chapter has discussed various dimensions of human resource management relevant to helping the extension managers to improve their human resource system. The proper planning and implementation of the human resource will result in overall development of the extension personnel. This will enable extension organisations to adapt to the changing scenario of agriculture in general and extension in particular.



1.13 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the core purposes and components of the human resource management?
2. Name any two principles of human resource management in extension.
3. What are the four objectives of human resource management?
4. What are the two components of human resource planning in extension?
5. Mention two key performance areas of village level extension worker, subject matter specialist and extension managers?
6. What are the critical attributes of extension personnel?
7. What are the steps for recruiting extension personnel?
8. Compare the training and counselling of extension personnel as capacity building measures.
9. What are the ways and means of mentoring (motivating) extension personnel?
10. How the rewards and incentive system of extension personnel can be improved?

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UNIT-2

TRAINING OF EXTENSION PERSONNEL

Highlights of the Unit

- Objectives
- Introduction
- Concept of training
- Types of training
- Basic training approaches
- Identification of training needs
- Approaches in training need analysis
- Different training methods
- On- the – job training
- Modern communication technology based training methods
- Let's Sum Up
- Check Your Progress
- Suggested Readings/ References

2.0 OBJECTIVES

The major purposes of this unit are to explain:

- the concept and different types of training of extension personnel
- different training approaches and ways to assess training needs
- various training methods including the steps involved

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The training of extension personnel contributes directly to the development of human resources within extension organizations. The need for enhancing skills of farmers and extension professionals in recent years has increased due to changing technological and economic scenario. The quality of human resources has also to be constantly upgraded so as to keep in pace with the scientific advances. The knowledge level is increasing at a

faster rate. It has been observed that the entire scientific knowledge that man has acquired from the time of his existence to 1750 AD was doubled all of sudden within a period of 150 years by 1900 AD. The knowledge of man by 1900 AD doubled again in just 60 years by 1960 AD. It has been estimated that man's scientific knowledge has been doubling thereafter every eight to ten years. The above situation itself will be sufficient to justify the importance of training in any field including agriculture. Further advances made in the areas of communication and instructional technologies have opened up new avenues and methodologies of training.

2.2 CONCEPT OF TRAINING

Training is a process of acquisition of new skills, attitudes and knowledge in the context of preparing for entry into a vocation or improving one's productivity in a vocation organization or enterprise. The term education and training do not have similar meaning though both are related. Education is designed as preparation for life, not for earning a living, while training is always understood to have a vocational purpose. It is important to know the difference between the concept of training and teaching. In a typical class, teacher controls the process and contents of learning but, in a training session, the trainer facilitates learning and decides the contents through participatory process. The job of the trainer is more of a leader and not of a controller.

Training has to start with the identification of training needs through job analysis, performance appraisal, and organizational analysis. Once the training needs of extension personnel have been identified, the next step is to organize training programs. Methods such as games, role playing, simulation exercises, and case study can be used in extension organizations to create learning situations. Training based on actual field experience should be emphasized. Farm technologies such as integrated pest management and improved practices in horticulture call for actual field experience. Extension agents need training not only in the technological aspects but also in human relations, problem solving, sensitivity towards disadvantaged groups, and the basic concepts of management.



2.3 TYPES OF TRAINING

2.3.1 Pre-Service Training

Professional training prior to any appointment in organization is oriented to make an individual prepared to enter into a new profession.

Example: Professional courses like medicine, engineering and agriculture.

2.3.2 In-Service Training

Training for In-service candidates is meant to improve competence and promote professional growth while they are on the job. In-service training are of different types which include:

Orientation or Induction training: This Training is given as soon and individual is employed in an organization and its purpose is to introduce the newly recruited employee to his / her position. It a usually given from first day of employment and helps in answering the questions likely to be raised by the new recruits.

Foundation training: The purpose of this training is to strengthen the basic foundational knowledge needed by an employee which includes rules and regulations financial transactions, administrative procedures, communication and leadership skills apart from core subject matter.

On -the-job training: On - the - job training takes place in the work place and consists of helping an individual trainee to acquire new skills and expertise through practicing them under the guidance and supervision of an experienced employee. It may be held on either adhoc or regular basis.

2.3.3 Maintenance or refresher training: This training is mostly offered at the later part of the career of employees, to impart specialized Subject Matter knowledge to the incumbents so that they remain updated with regard to latest developments in the field.

Retraining: It refers to the efforts designed to prepare an individual for a new assignment or a broadened aspect of the old specialty.

External training: It consists of deputing an employee to other training institutions for advanced training programme.

Career or development training: This training is given to employees to help them assume greater responsibility in higher positions and consists of providing them with relevant new skills and techniques required for the new positions.

Overseas training: It refers to training in a foreign country to acquire knowledge and skills in areas in which expertise is not easily available locally.

2.4 BASIC TRAINING APPROACHES

Traditional approach: Under this approach, training staff design the objectives, contents, teaching techniques, assignments, lesson plan and evaluation for the participants.

Participatory approach: In participatory approach, the trainer and trainees jointly determine the objectives and other elements of the training through creating experiential learning situation.

Performance-based approach: Here the emphasis is given to acquiring specific observable skills for a task or attainment of a specific level of proficiency.

2.5 IDENTIFICATION OF TRAINING NEEDS

Training need refers to the "gap between 'what is' and 'what should be' in terms, incumbents' knowledge, skills, attitudes and behavior for a particular situation at one point in time. This gap is called 'a problem' which usually occurs when a difference exists between 'desired performance' and 'actual performance'. The need identification process assists trainers in matching a training programme to a training problem.

2.5.1 Levels of Performance and Needs

It is important to know that performance and needs falls under three different levels (Boydell and Leary, 1997) as given below:

- Implementing - doing things well
- Improving - doing things better
- Innovating - doing new and better things

In any organization, these three levels of need can occur in three different areas such as organizational, group and individual.

2.6 APPROACHES IN TRAINING NEED ANALYSIS

2.6.1 Performance Analysis

This approach deals with determination of the performance context of the training. For example, the extension manager in-charge of human resource development at district level has to find answer to the question, "What training will improve the job performance of Village level Extension Workers?". To know answer to the above question, one has to understand how the Extension Workers affect the performance of extension organization at village level and study their job performance. Different components of the performance of Extension Workers and the methods to improve them have to be worked out. Data have to be gathered through methods like interview, observation, and case studies to answer the following questions:

- What is the actual job performance of Extension Workers?
- What is the expected job performance of Extension Workers?
- What is the gap between actual and expected job performance of Extension Workers?
- What are the reasons for gap in job performance?
- To what extent training can bridge the gap in job performance?

Advantages of performance analysis: Through this method one can link between knowledge and skill requirements with job performance. One can prioritize training needs and evaluate the impact of training need on job performance.

Disadvantages of performance analysis:It is costly, takes time and requires skill.

2.6.2 Task Analysis

Task analysis is one of the effective and widely used approaches in determining, training needs. The training given through this method links the training needs to task performance. Under this approach the extension manager in-charge of human resource development at district level has to find answer to the question, "What training the Extension Workers require?" .Since the training has to be based upon the job/task performance of the Extension Workers there is a need to analyze their tasks. Therefore, this approach requires a detailed analysis of tasks performed by different individuals. The data have to be collected through methods like interviews, case methods, and observation.

