

Training Program on Leadership for Innovation in Agriculture

Reading Material



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1. Management for Public Systems

I. Definition of Management

One can come across as many definitions of management as there are management thinkers. Given below are a few popular definitions.

“Knowing exactly what you want (people) to do, and then seeing that they do it in the best and cheapest way” (Taylor, 1903)

“The art of getting things done through people” (Mary Parker Follet)

“Management is the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the efforts of organization members and of using all other organizational resources to achieve stated organizational goals” (Stoner, 1989)

“Management is the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, efficiently accomplish selected aims” (Koontz, 1990)

II. Functions of Management

Luther Gullick and Urwick promoted what they call as universal principles of organization. Together, they promoted seven principles of administration and in so, coined the acronym POSDCORB. The POSDCORB stands for seven principles namely Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Co-ordinating, Reporting and Budgeting, These seven principles have been discussed briefly below:

Planning:

The first principle that Gullick proposed was planning based on Fayol’s definition “to foretell the future and to prepare for it” i.e. identifying various activities required to reach the target and arranging them in terms of priorities and sequence. In essence, the human and material resources available to the executive are estimated and the ways to reach the targets are discovered so that goals are achieved in a systematic and efficient manner.

Organizing:

Organizing, according to Gullick, is the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and co-ordinated for achieving the defined objectives. This principle reflects structural traits of the theory and points out that if serious overlapping of functions exists within an organization, there can be no clear-cut system of formal authority.

Staffing:

Staffing, as conceived by them, meant 'Personnel Management' i.e. the process of training and retaining the competent work force in an organization.

Directing:

Directing is the principle according to which the executive should continuously guide the Organization i.e. it is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and thereby serving as the leader of the organization

Co-ordination:

It is the most important activity and it inter-relates the various parts of the organization and synchronizes their efforts so that unnecessary duplication is removed. It aims at securing timely cooperation between the various units and employees.

Reporting:

According to this principle, the executive should keep those, to whom the executive is responsible, informed as to what is going on in the organization so that timely control can be exercised. It includes keeping himself and his subordinates informed through records and Inspections.

Budgeting:

It is the most important principle without which rest of the six principles can achieve nothing. It takes the form of fiscal planning, accounting and financial control.

III. Principles of Management

- 1. Division of Work:** The objective of dividing the work is to produce more and better work with the same human resources available. It also enables a better span of attention.
- 2. Authority and Responsibility.** According to Fayol, authority of a person is his 'right to give orders and to exact obedience'. Authority in an organization acts as a resource, which is needed to carry out responsibilities entrusted to a person. However, authority should be commensurate with the responsibility and any imbalance between the two leads to a situation where the work cannot be done.
- 3. Discipline:** Discipline in an organization is essential in order to ensure obedience and respect for the agreements arrived at in the organization. It is a very essential feature because the organization may not be able to achieve its goals in its absence. The means for establishing and maintaining it are - open and clear communication system in the organization, a set of clear rules and regulations and judicious application of sanctions i.e. penalties in case of any violations.
- 4. Unity of Command:** According to this principle, an employee shall receive orders from one superior only. As soon as two superiors wield their authority over one and the same person or department, the authority will be undermined and discipline will be in jeopardy.
- 5. Unity of Direction:** This principle means that there should be one head and one plan for a group of activities having the same objective. This ensures unity of action, coordination of strength and focusing of effort and subordination of individual interests to the general interests of the organization.
- 6. Organization:** This principle envisages that in organizational business the interest of one employee or group of employees should not be given importance over that of the organization.
- 7. Adequate and Fair Remuneration to the Personnel:** The personnel should be compensated with adequate and fair remuneration for the sacrifices in the larger interests of the organization. The methods of payment should be fair, encouraging keenness by rewarding well-directed efforts and should be just viz. within reasonable limits.
- 8. Centralization:** Top should decide the extent to which authority is to be dispersed in the organization or retained at higher levels. Fayol preferred, as far as possible, the centralization of authority in an organization to ensure "Unity of Command" and "Unity of Direction".

- 9. Scalar Chain:** According to this principle, there should be a clear and well-defined chain of command running down the organizational hierarchy. However, there could be jumping of levels in this chain. But this should not be carried to such an extent that it may prove to be detrimental to the business itself; it should be only unto a limited and desirable extent.
- 10. Order:** This principle should be distinguished from discipline. According to this principle, there must be a place for everything and each person (i.e. employee) should be in his appointed place.
- 11. Equity:** Equity results from the combination of kindliness and justice. Equity means fairness of treatment to all the persons in the organization and hence application of this principle requires good sense, experience and good nature.
- 12. Stability of Tenure:** Management should strive to ensure a long-term association of the personnel in order to make use of the experience and expertise attained by the employees.
- 13. Initiative:** According to this principle creative thinking of the personnel should be encouraged since initiative in an organization is a great source of strength for it and it provides the manager to think out a plan and execute it.
- 14. Coordination or Esprit-de-corps:** This principle underlines the old adage "Unity is Strength". Harmony, fellow feeling and union among the personnel provides the organization a great strength. This principle is a natural corollary to the first principle i.e. the 'Division of Work". Unless the work is co-ordinated, rest of the principles cannot be applied.

Activity/Assignment:

1. Consider the organization/department that you are heading in your country. Explain how management functions are applied in your organization/ department.
2. Not conforming to the management principles creates chaos and confusion in the organization. Which are the principles that are followed and which are the principles that are not followed in your organization, and what are the consequences? Explain.

2. Motivation Management

1. What is Motivation?

Managers require to create and maintain an environment in which individuals work together in groups towards the accomplishment of a common objective. A manager cannot do this job without knowing what motivates people. The manager's job is not to manipulate people, rather to recognize what motivates them and provide for it.

Literally, motivation means incitement or inducement to act or move. It means to make an individual act in a desired manner. Obviously 'desired' implies as desired in the interests of the organization or employer. It implies that the person should act in a disciplined, efficient and productive manner. To motivate, therefore, is to induce, persuade, stimulate and even compel an employee to act in a manner which may help in attaining organizational objectives. Motivation really comprises all the internal urges such as desires, wishes, drives, etc. which make a person strive for doing a thing. Motivation is what makes people do things.

2. Need-Want Satisfaction Chain:

We can look at motivation as involving a chain reaction — starting from felt needs, resulting in wants or goals which give rise to tension (That is unfulfilled desires), then causing action towards achieving goals and finally satisfying wants.

3. Types of Motivation:

In the organizational set up, motivation may be intrinsic as well as extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is related to the job one does. When a skilled person performs a job well, he derives a sense of satisfaction. This is intrinsic motivation, which satisfies the creative instinct in person.

Extrinsic motivation is external to the job or task. For example, financial incentives for doing a job well or giving higher production may motivate the workers. Other external motivations are praise from the superiors for good work, recognition of good performance in the form of an award, administration of fellow workers and improved working conditions and other facilities.

4. Determinants of Motivation:

It is recognized that the motivation is the result of the following three factors:

INDIVIDUALS: To know what motivates employees, we must know their aims, objectives and values. Human needs are both numerous and complex, and often it is difficult to identify them. We have to first observe individual action and behavior at work and interpret the same in terms of underlying motivation.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMPONENTS: Organizational structures, technological systems and physical facilities, which constitute the internal environment of an organization, affect motivation.

EXTERNAL OR EXOGENOUS VARIABLES: A Worker's life outside the work place is also an important factor affecting his/her motivation or willingness to work inside the office/ factory. Life at work and life outside the work are bound together.

5. Characteristics of Motivation:

Some important characteristics of motivation are as follows:

- i) Individuals differ in their motivations,
- ii) Motivation is highly situational,
- iii) Motivation is expressed differently,
- iv) Sometimes, the individual himself/herself is not aware of his/her motivations,
- v) Motivation is complex.

6. Indications of Motivation and De-motivation:

i. Motivated Worker:

- a) One who wants to come to work and work willingly,
- b) When at work he/she gives his/her best,
- c) He/she has a definite sense of belongingness and pride in the organization and involves in the improvement of Management Practices.

ii. De-motivated Worker:

- a) Increasing absenteeism among employees
- b) Low output and productivity,
- c) An increasing rate of accidents and wastage of raw materials,
- d) Frustration and unrest in the work force,
- e) Defiant and violent behaviour at work or outside the work place and frequent confrontation or arguments with supervisors and managers,
- f) Non-cooperation

7. What De-motivates Employees:

There are some management practices which affect the morale and motivation or willingness of workmen to give their best or work in the desired manner. Some of these practices are:

- a) Under assignment: If a skilled man is assigned an unskilled or routine job, it may cause frustration or job dissatisfaction and thus de-motivation,
- b) Over assignment: If a good worker is over loaded to the point where he/she feels being exploited, this may make him/her less interested in work. In big organizations, it is rather a common practice to pick up good workers as others cannot be trusted or depended upon,
- c) Buck Master shop: Superiors or leaders avoiding hard work themselves and passing on the same to their subordinates, and then finding fault with them is a common management practice which may erase employee motivation,
- d) Coercive type of control or supervision which may give a worker a feeling that he/she is not being trusted may also de-motivate or erode interest in the work,
- e) Manipulative behaviour of the management which may take the form of divide and rule tactics, making promises which are not fulfilled, encouraging groupism etc. may also have a de-motivating effect.

8. Theories of Motivation

Hierarchy of Needs Theory:

Abraham Maslow (1943), a humanistic psychologist, propounded a theory of human needs that has widely influenced modern understanding of motivation. He hypothesized that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of five needs. These needs are:

1. Psychological — Includes needs for the basic necessities of life, such as food, clothing, shelter and sex,
2. Safety — Includes for things that provide safety from physical and psychological harm,
3. Social — Includes affection, companionship and support from others,
4. Esteem — Includes internal factors such as self-respect, autonomy and achievement, and external factors such as status, recognition and attention,
5. Self actualization — The drive to become what one is capable of becoming, includes growth, achieving one's potential and self-fulfillment.

Assumption in this theory is that once lower order needs are satisfied only then higher order needs become activated.

Theory of X and Y:

Douglas Mc Gregor proposed two distinct views of human beings: one basically negative, labeled theory X, and the other basically positive, labeled as Y. After viewing the way managers dealt with employees, Mc Gregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mold his or her behavior towards subordinates according to these assumptions.

Under theory X, the four assumptions held by the managers are:

1. Employees inherently dislike work and wherever possible will attempt to avoid it,
2. Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled or threatened with punishment to achieve desired goals,
3. Employees will shirk responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible,
4. Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work, and will display little ambition.

The contrast to these negative views towards the nature of human beings,

Mc Gregor listed three assumptions that he called theory Y:

1. Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play,
2. A person will exercise self direction and self control if he is committed to the objectives,
3. The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility.

Mc Gregor himself held to the belief that theory Y assumptions were more valid than theory X. Therefore he proposed ideas like participation in decision making, challenging jobs, good group relation as approaches that would maximize employee's job motivation.

Motivation - Hygiene theory:

Frederick Herzberg found that people have two different categories of needs in the work situation and these are essentially independent of each other and affect behaviour in different ways. He found that when people felt dissatisfied with their jobs, they were concerned about the environment in which they were working. On the other hand, when people felt good about their jobs, this had to go with the work itself. Herzberg called the first category of needs as hygiene or maintenance factors. Hygiene explains mostly people's environment and serve the primary function of preventing job dis-satisfaction; He called the second category of needs as motivators as they seemed to be effective in motivating people to superior performance.

MOTIVATION AND HYGIENE FACTORS

| MOTIVATORS | HYGIENE FACTORS |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| ACHIEVEMENT | POLICIES AND ADMINISTRATION |
| RECOGNITION FOR ACCOMPLISHMENT | SUPERVISION |
| CHALLENGING WORK | WORKING CONDITION |
| INCREASED RESPONSIBILITY | RELATONSHIPS |
| GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT | MONEY, STATUS, SECURITY |

Three Needs Theory:

Achievement, power, and affiliation are three important needs that help to understand motivation:

- Need for achievement – the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed,
- Need for power – the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise,
- Need for affiliation – the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

Goal Setting Theory:

There is considerable evidence to support the theory that intentions - expressed as goals – can be a major source of work motivation. If people participate in goal setting, they are more likely to accept even a difficult goal than if it is arbitrarily assigned to them by their boss.

Equity Theory:

The equity theory of motivation formulated by Adams (1963) focuses on the employee's perception of fair treatment meted out to him/her as an important determinant of his or her level of motivation.

It is based on the following two criteria:

- i) The extent to which outcomes or rewards commensurate with the outcomes or rewards obtained by performing similar jobs in the past.
- ii) The extent to which the rewards they get for performing a certain job are comparable with the rewards that other people get for doing similar jobs.

The major implications of equity theory for management are:

- i) Management must strive to reward employees equitably. It is important that Managements must not only be fair but also be seen to be fair by their employees.
- ii) Managements need to develop effective appraisal and reward system.

Expectancy Theory:

Victor Vernon (1964) formulated a theory which attempts to explain what determines the willingness of an individual to contribute his personal efforts to achieve organizational tasks. The theory is based on the promise that people will do what they can do when they want to do. The point, however, is under what circumstances are people likely to want to do something. The answer, according to Vernon depends on three factors.

1. The extent to which the person believes that a particular behaviour or effort will enable him to perform better. This is termed as expectancy.
2. The extent to which the person believes that better performance will bring in better rewards on outcomes for him. This is termed as instrumentality.
3. The extent to which the individual considers the possible rewards attractive and worthwhile in other words, the amount of values he attaches to the rewards or outcomes. This is known as valence.

