

LEADERSHIP STYLES: Leadership style is the typical approach a particular person uses to lead people. The familiar three-way classification of leadership styles is as follows;

i) Authoritarian style ii) Participative style and iii) Free-rein style

i) Authoritarian Style: In this type of leadership the leader alone determines policy and makes plans. He tells others what to do and how to do it. He demands strict obedience and relies on the power of his position to reward and punish others. People have little freedom under him. He shows greater concern for work than for his workers.

Merits: This type of leadership can increase efficiency and get quick results in a crisis or emergency situation. This style of leadership works well with the employees who have a low tolerance for ambiguity, feel insecure with freedom and even minor decision-making requirements, and thrive under clear, detailed, and achievable directives. Chain of command and division of work are clear and fully understood by all in this type of leadership.

Demerits: One-way communication, without feedback, typically leads to misunderstandings, communication breakdowns and costly errors. This leadership style excludes the people from involvement and reduces them to machine-like cogs without human dignity or importance.

ii) Participative style: In this type of leadership the entire group is involved in and accepts responsibility for goal setting and achievement. Subordinates have considerable freedom of action. The leader shows greater concern for his people than for high production.

Merits: When people participate in and help formulate a decision, they support it and work hard to make it work because it is their idea and now, part of their life and their ego. The leader consistently receives the benefit of the best information, ideas, suggestions, talent, and operating experience of his people. This style of leadership permits and encourages people to develop, grow and rise in the organization.

Demerits: This style needs a lot of time and human relations skill which are not widely possessed. This style very often results in watered down solutions. This style may cause embarrassment and nervousness to certain employees who are coming from authoritarian culture and family background. This style may alienate certain individuals whose opinions have been rejected. These persons may join hands to oppose management. This style, if not exercised properly, may degenerate into a complete loss of leader's control. Some leaders may use this style as a way of avoiding responsibility.

iii) Free-rein or Laissez Faire style: In this type of leadership, the leader exercises absolutely no control. He only provides information, materials, and facilities to his men to enable them to accomplish group objectives. This type of leadership can be a disaster if the leader does not know well the competence and integrity of his people and their ability to handle this kind of freedom.

DEFINITION AND MEANING

Change is inevitable in the life of an organization. Change heralds new opportunities and poses formidable challenges. Organizations that learn and cope with change will thrive and flourish and others which fail to do so will be wiped out. In this chapter we will discuss various aspects of changes. According to Stephen P. Robbins, change is concerned with making things different. Things must be different because they change constantly. Technological development changes the methods of producing goods and services. Jobs become increasingly complex and technologically more interdependent. Organizations today compete in world markets. All these developments make change inevitable and pervasive in organizational life. To quote another definition, “when an organizational system is disturbed by some internal or external force, change frequently occurs.” Change, as a process, is simply modification of the structure or process of a system. Organizational Change looks both at the process in which a company or any organization changes its operational methods, technologies, organizational structure, whole structure, or strategies, as well as what effects these changes have on it. Organizational change usually happens in response to – or because of – external or internal pressures. It is all about reviewing and modifying structures – specifically management structures – and business processes. Small commercial enterprises need to adapt to survive against larger competitors. They also need to learn to thrive in that environment. Large rivals need to adapt rapidly when a smaller, innovative competitor comes onto the scene. To avoid falling behind, or to remain a step ahead of its rivals, a business must seek out ways to operate more efficiently. It must also strive to operate more cost effectively.