Advantages of task Analysis:

- A clear-cut identification of tasks and the knowledge and skill needed to perform the tasks
- The training impact can be linked with performance in the tasks, which will be related to overall productivity of the employees

Disadvantages of task analysis

- It is a time consuming and costly method
- This approach does not take into account other factors of job performance in an environment.

2.6.3 Competency Study

Training needs assessment through competency study is gaining more popularity these days. Under this approach, the extension manager in-charge of human resource development has to find answer to the question, "What are the different qualities needs for



an efficient Extension Worker and how to train the Extension Worker on these competencies? The help of experts will be sought in identifying competencies. Therefore, data collection to identify training need under this approach will involve discussion with experts.

Advantages of competency studies: This method is relatively inexpensive and fast.

Disadvantages of competency studies: Sometimes it will not be possible to relate the competencies and skill requirement with job output and organizational performance.

2.6.4 Training Needs Survey

Identification of training needs by survey method is one of the most frequently used methods. The training needs are assessed based upon the opinion of those who are being interviewed. The extension manager in-charge of human resource has to answer to the question. 'What training is needed for Village Level Extension Workers?' The opinion of Village Level Extension Workers, their supervisors and clients will be sought to identify training needs. Data will be collected through mailed questionnaire, interviews as well as small group meetings.

Advantages of training need survey

- This method is fast and inexpensive
- A large number of people can participate in identification of training needs

Disadvantages of training need survey

- The results of analysis may lack precision as they are based upon opinion of respondents.

2.7 DIFFERENT TRAINING METHODS

2.7.2 Lecture

A lecture consists of oral presentation of information along with the help of teaching aids such as black-board, overhead transparency, power point etc., so as to help the learners to understand the concept, principles and methods being presented.

Steps in Handling a Lecture Presentation:

- Make the purpose of the presentation clear to the trainees
- Build the lecture presentation from the existing level of knowledge of the trainees
- Organize the presentation in an introduction, body and summary format
- Adjust the pace and language of your presentation as appropriate to the trainees
- Ensure the availability and visibility for your presentation to all participants
- Use questions frequently to check trainees understanding

Advantages of Lecture:

- A large amount of information can be presented in a short time
- Cost involved is low and can be used when your physical facilities are limited

Disadvantages of Lecture:

- Success of lecture depends upon the trainers' interpersonal skills and techniques
- Trainees are likely to remain passive and dull
- Lecture is not suitable where skill acquisition is needed
- The amount of information understood and retained will be low
- Effective lecturing is a difficult task

2.7.2 Demonstration

Demonstration is a method to help the participants to learn new skills and to motivate them to adopt new practices. Result demonstration aims at showing the results of new technology or innovations. Method demonstration illustrates a procedure, or the use of



an equipment in a step-by-step manner so that trainees can observe and understand the procedure.

Steps in Conducting Method Demonstration

- List all activities needed to be covered under demonstration in a logical order
- Arrange appropriate materials and tools for conducting demonstration
- Make sure that you practice and rehearse the demonstration till you gain confidence
- Establish better rapport with the participants and ensure their active co-operation
- Make the participants understand the significance of the method you are going to demonstrate
- Demonstrate each step carefully with required explanation and highlight the key points
- Repeat the entire demonstration, if necessary, once or twice till all the participants understand it
- Ask selected participants to try the method and check their understanding
- Provide opportunities to clarify the doubts of the participants
- Conclude the demonstration along with a brief summary of various steps involved.

Advantages of demonstration

- Participants can easily learn new skills
- Participants have opportunities to practice
- Principles taught in classrooms can be related to real world situation

Disadvantages of Demonstration

- Organization and conduct of demonstrations needs careful preparation and sometimes it may be costly
- Ensuring the active participation of all the trainees will be difficult if the size of group is large
- Poorly conducted demonstrations will send false message

2.7.3 Brain Storming

Brain storming is a group based creativity technique designed to encourage lateral thinking around a stated question or problem. Brainstorming exercise will result in generation of a large number of new ideas to solve a particular problem.

Principles of Brain Storming

- Suspended judgment: Evaluation of ideas generated is done only at the end of the session
- Free wheel :Anybody can contribute freely without the fear of being criticized
- Wild catch: wildest ideas also be encouraged and trapped
- Cross- fertilization: Building from interesting or new ideas already recorded

Steps in Brain Storming

- Give the problem or issue as a simple question to the participants
- Give the participants a few minutes to warm up and get ready for their involvement in the exercise
- Make the participants to restate the problem in the form of several questions
- Select one or two questions or statements for brainstorming
- Go round each person in turn and ask every participant to contribute one idea at a time
- Keep going around till exhaustion of ideas
- Look for the wildest ideas from the group
- Record all the ideas verbatim without making any value judgment about them
- Evaluate the ideas by the entire group or a selected group of members
- List out the ideas which can be put into practice

Advantages of Brain Storming

- Trainees will be highly involved
- It brings out original and creative ideas
- Cross- checking of ideas is possible
- Alternative ways to solve a problem can be identified



- Persons with lateral thinking ability can be easily spotted

Disadvantages of Brain Storming

- Drifting from main points to irrelevant points may happen
- Domination by a few individuals may hinder others to contribute ideas
- Silent members may feel it a threat to answer in larger group
- Some degree of homogeneity among participants is needed for effective brainstorming

2.7.4 Group Discussion

The group discussion refers to exchange of ideas and thoughts by two or more people on a selected topic. The purpose of discussion may be related to clarification of ideas or help in understanding and application of ideas to practical situation. Sometimes, the purpose of the group is to arrive at a consensus about a debatable subject.

Types of Group Discussion

Seminar

A seminar is one of the group discussion methods where different aspects of a particular subject are discussed in a logical sequence under the guidance of experts and experience of professionals. The duration of a seminar may be of 2-3 days and specific time is allotted for different professionals who will come out with conclusions and concrete recommendations to solve the problems.

Workshop

The workshop refers to assembly of interested and select group of people to learn and practice specific skills under experienced professional guidance. Emphasis is given for acquisition of proficiency of every member who participates in the workshop. A mix of theory and practice is provided in a workshop situation.

Symposium

Symposium is a gathering of experts who present their findings or ideas on a specific sub-topic related to a major subject. Each speaker under this method, is given specified time and discussion among speakers or audience is not a common feature. The output of the symposium may result in the publication of edited paper presented by the experts.

Syndicate

A syndicate is a group of people (8-10 in number) assigned with a task of investigating a particular problem or topic and to find out the solution. The activities of a syndicate is coordinated through a chair-person and a secretary. Entire group works on its own through collection of data, discussion with relevant people and consultation of literature. The findings of the study including recommendation are presented before the entire group along with the main report. Syndicate helps in widening the understanding of the participants.

Panel Discussion

A panel discussion is an effective method for discussion of any particular topic by a panel of three to five experts representing different areas of the same subject.

Advantages of group discussion methods

- It ensures participation of the trainees who have opportunities for contribution
- It enhances the motivation and interest of trainees
- It helps in pooling of knowledge and experience of different participants which can form a basis for effective learning by the entire group

Disadvantages of group discussion methods

- Effective group discussion demands time and organizational skill.
- Improper group discussion may end up in unnecessary arguments and heart-aches.
- Care should to be taken to ensure the participation of shy members and to prevent the domination by a few.



2.7.5 Simulation Method

Simulation method consists of simulating real life experiences. Most common simulation exercises is role play.