These three factors together determine an individual's strength of motivation. The interaction between these factors resulting in motivation was expressed by the equation as under:

Motivation = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence

Role of Management:

1. Management needs to identify these rewards which are highly valued by their employees
2. The achievement of valued rewards should be clearly linked with performance
3. Management needs to take measures to develop the task skills and abilities of employees

Reinforcement Theory:

B.F. Skinner's reinforcement theory considers human behaviour as being largely determined by its consequences. Reinforcements refer to the outcomes of behavior. Outcomes may be desirable or undesirable to the individuals. There are four strategies of behavior modification and motivation:

1. Positive reinforcement,
2. Negative reinforcement,
3. Punishment,
4. Extinction.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

In the late 1960s, one researcher proposed that the introduction of extrinsic rewards, such as pay for work effort that had been previously intrinsically rewarding due to the pleasure associated with the content of the work itself would tend to decrease the overall level of motivation. This proposal – which has come to be called the cognitive evaluation theory – has been extensively researched, and a large number of studies have been supportive. Work is intrinsically interesting and if extrinsic rewards are paid for it the intrinsic motivation is replaced by extrinsic factors over a period of time.

9. Creating Proper Motivational Climate-Implications for Managers

If you are a manager, concerned with motivation of your employees, how should you apply these theories to evolve strategies for motivation are stated as under:

Recognize Individual Differences

Almost every contemporary motivation theory recognizes that employees are not homogenous. People have different needs. They also differ in terms of attitudes, personalities, perceptions etc., and hence need to be treated differently.

Match People to Jobs

There is abundant evidence to support the idea that motivation benefits accrue from carefully matching people to jobs. High achievers should not be put into a job that is inconsistent with his or her needs. At the same time, it should be kept in mind that not everybody will be motivated by jobs with increased autonomy, variety and responsibility.

Use Goals

The goal setting literature gives us considerable confidence in suggesting that managers should ensure that employees have hard and specific goals, as well as feedback on how well they are doing in pursuit of these goals. The checklist of goal setting is under:

- Ensure that goals are perceived as attainable,
- Managers must be sure that employees feel confident that their effort can lead to performance goals,
- Individualize rewards. Managers should use their knowledge of individual differences to individualize the rewards over which they have control,
- Link reward to performance: Managers need to make rewards contingent on performance. Managers should initiate actions that will make rewards more visible and potentially more motivating,
- Check the system for Equity Rewards or Outcomes which should be perceived by an employee as equaling the inputs they give,
- Don't Ignore Money,
- Create conditions where workers' energies are not expended totally in meeting their basic needs,
- Create a climate for inter dependent work rather than dependency. An effective manager encourages people to work independently or in a team, interdependently. He only provides guidance when needed and by that he also helps them satisfy their social needs of belonging, affection and security,
- Create a competitive climate through recognition of good work,
- Create a productive climate through personal example,
- Create a climate of approach and problem solving rather than avoidance,
- Motivate through guidance and counseling.

10. Motivation at Different Levels:

At the Top

At the top you will be dealing with senior people and, therefore, people issues will fill your day and success or failure will be in your leadership area. So how do you motivate your senior managers? This is the level at which, 'inspirational' as opposed to 'mechanical' leadership has a very definite part to play.

Specifically it will depend on ability of boss to

- take responsibility and not duck it,
- promote confidence by acting and looking as part of the assignment,
- project a cheerful, hopeful, enthusiastic, encouraging, and optimistic image,
- avoid fussing, worrying and constant interference,
- walk the job and be seen,
- set the right example in your personal life,
- be as one of the 'new ideas' people in your organization,
- accept and capitalize on change,
- learn new tricks as they come along,
- show that you care for those under you,
- have the courage to take the right — albeit the unpopular decision,
- match your dedication to the organization by equal dedication to the one above (if there is one),
- have the courage to delegate,
- take hard decisions, remove 'passengers' and deadwood,
- communicate continuously,
- listen,
- avoid needless confrontation,
- recognize and deal with stress in yourself and others,
- pick winners,
- enthuse people — what is called 'charisma',
- make people laugh (but only if you can do it naturally).

In the Middle

The role of senior managers is to guide middle managers in translating business policies and directives into acceptable and feasible work commitments, objectives and targets.

The senior managers should clarify the following with middle managers — their

- duties and responsibilities,
- objectives and targets,
- performance levels, i.e. standards of quality, quantity, cost and completion dates,
- resource level — manpower, machines and money,
- levels of authority and accountability,
- relationships with other middle managers and working groups,
- scope for personal action, and when to call for help.

At the Frontline

'Motivation at the front line' — quite a difficult subject but a vital issue

- Motivating at frontline can be aided if people are treated with respect: even though it is an incredibly rotten job, it is essential that they realise just how important their role is in the operation as a whole, and for the supervisor to gain their respect.
- To create a good work atmosphere as a team.
- Genuinely show politeness and respect that person's intelligence who is doing worthwhile job.
- Showing concern and interest in their problems and difficulties, and be firm on task at the same time. For Example, deadlines and time limits can be an extreme and effective motivator.

11. Other Issues in Motivation

- Intrinsic Vs Extrinsic Motivation – Study supported that intrinsic factors lead to superior motivation to extrinsic factors,
- Extrinsic motivation negatively affect the intrinsic motivation,
- Performance is a function of Ability x Motivation x Opportunity,
- Productivity and motivation go hand-in-hand,
- Cost of motivation as compared to cost of technology works out to be cheaper.

12. Key Words

Need Theories: We introduced four theories which focused on needs. These were Maslow's hierarchy, motivation-hygiene, ERG, and the three-needs theories. The strongest of these is probably the last, particularly regarding the relationship between achievement and productivity. If the other three have any value at all, it relates to explaining and predicting job satisfaction.

Goal-setting Theory: There is little dispute that clear and difficult goals lead to higher levels of employee productivity. This evidence leads us to conclude that goal-setting theory provides one of the more powerful explanations of this dependent variable. The theory, however, does not address absenteeism, turnover or satisfaction.

Reinforcement Theory: This theory has an impressive record for predicting factors like quality and quantity of work, persistence of effort, absenteeism, tardiness, and accident rates. It does not offer much insight into employee satisfaction or the decision to quit.

Equity Theory: Equity theory deals with all four dependent variables. However, it is strongest when predicting absence and turnover behaviors, and weak when predicting differences in employee productivity.

Recognize Individual Differences: Employees have different needs. Don't treat them all alike. Moreover, spend the time to understand what's important to each employee. This will allow you to individualize rewards, schedule work and design jobs to align with individual needs.

Use Goals and Feedback: Employees should have hard and specific goals, as well as feedback on how well they fare in pursuit of those goals.

Allow Employees to Participate in Decisions that Affect Them: Employees can contribute to a number of decisions that affect them: setting work goals, choosing their own fringe benefit packages, selecting preferred work schedules and the like. This can increase employee productivity, commitment to work goals, motivation and job satisfaction.

Link Rewards to Performance: Rewards should be contingent on performance. Importantly, employees must perceive a clear linkage. Regardless of how closely rewards are actually correlated to performance criteria, if individuals perceive this correlation to be low, the result will be low performance, a decrease in job satisfaction, and an increase in turnover and absenteeism statistics.

Check the System for Equity: Rewards should also be perceived by employees as equating with the inputs they give. At a simplistic level, this should mean that experience, abilities, effort, and other obvious inputs should explain differences in performance and, hence, pay, job assignments and other obvious rewards.

Reference:

Organizational Behavior – Concepts, Controversies, and Applications – Fourth Edition by Stephen P. Robbins

3. Personality Development

1. Introduction

The development of the personality of an individual is influenced by various factors such as biological, physiological, psychological and culture of the society in which individual is brought up; also different situations bring out different aspects of an individual's personality. There are some important traits that form the basis of an individual's total personality and affect his/her performance at work such as extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness to experience and the self esteem and self efficacy. Experts in the areas of personality have proposed various theories of personality. Managing the employees requires understanding the personality of the employees, also creation and maintenance of an environment in which individuals work together in groups towards the accomplishment of a common objective.

2. The meaning of Personality:

- Personality is the sum total of ways in which an individual interacts with people and reacts to situations. It also encompasses the traits exhibited by a person during these interactions.
- The development of the personality of an individual is influenced by various factors such as heredity, environment, maturation and learning.

3. Personality determinants

There are three main determinants of personality — (i) Heredity (Nature) (ii) Environment (Nurture) and (iii) Situation. The other attributes that influence personality are — (i) locus of control (ii) Machiavellianism (iii) Self-esteem (iv) Self-monitoring (v) Risk-taking propensity, and (vi) Type A and Type B personality.

- **Heredity:** The biological, physiological or psychological characteristics that an individual is born with constitute heredity. Characteristics that an individual may partially or wholly inherit from either of the parents are physical stature, facial features, skin and hair colour, temperament, muscle composition and reflexes, energy levels and biological rhythms.

If heredity alone influenced personality characteristics, then it would be impossible to alter an individual's personality. However, research shows that personality can be changed. Hence, there are other determinants of personality besides heredity.

- **Environment:** Environment refers to the culture of the society in which an individual is brought up; the norms set by parents, teachers, significant others and social groups with whom the individual interacts; experiences that the individual undergoes in his/her life.

- **Situation:** Different situations bring out different aspects of an individual's personality. For Example, a person will attempt to control his/her behaviour when interacting with the MD of the company; however, when he/she is among his friends he/she will be relaxed and make minimum efforts to control his/her behaviour.

Locus of Control: It refers to an individual's perception of what controls; It also refers to the degree to which an individual believes he/she can control his/her fate or any situation.

- Those who believe that they control their destiny are said to have an internal locus of control and are called internals
- Those who believe that luck, fate, chance or external forces control their destiny are said to have an external locus of control and are called externals.

The difference between internals and externals is tabulated below:

| Internals | Externals |
|---|---|
| Highly satisfied with their job | Are dissatisfied with their job |
| Committed to their work | Show little commitment to work |
| Have a low rate of absenteeism | Frequently absent from work |
| Believe that they themselves can shape their future | Perceive themselves as having minimal control over organizational outcomes |
| Attribute success or failure to internal abilities, not to external factors | Fail to make attempts to improve organizational outcomes |
| Attribute failure to their own actions and try to learn new skills to enhance their prospects for career growth | Blame the management and their fate for inability to rise in the organizational hierarchy |
| Perceive themselves to be responsible for their health and take good care of their health. Consequently, incidence or sickness or absenteeism is less | Do not consider themselves responsible for their health |
| More regular and productive | Less regular and less productive |
| Highly achievement oriented | Reluctant to take the initiative |
| Capable of complex information processing and learning, and perform effectively in managerial jobs that demand such skills | Better suited for jobs involving routine and structured tasks and jobs in which superiors give instructions |
| Search extensively for required information before making a decision or taking any action | |
| Make considerable efforts to control the environment in which they work and turn situations in their favour | |

- **Machiavellianism:** It refers to the extent to which an individual is practical in his approach, maintains an emotional distance from others and believes that the ends justify the means. Those who score high on Machiavellianism are good at manipulating others and try to win by any means. They do not need to be persuaded to work but instead are able to successfully persuade others. They perform well in situations that involve face-to-face meetings. They are especially productive in jobs that require the use of bargaining (persuasion) skills and in jobs that offer substantial rewards for the achievement of goals.

- **Self-esteem:** It refers to the degree of liking an individual has for himself/herself. People with high self-esteem are generally confident that they possess the abilities required for succeeding at work. They prefer to take up unconventional or challenging jobs and do not care about pleasing others and fail to be influenced by external factors. They are not afraid of taking unpopular stands and derive a lot of satisfaction from their jobs.
 - People with low self-esteem lack confidence, look for approval from others, and are not likely to take a stand that opposes others' views. Thus, they seek lower level jobs. They derive less satisfaction from their jobs.
- **Self-monitoring:** It refers to the ability of an individual to adapt his behaviour to the demands of the situation.

High self-monitors are capable of changing their behaviour to the demands of the situation. They can play multiple and even contradictory roles. The way they behave with their employees, boss, clients, and suppliers is entirely different in each case. They make successful managers and tend to get promoted faster than others.

Low self-monitors find it difficult to disguise their true feelings, emotions, and reactions and cannot adapt quickly to situations. Their behaviour is consistent with the way they feel. They do not advance as far in their career as high self-monitors.
- **Risk-taking:** It refers to the extent to which an individual is prepared to take risks.
 - High risk takers make decisions very quickly without searching for much information.
 - Risk-averse people do not make decisions in a hurry and gather a lot of information before making any decision.
 - Despite the dissimilarity of approaches, the accuracy of decisions taken by both risk-takers and those who are risk-averse is almost the same.
 - The suitability of a person's risk-taking or risk-averse behaviour depends on the duties and responsibilities of the job. Example: currency traders require high risk-taking propensity; clerical staff require low risk-taking propensity.

- **Type A and Type B Personality:** Individuals who strive continuously to achieve more things in less time, even in the face of opposition, have a Type A personality; Type B personality is a direct contrast of Type A Personality. Their characteristics are tabulated below:

| Type A | Type B |
|---|---|
| Try to be fast in everything that they do — eating, walking, talking etc. | They do not experience a sense of urgency when performing tasks |
| The pace at which things generally happen upsets them | They do not get upset or impatient if tasks are not accomplished in time |
| They try to be involved in more than one thing at a time | They do not consider it necessary to reveal or discuss their achievements unless the situation demands it |
| They are always busy | They try to make best use of their leisure time and relax without feeling any guilt |
| They find themselves unable to cope with leisure time | They are suitable for top management positions since they tend to be wise, tactful, and creative in decision making |
| They emphasize numbers and quantity and measure their success in quantitative terms | |
| They set ambitious deadlines for themselves and work under continuous time pressure | |
| They constantly experience moderate to high levels of stress | |
| Since they emphasize quantity rather than quality, they some time end up doing a hasty job that lacks quality | |
| They tend to rely on past experience to solve problems and do not feel the need to be innovative in developing new solution to problems | |
| Their emphasis on speed prevents them from spending too much time on any problem. This causes to make poor decisions | |
| Since they are hard-working by nature, they are suitable for jobs that call for continuous hard work. | |

4. Personality traits

There are five important traits that form the basis of an individual's total personality and affect his/her performance at work. They are also called the Big Five personality traits:

- **Extraversion:** It refers to the extent to which a person is comfortable with other people.
 - People who have a high degree of extraversion are sociable, talkative, and friendly. They tend to prefer jobs that require them to interact with a number of different people — HR, marketing, PR etc.
 - People who are low in extraversion are called introverts. They prefer to be by themselves instead of talking to others. They are reluctant to interact with other people and avoid developing new relationships.