MEANING AND NATURE OF LEADERSHIP: The following are some of the important definitions of leadership:

According to Peter Drucker, “Leadership is the lifting of man’s visions to higher sights, the raising of a man’s performance to a higher standard, the building of a man’s personality beyond its normal limitations”. In the words of George Terry, “The will to do is triggered by leadership and lukewarm desire for achievement is transformed into burning passion for successful accomplishment by the skillful use of leadership “. Alford and Beatty define leadership as the ability to secure desirable actions from a group of followers voluntarily without the use of coercion. According to Keith Davis leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it towards goals. The essence of leadership can be summarized as follows:

- Leadership is a group phenomenon. It involves interaction between two or more people.
- It refers to the ability of one individual to influence others.
- The influence is exercised to change the behaviour of others.
- Behaviour is changed through non-coercive means.
- Change of behaviour is caused with an objective of achieving shared goals.
- The person influencing others (leader) possesses a set of qualities or characteristics which he uses to influence others.

NEED FOR LEADERSHIP i) The incompleteness of formal organizational design: The formal organization is generally incomplete and imperfect. Leadership helps overcome the deficiency. ii) Changing environment conditions: A leadership of high order would be needed for the organization to cope with the technological, legal, cultural, and other changes. iii) The internal dynamics of the organization: As the organization grows new complexities of structure are created, new needs for coordination arise, and new policies must be invented. Good leadership is required to cope with these situations. iv) The nature of human membership in organizations: Human membership in an organization is segmental in nature. The organization expects the person to adapt to its requirements. A leader is helpful for such adaptation.

MEANING OF TEAM: The word Team can be defined as set of persons who willingly work together for the benefit of the group. Team consists of small number of people who are committed to common goal where they are mutually accountable. The word “team” can be quoted in different way in an organization like quality circles, task forces, performance cadres, etc. Good leadership is a key to team performance and team leaders have a vital role to play in ensuring that team members work well together and are able to achieve the goals which have been set. Their role is that of facilitator. They need to understand the nature of the task in hand as well as the broader organizational context. They need to assess the knowledge, skills and experience of each team members and what motivates them. They need to engage individuals and help them to find their place in the work of the team.

FEATURES OF TEAM:

- Small number of people
- Team members possess complementary skills, these skills help to plan and accomplish goals
- Team members feel mutually accountable for the result of their action
- Members work with synergistic efforts
- Team a narrow term, designed for specific task.

TYPES OF TEAM: A team is a “group whose individual efforts result in performance that is greater than the sum of individual inputs”. Following are the types of teams

1. **Problem – solving teams:** The members of the team are from same department who share ideas or suggestions and methods to improve the effectiveness. Various alternative solutions and recommendations are discussed towards the problem.
2. **Self-managing teams:** This team consist 10 to 15 people who take on responsibilities of their former supervisor. Members in this team work independently, they plan, set goals, schedule work, assign duties to members, monitor their work, coordinate, design performance appraisal. The team members have varied skills required to perform the task assigned.
3. **Cross Functional Teams:** The members of this team are made up of employees from same hierarchical level, but from different functional areas. This team is useful for complex projects, where all departments are under one frame. Members of each different department share information, create innovative diverse ideas and also manage the project.
4. **Virtual teams:** The above-mentioned teams have face to face interaction amongst their team, where as in this virtual team computer technology is used to bring together physically dispersed members towards common goal.
5. **Quality circle:** Group of labour and management members who are from single department work similar or same task and meet periodically to discuss manufacturing problems. This team is for improving quality of products, productivity of firm, improves morale etc.