Role play

A role play is a technique where one or a group of trainees enacts a real life situations which helps the participants to experience the true feelings of the situations. The method of role playing is useful for training in affective or behavioural dimensions. It may be mentioned that there is no pre-determined script or dialogue set before the actors. The actors of a play are expected to behave as if it were a real life situation.

Steps in Enacting a Role play

- Choose a problem which is consistent with the learning objective
- Describe the purpose and objective of the activity
- Ask the group to select different players to enact the play
- The role areas and performance are made clear to the actors
- Specify the role of observers in the play
- Arrange the room and set the stage
- Enact the role play in its real sense
- Ask participants to list out critical incidences surfaced in the role play
- Carry out discussions to find out the views of all the observers
- Develop a final understanding on the expected behavioural roles in real life situations
- Debrief the participants about their roles and bring them back as trainees

Advantages of Role Play

- Role play acts as a transitional stage between theory and practice
- It is an effective method to gain insight about different behaviours of participants and get to know the strong and weak points in the behavior
- It increases the participants' ownership of learning

Disadvantages of Role play

- Role play sometimes over-personalize the problem situations or end up in stereotype and caricature roles
- Role play, if not planned, organized and processed properly will be viewed as a mere fun exercise
- The participants will be tempted to act in a unnatural way and will not reveal their true behavior

2.7.6 Case Study

A case study consists of materials related to an event or problem. Since most of the case studies are related to real life situation, an analysis of case studies will help in acquiring development of analytical skills. The trainees are presented with cases either through written materials or video and are requested to analyse different situations and make their own decisions. It helps the trainees to develop independent thinking and to discover for themselves the facts and ideas.

Types of case Studies

Case illustration: Here participants are supposed to evaluate the correctness of the decision in the supplied case.

Case problem: Here the participants have to analyse the given information, make decisions and substantiate those decisions using valuable arguments.

Steps in Case Analysis

1. Distribute the case study materials to the participants. This means that the trainer should have access to well-prepared case materials related to the learning objectives
2. Give sufficient time for reading of the cases by the trainees so that they may understand key issues of the cases
3. Start discussion on the identified questions ore issues
4. Record the key elements of the discussion



5. Analyse various viewpoints and make conclusion

Advantages of Case Study

1. It secures active participation.
2. It is an excellent tool to improve analytical thinking, decision making and problem solving.
3. Since good case study materials are based upon real life situations it helps the participants to apply the concepts into practice.

Disadvantages of Case Study

1. Preparation of good case study materials needs expertise and time
2. Collection of data to prepare cases or case-let may be costly.

2.7.7 Structured Experiences

Though some trainers include all types of simulation under structured experiences, it is noteworthy to point out that structured experience is one of the methods of simulation. There is a clear cut distinction between games and simulation exercise. According to Pfeiffer and Ballew (1988), a structured experience is a group learning design which is based on the following five stages of experiential learning cycle.

- **Experiencing** (Activity, Doing)
- **Publishing** (Sharing reactions and observations)
- **Processing** (discussion of pattern and dynamics)
- **Generalizing** (Inferring principles about real world)
- **Applying** (planning more effective behavior).

Experiencing

This is the first stage of experiential learning cycle which deals with generation of data as a result of going through activities which is a part of structured experience. The participants are given instructions about the goal of the activity including “do’s and don’ts”. Some of the most important activities under structured experiences are:

- Role play
- Writing
- Self-disclosure
- Competing or collaborating
- Creating objects
- Making products

The above activities can be done separately by individuals or jointly in small groups.

Publishing

In the second stage of experiential learning cycle, the data generated through the first stage i.e. experiencing, is made available to the entire group. Efforts are made to collect data at cognitive, affective and behavioral levels. The following methods are used to record the reaction and observation of the participants:

1. Recording of data in the blackboard
2. Posting the data using flip chart
3. Collection of data using rating instruments
4. Interviewing of the participants

Processing

The stage of processing is the fulcrum or the most important steps in the experiential learning cycle. This is concerned with analysis of experiences shared by the trainees. Careful planning has to be made to process the data collected and bring out the specific patterns underlying the dynamics of the activity. Unprocessed or ineffective processing will defeat the very purpose of structured experience exercise. Some of the techniques, which can be used in the processing, are use of process observers, analysis of recorded data and studying the trends and patterns, analysis of role behavior of participants. Efforts should be made to help the participants to look back at what happened at the activity stage in terms of group dynamics and not in terms of meaning.



Generalizing

At this stage, the participants are helped to relate a classroom or training room experience to the real world experience. It is important that the participants realize that what happened in the classroom is not an exercise but actually happened in the real world back at the work place. The important questions to be answered here is, so what? Some of the strategies which can be used to develop generalization are:

1. **Guided imaginary:** helping the trainees to apply the class room experience to the real world experience
2. **Individual analysis:** helping the participants to make a brief write up on what have been learned and re-learned
3. The trainer may also bring some theoretical inputs and research findings to help the overall learning process.

Applying

Applying is the last stage of the learning cycle to answer the question “now what “? The trainees are assisted in applying the generalizations developed out of learning experience to actual work situation. The actual application of learning results in modification of behavior. Some of the practices which can be used at this stage are:

1. **Goal setting:** The participants may be requested to set goals which reflect the changed behavior
2. **Contracting:** Making agreements with co-trainees about application of the generalization

Examples of Structured experiences

Some of the most popular structured experiences are:

Ring-toss exercise: This game, first used by Kurt Lewin, is effectively used to study risk-taking behavior.

Broken –square exercise: The broken square exercise was developed by Pfeiffer and Jones (1969) which is used to demonstrate one’s tendency to collaborate and compete under intra-team situation.

Tower building exercise: The tower building exercise was originally used by Rosen and D’Andrad to investigate the impact of child rearing practices on achievement motivation. The above game can be effectively used to demonstrate goal setting process and to understand the role of help and expectation (Pygmalion effect) in achievement motivation.

Advantages of structured experiences.

- It helps the trainees to understand different aspects of the behavioral patterns
- A lot of interest and curiosity is developed among the participants
- It creates an intense involvement among the participants

Disadvantages of structured experiences

Some of the negative effects of structured experiences are as follows:

- Lack of theoretical reasoning which support the use of structured experiences problem in generalization and its application in real work situation
- The participants may become dependent on the trainers due to the dominant role of trainers
- Lack of processing skill of the trainer may result in poor learning by the participants
- Even if the participants develop sound generalization based upon their classroom experience, a true change in their behavior may not happen as it depends upon so many contextual factors.

2.7.8 On- the – Job training

On- the – job training is known by different names such as side –by side training or one – to – one training. On-the- job training takes place in the work-place and consists of



helping an individual trainee to acquire new skills and expertise through practicing them under the guidance and supervision of an experienced trainer or an employee. The trainees under on-the-job-training witness how the work is done. The participants under on-the-job training go through the following stages while learning new tasks.

- Observation of how the job or work is done by his/her trainer
- Listening to instructions and understanding them while practicing the job
- Receiving feedback from the trainer about the performance

2.7.9 Modern communication technology based training methods:

The widespread and easy to use modern communication technologies have opened up new opportunities for extension organizations. Some of the methods under this category includes Computer Based Training, Interactive Videos, Multimedia, Virtual Reality, Web-based Training and Online or E-learning.