- **Agreeableness:** It refers to the extent to which a person subjugates his/her interests for the sake of the group.
 - People who are very agreeable give importance to maintaining harmony and do not insist that others agree with what they say or follow their suggestions. Agreeable people are good-natured, cooperative and trust others. They are likely to develop good working relationships with all organizational constituents (co-workers, subordinates, superiors, customers and suppliers)
 - People who are less agreeable give more importance to their own needs, opinions and values than those of others. They are unlikely to develop good relationships

- **Conscientiousness:** It refers to the extent to which a person is responsible and achievement oriented.
 - People who are very conscientious limit the number of goals they set for themselves, devote their time and energy to those goals, and often succeed in achieving their goals. They are responsible, dependable, persistent and highly achievement-oriented. They are more organized, responsible and self-disciplined and perform better in their jobs than those who are not so conscientious.
 - People who are less conscientious set too many goals for themselves and often fail to achieve any of them.

- **Emotional stability:** It refers to the individual's ability to withstand stress.
 - Individuals who have positive emotional stability feel emotionally secure and tend to be calm. They are enthusiastic about their work and are capable of withstanding the tensions and pressures of a job.
 - People who have negative emotional stability are emotionally insecure and experience feelings of anxiety, nervousness and depression. They are unable to withstand job pressures.

- **Openness to experience:** It refers to an individual's range of interests and indicates how innovative or how rigid he/she is in his beliefs.
 - An individual with high level of openness tends to be creative and had a wide range of interests. Such individuals are open to learning and make good workers.
 - Individuals who have low level of openness have a narrow range of interests, rigid mindsets and tend to be less curious and willing to accept new ideas. Such individuals make poor workers.

- **The Self Concept: Self-Esteem and Self-Efficacy:**
 - 'Self' refers to the personality of an individual as viewed by that person himself.
 - Self concept refers to the efforts made by an individual to understand his own self.
 - Self concept is closely related to the concepts of self esteem and self efficacy.

- **Self-esteem:** Self esteem refers to the self perceived competence and self image of people
 - It has a moderating influence on employees' emotional and behavioural responses to various situations and the stress experienced by them.
 - Employees with high self-esteem perceive themselves as unique, competent, secure and empowered.
 - They possess the ability to positively influence situational factors in order to accomplish the assigned tasks.
 - Such people are able to confidently and freely interact with people around them
 - Self esteem is a generalized trait (it is present in all situations)

- **Self-efficacy:** Self-efficacy refers to a person's perception of his ability to cope with different situations as they arise.
 - People with high self-efficacy have the capability and the required confidence to rise to the occasion.
 - Self-efficacy is situation specific.
 - Self-efficacy and employee performance are highly correlated.
 - The relationship between self-efficacy and performance is cyclical — self-efficacy affects performance and performance affects self efficacy.
 - The role of self-efficacy is vital in helping an individual cope with tough jobs, make a career choice, learn and achieve something and adapt to new technology
 - Organizations can enhance self-efficacy of employees by training them
 - The self-efficacy of a person can be measured along three dimensions — level, strength and generality.
 - Level refers to the number of tasks a person can effectively perform
 - Strength refers to how firmly an individual believes he is capable of performing a task
 - Generality refers to the extent to which the self-efficacy expectations of an individual can be generalized, instead of varying from situation to situation.

5. Theories of Personality:

Levinson's Theory of Adult Life stages

- Daniel Levinson proposed that personality development of an individual progresses with age
- He theorized that there are four transitional periods and four periods of stability.
- Personality development takes place during transitional periods; during the periods of stability, no development takes place.
- The transitional periods and periods of stability are as under:

| Periods of stability | Periods of transition |
|--|----------------------------------|
| Stepping into the adult world: Age 22-28 | Age 30 transition: Age 28-33 |
| Settling down: Age 33-40 | Mid-life transition: Age 40-45 |
| Stepping into middle adulthood Age 45-50 | Age fifty transition: Age 50-55 |
| Culmination of middle adulthood: Age 55-60 | Late adult transition: Age 60-65 |

- The maximum development of one's personality takes place during the mid-life transition
- An individual's attitude towards work undergoes tremendous change during periods of transition rather than during periods of stability
- There is, however, no evidence to back up Levinson's theory.
- Since he was not able to explain the vast differences in personality among people of the same age, he redefined the stages as eras — early adult, mid-life, and late adult — each of which included a transition-in period, a period of stability, and a transition-out period
- He later modified his approach to suggest that every stage of an individual's life cycle is characterized by interplay of mobility and stability.

Hall's Career Stage model:

○ Hall blended Levinson's theory with other adult stage theories to develop a model for career stages

| Stage | Activity |
|---------------------|--|
| Exploration stage | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Seeks an identity for himself/herself ➤ Attempts to understand himself/herself and his/her personality ➤ Tries out various roles in his/her career ➤ Relatively unstable in his/her career and less productive ➤ Keeps switching jobs in search of the right one |
| Establishment stage | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Employee tries to settle down in his/her job ➤ Interacts with co-workers to develop a good relationship with them ➤ Productivity increases |
| Maintenance stage | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Productivity reaches its peak ➤ Feels the need to contribute something to the next generation (may act as a mentor to his/her Subordinates) ➤ Productivity may either increase or remain stagnant |
| Decline stage | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Productivity starts declining ➤ Individual evaluates his/her life and tries to convince himself/herself that he/she made the right choices |

Chris Argyris' Immaturity to Maturity Continuum:

- Proposed that the degree of development of an individual's personality can be explained in seven dimensions — (i) Passivity — Activity (ii) Dependence — independence (iii) Behaving in a few ways — Capable of behaving in many ways (iv) Erratic, shallow interests — Deeper and stronger interests (v) Short time perspective — Long time perspective (past and future) (vi) Subordinate position — Equal or superordinate position, and (vii) Lack of awareness of self — Awareness and control over self
- Just as a human being develops 'from an infant to an adult', human personality development too takes place along a continuum, rather than stages, from immaturity to maturity.
- It is not essential that all individuals exhibit all the seven dimensions of personality on reaching the mature end of the continuum

| Immaturity characteristics | Maturity characteristics |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Passivity | Activity |
| Dependence | Independence |
| Few ways of behaving | Diverse ways of behaving |
| Shallow interests | Deep interests |
| Short-time perspective | Long time perspective |
| Subordinate position | Superordinate position |
| Lack of self awareness | Self awareness and control |

- The seven dimensions reflect only one aspect of an individual's personality. Personality also depends on other factors like perception, self-concept, and the ability to adapt or adjust.
- As an individual progress from infancy to adulthood along the continuum, there is a continual change in the level of development along different dimensions
- This model can only measure and describe the development of an individual's personality but cannot predict any specific behaviour of the individual.

- The latent characteristics of personality, which form the basis of the seven dimensions, may be quite different from the externally visible behaviour of people.
- The personalities of employees in an organization are generally at the mature end of the continuum. However, organizations fail to recognize this maturity and treat employees as if they are immature. This leads to conflict.

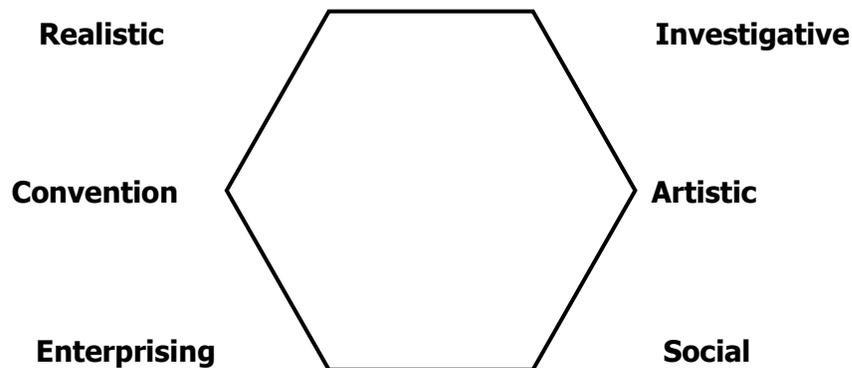
Edgar Schein's Socialization Process:

- Socialization refers to the process through which an individual's personality is influenced by his interaction with certain persons, groups and society at large.
- It is a continuous process that goes on life-long
- Since socialization has a major impact on the behaviour of employees in organizations, Schein proposes that it is important to analyze and control the socialization forces in an organization.
- The socialization process in an organization is mostly confined to learning the prevailing values, norms, and behavioural patterns
- Socialization can take place through mentorship programmes, training and orientation, and reward systems. Other steps that an organization can take to socialize employees include:
 - Offering them interesting and challenging work
 - Providing them proper and relevant training
 - Providing them with objective and timely feedback
 - Appointing an experienced supervisor to conduct the socialization process
 - Designing an informal orientation programme
 - Assigning new employees to work groups that are highly satisfied and have high morale.
 - Socialization is also necessary when organizational member move up the hierarchy
 - Socialization can also take place through job rotation.

Holland's Typology of matching personalities with jobs:

- John Holland established a relationship between personality characteristics, the requirements of a job and job performance.

- Developed a Vocational Preference inventory and plotted the results in the form of a hexagonal diagram, with each corner representing an occupational personality type.
- The closer two personality types are in the hexagon, the more compatible they are. Those that are adjacent to each other are similar, whereas those that are diagonally opposite are dissimilar in nature.
- When personality type and occupation match each other, job satisfaction is high and turnover is low.



| Type | Personality characteristics | Congruent occupations |
|---|--|--|
| <i>Realistic:</i> Prefer physical activities that require skill, strength, and coordination | Shy, genuine, persistent, stable, conforming, practical | Mechanic, Drill press operator, assembly line worker, farmer |
| <i>Investigative:</i> Prefers activities that involve thinking, organizing and understanding | Analytical, original, curious, independent | Biologists, economists, mathematician, news reporter |
| <i>Social:</i> Prefers activities that involve helping and developing others | Sociable, friendly, cooperative, understanding | Social worker, psychologist, teacher, counselor, clinical |
| <i>Conventional:</i> Prefers rule-regulated, orderly and unambiguous activities | Conforming, efficient, practical, inflexible, unimaginative, | Accountant, Corporate manager, bank teller, file clerk |
| <i>Enterprising:</i> Prefers verbal activities where there are opportunities to influence others and attain power | Self-confident, ambitious, energetic, domineering | Lawyer, real estate agent, PR specialist, small business manager |
| <i>Artistic:</i> Prefers ambiguous unsystematic activities that allow creative expression | Imaginative, disorderly, idealistic, emotional, impractical | Painter, musician, writer, interior decorator |

Reference:

Organizational Behavior – Concepts, Controversies, and Applications – Fourth Edition by Stephen P. Robbins.

4. Leadership Development

1. Introduction

Several community-initiated projects have come to a grinding halt owing to lack of leadership and other management skills. Many local leaders have the best of intentions for solving environmental problems in their community and initiate a project only to see it fail through poor leadership. Sometimes, they have an out-dated philosophy of management, which does not sit comfortably with volunteer members of government and non-government agencies. Ideas about leadership have changed considerably, and the expectations of groups and communities are changing too. As people become better educated, they become more articulate and no longer respond to authoritative styles of leadership in every situation. There is a need and also a demand for community involvement in decision-making. Participative styles of management are needed when addressing the complex problems that land and water management groups have to solve. Leaders perform various roles such as planning and implementing, evaluating, monitoring, controlling, motivating, managing conflicts, organizing task groups, mobilizing human and financial resources, and above all setting an example to the group.

2. Understanding Leadership

While most people already have one's own idea of what leadership is, it is in fact a political concept. Attempts to define leadership, therefore, often generate strong personal reactions. We recognize that leadership is necessary for efficiency, but because of our egalitarian tradition, we are uncomfortable with any suggestion of superiority (1). There are a number of major theories about leadership. Each focuses on a different aspect of human behaviour and provides useful insights into what makes a good leader.

Source: Chamala Shankaraiah and Mortiss, PD, Developing Leadership Skills. Chapter Reprints from Working Together for Land Care, Australian Academic Press Pvt. Ltd., 1990

Leadership is sometimes viewed as headship, as in a formal position such as that of chairperson, director, or politician. A person who lacks leadership skills may still be appointed to such a position. In due course, new leaders may replace this person if he/she does not learn to exercise the functions of leadership in such a way as to satisfy the needs of the group or the community. While corporation staff or government officers are usually termed "managers", and people elected from the community are labeled "leaders", both positions involve leadership and management functions.

Leadership has been defined as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts towards the achievement of goals in a given situation" (2). The source of influence may be formal or informal. Leaders can emerge from within a group as well as being formally appointed.

Although we all start with different amounts of natural talent, leadership is a learned behaviour. The skills involved can be acquired. Leaders are not born, they are made. Each person is a potential leader. As in any other field of endeavour, such as cricket, medicine or farming, natural abilities can be developed through study and practice. Many of today's prominent leaders in the rural community began as inexperienced members of community groups.

Give a Lead in Rescuing the Future

3. Bases of Power

Why is it that we are able to influence people? And why do some people have more power of influence than others? Research has revealed that there are in fact five bases of this influence (3).

- i. Reward Power:** In some situations, people have the ability to give out money, promotions, recognition or resources and they use this to influence others. Not everyone can offer these material rewards, but everybody has the ability to give praise and support.

- ii. Coercive Power:** People who have the ability to punish those who do not comply with their wishes have coercive power. This power may be based on a formal position, as with police, employers, or supervisors, or it can stem from the ability to withhold such things as

custom, recognition, or service. It can also be based on the exertion of other pressures such as harassment or social censure.

- iii. **Legitimate Power:** This stems from internalized values, which recognize that particular people, because of their position, have the legitimate right to influence others. If legitimate power is used outside its recognized sphere, there will be a decrease in the legitimate power of the person exercising it. In other words, leaders who abuse power will be rejected in the long run.
- iv. **Referent Power:** This is based on the desire to identify and be closely associated with a person or group. The "reference group" is a concept that has emerged from the recognition of this power. Any person or group that people look up to and follow has referent power.
- v. **Knowledge Power:** Sometimes called "expert power". This results from the perception that a person knows more than oneself about certain things. The range of expert power is limited to particular areas of knowledge.
- vi. **People Power:** By organizing into groups, a once loosely-knit community can acquire new strength and power. If these groups join at catchments, regional and national level, this will further increase and extend their influence. The participative action model provides a basis for building sustainable community groups.