JOB SATISFACTION: Definition and Meaning: Job satisfaction is a set of favorable or unfavorable feelings with which employees view their work. It is also defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. There are three important dimensions to job satisfaction. i) Job Satisfaction refers to one's feeling towards one's job. It can only be inferred but not seen. ii) It is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectation. iii) Job Satisfaction and Job Attitudes are typically used interchangeably. **Consequences of Job Satisfaction:** High satisfaction may lead to improved productivity, increased turnover, improved attendance, reduced accidents, less job stress and lower unionization. i) Productivity: The relationship between satisfaction and productivity is not definitely established. The consensus is that in the long-run job satisfaction leads to increased productivity. However, there is more evidence to suggest that job performance leads to job satisfaction and not the other way round. An employee who performs well in his job gets both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards which will lead to his satisfaction. A poor performer will feel worse about his incompetence and will receive fewer rewards. He will be less satisfied with his work experiences. ii) Job Satisfaction and Employee Turnover: The connection between job satisfaction and employee turnover is established beyond doubt. It has been demonstrated that workers who have relatively low levels of job satisfaction are the most likely to quit their jobs and that organizational units with the lowest average satisfaction levels tend to have the highest turnover rates. iii) Satisfaction and Absences: Correlation of satisfaction to absenteeism is also proved conclusively. Absenteeism is high when satisfaction is low. It is also important to remember that while high job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, low satisfaction is likely to bring about high absenteeism. iv) Satisfaction and Safety: Poor safety practices are a negative consequence of low satisfaction levels. When people are discouraged about their jobs, company and supervisors, they are more liable to experience accidents. An underlying reason for such accidents is that discouragement may take one's attention away from the task at hand. v) Satisfaction and Job Stress: Chronic job dissatisfaction is a powerful source of job stress. Prolonged stress can cause the employee serious ailments such as heart diseases, ulcer, blurred vision, lower back pain, dermatitis and muscle aches. An employee trapped in a dissatisfying job may withdraw by such means as high absenteeism and tardiness; or the employee may quit. All things considered, practicing managers and organizational Behaviour researchers would agree that job satisfaction is important to an organization.

STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT: This process of learning to work together effectively is known as team development. Research has shown that teams go through definitive stages during development. Bruce Tuckman, an educational psychologist, identified a five-stage development process that most teams follow to become high performing. He called the stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Team progress through the stages is shown in the following diagram. **Forming stage:** The forming stage involves a period of orientation and getting acquainted. Uncertainty is high during this stage, and people are looking for leadership and authority. A member who asserts authority or is knowledgeable may be looked to take control. Team members are asking such questions as “What does the team offer me?” “What is expected of me?” “Will I fit in?” Most interactions are social as members get to know each other. **Storming stage** the storming stage is the most difficult and critical stage to pass through. It is a period marked by conflict and competition as individual personalities emerge. Team performance may actually decrease in this stage because energy is put into unproductive activities. Members may disagree on team goals, and subgroups and cliques may form around strong personalities or areas of agreement. To get through this stage, members must work to overcome obstacles, to accept individual differences, and to work through conflicting ideas on team tasks and goals. Teams can get bogged down in this stage. Failure to address conflicts may result in long-term problems. **Norming stage:** If teams get through the storming stage, conflict is resolved and some degree of unity emerges. In the norming stage, consensus develops around who the leader or leaders are, and individual member’s roles. Interpersonal differences begin to be resolved, and a sense of cohesion and unity emerges. Team performance increases during this stage as members learn to cooperate and begin to focus on team goals. However, the harmony is precarious, and if disagreements re-emerge the team can slide back into storming. **Performing stage:** In the performing stage, consensus and cooperation have been well established and the team is mature, organized, and well-functioning. There is a clear and stable structure, and members are committed to the team’s mission. Problems and conflicts still emerge, but they are dealt with constructively. (We will discuss the role of conflict and conflict resolution in the next section). The team is focused on problem solving and meeting team goals. **Adjourning stage:** In the adjourning stage, most of the team’s goals have been accomplished. The emphasis is on wrapping up final tasks and documenting the effort and results. As the work load is diminished, individual members may be reassigned to other teams, and the team disbands. There may be regret as the team ends, so a ceremonial acknowledgement of the work and success of the team can be helpful. If the team is a standing committee with ongoing responsibility, members may be replaced by new people and the team can go back to a forming or storming stage and repeat the development process.