2.8 LET'S SUM UP

Training is a process of acquisition of new skills, attitudes and knowledge in the context of preparing for entry into a vocation or improving one's productivity in an organization or enterprise. The term education and training do not have similar meaning though both are related. Education is designed as preparation for life, not for earning a living, while training is always understood to have a vocational purpose.

Pre-service training refers to professional training prior to any appointment, oriented to make an individual prepared to enter into a new profession. Training for in-service candidates' is meant to improve competence and promote professional growth while they are on the job. In-service training is given to the employees after they join the organizations. Different types of in-service training have been explained in this unit.

Training need refers to the "gap between 'what is' and 'what should be' in terms, incumbents' knowledge, skills, attitudes and behavior for a particular situation at one point in time. This gap is called 'a problem' which usually occurs when a difference exists

between 'desired performance' and 'actual performance'. The need identification process assists trainers in matching a training programme to a training problem.

In this unit, you have been exposed to different approaches in training need analysis such as Performance Analysis, Task Analysis and Competency Studies. Finally this unit also discussed a number of training methods which can be effectively used in training of extension professionals.

2.9 Check Your Progress

1. Explain the difference between the concept of training and education.
2. How will you identify training needs of extension personnel?
3. What are the basic training approaches?
4. List out training methods to enhance skills of extension personnel
5. What are the uses of brainstorming, simulation and structured experiences?

2.10 FURTHER SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Boytel, T and Malcom Leary (1997) Identifying Training Needs , University Press, Hyderabad.
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3. Pfeiffer , J. W., and Arlette C. Ballew (1988)Using Structured Experiences in Human Resource Development, University Associates, USA.
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UNIT-3

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL FOR EXTENSION PROFESSIONALS

Highlights of the Unit

- History of Performance Appraisal
- Concept of Performance Appraisal
- Traditional v/s Developmental Approach of Performance Appraisal
- Performance Appraisal Tools and Techniques
- Individual Vs. Team Appraisals

3.0 OBJECTIVES

- To describe concept and history of performance appraisal
- To compare traditional v/s developmental approaches of performance appraisal
- To classify performance appraisals
- To discuss errors in the performance ratings
- To illustrate the process of development-oriented performance appraisal

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Performance appraisal is an essential process of evaluating employee performance in order to guide and develop the employee's potential. A performance appraisal, also referred to as a performance review, performance evaluation, (career) development discussion, or employee appraisal is a method by which the job performance of an employee is documented and evaluated. Performance appraisal is a systematic process that evaluates an individual employee's performance in terms of his productivity with respect to the pre-determined set of objectives. Various performance appraisal methods are followed by organizations to ensure fair appraisals to their employees.

The most productive employees are those that are constantly driven, and unrelenting in their pursuit of goals. Setting achievable targets during the appraisal helps to motivate employees, and empowers them to feel more confident when they hit them. It is an ongoing

process of obtaining, researching, analyzing and recording information about the worth of an employee. The main objective of performance appraisal is to measure and improve the performance of employees and increase their future potential and value to the company.

Performance appraisal allows to provide positive feedback as well as identifying areas for improvement. An employee can discuss and even create a developmental (training) plan with the manager so he can improve his skills. It motivates employees if supported by a good merit-based compensation system. It has three basic functions:

- (1) To provide adequate feedback to each person on his or her performance;
- (2) To serve as a basis for modifying or changing behavior toward more effective working habits and
- (3) To provide data to managers with which they may judge future job assignments.

In many extension organizations, which are government departments, the performance appraisal is nothing more than a confidential judgment of work done and a character report used to facilitate disciplinary action or promotion. The employees do not get feedback about their performance. Extension organizations need to have an open appraisal system to provide feedback and opportunities for open discussion with employees on their performance, because they have immense potential to grow and develop. This system can create a healthy working climate and employee motivation.

3.2 HISTORY OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

The history of performance appraisal is quite brief. Its roots in the early 20th century can be traced to Frederick Taylor's pioneering Time and Motion studies. Without a structured appraisal system, there is little chance of ensuring that the judgments made will be lawful, fair, defensible and accurate. The Performance appraisal is mostly considered as

a confidential rating of the employees by the superiors and used mainly for the following purposes:

- a) to control employees' behavior through punishment and disciplinary action
- b) to make decisions regarding transfers
- c) to make decisions on future promotion and salary increase

3.3 CONCEPT OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Performance can be defined as a desirable outcome or results of an individual in his job for a fixed period of time. In other words, performance appraisal is a process of evaluation of job achievements or outcomes of an employee for a fixed period of time with regard to agree upon job goals in terms of quality and quantity. Performance of an employee depends upon a number of factors as given bellow:

- i) Organizational climate
- ii) Individual characteristics: The characteristics of employees such as educational level, extent of possession of different skills (technical, managerial and conceptual) needed for the job, motivational level, creativity, personal efficiency, risk taking, tolerance for ambiguity etc.
- iii) Reward system: The reward system affects the motivation of the employees. If an employee perceives that the amount of compensation he gets is not in proportion to the efforts he puts in, then he will be demotivated. Employees also compare their rewards with that of other employee and if they feel there exists inequality, then a state of tension develops in them, which will reduce their performance. Also an effective reward system should also include suitable promotion policies as well as non-monetary incentives.
- iv) Physical facilities: It refers to availability of suitable office space with an abundant supply of all materials needed for the job including communication and transport facilities.

Different nomenclature exists for performance appraisal. Thus, term performance appraisal is also known as:

- Performance assessment
- Confidential report
- Performance review
- Annual assessment report
- Personal rating
- Employee evaluation
- Performance evaluation

Performance appraisal is a process of evaluation of job achievements or outcomes of an employee for a fixed period of time with regard to agree upon job goals in terms of quality and quantity.

It is important to consider the following while undertaking performance appraisal:

- Why to evaluate
- What to evaluate
- How to evaluate
- How to use the results of evaluation

The definition also implies that we can measure the achievements or job of an employee. The outcome measures of employee will differ from one another. The outcome of extension personnel may be measured in terms of extent of farm innovations transferred and the resultant increases in productivity of selected crops.

The performance appraisal which aims at facilitating employee development has the following major purposes:

- (1) To provide feedback and guidance,
- (2) To set performance goals,
- (3) To identify training needs, and



- (4) To provide inputs for management of pay administration, rewards, and promotion.

The steps involved in effective performance appraisal are:

- (1) Identification of key performance areas (KPA) and setting yearly objectives under each KPA,
- (2) Identification of critical attributes for effective performance,
- (3) Periodic review of performance,
- (4) Discussion of performance with employees, and
- (5) Identification of training and development needs (Pareek & Rao, 1992).

The process of performance appraisal (www.whatishumanresources.com) is depicted in Fig. 1.