These sources of power are interrelated and are found in everyone in every community, in varying degrees. The practical implication of understanding this concept is that you can increase your or community power in any of these areas except legitimate power, although this too may be acquired as a result of an overall increase in power. Leaders need to recharge their power bases periodically by gaining new knowledge and skills.

4. Spheres of Influences

In our society, different leaders influence different spheres of activity. Some will be opinion leaders on only one topic (monomorphic leaders) and others will be opinion-leaders on a variety of topics (polymorphic leaders). It is important to understand in which area (s) of knowledge an

individual commands trust, respect and credibility. (An effective operational leader uses different kinds of opinion-leaders for their various specialized skills).

Another facet of influence is that of its geographical extent. A leader may be influential at a district, shire, region, state, national or even international level.

In other words, the influence of a leader can be specific to a topic or to a geographic region. The group can benefit from an understanding of the spheres of influence of various leaders and by networking with them.

5. Theories of Leadership

The phenomenon of leadership has fascinated people since the earliest times. More recently, sociologists, psychologists, political scientists and historians have put forward a number of theories on leadership. A brief summary of the more important theories is given below to provide an understanding of leadership behaviour:

Trait Theory (Great Man Theory)

According to this school of thought, leadership is rooted in biology. Researchers mainly focus on isolating physical and psychological qualities of leaders such as height, strength, body type, enthusiasm, intelligence, self-confidence, decisiveness, bravery and charisma. Some of those who support the trait theory believe that leaders are born, not made, while others take the view that everyone can lead, but he or she will lead differently. The most popular interpretation of this view is the leadership development philosophy based on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), a long-established personality assessment questionnaire. Using the MBTI supposedly allows people to discover and nurture their own leadership traits as well as understand and relate effectively to other leaders of differing types.

The trait approach basically states that you either have it or you don't, and the "right" person will be selected to fill formal positions. Some behavioural scientists, however, have focused more on the behaviour of effective leaders. Maybe there is something unique about leadership behaviour, e.g. is it more democratic than autocratic? This approach has been seen as more useful than the trait theory as it may provide more definitive answers on effective leadership, and suggests that people can be trained as leaders.

Contingency Theories

(Leadership dependent or contingent on many factors)

Over time, researchers have realized that the process of successfully predicting leadership is much more complex than simply isolating a few traits or preferable behaviours. Instead, they focus on situational influences. As the situation changes so should the styles and roles of leadership. One of the most basic mistakes a leader can make is to use the same leadership approach in all situations.

Two major approaches stem from contingency theory — that of styles and roles, and that of situational leadership.

The Styles and Roles Approach: This approach analyses the leadership roles and behavioural styles of successful leaders. It acknowledges that group situations are often different, and emphasizes the need for flexibility in styles and roles. A person must play many roles and employ different styles in order to be an effective leader.

The leadership function moves around in a group depending upon who is doing what. For example, one person might lead in the initiation of a group task, another may assume leadership by offering information and yet another may move into the lead by including everyone in the discussion. Leadership is dynamic and situational, requiring different skills and knowledge as a group progresses towards its goals.

Some researchers (4) have identified five major leadership roles: the Activator, the Controller, the Martyr, the Cavalier and the Abdicator. These roles can be described with regard to the degree of flexibility and of activity they exhibit.

The Activator: When a person plays the part of an activator, the chosen behaviour style is active and flexible. He/she is interested in involving other members of the group in a problem or situation and shares the decision-making process, operating on the principle that "People support what they help create". The activator style also incorporates initiating, assimilating, reinforcing and solidifying functions.

The Controller: When a leader plays this role, the source of power comes from rewards and punishments. He/she attempts to frighten the group into action and the leadership behaviour

is rigid but active. This rigidity comes from his/her role expectations. The controller style incorporates regimentation, judgmental behaviour, and giving rewards and punishments.

The Martyr: In this role, the leader attempts to induce guilt feelings in the followers. Martyrs try to impose their own values and policies on everyone. Rules may become an end in themselves, rather than a means to an end. Martyrs have a behaviour style that is primarily passive, but they can become very active in enforcing their own norms. Over-working themselves and seeking pity are other aspects of the martyr role.

The Cavalier: In this role, the leader wins group support through fun and games. The behavioural style varies between active and passive and has too much flexibility. The leader tries to entertain, avoids judgment and seeks approval. There is an element of larrikinism in his/her behaviour.

The Abdicator: The abdicator avoids responsibility, postpones action, takes no risks, and often withdraws from the group. The style is passive and usually rigid, but it can be flexible on occasion. He/she manipulates every situation so that others take on responsibilities and get the blame when things go wrong.

While the activator role is usually the appropriate one in participative action groups, each of the other roles can be usefully adopted in certain situations.

Leadership can be exercised in a variety of social styles. Four such styles —Analytical, Amiable, Expressive and Driver — can be represented by using two dimensions of behaviour, assertiveness and responsiveness (5). You should bear in mind that these styles are neither good nor bad, just different. People of each type have achieved impressive successes in both leadership and supportive roles.

Analytical style: People with an analytical social style combine a high level of emotional selfcontrol with a low level of assertiveness. They tend to take a precise, deliberate and systematic approach to their work. They gather and evaluate much data before acting. People with this style are generally hardworking, objective and well-organized. When their strengths are over-extended, however, they can be inflexible and given to 'nit-picking'. Their preferred fall-back behaviour is avoidance.

Amiable style: Persons who have an amiable social style combine higher-than-average responsiveness with a comparatively low level of assertiveness. They tend to be highly sensitive and sympathetic to the needs of others. Their trust in other people may bring out the best in the people with whom they mix. Extremes of this style give rise to conformist and permissive behaviour. Amiable people fall back to an acquiescing position.

Expressive style: Persons with an expressive social style are the most flamboyant, having a high level of assertiveness integrated with much emotional expression. They tend to look at the broad picture and take a fresh and novel approach to problems. They are willing to take risks in order to realize their goals. Their love of fun, use of humour and spontaneous ways often lift the morale of their co-workers. Their ability to charm, persuade, excite and inspire people with a vision of the future can be a strong motivating force. When unrestrained, people with this style can be over-bearing and pursue unrealistic goals. Their back-up strategy is to attack.

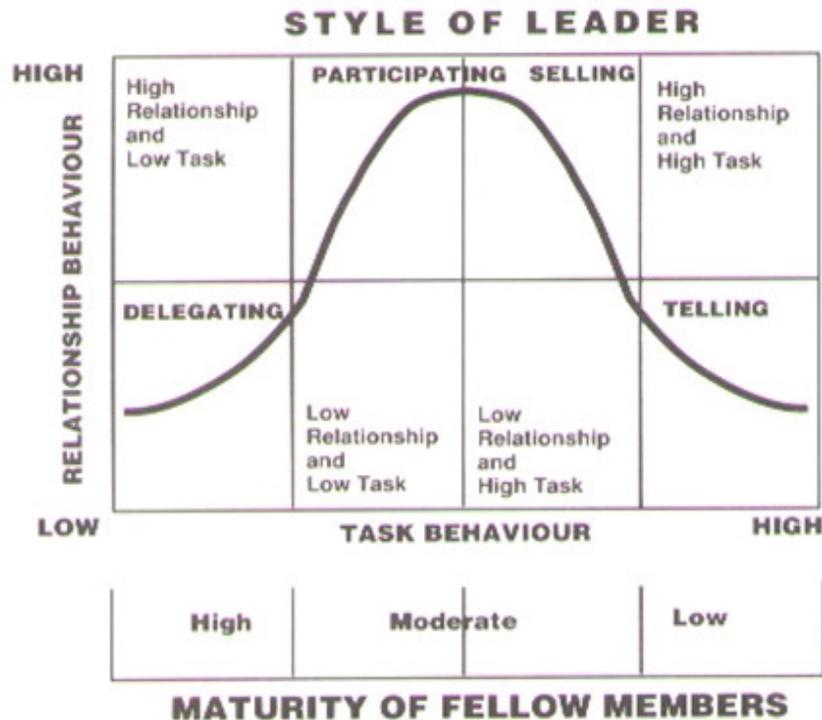
Driver style: Persons with driver social style blend a high level of emotional self-control with a high degree of assertiveness. They are task-oriented, know exactly what they want and express themselves clearly. They are competitive, willing to take calculated risks and are valued for their ability to get things done. Drivers, when over-extended, can become domineering and unfeeling. Their back-up strategy is autocratic.

The group should capitalize on the strengths of each social style exercised by various members and develop strategies to minimize the damage caused by any weaknesses.

Situational Leadership Theory: This is based on the idea that leadership style should vary with the maturity of the group (2). It means that task behaviour and relationship behaviour, two critical dimensions of leadership, should change with the level of group development. For example, in a group of competent and experienced professionals, the leader will need to give very little direction in structuring the group task and the members will probably be skilled in maintaining good working relationships. On the other hand, if most people in the group are new to the task and to the group, the leader must give a lot of direction on how the task is to be done, and spend time fostering relationships.

In situational leadership theory, maturity is defined as: the capacity of an individual or group to set high, but attainable, goals (achievement-motivation); a willingness and ability to take responsibility; and a degree of education and/or experience. Groups and individuals tend to have varying degrees of maturity, depending on the specific task they are attempting to accomplish. A group member may, for example, be highly competent in carrying out on-ground work, but require considerable help in formulating written proposals for projects.

Figure below shows how leadership style changes according to the level of maturity. In any group, the leader must help achieve the common goal (task) and at the same time maintain appropriate relationships with fellow members. His/her style changes according to the level of maturity in the group. If the level is low, "telling" is the major style. As maturity increases, it changes first to "selling", then to "participating" and finally, when maturity attains a high level, to "delegating". Effective group leaders know their members well and adapt their own style to the ever-changing abilities of the members, and to the demands of the leadership role.



How Leadership style changes with the level of maturity of the group

Organizational Theory: According to this theory, leadership is a function of position and role in a hierarchical organization. Some writers make a distinction between Managing and Leading. To manage means "to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for,

to conduct". Leading is "influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion" (6). The distinction is crucial. Managers are people who do things right, whereas leaders are people who do right things. Leadership in this view refers to the head of some group or organization.

Any organization can usually be identified as having three distinct levels of management in terms of their roles and authorities (7). Corporate managers are concerned with the total operation of an entire organization or a division. Executive management is concerned with only part of the management function. Operating management is concerned with carrying out specific functional tasks in accordance with prior schedules developed by superiors. Managing involves delegating while operating means doing. As one moves up in the organization, the managing function increases and the operating function decreases.

Power Theory: Leadership as power involves the ability to make something happen to satisfy individual, group or task needs. It means being able to make a difference, e.g., getting something done or influencing the direction the group takes.

According to one view, this power emanates from positional power (a symbolic position such as President, Director etc.) or operational power (by people who get things done without any formal position). We all know people who passively occupy positions of authority while others without any formal position are able to achieve impressive results. In other words, operational leaders using non-positional power bases can exert more impact than passive symbolic leaders.

A second type of power theory focuses more on empowerment of followers or fellow members than on accomplishing the will of the leader. Empowerment is the process/method in which people are actively encouraged to take responsibility for their actions. This process enables them to take charge rather than search for a magical leader to solve their own or community problem. Empowered members of the group/community help select projects, implement programs and monitor progress.

Leadership, according to this view, empowers people to do their own work. The leaders create structures and follow policies are followed. The focus is on marshalling of resources so that people can get things done. Empowering leadership uses skills such as organizing, team building,

problem solving and conflict resolution ("people skills"). Empowerment also involves raising awareness and increasing the knowledge and skills of followers and fellow group members. As people become empowered, a leader can first delegate some tasks to them, and may finally give over the entire project, including the leadership, to them. Empowerment is seen both as an end (democratic right) and a means (participative processes) for human action (8).

Vision Theory: According to this theory, the critical ingredient in leadership is vision. Leaders scan current trends and future threats and opportunities, and then engage in strategic redirection of people/groups towards a desired future (9). Such vision is clearly communicated by the leaders, who from time to time are able to inspire their fellow citizens to strive for new national goals. Strategic management methods are designed to attain skills in this type of leadership. They are methods for increasing "vision".

Ethical Assessment Theory: Leadership, in this view, is inherently ethical. The view is that ethics is at the centre of every human action, and hence, at the centre of leadership (9), (10). Some argue that leadership must be ethical on two counts: in the character of leader-follower relationships and in the leadership's vision of human needs. This means that a leader must engage in dialogue and conflict with followers, recognizing that they too have the right to influence events. The person who simply imposes his/her will on followers is a tyrant not a leader. A leader also takes followers up the hierarchy of human needs, while a tyrant drags them further down the hierarchy.

Very few psychological theories of motivation discuss the role of spiritual needs or ethical issues in leadership, but the human search for meaning in existence draws people to assess the world, and the decisions and actions in which they become involved, in moral terms. Ethical dilemmas emerge, along with competing needs and values, e.g. private property rights vs. the public interest, present need vs. future need.

Thus, the ethical leader must not only be able to exert leadership in a moral way, but be visionary and able to focus followers' concerns on fair and just solutions, which promote the good of the community.

Transactional or Transformational Leadership: Common to all leadership theories is some description of how leaders motivate others. A major part of influencing people (leadership) is

satisfying their needs. Human needs are the basis for transactions in which the leader and the followers exchange certain things (material and non-material).

Transactional leaders approach others with a view to exchanging one thing for another, such as jobs for votes, or recognition for services etc.

Transformational leaders motivate their followers, not by exchanging goods but by sharply arousing or altering the strength of needs that may have lain dormant, e.g., higher order needs for self-actualization. Key skills include being able to crystallise community thinking and communicate action strategies persuasively to significant individuals and groups.