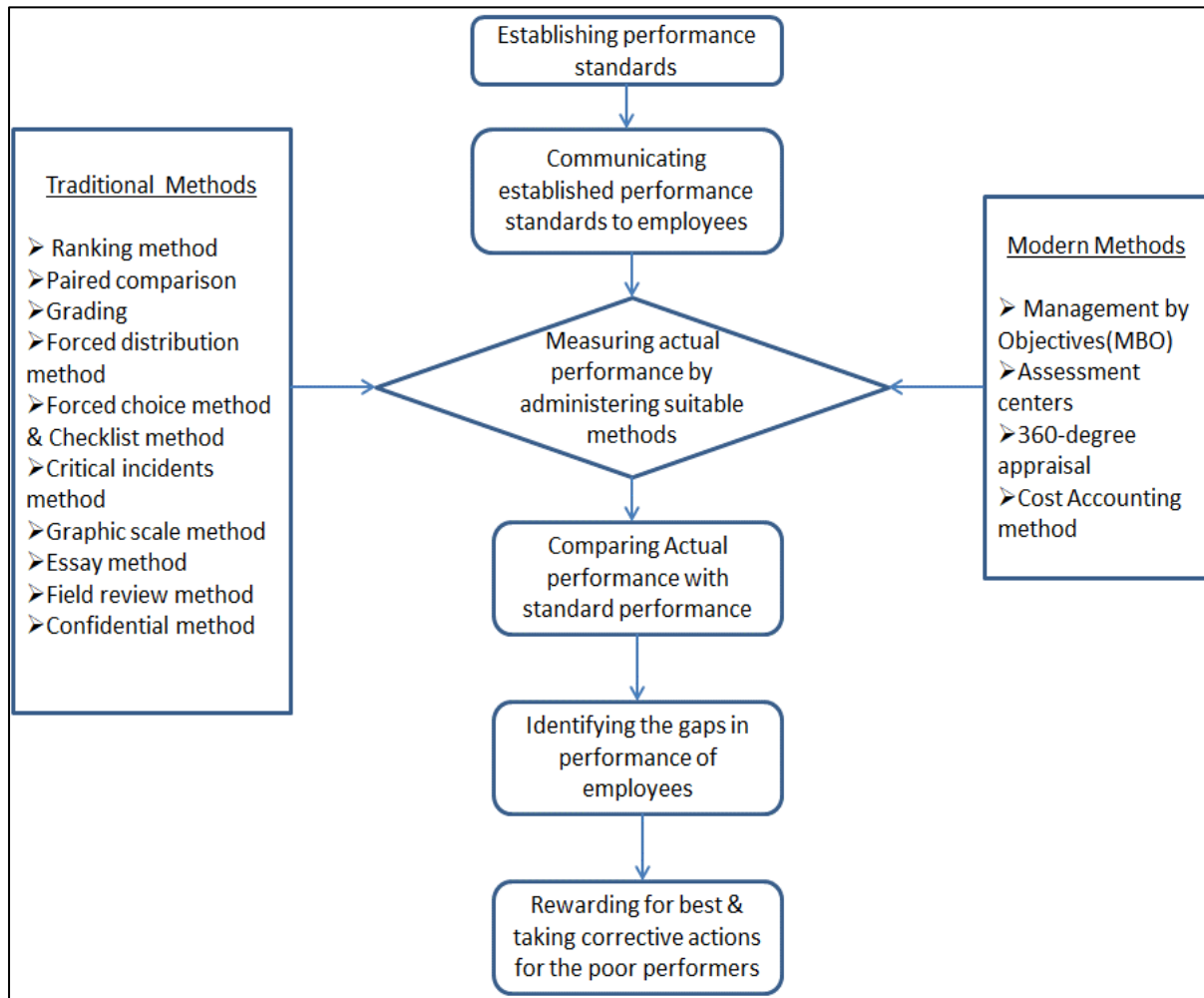


Fig. 1 Process of Performance Appraisal

3.4 TRADITIONAL V/S DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Under traditional performance appraisal system, which is still being widely used in almost all Government organisations, the performance appraisal evokes a feeling of fear, hatred and unpleasantness in the hearts of employees. Even today, the performance appraisal in these organisations is nothing but a confidential rating of the employees by the superiors and used mainly for purposes of control and making decisions regarding punishment. The traditional appraisal system is management centered rather than



employee centered; while development approach to performance approach will be employee centered with the aim of helping the employees to improve the performance.

According to Rao (1999), the traditional appraisal system has the following assumptions:

- 1) There is a need for controlling the behavior of employee
- 2) The behavior of employee can be effectively controlled through rewards, punishment and threats
- 3) The employee can be motivated through salary increase or promotion based upon the results of performance appraisal
- 4) There is no need to communicate the results of appraisal to the employees
- 5) The non-communication of results increases the effectiveness of performance appraisal
- 6) The employee can be assessed without much inputs from them and the boss can assess the employees in the unbiased way when they (employees) are not involved in performance appraisal process
- 7) Assessment of a few psychological characteristics like commitment, honesty, punctuality, communication ability, technical ability and leadership skill will be sufficient to know one's overall performance.

Most of the above assumptions are false and some are only partially true. The reasons for these situations are given below (Rao, 1999).

- 1) Managers can hardly change or control the behavior of employees. The change in behavior occurs when the employee sees the need for it. Effective managers can only create suitable conditions for the behavioural changes in the employees and performance appraisal should provide opportunities for managers for creating such conditions.
- 2) Performance appraisal in many organizations has been found to have poor linkage with employees' rewards and punishment.

- 3) There are limitations faced by organizations in granting salary increase and promotion based upon the results of performance appraisal. If we have to motivate employees through other measures such as job challenge, creativity, welfare measures, etc., we need different types of performance appraisal system.
- 4) Contrary to popular opinion, the research findings show that confidentiality of performance appraisal decreases its effectiveness. It has also been found that feedback about performance of employees helps to examine their behavior and improve it.
- 5) The immediate boss of an employee may know the employees in a better way. However, his knowledge of subordinates may be poor due to factors like a large number of employees to be supervised, time constraints and subjectivity factors. Under the above situation, it is better to consult the employees to know their weak as well as strong points.
- 6) The trait-based system of performance appraisal has serious limitations. It takes several years to develop some traits such as leadership, creativity, etc. Also it is not necessary that the traits being assessed are needed to perform the task given to the employees. Further there is a great level of subjectivity in assessing the traits.

Development approach to appraise the performance considers the following views:

- 1) Poor performance of organizations is not always due to unmotivated employees.
- 2) Poor performance often results from poor planning and management of appraisal system.
- 3) Employees will respond to challenging and realistic goals, which will help them to realize their full capabilities and potential.
- 4) Training of employees in latest developments will not only improve their skills but also their motivation for work.
- 5) It is necessary to provide all resources such as materials and manpower to the employees for performance of job, irrespective of their job title, status or position.
- 6) Employees will always work with motivation if they feel that their work provides enough opportunities for their growth and development.



- 7) Employees will show greater commitment if they are made to feel that they are important for organizations and managers trust them.

3.5 PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES

3.5.1 Traditional Methods

1. **Ranking:** The subordinate employee is ranked by the supervisor on the basis of overall performance. The ranking of an employee in a work group is done against that of another employee and relative position of each employee is determined in terms of his/her numerical rank.
2. **Paired Comparison:** A better technique of comparison than the straight ranking method, this method compares each employee with all others in the group, one at a time. After all the comparisons on the basis of the overall comparisons, the employees are given the final rankings.
3. **Forced Distribution:** Supervisor allocate a certain percentage of rates to certain categories (eg. Outstanding, very good, good, average, below average) at certain percentiles. In this technique, workers of outstanding merit may be placed at top 10 percent followed by very good 20 percent, good 40 percent, 20 percent average and 10 percent below average.
4. **Confidential Report:** This system is well known method of performance appraisal mostly being used by in Government organisations. In this method, subordinate's performance is evaluated and confidential report on his performance is written by his superiors (reporting officer). This report is kept confidential and not revealed to anyone and finally confidential report is forwarded to the top official (reviewing officer) for taking decision against person on whom confidential report has made. Confidential reports are often considered as main criteria for promoting or transferring of any employees in government sector. Key factors assessed in this system are character and conduct of an employee, absenteeism of an employee,

knowledge level, nature and quality of work, punctuality, unauthorised absenteeism or leave without permission, behaviour with other employees and public, ability of supervision and controlling, integrity and honesty of employee, complaints against employee, etc.