Transformation can be achieved in three ways:

1. by raising the level of awareness in people
2. by getting people to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team, country etc.
3. altering the need level on Maslow's hierarchy, or expanding the portfolio of needs and wants.

6. Developing a Leadership Framework using all these Theories

Human action is generally a complex process, and leadership is a part of human action. Such action goes beyond any one aspect of leadership as described in each of the theories above. Thus, no one theory on its own is adequate to explain leadership.

According to one writer "Leadership is grounded in traits, yet required skills are not exhausted by traits. Leadership is sensitive to shifting situations, yet it recognizes complexities beyond situational theory's reach. Leadership is shaped by roles and position, yet is greater than any organization hierarchy. Leadership is activated by power, yet challenges the primacy of power. Leadership is driven by vision, yet is not satisfied with just any direction. Leadership is ethical, yet always tempered by an awareness of existence, ambiguities and unforeseen consequences" (6). Leadership empowers human beings to claim ultimate fulfillment.

This view holds that the six significant features of leadership that the various theories emphasize can be combined to form a framing tool to shape leadership action. According to this

approach, every leader must have a mission and inspire others to strive towards a commonly owned vision of a desired future. He/she must develop/work through structures (organizations) relevant to existing resources and use the various types of power to achieve goals. The degree of fulfillment of goals in each situation is limited by the leader's abilities (natural talents and acquired leadership skills) and by the degree to which she/he can convince others of the ethical value and higher meaning of their efforts.

7. Let us sum up

This unit explores various aspects of leadership, styles and bases of power and sphere of influence. Leaders perform various roles such as planning and implementing, evaluating, monitoring, controlling, motivating, managing conflicts, organizing task groups, mobilizing human and financial resources, and above all, setting an example to the group. Leadership has been defined as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts towards the achievement of goals in a given situation". The source of influence may be formal, or informal. Leaders can emerge from within a group as well as being formally appointed. Research was carried out to assess why we are able to influence people and why some people have more power of influence than others. It was found there are five bases of influence, i) Reward power ii) Coercive power iii) Illegitimate power iv) Referent Power v) Knowledge power and vi) People's power. Leaders need to recharge their power basis periodically by gaining new knowledge and skills. There are different theories of leadership. The important ones include Contingencies Theory, Situational Leadership Theory, Organizational Theory, Power Theory, Vision Theory and Ethical Assessment Theory.

8. Further Readings

Books:

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5. Problem Solving

Introduction

Effective problem solving is a key management skill and a major factor in determining individual and organizational success. People with good problem solving skills adapt more quickly in times of rapid change and are generally high achievers, whether it is by putting things right when they go wrong, making the best use of resources or creating and exploiting opportunities. Whatever our personal and professional ambitions, we can improve our chances of achieving what we want by developing our problem solving skills. Each of us has an innate ability to solve problems. To develop this ability, we need a clear understanding of the skills and techniques involved, and practice in applying them in different situations.

In the broadest sense, problem solving consists of devising a course of action, which will enable us to achieve a particular goal or objective. It plays a fundamental role in our day-to-day lives, both through our own actions and those of others that affect us. Solving problems effectively requires an understanding of the problem solving process and the ability to use the appropriate skills and techniques at the right time. To be a successful problem solver we must go through these stages :

- Recognizing and defining the problem
- Finding possible solutions
- Choosing the best solution
- Implementing the solution.

In this lesson the following objectives have been defined:

- Define problem-solving
- Differentiate between analytical and creative problem solving
- Recall various steps in the creative problem-solving process.

Concept of Problem-Solving

All of us face problems of some sort or the other everyday - Shower failure, Power failure, Breakdowns etc. In fact, problems are so much part of life that one wonders what life would be like, if there were no problems.

At work too, problems arise every day, day-after-day so much so that you wonder - what you are? Merely a problem-solving machine? The truth, however, is that it is in the handling of problems that you show your real worth.

Problems in - solutions out - are your job - everybody's job. It helps improve your effectiveness. Each of us is a constant problem solver.

Problems, as visualised by most of us, are irritants, impediments, hassles and a headache, in general are negative things.

In organizational situations - problems are actually, something to do, something challenging, something positive, to show our worth, to improve our performance.

| |
|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;">Remember A problem is a positive opportunity</p> |
|---|

We see or note that there is a problem, through its associated symptoms. The symptom by itself is not the problem. Through symptom we have to exercise to pin down the problem responsible for the symptoms we see. This process is known as gathering the facts to identify the specific problem.

Repeat - symptom is not the problem. Problem is the cause of symptoms we see. You have to eliminate symptomatic causes till you are left with the essential problem.

The problem solving process has three steps:

- Define what needs to be done.
- Implement it.
- Check that it has worked.

This process is more like a circle rather than a straight line. Because, at the end of the 3rd step if you find the solution has not worked, you have to go back to the 1st step and repeat the 3-step process until you solve the problem. There is no best solution to any problem. As, in reality,

permanent elimination of problem through a solution is a myth. Problems are solved temporarily. Hence find an optimal solution i.e. Best Possible Solution.

Ask Questions and do not offer solutions; remind yourself of what Peter Drucker - the Father of Management said - "Most common source of mistakes in management decisions is that the emphasis is on finding the Right Answer rather than asking the Right Question."

ASK

1. **Why the problem has arisen?**
2. **How the problem manifests itself? and**
3. **Seek additional information, if it would help clarify the situation**

This leads to confirmed identification of the specific problem. Now, you have to fix criteria to be met by the solution to be proposed for the problem, such as –

- Fast solution,
- Minimize cost/additional investment,
- Maximize profits.

Make a Decision tree for clarity. A decision tree is a depiction, both visually and graphically of the different options available for solving the problem.

Finally, reviewing the entire gamut of problem-solving process, remember that it involves the following steps:

- 1) See that there is a problem
- 2) Define it
- 3) Specify the nature of the problem
- 4) Generate possible solutions
- 5) Define criteria for making a decision
- 6) Look for optimal solution
- 7) Make the decision
- 8) Implement it and finally
- 9) Check that it has worked

This, in essence, is the heart of the approaches to problem solving.

Types of Problem-solving

Following classification of problems is presented:

- **Analytic Problem Solving:** It involves a situation in which there is only one correct answer or result. In this situation,

$$2 + 2 = X$$

$$2 + 2 = 4$$

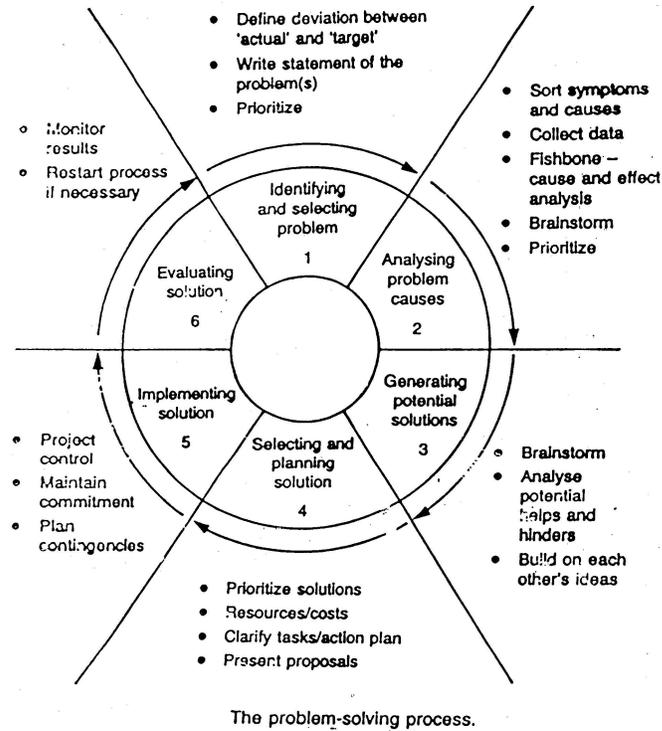
- **Judgmental Problem Solving:** Judgmental Problem solving frequently offers the problem solver a limited choice of alternatives.
- **Creative Problem Solving:** Creative problem solving is the type of problem solving people does 90 percent of the time. The range of alternatives is very broad, much more so than in judgmental problem solving.
- **Decision Making and Problem Solving:** Decision-making is part of the problem-solving process. Problem solving involves the consideration of a number of possible solutions for the situation.

Problem-solving skills

In literature below cited, problem solving skills are quoted:

- ✓ Recognize problems when and where they exist.
- ✓ Anticipate developing problems while they are still in an embryonic stage.
- ✓ Determine an objective or goal, that is, the results desired when the problem is solved.
- ✓ Generate several possible solutions to the problem.
- ✓ Evaluate systematically the possible solutions against a set of predetermined criteria, and thus lead to an effective and appropriate solution.
- ✓ Plan for the implementation of the solution in an organized manner.
- ✓ Evaluate the results of the solution and monitor for future problems.

Diagram 1: The Problem-Solving Process



Problem Solving Vs. Decision Making

Problem Solving

- Identify and try to understand the problems
- Collect relevant information and reflect on it
- Generate some ideas
- Develop solutions
- Select the best solution
- Implement it

Decision Making

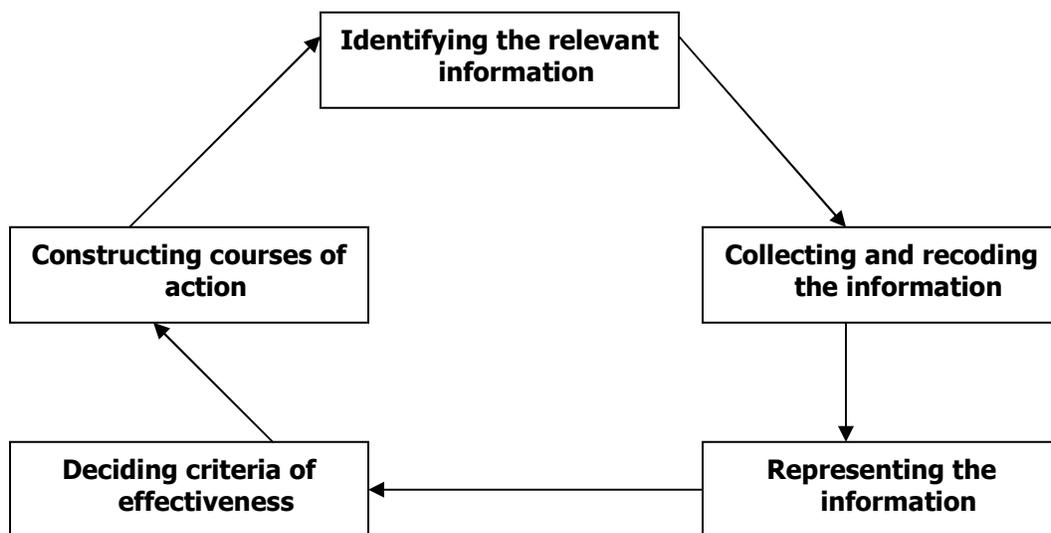
- Identify the objectives (Goals) of the decision
- Find alternative ways of meeting these objectives
- Determine evaluation criteria / techniques
- Select best course of action
- Implement it

Solving and Resolving Problems

To resolve a problem is to select a course of action that yields an outcome that is good enough, that satisfies..... this approach relies heavily on past experience and current trial and error for its inputs. It is qualitatively, not quantitatively, oriented; it is rooted deeply in common sense, and it makes extensive use of subjective judgments.

To solve a problem is to select a course of action that is believed to yield the best possible outcome, that optimizes.....this approach is largely based on scientific methods, techniques and tools. It makes use of mathematical models and real or simulated experimentation; therefore, it relies heavily on observation and measurement and aspires to complete objectivity.

Diagram 2: Model of Problem Solving



Identifying and Analysing Problems

Dealing with Problems Effectively

The ability to deal with problems effectively is a major requirement of management. It involves a blend of knowledge, skills and judgment.

- Knowledge of people, tasks and organizational influences such as policy, objectives and procedures.
- Skills in identifying, analysing and finding solutions to problems.
- Judgment to assist in making decisions throughout the problem-solving process.

Diagnosing problems

The first stage in the problem-solving process is recognising that a problem exists. An effective manager will try, as far as possible, to anticipate problems or identify them when they first occur. Problems can be diagnosed through:

- Continuously monitoring performance to reveal when things are not going as planned;
- Listening to subordinates to detect concerns about their work, the organization and relationships with colleagues and management;
- Observing subordinates' behaviour, looking for the unusual or inconsistent which may be a symptom of some underlying problem.

Understanding problems:

Once a problem has been diagnosed, it must be clearly understood before a decision is made on what to do next. The alternatives are:

- To decide to do nothing;
- To keep the problem under surveillance and review at a later date;
- To contain the problem;
- To find a solution to the problem.

The Value of An Initial Analysis

An initial analysis will help your understanding of the problem. Not all problems justify the same depth of analysis. Problems, which are routine or recurring often, need little or no additional clarification. These problems can be resolved efficiently through implementing company policy or a standard solution.

Experience and knowledge of the situation should enable you to identify non-routine problems for which an initial analysis offers the greatest potential gains. It will help you to understand the problem more clearly, establish its importance in relation to other problems and provide you with a basis for generating solutions at a later stage.

The Initial Analysis Involves:

- Gathering information about the problem - distinguish between fact and opinion
- Defining the scope of the problem - who and what is involved
- Determining the consequences of the problem - do they justify further analysis
- Establishing the causes of the problem - distinguish between causes and symptoms.

Generating Solutions

When faced with a problem many managers react with a decision, which provides an obvious or satisfactory answer to the problem. But there is generally more than one possible answer to any problem and the obvious solution is not necessarily the best solution.

Generating a variety of alternative solutions to problems involves thinking in a free-ranging or creative way.

Selecting the 'best' solution, which satisfies the objectives you are trying to achieve within the constraints of the problem situation, involves narrowing down or refining the alternatives to arrive at a feasible solution.

Finding solutions to problems should therefore involve two processes:

- Creative thinking to generate as many ideas as possible regardless of their feasibility.
- Analytical thinking to reduce these ideas to a smaller number eventually arriving at a feasible solution.

By combining these processes, you can improve the quality of your decisions and resolve problems more imaginatively and effectively.

Encouraging creative thinking

Everybody has the potential to think creatively. It rarely involves inventing completely new ideas. Most creative solutions to problems incorporate existing ideas, which have been combined in a unique or imaginative way. There are four things you can do to establish the right conditions for generating more creative solutions.

- **Approach the problem with an open mind:** Avoid the tendency to relate the problem to a similar problem which you have experienced and apply the same solution. Treat each non-routine problem as a new problem.
- **Suspend judgment:** Avoid reacting to problems with an immediate and obvious solution. Allow time to generate as many ideas as possible around the problem before evaluating the ideas to select a feasible solution.
- **Be prepared to take risks:** Most of us try to conform by meeting the expectations and reflecting the views of those around us. We try not to appear foolish by suggesting what may appear to others as 'silly' ideas.
- **Involve others who don't own your problems:** Share problems with subordinates or others in your organization. Their non-ownership of a problem should enable them to produce ideas, which are at the very least different from yours and could help you reach a better solution.

Problem Solving Blocks

Problem solving is classified into 3 categories:

Perceptual Blocks

- Seeing only what you expect to see.
- Stereotyping.
- Not recognizing problems.
- Not seeing the problems in perspective.
- Mistaking Cause and Effect.

Emotional Blocks

- Fear of making mistakes or looking foolish.
- Impatience.
- Avoiding anxiety.
- Fear of taking risks.
- Need for order.
- Lack of challenge.

Intellectual Blocks

- Lack of knowledge or skill in the problem solving process.
- Lack of creative thinking.
- Inflexible thinking.
- Not being methodical.
- Lack of knowledge or skill in using the `language' of the problem.
- Using inadequate information.

Failures to Solve Problems Effectively

Following reasons are ascribed for failure to solve the problems effectively:

- Not being methodical.
- Lack of commitment to solving the problem.
- Misinterpreting the problem.
- Lack of knowledge of the techniques and processes of problem solving.
- Inability to use the techniques effectively.
- Using a method inappropriate for the particular problem.
- Insufficient or inaccurate information.
- Inability to combine analytical and creative thinking.
- Failure to ensure effective implementation.

Source : Compiled from free resource material available on net.

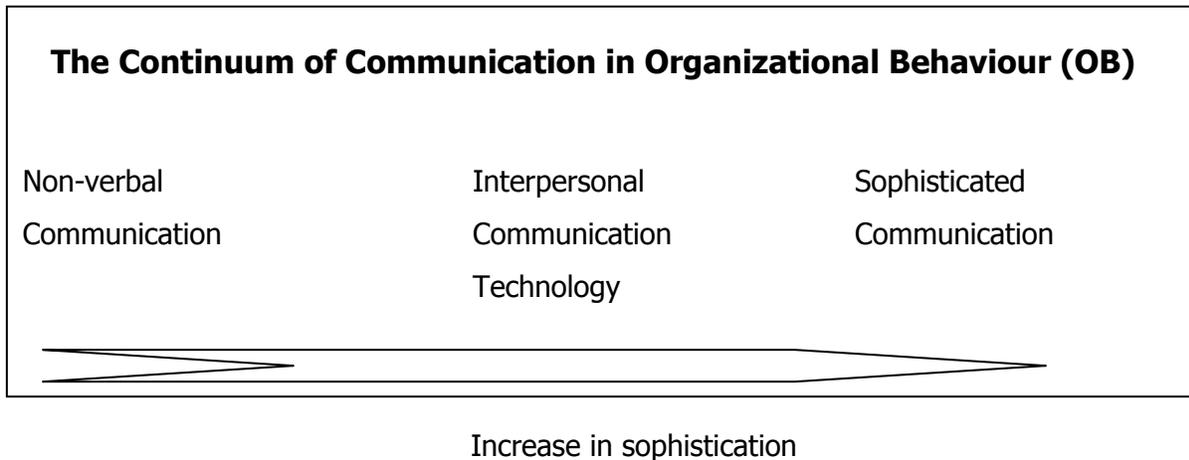
5. Organizational Communication

Concept, Importance, Types and Problems

One of the most basic functions of management is communication, which enables the manager to take good decisions, think out well-conceived plans, establish a sound organization structure and even be well linked with his associates. Communication is essential for achieving managerial and organizational effectiveness. Good communication helps employees become more involved in their work and helps them develop a better understanding of their jobs. Clear, precise and timely communication of information also prevents the occurrence of organizational problems. Without communication, employees will not be aware of what their co-workers are doing, will not have any idea about what their goals are, and will not be able to assess their performance. Supervisors will not be able to give instructions to their subordinates and management will not receive the information it requires to develop plans and take decisions; hence communication acts as nervous system for any organization

I. Concept of communication

The word communication has been derived from the Latin word "communis", which means common. Communication, therefore, refers to the sharing of ideas, facts, opinions, information and understanding. It is the transfer or transmission of some information and understanding from one person to another. Although the word "communication" is used often, there is no consensus amongst communication experts regarding its definition. In general, it is defined as the process by which information is exchanged between individuals. The process uses written messages, spoken words and gestures. Communication can be defined as a process of transmitting information, thoughts, opinions, messages, facts, ideas or emotions and understanding from one person, place or thing to another person, place or thing. Organizational Behaviour seeks to examine the impact of communication on the behaviour of employees within organizations.



The importance of communication in any managerial process can hardly be over-emphasized. If an organization is to operate as an integrated unit, it is necessary that the top management should keep the lower level supervisors and employees well-informed of its ultimate objectives and what it wants each person to accomplish towards their realization. By freely sharing information, the management takes employees into its confidence, prepares them for changes, avoids misunderstanding, and removes it if at all it develops, and makes them more knowledgeable about the problems and policies of the enterprise.

Functions of Communication:

- a. The information function serves to provide knowledge to the individual's need for guidance in their actions. It also fulfils workers' desires for awareness of things that affect them.
- b. The command and instructive functions serve to make the employee aware of his obligations to the formal organization and to provide him with additional guidance on how to perform his duties adequately.
- c. The **influence and persuasion** function (also known as motivational function) encourages the appropriate individual to perform or to exhibit certain behaviour. Messages communicated are used to convince individuals that their actions can be personally or organizationally beneficial.
- d. The integrative function refers to the fact that the communication of messages/ideas, if properly handled, should help to relate the activities of the workers to their efforts and

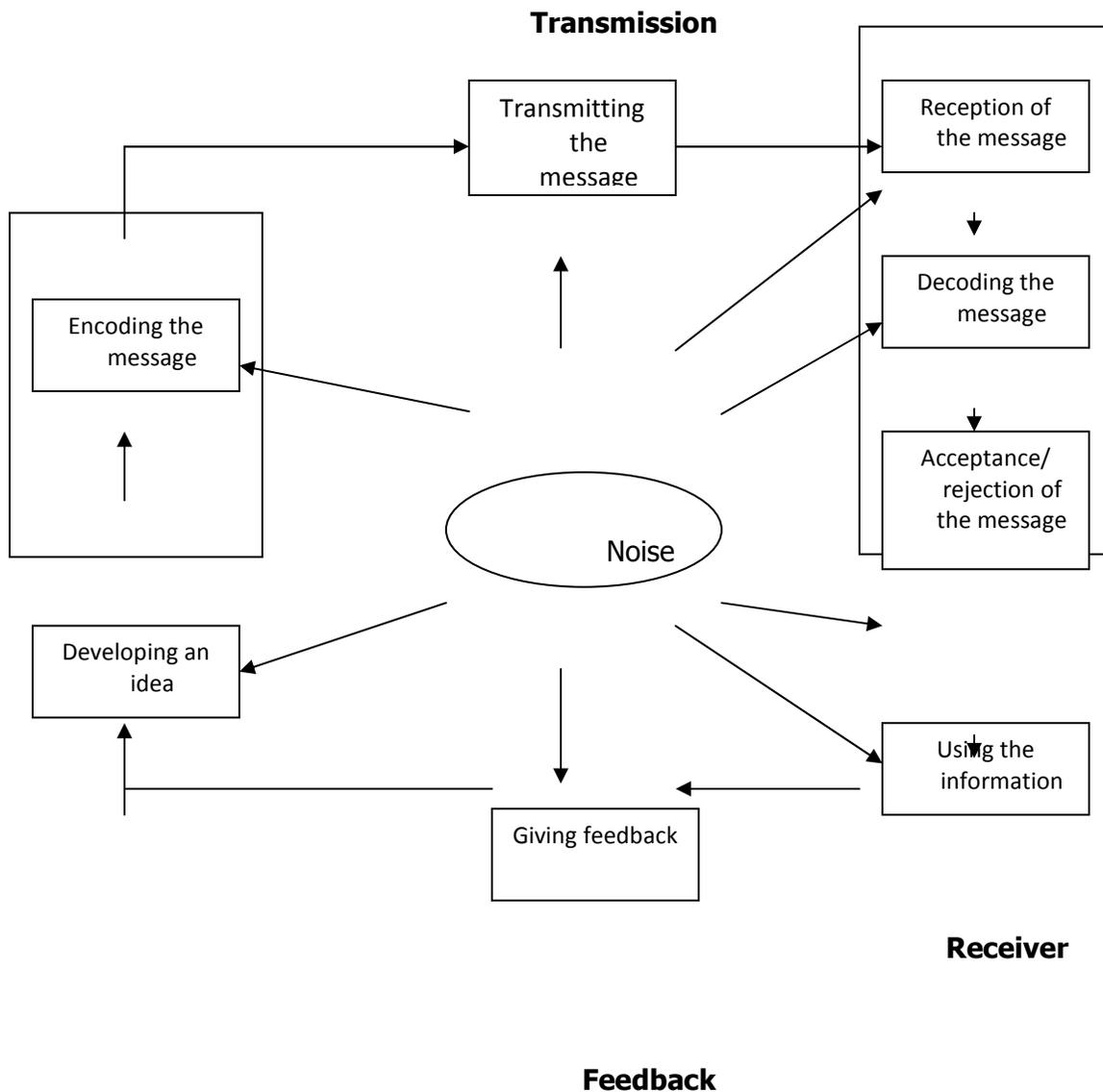
complement rather than detract from each other. Work efforts are unified rather than fragmented as a result of properly integrative communication.

II. Importance of Communication:

In the absence of channels of communication, supervisors will not be able to give instructions to employees, and employees will not be able to understand what the management expects of them. Employees can perform well and be involved in their work only when they understand their job duties and responsibilities. Unless the organization's key goals, values and strategies are communicated to employees, they will not work in that direction. Some managers hold back negative feedback because they fear it will have a negative impact on employee morale. However, withholding such feedback prevents employees from improving themselves and harms their personal development as well as organizational development in the long run. Some managers may try to hide organizational problems from employees because they do not want to demoralize their workforce. But, if they shared information and discussed problems with employees, the employees would be motivated to extend their cooperation and help the organization solve the problem and overcome threats.

Managers have to interpret the information they receive and communicate the same to employees. To do so, managers should have good communication and interpretation skills. Managers often have to take decisions that have a major impact on the organization and its employees. The availability of accurate and timely information helps them make sound decisions. The presence of several links in the chain of communication increases the time it takes for information to reach managers. And the distortion of information at any of these links affects the accuracy of the information being communicated. The probability of distortion increases with the length of the communication chain. Many organizations have reduced the number of managerial levels in the organizational hierarchy (due to economic recession and for competitive pressures) especially at the middle management level. This reduction in levels has decreased the number of links in the communication chain, thus improving communication within organizations.

The Communication Process



The Two-Way Communication Process

The two-way communication process involves the transmission of a message from a sender to a receiver and back. Communication may take place through speech, hand signals or other form. All communication involves eight steps, regardless of the form used.

1. **Developing an idea:** The sender should perceive that he has some important message to be conveyed to the receiver. The sender should have a clear idea about what he wants to communicate to the receiver.
2. **Encoding the message:** The sender codifies the message. He selects appropriate word, charts or symbols in this step to convey his idea as clearly as possible. He also decides on the medium of transmission so that the words and symbols constituting the message can be arranged in a suitable manner.
3. **Transmitting the message:** This step involves the transmission of the message using an appropriate medium of communication such as memo, phone call or personal interaction. While transmitting the message, the sender tries to ensure that the timing of the message is right. The sender also takes care that the transmission of the message doesn't encounter any barriers or interference, which may impede the flow of communication. Ensuring that the communication channel is free from barriers or interference increases the chances of the message reaching the target audience and holding their attention.
4. **Reception of the message:** In this step, the receiver, the person for whom the message was intended, receives the message. If the message was communicated orally, the receiver has to be a good listener to avoid loss of information during transmission of the message.
5. **Decoding the message:** The message is decoded and understood by the receiver. The receiver has to understand the message exactly as intended by the sender. The communicator of a message can make the receiver listen to him, but understanding has to be achieved by the receiver alone. This aspect of understanding is referred to as "getting through" to a person.
6. **Acceptance or rejection of the message:** The receiver is free to accept or reject the decoded message. The receiver can not only choose whether to accept a message, he can also choose whether to accept the message in toto or in part. The acceptance decision of the receiver is influenced by factors such as his perception regarding the accuracy of the message, the authority of the sender and the implications of accepting the information.

7. **Using the information:** This step involves the use of information by the receiver, who may use it, discard it or store it for future.
8. **Giving feedback:** Feedback occurs when the receiver sends back some response to the sender or acknowledges receipt of the message. The communication loop is complete only after feedback has been provided. Feedback is essential for finding out whether the message has been properly received, decoded, accepted and used by the receiver. The two-way communication process can be compared to the back-and-forth pattern of play of tennis or badminton. The players adjust their shots depending on the response of the opponent.

Similarly, as communication progresses, the sender adjusts his message according to the previous response of the receiver. Two-way communication leads to accurate transmission of information and improves the quality of decisions and actions dependent on that information.

Problems Associated with two-way Communication

Two-way communication may result in friction, especially when two people hold different views on the same subject. At the same time, two-way communication can help people understand each other's point of view.