5. **Essay Evaluation:** This traditional form of appraisal, also known as “Free Form method” involves a description of the performance of an employee by his superior. This method is subjective and qualitative in nature where description is an evaluation of the performance of any individual based on the facts and often includes examples and evidences to support the information. Biasness of evaluator is the main limitation of this method. Under this method, the appraiser expresses both strong and weak points of the employee’s behavior.
6. **Critical Incident:** Lists of statements related to critical incidents or events are prepared on which worker’s behavior (effective or ineffective/ outstanding or poor) is reflected. The manager maintains logs of each employee and periodically records critical incidents of the workers behaviour. At the end of the appraisal period, these recorded critical incidents are used in the evaluation of the worker’s performance. This method avoids recency bias (too much emphasis on recent incidents)
7. **Checklists:** A checklist is prepared for each job by persons having familiarity with the jobs. A checklist represents, in its simplest form, a set of objectives or descriptive statements about the employee and his behavior. In case of weighted checklist method, the statements are further categorized by the judges and weights are assigned to each statement according to the value attached by the judges. The performance score is obtained by averaging scores/ weighted scores of all statements.
8. **Graphic Rating Scale:** This is the very popular, traditional method of performance appraisal. Under this method, core traits of employee pertaining to his job are carefully defined like attitude, knowledge of work, managerial skills, team work, honesty, regularity, accountability, interpersonal relationships, creativity, discipline,

etc. Each trait is judged on a rating scale like excellent (5), good (4), average (3), fair (2) and poor (1).

9. **Forced Choice Method:** The system requires the managers to evaluate each individual, and rank them typically into one of three categories (excellent, good, and poor). In India, big Indian employers evaluate lakhs of employees on the basis of this system. Forced ranking is a method of performance appraisal to rank employee but in order of forced distribution. For example, the distribution may be with 10 or 20 percent in the top category, 70 or 80 percent in the middle, and 10 percent in the bottom.

15.5.2 Modern Methods

1. **Assessment Centres:** An assessment centre is a place to evaluate an individual's potentiality and performance, so as to position he/she in the core functional areas. Usually, organisations outsource assessment centres instead of making them by their own. Reserve Bank of India (RBI) has opted this method of performance appraisal for its officers. In an assessment center, employees are given an assignment similar to the job they would expect to perform. The trained evaluators observe and evaluate employees as they perform the assigned jobs on job related characteristics like interpersonal skills, intellectual capability, planning and organizing capabilities, motivation, career orientation etc. It is also an effective way to determine the training and development needs of the targeted employees.
2. **Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS):** It is a relatively new technique that combines the graphic rating scale and critical incidents method. It consists of predetermined critical areas of job performance or sets of behavioral statements describing important job performance qualities (inter-personal relationships, adaptability and reliability, job knowledge, etc.) as good or bad. These statements are developed from critical incidents. In this method, an employee's actual job behaviour is judged against the desired behaviour by recording and comparing the behaviour

with BARS. Developing and practicing BARS requires expert knowledge. Successful and unsuccessful job performance is distinguished by collecting and listing critical job factors. These critical behaviors are categorized and appointed a numerical value which is used as the basis for rating performance.

3. **Management by Objectives (MBO):** Peter Drucker first described management by objectives in 1954 in the Practice of Management. McGregor argues that by establishing performance goals for employees after reaching agreement with superiors, the problems of appraisal of performance are minimized. Management by objectives is a process whereby the superior and subordinates of an organisation jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members. MBO in essence involves the setting out clearly defined goals of an employee in agreement with his superior.
4. **360-Degree Feedback Appraisal:** This appraisal method was first used in the 1940s. Analogous to the multiple points on a compass, the 360 method provides each employee the opportunity to receive performance feedback from his or her supervisor, peers, staff members, co-workers and customers. 360-degree feedback or multi-source feedback is an appraisal or performance assessment tool that incorporates feedback from all who observe and are affected by the performance of a candidate. Middle and senior level employees' performances can be appraised by this method.
5. Organisations focusing on employee development use this tool to assess performance and potential of staff and enable the employees to map their career path based on the feedback. 360-degree is the most comprehensive appraisal where the feedback about the employees' performance comes from all the sources that come in contact with the employee on his job. It has four integral components viz. self-appraisal, superior's appraisal, and subordinate's appraisal and peer appraisal.



3.6 INDIVIDUAL VS. TEAM APPRAISALS

Individual performance appraisals are the traditional appraisals that measure individual performance against standard performance measures. Standard performance measures are derived from individual job descriptions. It provides an opportunity for employees and supervisors to share ideas and reach mutually agreed upon objectives. It focuses on the skills required to perform the current job and skills that must be acquired for promotion. This type of performance appraisal provides feedback and recognition to the individual. Often, a direct link exists between performance and pay based on an employee's job rating from the appraisal.

Individual performance appraisals measure an employee's work. Team performance appraisals assess the performance of teamwork on organizational performance. Team performance appraisals assess an individual's contribution to the team. Team performance appraisals are appropriate to support an organization's efforts to transition from an individual-based organization to a team-based organization. Team performance appraisal, for example, assess whether the team met its goals, produced a quality product and worked well together.

If an organization uses a significant amount of teamwork to accomplish its objectives, team performance appraisals link team productivity measurements with individual performance measurements. Organization's with only a team approach do not utilize individual performance appraisals. Team performance measurements determine monetary rewards.

3.7 BIASES/ ERRORS IN PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

Ideally, performance appraisal should be completely accurate and objective. However, many times the performance appraisal process is far from accurate and objective, sometimes resulting in rating errors. During the process of performance appraisal supervisors / managers commit mistakes. Biases and judgment errors of various kinds may spoil the performance appraisal process. Bias here refers to inaccurate and/or distortion of a measurement. While appraising performances, all the following biases should be avoided:

1. **First Impression (primacy effect):** Appraisers form an overall impression about the appraisee on the basis of certain characteristics of the appraisee identified by them. These preconceived and/or primarily identified qualities and features may not provide proper and adequate base for appraisal.
2. **Halo Effect:** The individual's performance is completely appraised on the basis of a perceived positive quality, feature or trait. Many times, this is the tendency to rate a man uniformly high or low in other traits if he is extra-ordinarily high or low in one particular trait. For example, if an employee is regular and has few absences, his supervisor might give him a high rating in all other areas of work. When a single positive or negative dimension of a subordinate's performance is allowed to influence the supervisor's rating of that subordinate on other dimensions, a halo effect is operating. Subordinates are rated consistently high, medium, or low on all performance appraisal dimensions
3. **Horn Effect:** The individual's performance is completely appraised on the basis of a perceived negative quality or feature. This results in an overall lower rating than deserved. For example, if an employee is not formally dressed up in the office, it is perceived that the same employee may be casual at work too so rated lower than deserved.
4. **Excessive Stiffness or Lenience:** Depending upon the appraiser's own standards, values and physical and mental makeup at the time of appraisal, appraisee may be rated very strictly or leniently. Some of the evaluators are likely to take the line of least resistance and rate people high, whereas others, by nature, believe in considering more particularly the drawbacks of the individual and thus making the assessment excessively severe. The leniency error can render a system ineffective with all being rated leniently and thus high resulting in the system failing to differentiate among the employees on the basis of performance appraisal. Just as the strictness error punishes exceptional subordinates, so does the leniency error. Strictness leniency bias presents

less of a problem when absolute standards and results-oriented approaches to performance appraisal are used.

5. **Central Tendency:** Appraisers rate all employees as average performers. It is an attitude to rate people as neither high nor low and follow the middle path. For example, a supervisor, with a view to play it safe, might give a grade 'good', regardless of the differences in individual subordinate's performances. Some appraisers dislike being too strict with anyone by giving them an extremely low rating, and they may believe that no one deserves to get the highest possible rating. The result of this type of attitude is that everyone is rated around average.
6. **Personal Biases:** The way a supervisor feels about each of the individuals working under him - whether he likes or dislikes them - influences on the rating of their performances. Personal Bias can shoot from various sources as a result of information obtained from colleagues, considerations of faith and thinking, social and family background, etc.
7. **Spill over Effect:** it is referred as evaluation of present performance based on past performance. This is based on the assumption that the person who was a good performer in distant past is assured to be okay at present also.
8. **Recency Effect:** Rating is influenced by the most recent behaviour ignoring the commonly demonstrated behaviours during the entire appraisal period. Performance appraisals used to be based on data collected about a subordinate's performance over an entire evaluation period (usually six months to a year). However, many times, the supervisor is likely to consider recent performance more strongly than performance behaviors that occurred earlier and during period of appraisal. This is referred the recency of events error.

According to Lunenburg (2012), Figure 2 depicts examples of strictness, leniency, and central tendency biases. The distribution of ratings on the left of the figure indicates a strictness error; those in the middle indicate a central tendency error; and the cluster on the right indicates a leniency error.

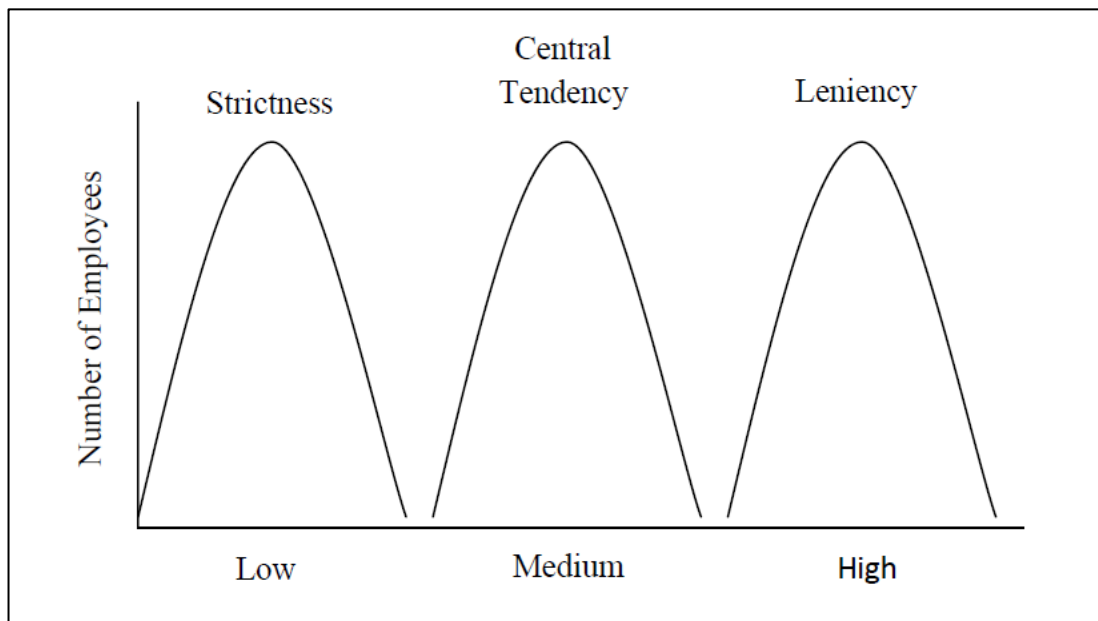


Fig. 2 Strictness, Central Tendency and Leniency errors in performance appraisal

3.8 PROCESS OF DEVELOPMENT ORIENTED PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

According to Pareek and Rao (1981) the steps in development oriented performance appraisal are as follows:

- Step 1: Identification of Key Performance Areas (KPAs)
- Step 2: Setting goals under each KPA
- Step 3: Identification of critical behavioural attributes for performance
- Step 4: Periodic review of performance
- Step 5: Self-appraisal
- Step 6: Identification of performance factors
- Step 7: Performance discussion
- Step 8: Performance counselling

3.8.1 Identification of Key Performance Areas (KPAs)



The key performance areas refer to critical or key functions that contribute to the results expected from an employee for a given period of time. Identification of key performance areas is a part of performance planning of an individual. Every extension personnel should have a performance plan, which has to be evolved from the organisation's plan. The identification of KPAs is essential to prepare employees' performance plan. Identification of key performance areas helps to increase role clarity and reduction in role ambiguity. Other advantages of identification of key performance areas according to Pareek and Rao (1981) are:

- 1) They point the priority areas, which need greater attention.
- 2) The KPAs help to know the important functions of a job.
- 3) The KPAs are specific and indicate the contribution towards goals of organizations.
- 4) It helps in effective delegation of functioning.

Examples of KPAs for different categories of extension personnel are mentioned below:

KPAs for Village Level Workers

- 1) To make visits to villages to understand farmers' problem.
- 2) To undertake educational activities in the form of meetings, campaigns, demonstrations, field days etc.
- 3) To provide advisory services to the farmers and solve production problems.

KPAs for Subject Matter Specialists

- 1) To keep abreast of current recommendations and findings related to farm production by maintaining continuous contact with agricultural research system.
- 2) To provide feedback to research system about farmers' problems which need solutions.
- 3) To train the back stop village extension workers on the latest farm technology and help them in solving field problems.

KPAs for Extension Officers

- 1) To plan, organize, co-ordinate and implement extension programs and activities.
- 2) To supervise, and monitor the work of field staff, providing guidance, motivation and review of performance.
- 3) To Co-ordinate different programs with inter and intra departmental agencies.

It is evident that KPAs and their priority or importance is different for different categories of extension personnel. The identified KPAs are to be considered to include in the format of development oriented performance appraisal system.

3.8.2 Setting Goals under each KPA

Once the KPAs, are identified, the next step in performance appraisal process is to set different goals or targets for each KPA for a specific time period, say one year. The goals have to be expressed in qualitative as well as quantitative terms. Provision is to be made to include the targets and their achievements for each category of extension personnel separately in the format of development oriented performance appraisal system.