Two-way communication can also lead to cognitive dissonance. When people receive information that questions their value systems, decisions or judgments or contradicts other information they received earlier, they experience internal conflict and anxiety. This is referred to as cognitive dissonance. People try to eliminate or minimize the discomfort caused by dissonance by obtaining new information, interpreting the information in a different way, reversing their earlier decision or by compromising their values.

The sender should be careful when communicating a message since communication is a form of self-revelation. When a person speaks, people not only try to understand the content of the speech but also try to assess his personality. A person unable to deliver his message in an appropriate way loses credibility. Therefore, a person involved in the communication process

always seeks to preserve his self-image. The self-image of a person is threatened when he receives communication that may be verbally abusive. Although the sender may have unintentionally conveyed such a message, such communication usually generates bad feelings towards the sender. These negative feelings strain the relationship between the sender and the recipient and cause it deteriorate.

III. Types of Communication:

Communication can be classified in many ways as indicated below:

- A. Organizational Communication can be broadly classified into formal and informal communication.

Formal communications are those that are official and a part of the recognized communication system which is involved in the operation of the organization. These communications may be oral or written. A formal communication can be from a superior to a subordinate, from a subordinate to a superior, intra-administrative or external. Formal communications take place externally to the organization i.e. with outside groups, such as suppliers, clients, unions, government agencies and community groups.

Formal communications may be mandatory, indicative or explanatory. Mandatory communication implies an order or command to be followed and goes by various euphemistic names such as instructions, briefing etc. This kind of communication is mostly vertical and usually one way from top to downward. The indicative or explanatory communication may exist between any levels and may be vertical as well as horizontal.

Informal Communications grow out of the social interactions among people who work together. These are not bound by any chart on the wall but are bound by conventions, customs and culture. Such communication provides useful information for events to come, in the form of grapevine.

B. Communication can be Classified into:

- i. Verbal Communication
- ii. Written Communication
- iii. Non-verbal Communication

i. Verbal Communication

Verbal communication takes place directly between the superiors and juniors and is often known as face to face communication. It takes the form of talks, a public address, verbal discussions, telephonic talks, telecommunications and other artificial media, such as audio-visual aids speeches and orders, holdings of meetings and conferences, lectures, social get-togethers, training sessions, public address systems, museums, exhibitions, counseling etc.

Verbal Communication Enjoys Certain Merits as Indicated Below:

- a. It is the least time consuming, is more direct, simple and the least expensive,
- b. It is more communicative and effective and aids in avoiding delays, red-tape and formalities,
- c. It generates a friendly and co-operative spirit,
- d. It provides an immediate feedback, as questions can be put and answers obtained about the information transmitted,
- e. Since all information cannot be put into writing, most of it is conveyed by means of oral instructions, mutual discussions and telephonic conversations.

However, verbal communication has certain demerits. These are:

- Lengthy, distant and important information cannot be effectively conveyed verbally,
- Verbal talks may often be distorted if there is some cause of indifference between the receiver and the sender,
- It is inadequate where permanency and uniformity of form are required,
- Due to various communication gaps, as a result of status and other physical or personal barriers, the communication is incomplete,
- Spontaneous responses may not be carefully thought,
- The spoken words can be more easily misunderstood than the written words,
- It presupposes expertise in the art of effective speaking.

ii. Written Communication

A written communication is always put into writing and generally used when the audience is at a distance or when a permanency or record is required or where its preservation is essential, in case it is needed as a evidence in cases of dispute. It is generally in the form of instruction, orders, rules and regulations, policies, procedures, posters, memos, reports and information bulletins.

The Merits of written Communication are:

- It serves as evidence of what has occurred or what was stated,
- It provides a permanent record for future use,
- It reduces the chances for misinterpretation and distortion of information,
- It is reliable when transmitting lengthy information on financial, production or other important data,
- It provides an opportunity to the subordinates to put up their grievances in writing and get them supported by facts.

However, a written Communication also Suffers from Certain Disadvantages.

- It is generally expensive and a time-consuming process,
- Even though such communication has been transmitted, it is not certain whether the receiver has understood it, Written materials not only get out of date but may also be leaked out before time,
- It sometimes leads to excessive formality and rigidity in personal relations.

iii. Non-verbal Communication

A message can be sometimes expressed without the help of words. Non-verbal communication is the process of communicating without the use of words. It is defined as non-word human responses like facial expressions and gestures, and the perceived characteristics of

the environment through which the human verbal and non-verbal messages are transmitted. Non-verbal communication is also known as “silent language”. It involves the use of cues, gestures, vocal characteristics, facial expressions and spatial relationship between the sender and the receiver to convey a message. For example, a smile, glance, stare or a frown convey different meanings. Non-verbal Communication is communication of feelings, emotions, attitudes, and thoughts through body movements / gestures / eye contact, etc.

The components of Non-Verbal Communication are:

1. **Kinesics** is the interpretation of body language such as facial expressions and gestures or, more formally, non-verbal behavior related to movement, either of any part of the body or the body as a whole. Body Language is technically known as kinesics. Body language is the unconscious and conscious transmission and interpretation of feelings, attitudes and moods, through:

- body posture, movement, physical state, position and relationship to other bodies, objects and surroundings,
- facial expression and eye movement.

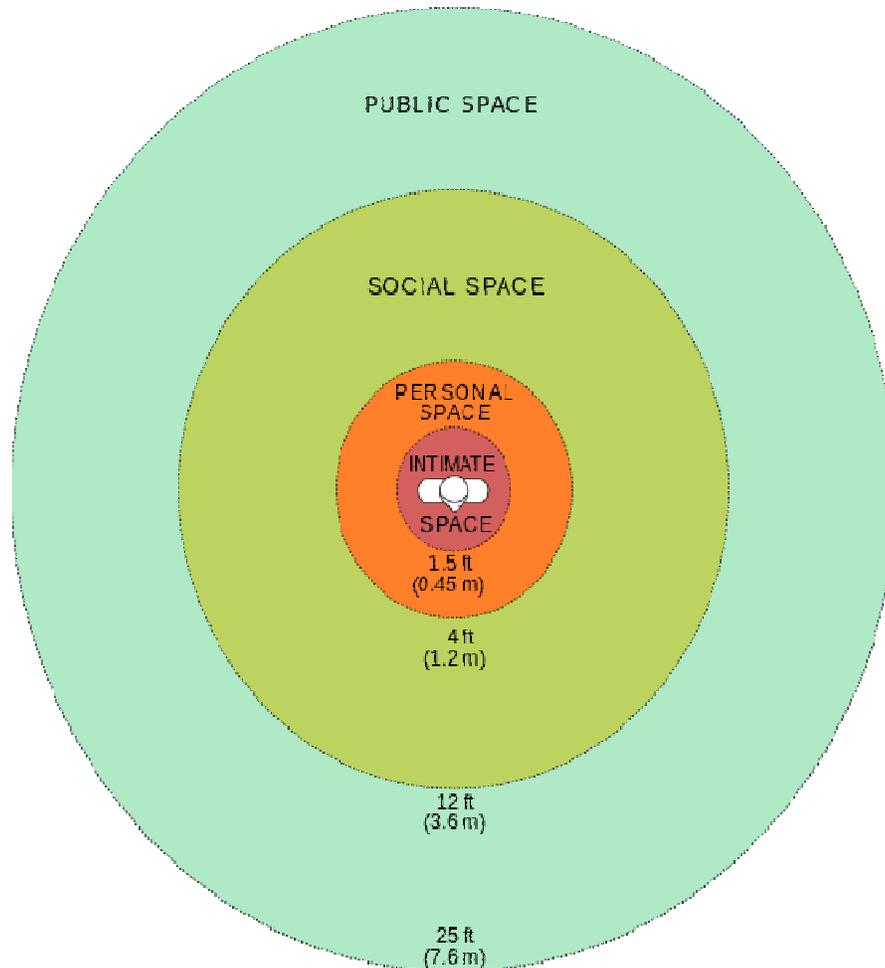
(This transmission and interpretation can be quite different to the spoken words).”

2. **Proxemics** is the technical term for the personal space aspect of body language. Proxemics is the study of measurable distance between people as they interact.

Body spacing and posture are unintentional reactions to sensory fluctuations or shifts, such as subtle changes in the sound and pitch of a person’s voice. Social distance between people is reliably correlated with physical distance, as are intimate and personal distance, according to the following delineations:

- **Intimate distance** for embracing, touching or whispering
 - *Close phase* – less than 6 inches (15 cm)
 - *Far phase* – 6 to 18 inches (15 to 46 cm)
- **Personal distance** for interactions among good friends or family members
 - *Close phase* – 1.5 to 2.5 feet (46 to 76 cm)
 - *Far phase* – 2.5 to 4 feet (76 to 120 cm)
- **Social distance** for interactions among acquaintances
 - *Close phase* – 4 to 7 feet (1.2 to 2.1 m)
 - *Far phase* – 7 to 12 feet (2.1 to 3.7 m)
- **Public distance** used for public speaking

- *Close phase* – 12 to 25 feet (3.7 to 7.6 m)
- *Far phase* – 25 feet (7.6 m) or more.



3. Oculessics: It is the study of the role of eye contact in non-verbal communication. Our eyes are a very significant aspect of the non-verbal signals we send to others. Oculessics is one form of non-verbal communication, which is the transmission and reception of meaning between communicators without the use of words. It can include the environment around the communicators, the physical attributes or characteristics of the communicators and the behavior of the communicators

4. Chronemics is the study of the use of time in non-verbal Communication. The way we perceive time, structure our time and react to time is a powerful communication tool, and helps set the stage for the communication process. Across cultures, time perception plays a large role in the non-verbal communication process. Time perceptions include punctuality, willingness to wait

and interactions. The use of time can affect lifestyles, daily agendas, speed of speech, movements and how long people are willing to listen.

5. Haptics refers to the study of touching. There are six different kinds of touch. These include: positive, playful, control, ritualistic, task-related and unintentional.

6. Para-linguistics: It is the study of variations in pitch, speed, volume and pauses to convey meaning. Interestingly, when the speaker is making a presentation and is looking for a response, he will pause. However, when no response is desired, he will talk faster with minimal pause.

7. Para-language refers to the non-verbal elements of communication used to modify meaning and convey emotion. Para-language may be expressed consciously or unconsciously, and it includes the pitch, volume, and, in some cases, intonation of speech. Sometimes the definition is restricted to vocally-produced sounds. The study is known as para-linguistics.

Para-language refers to voice quality, volume, pitch, speed and non-fluencies (like 'ah,' 'um,' or 'uh.')

used to convey a message. It helps to convey information about the attitude of the speaker. Sometimes, there may be a contradiction between what a person says and what his actions indicate. In such cases, the person's actions can be regarded as a truer picture of his feelings and ideas

8. Physical Appearance: Your physical appearance always contributes towards how people perceive you. Neatly combed hair, ironed clothes and a lively smile will always carry more weight than words.

Understanding non-verbal communication:

The following guidelines can help individuals understand non-verbal communication better:

1. Observe keenly what is happening: When non-verbal behaviour involves an emotional response (for example: tears rolling down the cheeks or eyes becoming red), it clearly conveys the message to the other person.

2. *Consider the differences between verbal statements and non-verbal behaviour:* If there is a discrepancy between what a person says and what his body language indicates, then the situation should be studied closely. It is believed that actions are more accurate than words.

3. *Look for subtleties in non-verbal behaviour:* Through careful observation, one can differentiate between a fake action and a genuine action. For instance, a sarcastic smile can be differentiated from a genuine one.

Role of interactive communication

Informal contacts form an important means of interactive communication. This informal system of communication can be effectively used to supplement the formal channels of communication. In this system, information passes quickly from one individual to another so that all the organizational members obtain the information in a short time. The management may use this system to convey information regarding a particular decision and observe the immediate response of the employees before actually implementing the decision. This approach helps the management handle employee reactions to their decisions in a better manner.

One drawback of the informal system of communication is its strong personal orientation. Individuals pass on only that information which serves their personal interest and ignore the rest. Another drawback is that it may result in the spread of rumours and other negative information about the organization that may threaten and de-motivate people across the organization. Hence, managements of organizations should be cautious in their use of the informal system of communication.

Types of interactive communication:

There are two main types of interactive communication:

1. Networks: A network is a group of people who develop and maintain contact with each other to exchange information of common interest in an informal manner. A person who is actively involved in information exchange is said to be networking. Networks can be both internal and external to an organization. Internal networks consist of employees from different departments and business units. Networks that extend beyond the company to business partners, customers

and sometimes even competitors are external networks. External networks are formed when employees attend social clubs, professional groups and other similar associations. Networks enable employees to widen their interests and get information relating to recent developments in their field. A good networker can get access to powerful and influential people, if they have certain interests in common. Effective networks can help develop productive working relationships that may result in enhanced job performance.

2. Grapevine communication: It supplements the formal channels of communication and provides information, which is not communicated through the latter. It provides information on the unwritten rules of the organization and important management decisions (well before they are implemented). Managers generally do not use the grapevine as a source of information. However, they try to keep track of the information passing through the grapevine through their loyal subordinates. This helps managers identify the issues that cause anxiety to employees. They can send a message that alleviates their fears and reduces their anxiety. Managers thus use the grapevine as a filter and feedback mechanism to eliminate rumours and prevent their negative impact on organizational performance. The important characteristics of a grapevine are:

- a. It is beyond the control of the management,
- b. It is considered more reliable by the employees than the formal communication channels, and
- c. Employees mostly use it to serve their personal and social interests.

Effective communication

Effective communication occurs when there is shared meaning. The message that is sent is the same message that is received. There must be a mutual understanding between the sender and the receiver for transmission of ideas or information to be successful.

Effective communication may be defined as:

- Using language that is appropriate to others' levels of understanding.
- Making sure others receive the information or knowledge intended.
- Developing relationships with others.
- Talking with others in a way that facilitates openness, honesty and cooperation.
- Providing feedback.

Communication can be either Oral Communication or Written Communication. Oral communication can be formal or informal. Generally business communication is a formal means of communication like: meetings, interviews, group discussion, speeches etc. An example of Informal business communication would be the Grapevine. Written Communication would include - agenda, reports, manuals etc.

Effective communication is a part and parcel of any successful organization. Any communication should be free from barriers so as to be effective. The characteristics of effective communication are:

1. **Clarity of Purpose:** The message to be delivered must be clear in the mind of sender. The person to whom it is targeted and the aim of the message should be clear.
2. **Completeness:** The message delivered should not be incomplete. It should be supported by facts and observations. It should be well planned and organized. No assumptions should be made by the receiver.
3. **Conciseness:** The message should be concise. It should not include any unnecessary details. It should be short and complete.
4. **Feedback:** Whether the message sent by the sender is understood in same terms by the receiver or not can be judged by the feedback received. The feedback should be timely and impersonal. It should be specific rather than general.
5. **Empathy:** Empathy with the listeners is essential for effective verbal communication. The speaker should step into the shoes of the listener and be sensitive to their needs and emotions. This way he can understand things from their perspective and make communication more effective.
6. **Modify the message according to the audience:** The information requirement by different people in the organization differs according to their needs. What is relevant to the middle level management might not be relevant to the top level of management. Use of jargons should be minimized because it might lead to misunderstanding and misinterpretations. The message should be modified according to the needs and requirements of the targeted audience.
7. **Multiple Channels of communication:** For effective communication multiple channels should be used as it increases the chances of clarity of message. The message is reinforced by using different channels and there are less chances of deformation of message.

8. **Make effective use of Grapevine (informal channel of communication):** The employees and managers should not always discourage grapevine. They should make effective use of grapevine. The managers can use grapevine to deliver formal messages and for identification of issues which are significant for the employees. The managers can get to know the problems faced by the employees and can work upon it.

7 C's and 4 S's of Communication

In any business environment, adherence to the 7 Cs and the 4 Ss of Communication helps the sender in transmitting his message with ease and accuracy. The 7 Cs are as follows:

Credibility: If the sender can establish his credibility, the receiver has no problems in accepting his statement. Establishing credibility is not the outcome of a one-shot statement. It is a long-drawn out process in which the receiver, through constant interaction with the sender, understands his credible nature and is willing to accept his statements as being truthful and honest. Once the credibility of the sender has been established, attempts should be made at being courteous in expression. Much can be accomplished if tact, diplomacy and appreciation of people are woven in the message. Courtesy implies taking into consideration both viewpoints as well as feelings of the receiver of the message. A courteous message is positive and focused at the audience. It makes use of terms showing respect for the receiver of message and it is not biased.

Completeness: The communication must be complete. It should convey all facts required by the audience. The sender of the message must take into consideration the receiver's mind set and convey the message accordingly. A complete communication develops and enhances reputation of an organization. It is cost saving as no crucial information is missing and no additional cost is incurred in conveying extra message, if the communication is complete. A complete communication always gives additional information wherever required. It leaves no questions in the mind of the receiver. Complete communication helps in better decision-making by the audience/ readers/ receivers of message as they get all the desired and crucial information. It persuades the audience.

Clarity: Absolute clarity of ideas adds much to the meaning of the message. The first stage is clarity in the mind of the sender. The next stage is the transmission of the message in a manner

which makes it simple for the receiver to comprehend. As far as possible, simple language and easy sentence constructions, which are not difficult for the receiver to grasp, should be used. Clarity in communication makes understanding easier. Complete clarity of thoughts and ideas enhances the meaning of message. A clear message makes use of exact, appropriate and concrete words.

Correctness: The sender should ensure that his knowledge of the receiver is comprehensive. The level of knowledge, educational background and status of the decoder help the encoder in formulating his message. In case there is any discrepancy between the usage and comprehension of terms, miscommunication can arise. If the sender decides to back up his communication with facts and figures, there should be accuracy in stating the same. A situation in which the listener is forced to check the presented facts and figures should not arise. Finally, the usage of terms should be nondiscriminatory. In correct communication, the message is exact, correct and well-timed; it boosts up the confidence level; a correct message has greater impact on the audience/readers; it checks for the precision and accurateness of facts and figures used in the message and makes use of appropriate and correct language in the message.

Consistency: The approach to communication should, as far as possible, be consistent. There should not be too many ups and downs that might lead to confusion in the mind of the receiver. If a certain stand has been taken, it should be observed without there being situations in which the sender desires to bring about a change in his understanding of the situation. He should ensure that the shift is gradual and not hard for the receiver to comprehend.

Concreteness: Concrete and specific expressions are to be preferred in favour of vague and abstract expressions. In continuation of the point on correctness, the facts and figures presented should be specific. Abstractions or abstract statements can cloud the mind of the sender. Instead of stating "There has been a tremendous escalation in the sales figure", if the sender made the following statement: "There has been an escalation in the sales figures by almost 50% as compared to last year", the receiver is more apt to listen and comprehend the details. Concrete message is supported with specific facts and figures; it makes use of words that are clear and build the reputation, and concrete messages are not misinterpreted.

Conciseness: The message to be communicated should be as brief and concise as possible. As far as possible, only simple and brief statements should be made. Excessive information can also sway the receiver into either a wrong direction or into inaction. Quantum of information should be

just right, neither too much nor too little. Concise communication is both time-saving as well as cost-saving. It underlines and highlights the main message as it avoids using excessive and needless words. Concise communication provides short and essential message in limited words to the audience. A concise message is more appealing and comprehensible to the audience and is non-repetitive in nature.

4Ss: An understanding of the 4 S's is equally important.

Shortness: It is often said that "Brevity is the soul of wit." The same can be said about communication. If the message can be made brief, then transmission and comprehension of messages is going to be faster and more effective. Flooding messages with high sounding words does not create an impact. Often, the receiver has spent a major chunk of his time in trying to decipher the actual meaning of the message.

Simplicity: Simplicity, both in the usage of words and ideas, reveals clarity in the thinking process. Using simple terminology and equally simple concepts would help.

Strength: The strength of a message emanates from the credibility of the sender. If the sender himself believes in a message that he is about to transmit, there is bound to be strength and conviction in whatever he tries to state. Half-hearted statements or utterances that the sender himself does not believe in, add a touch of falsehood to the entire communication process.

Sincerity: A sincere approach to an issue is clearly evident to the receiver. If the sender is genuine, it will be reflected in the manner in which he communicates.

Problems or Barriers to Effective Communication

Filtering: Refers to the manipulation of information by the sender so as to obtain a favourable opinion from the receiver. Example: an employee updating his superior about projects in which there is significant progress but not informing him about the projects that are lagging behind. The process of filtering information takes place at each level of the organization and may sometimes affect the quantity as well as the quality of information that reaches the top management. The amount of information that gets filtered increases with the number of vertical

levels in the organizational hierarchy. Filtering may lead to problems in the long term as only pleasant information is allowed to pass up to the top management and thus they may not know about a problem till it assumes serious proportions.

Selective perception: A person perceives information on the basis of his needs, values, experience and background. His/her personal interests and expectations influence the way he/she decodes information.

Defensiveness: People intentionally attempt to block communication when they feel that the other person is threatening their self-image and prestige. They react in a defensive manner by making sarcastic comments, by passing judgments on others, or by questioning the motives of the other party.

Language: Words convey different meanings to different people. Age, education and cultural background are the major factors that influence the use of language by people and the meanings they associate with words.

Barriers to communication can be further classified as:

- Human/personal
- Semantic and
- Technical barriers.

Barriers to Communication

| Human/personal | Semantic | Technical |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|
| Word interpretations | Personal emotions | Space or geographical distance |
| Gesture decodings | Biases | Mechanical failures |
| Language translations | Perceptual variations | Physical obstructions |
| Sign and symbols | Competencies | Technological |
| Cue meanings | Sensual abilities | malfunctions |
| | Mental faculties | Concrete obstacles |
| | | Time lags |

Human limitations also act as a hindrance to effective communication. Instead of listening in a rational and objective manner to what is being said, one occasionally becomes emotionally involved. Judgments are imposed in place of rational fact appraisal. Consequently, the receiver hears only what he expects to hear.

Removal of communication barriers: Some guidelines -

- i) Identify and analyze the barriers: Find out the possible barriers in the way of effective communication and then try to remove these. To make the communication clear, make use of the listeners' language and avoid faulty translations.
- ii) Top management must be convinced of the need of communication: A good communication is good human relations and good communication is good business.
- iii) Emphasis upon the written statement of policies: This is the best means of letting every one know how an organization feels about communication. It sets the tone for the type of communication that everyone throughout the organization should have. It sets the basis for the procedures and practices, which will be used to implement policy.
- iv) Recognize that communication is a two way process: It is necessary to know whether communication has been properly received and perceived. This can be done by encouraging action, responses, asking questions, removing confusion and explaining clearly the meaning of the message sent.
- v) Consistency and coherence are essential for successful communication: Orders should be consistent with the objectives of the organization and in line with other activities.
- vi) Overcome disadvantages of the distance barriers: Whenever possible, use the physical devices like telephone and intercom and see that people understand i.e. the sender should see to that the information is not distorted, misinterpreted or stopped by those who are responsible for passing it on to others.
- vii) Communication is a continuous process: It cannot be compartmentalized or reduced to one or more communication programs, because the goal of communication is complete understanding. Communication should be constant, habitual and automatic.

- viii) Empathetic speaking and hearing are essential for effective communication. Therefore, the speaker should know his audience and be sensitive to their needs and feelings when he speaks and listens; otherwise he may short circuit important communication networks.
- ix) Optimum timing is important in communication. The best time for communicating important messages is when they are competing the least with other situations affecting the listeners. Messages are most likely to be considered and attended to when they provide a solution to a problem affecting the receiver.
- x) The use of feedback improves the communication process and reduces the chance of major disparities between the information or idea received and the one intended.
- xi) Reception of messages may be helpful in conveying the intended thoughts. Often a single transmission of an idea may not be received or decoded properly. A second or third message may assist the receiver in his understanding and use of the concept. Repetition can be done by using various media and different formats.
- xii) Messages should be timed so that they are received when they are needed and are not misconstrued as a result of other thoughts on the receiver's mind.

Conditions for effective communication:

It is important to recognize that the environment within the formal organization structure will have an effect upon the successful transmission of concepts and ideas from the appropriate sender to the receiver. If the employees are clearly aware of superior-subordinate relationships and horizontal networks, the employees will know with whom they should communicate directly and what communication needs and expectations the receiver will have. If lines of authority and channels of communication are not known, an abundance of miscommunication, excessive communication or lack of communication will occur.

Success of Communication depends on

- Form of communication use
- Individual differences of the receiver
- Use of feedback
- Characteristic and structure of the organization
- Greater decentralization
- Providing more latitude for organizational units
- Creating self contained units
- Open office organizational architecture
- Source credibility
- Source likeability
- No. of favourable arguments presented
- Use of attention seeking devices (Humour / music etc)
- Argument for and against the proposal
- Emotional appeals
- Management style

In an exhaustive theory of organization, communication would occupy a central place because the structure, extensiveness and scope of organization are almost entirely determined by communication techniques. Researches have shown that the average executive spends nearly 70 percent of his/her working time in communication – in writing, reading, speaking and listening. Today's managers must be active communicators since all management functions require the skill of communication.

Communication is the crux of Agricultural Extension and hence needs to be understood and practiced in the right perspective to realize the objectives of Agricultural Extension and make the farmers better informed about the technology, domestic and international markets and the emerging trends in the field.

Communication Styles

| | Passive | Assertive | Aggressive |
|-------------------------------|---|--|---|
| |  |  |  |
| Definition | Communication style in which you put the rights of others before your own, minimizing your own self worth | Communication style in which you stand up for your rights while maintaining respect for the rights of others | Communication style in which you stand up for your rights but you violate the rights of others |
| General | Compliant, submissive, talks little, vague, non-committal communication, puts self down, praises others <i>"I don't mind...that's fine....yes alright"</i> | Actions and expressions fit with words spoken, firm but polite and clear messages, respectful of self and others <i>"That's a good idea, and how about if we did this too..." or "I can see that, but I'd really like..."</i> | Sarcastic, harsh, always right, critical, superior, know it all, interrupts, talks over others, , puts-down, patronising, disrespectful of others <i>"This is what we're doing, if you don't like it, tough"</i> |
| Implications to Others | my feelings are not important I don't matter I think I'm inferior | we are both important we both matter I think we are equal | your feelings are not important you don't matter I think I'm superior |
| Beliefs | You're okay, I'm not Has no opinion other than that the other person (s) are always more important, so it doesn't matter what they think anyway | I'm okay, you're okay Believes or acts as if all the individuals involved are equal, each deserving of respect, and no more entitled than the other to have things done their way | I'm okay, you're not Believe they are entitled to have things done their way, the way they want it to be done, because they are right, and others (and their needs) are less important |
| Verbal Styles | apologetic overly soft or tentative voice | I statements firm voice | you statements loud voice |

| | Passive | Assertive | Aggressive |
|-------------------------------|---|--|--|
| |  |  |  |
| Non-Verbal Styles | looking down or away stooped posture, excessive head nodding Avoids eye contact, teary, pleading | looking direct relaxed posture, smooth and relaxed movements Warm, welcoming, friendly, comfortable eye contact | staring, narrow eyes tense, clenched fists, rigid posture, pointing fingers Narrow, emotion-less, expressionless |
| Posture | Makes body smaller – stooped, leaning, hunched shoulders | Relaxed, open, welcoming | Makes body bigger – upright, head high, shoulders out, hands on hips, feet apart |
| Hands | Together, fidgety, clammy | Open, friendly and appropriate gestures | Pointing fingers, making fists, clenched, hands on hips |
| Potential Consequences | lowered self esteem, anger at self, false feelings of inferiority, disrespect from others, pitied by others, Give in to others, don't get what we want or need, self-critical thoughts, miserable | higher self esteem, self respect, respect from others, respect of others, Good relationships with others, happy with outcome and to compromise | guilt, anger from others, lowered self esteem, disrespect from others, feared by others, Makes enemies, upsets others and self, feel angry and resentful |

Source: http://www.cedanet.com/meta/communication_styles.htm, <http://www.get.gq/communication.htm>

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