3.8.3 Identification of Critical Attributes Needed for Performance

The critical attributes refer to important qualities such as educational qualifications, skills, experiences, mental abilities, attitudes, etc., needed by an employee to effectively perform the tasks. For example, the critical qualities needed for field level and supervisory extension staff are: necessary formal training in agriculture, practical skills and experience in farming and knowledge of modern farm practices; abilities in group dynamics, human relations and communication skills; basic skills related to management and leadership; values and attitudes such as faith in rural people; commitment to agricultural development; and concern for whole community (Vijayaragavan & Singh, 1997). The behavioural skills needed for extension personnel are: ability to work in team, creativity, sociability, loyalty, honesty, assertiveness, awareness of one's strength and weaknesses, sensitivity to the needs of others and motivation to help villagers. An understanding and assessment of critical abilities is essential as it would help in assigning right kind of job to right kind of person. Further, this would help in identifying the areas of training.

Extension managers need three types of skills namely technical, managerial and behavioural. The technical skills refer to knowledge of subject matter and local conditions, which involves methods, procedures and techniques. The managerial skills are related to various components of management functions such as planning, organising, staffing, coordinating, directing, reporting and budgeting. Behavioural skills are needed to work with others as well to understand self. Ghosh (2000) indicated following critical attributes needed for extension personnel working in state department of agriculture:

- 1) Basic knowledge of local agricultural situation
- 2) Knowledge of modern farm practices
- 3) Genuine interest in helping farmers
- 4) Problem solving ability
- 5) Communication abilities
- 6) Decision making ability
- 7) Organising abilities
- 8) Skills in conducting demonstrations, campaign, meeting, etc.

3.8.4 Periodic Review of Performance

Under traditional system performance review is mostly a one-time annual ritualistic exercise wherein the supervisor gives confidential ratings for employees on different items related to the job. However, under development oriented performance appraisal system, performance review is a continuous process. It may be done periodically preferably quarterly or half-yearly, apart from the final annual review. The steps in performance review are: self-appraisal, performance discussion and performance counselling.

3.8.5 Self-appraisal

Self-appraisal is one of the important components of overall performance appraisal. Self-appraisal under the traditional appraisal system is mostly ritualistic in nature and does not serve any usual purpose. Most of the employees are tempted to give high ratings for their performance under self-appraisal without an objective analysis of performance. This

will not help toward employee's growth and development. The objective of self-appraisal according to Rao (1999) is as follows:

- a) To help an employee to reflect over his overall performance and learn from success and failure, so as to improve his future performance
- b) To evaluate one's accomplishments in relation to KPAs and goals
- c) To identify the factors that facilitated or hindered performance
- d) To identify training and development needs

Self-appraisal is used to emphasise on the following points:

- a) Rating of accomplishments in comparison to set objectives
- b) Identification of factors that facilitated or hindered performance
- c) Evaluation of critical attributes needed for performance of job
- d) An analysis of opportunities for growth
- e) An analysis of support needed from supervisors
- f) Preparing an action plan to develop capabilities for better performance in future

Every employee has to do self-appraisal as a part of final performance review, at the end of performance period. However, if any one has to do an effective self-appraisal he should do several informal self-appraisals periodically. This calls for maintaining an informal record of achievements, factors that contributed towards success or failure, important events and reflections about performance. This will help in final self-appraisal, which has to be done using a prescribed format.

3.8.6 Identification of Performance Factors

Identification of factors which facilitated or hindered performance is an important component of development oriented appraisal system. It should be remembered that these factors should be identified primarily by the appraisee and the supervisor who helps the appraisee in this process. Once these factors have been identified the supervisor should make all efforts to strengthen the facilitating factors and to remove the hindering factors. The above process will also help the supervisor to know the different situations under

which the appraisee has to work and the amount of the hard work put by him. According to Rao (1999), the facilitating or hindering factors can be attributed to self, reporting officer (supervisor), organization, sub-ordinates and external environment.

3.8.7 Performance discussion

The traditional system of appraisal does not provide any opportunity for face to face discussion between the employee and the supervisor about performance achievements and related problems. An effective appraisal should provide opportunity for performance discussion which is a two way free and frank sharing of views concerning different aspects of performance of employees. The following are the steps involved in performance discussion:

- i) Submission of completed performance form including self-appraisal to the supervisor.
- ii) The appraiser after studying the self-appraisal report, makes his provisional assessment and gives his ratings on each item of KPAs and critical attributes.
- iii) Fixation of date and time for personal discussion about performance between the employee and the supervisor.
- iv) Conduct of discussion on the fixed date, which will be based upon the ratings given by the employees and the supervisor on different items of KPAs as well as the feedback concerning expectation from employee and supervisor.
- v) Identification of training and developmental needs of the employees.
- vi) Final rating of performance.

3.8.8 Performance counselling

Performance counselling refers to the process of providing guidance with concern by supervisor to an employee in the form of providing feedback, advice, suggestions, and motivation so as to improve the job performance of employees. In the context of performance review, counselling has to be seen with positive attitude. People often think that counselling is needed only for the problematic employees. This is because they equate it with clinical counselling which is needed for mentally ill patients. But performance counselling is needed even when an employee is doing well, because counselling will

further improve an employee's growth. Further, the focus of performance counselling is entire performance rather than specific problem (Rao, 1999).

The main aim of performance counselling is to offer help to the employees to maximize his performance and development. This is achieved through the following main sub-goals (Pareek and Rao, 1981).

- i) To help the employees to understand his strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats
- ii) To help the employees to understand his behavior pattern that is critical for performance
- iii) To identify specific problems in performance and ways to solve them.
- iv) To provide feedback about overall performance
- v) To help the employees to develop future action plan for further improvements
- vi) To improve the interpersonal relationship between a supervisor and an employee

The following steps are involved in performance counselling:

- i) Assessment of performance
- ii) Identification of performance problems
- iii) Identification of areas for improvement
- iv) Action plan for future action

The format for development oriented performance appraisal as suggested by Ghosh (2000) consists of six parts:

Part-I. Basic information

Part-II. Evaluation of work done

Part-III. Evaluation of critical attributes required for the Job

Part-IV. Performance Analysis

Part-V. Performance Discussion and

Part-VI. Developmental Needs



3.9 LET'S SUM UP

The performance appraisal can be an effective tool for development of employees' performance rather than a tool of control and finding faults. Development oriented appraisal system if implemented in state department of agriculture and/or other line departments; it will improve the performance of the extension professionals. Adoption of the development oriented performance system will help to improve the overall organizational climate. This may also enhance job satisfaction and job performance of extension personnel in dissemination of modern farm practices.

3.10 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the factors that influence performances of an employee?
2. Mention three basic functions of performance appraisal.
3. What are the major purposes of performance appraisal?
4. What are the assumptions under traditional performance appraisal system?
5. Why assumptions under traditional performance appraisal system are considered as false and/or partially true?
6. What are the steps in development oriented performance appraisal?
7. What are the premises/ justifications of considering development-oriented performance appraisal system?
8. Indicate the advantages of identification of key performance areas (KPAs) of extension personnel working at different levels.
9. Give examples of KPAs for different categories of extension personnel.
10. What are the critical behavioural skills needed for extension personnel?
11. What are the objectives of self-appraisal?

12. Mention the steps to be undertaken for performance discussion and performance counselling.

3.11 FURTHER SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Ghosh, S. (2000). *Development of Growth Oriented Performance Appraisal System for Extension Professionals*, unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Division of Agricultural Extension, IARI, New Delhi - 110012.
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- 3 Pareek, V. and Rao, T.V. (1981). *Designing and Managing Human Resource Systems*. Oxford and IBH Publishing Company: New Delhi.
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