ATTRIBUTES

DEFINITION AND MEANING: By attitudes we mean the beliefs, feelings and action tendencies of an individual or group of individuals, towards objects, ideas and people. Quite often persons and objects or ideas become associated in the minds of individuals and as a result attitudes become multidimensional and complex. The following are the features of attitude: i. It refers to feelings and beliefs of individuals or group of individuals. ii. The feelings and beliefs are directed towards other people, objects or ideas. iii. Attitudes tend to result in behaviors or action. iv. Attitudes can fall anywhere along a continuum from very favorable to very unfavorable condition. v. Attitudes endure. vi. All people, irrespective of their status or intelligence, hold attitudes.

FORMATION OF ATTITUDES: The most important sources of acquiring attitudes are direct experience with the object, association, family, neighborhood, economic and social positions and mass communication. i) Direct experience with the object: Attitudes can develop from a personally rewarding or punishing experience with an object. Employees form attitudes about present jobs on their previous experience. Attitudes formed on experience are difficult to change. ii) Classical conditioning and attitude: People develop associations between various objects and the emotional reactions that accompany them. This is due to classical conditioning. Both positive and negative associations can develop through classical conditioning. For example, one may have a positive attitude towards a particular perfume because a favorite model wears it. Similarly, many soldiers stationed in the Persian Gulf during the war with Iraq formed a negative attitude towards sand as they hated to sit on the sandy beach during the hard-fought war. iii) Operant conditioning and attitude acquisition: Attitudes that are reinforced, either verbally or non-verbally tend to be maintained. Conversely, a person who states an attitude that elicits ridicule from others may modify or abandon the attitude. iv) Vicarious learning: In vicarious learning a person learns something through the observance of others. It is through this process children pick up prejudices of their parents. For example, even if they have never met a blind person, children whose parents say that 'blind people are incompetent' may adopt such attitudes themselves. We also learn attitudes vicariously through television, films and other media. v) Family and Peer Groups: A person may learn attitudes through imitation of parents. Similarly, attitudes are acquired from peer groups in colleges and organizations. vi) Neighborhoods: The neighborhood we live in also influences our attitude. It has a certain structure in terms of culture, religious groupings and ethnic differences. The neighbors tolerate, condone or deny certain attitude and Behaviour and we may accept the move and conform or we deny and rebel. vii) Economic status and occupations: Our economic and occupational positions also contribute to attitude formation. They determine, in part, our attitudes towards union and management and our belief that certain laws are 'good' or 'bad'. viii) Mass Communication: All varieties of mass communication – television, radio, newspapers, and magazines – feed their audiences large quantities of information. The audiences select the specific form of mass communication that best reflects its attitudes on various subjects. The item of interest includes sex and teenagers, crime, divorce, politics, religion and the like.

TYPES OF ATTITUDES

Individuals possess hundreds of attitudes. But in organizations, there are

three work related attitudes. They are Job Satisfaction, Job involvement organizational commitment.

MEANING OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: Organizational change which occurs over a long period of time and requiring considerable planning and implementation is popularly called as Organizational Development. It is the systematic application of behavioural science knowledge at various levels (group, inter group, and total organization) to bring about planned change. Its objectives include a higher quality of work life, productivity, adaptability and effectiveness. It seeks to use behavioral knowledge to change beliefs, attitudes, values, strategies, structures and practices so that the organization can better adapt to competitive actions, technological advances and the fast pace of other changes in the environment. Organizational Development has been understood as a system-wide process of data collection, diagnosis, action planning, intervention and evaluation aimed at (1) enhancing congruence among organizational structure, process, strategy, people and culture; (2) developing new and creative organizational solutions; (3) developing the organization's self-renewing capacity. OD is an attempt to use the concepts and methodologies of applied behavioral sciences (psychology, sociology, anthropology and social psychology) to help organizations develop and maintain their health.

CHARACTERISTICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: The characteristics of OD are explained in the following paragraphs: i) Humanistic values: OD programmes typically are based on humanistic values, which are positive beliefs about the potential and desire for growth among employees. The best climate for such growth is one that stresses collaborations, open communications, interpersonal trust, shared power and constructive confrontation. ii) Use of change agents: OD programmes generally use one or more change agents, whose role is to stimulate, facilitate and co-ordinate change. The change agent usually acts as a catalyst, sparking change within the system while remaining somewhat independent of it. iii) Problem solving: OD emphasizes the process of problem solving. It trains participants to identify and solve problems that are important to them. The approach commonly used to improve problem-solving skills is to have employees identify system problems, gather data about them, take corrective action, assess progress and proceed to make adjustments. This cyclical process of using research to guide action, which generates new data as the basis for new actions, is known as "Action Research", or "Action Science". iv) Experiential learning: When participants learn by experiencing in the training environment the kinds of human problems they face on the job; the process is called "Experiential Learning". Participants can discuss and analyse their own immediate experiences and learn from them. The general goal of OD is to build more effective organizations – which will continue to learn, adapt and improve. OD accomplishes this goal by recognising that problems may occur at the individual, interpersonal, group, intergroup or total organization level. An overall OD strategy is then developed with one or more "interventions". The 'interventions' are structured activities designed to help individuals or groups improve their work effectiveness. These interventions are often classified by their emphasis on individuals (such as career planning) or groups (such as team building). Another way to view interventions is to look at whether they focus on what people are doing or on how they are doing it. vi) Contingency orientation: OD is usually described as contingency oriented. Most OD practitioners are flexible and pragmatic, selecting and adapting actions to fit assessed needs. Usually there is a open discussion of several useful alternatives rather than the imposition of a single best way to proceed. vii) Summary and application: The OD process applies behavioral science knowledge and strategies to improve an organization. It is a longrange, continuing effort that tries to build co-operative work relationships through the use of a change agent. It seeks to integrate into an effective unit the four elements that affect organizational behavior – people, structure, technology and environment.

TRENDS IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: Organizations have entered a new era characterized by rapid, dramatic and turbulent changes. The accelerated pace of change has transformed how work is performed by employees in diverse organizations. Change has truly become an inherent and integral part of organizational life. Several emerging trends are impacting organizational life. Of these emerging trends, five will be examined: globalization, diversity, flexibility, flat, and networks. These five emerging trends create tensions for organizational leaders and employees as they go through waves of changes in their organizations. These tensions present opportunities as well as threats, and if these tensions are not managed well, they will result in dysfunctional and dire organizational outcomes at the end of any change process. Globalization Organizations operate in a global economy that is characterized by greater and more intense competition, and at the same time, greater economic interdependence and collaboration. More products and services are being consumed outside of their country of origin than ever before as globalization brings about greater convergence in terms of consumer tastes and preferences. Yet at the same time, in the midst of greater convergence, there is the opposite force of divergence at work where companies have to adapt corporate and business strategies, marketing plans, and production efforts to local domestic markets. To stay competitive, more organizations are embracing offshore outsourcing. Many functions are being shifted to India, the Philippines, Malaysia, and other countries for their low labor costs, high levels of workforce education, and technological advantages. According to the 2002-2003 Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) Workplace Forecast, companies such as Ford, General Motors, and Nestle employ more people outside of their headquarters countries than within those countries.

FUTURE TRENDS IN ORGANISATION BEHAVIOR: The organizational environment in the future may be marked by shrinking demand, scarce resources and more intense competition. When organizations stagnate, decline or have their survival threatened, there is evidence that stress and conflict increase. The motivational models, the leadership styles and such other behavioural concepts may not be as relevant as they are today. A lot of changes are inevitable and the OB managers should also redefine their approaches and roles in the changed scenario. **CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE:** The concept of organizational climate is derived from the atmospheric climate. Just as two places can be differentiated with reference to elements of atmospheric climate like temperature, humidity, etc, organizations also can be differentiated on the basis of organization climate prevailing in them. There is evidence to show that there is a very close relationship between organizational climate, job satisfaction, performance of individuals and ultimately organizational effectiveness. Organization Climate is a set of distinctive features that distinguish one organization from another and influence the behavior of people. It may also be defined as behaviour, shared beliefs, and values that members have in organization. It often sets the tone for the organization and establishes implied rules for the way people should behave.

ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATION CLIMATE: In every organization, there exist certain elements which exert profound influence on the existing climate. These are: - (a) Organizational Context.: The foremost factor is command/management philosophy. Reactions of the members of the organization on the degree to which they accept this philosophy is crucial to a good organizational climate. The climate would be highly favorable, when existing command styles/management techniques are such that members' goals match those of the organization. (b) Structure.: Nature of relationships, de-alienation of the hierarchy, centralized /decentralized decision making etc affect the climate of an organization. (c) Process.: Some of the vital processes in an organization are communication, decision making and leadership. In all these processes the interface between the superior and the subordinate are visible and cannot be ignored. (c) Physical Environment: The external factors like safety, comfort and decor effect the organizational climate of an organization. (d) System Value and Norms: Every organization has discernable and fairly evident formal value system. The formal value system is communicated to the members through rules, regulations and policies. The informal organizations within also exert influence on values and consequently on climate.

The following are the values in OD efforts: 1. Respect People People are the *raison d'être* of organization and they are responsible for creating opportunities for growth. They must, therefore, be treated with respect and dignified manners. 2. Confidence and Support Organizations are made up of people and they are to be believed and supported in order to have effective organization. The healthy environment prevails when people are trusted and taken into confidence and a necessary support is extended to them as and when needed. 3. Confrontation Any conflict on any issue should not be suppressed. It should be dealt with openness. Suppression leads to dampening of morale. Identifying the problem and its causes, discussing it openly and finding out feasible solution leads to boosting up morale of the employees and creating good environment. 4. Employee Participation The participation of employees who will be affected by the OD should be sought in decision-making. 5. Expression Human beings differ in experience, maturity, ideas, opinions, and outlook. The organization is at the receiving end. It gains from the differences in quality, ideas, opinions and experiences of its people. Human beings are social animals; they have feelings, emotions, anger and sentiments etc. They should be allowed to express their feelings and sentiments. This will result in building up high morale and the people will be motivated towards hard work ultimately resulting in increased efficiency. 6. Seeking Cooperation Managers should learn to seek cooperation from each of the employees working under him in his department. This will develop in creating the atmosphere of cooperation leading to organizational effectiveness and willingness to accept change in the event of organization development process.

BENEFITS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: Increasing productivity and efficiency comes with many benefits. One of the best ways to encourage positive results in these metrics is by using a well-thought-out organizational development structure. Organizational development is used to equip an organization with the right tools so that it can adapt and respond positively (profitably!) to changes in the market. The benefits of organizational development include the following: 1. Continuous development Entities that participate in organizational development continually develop their business models. Organizational development creates a constant pattern of improvement in which strategies are developed, evaluated, implemented, and assessed for results and quality. In essence, the process builds a favorable environment in which a company can embrace change, both internally and externally. The change is leveraged to encourage periodic renewal. 2. Increased horizontal and vertical communication Of considerable merit to organizational development is effective communication, interaction, and feedback in an organization. An efficient communication system aligns employees with the company's goals, values, and objectives. An open communication system enables employees to understand the importance of change in an organization. Active organizational development increases communication in an organization, with feedback shared continuously to encourage improvement. 3. Employee growth Organizational development places significant emphasis on effective communication, which is used to encourage employees to effect necessary changes. Many industry changes require employee development programs. As a result, many organizations are working toward improving the skills of their employees to equip them with more market-relevant skills. 4 Enhancement of products and services Innovation is one of the main benefits of organizational development and is a key contributing factor to the improvement of products and services. One approach to change is employee development – a critical focal point is a reward for motivation and success. Successful engagement of employees leads to increased innovation and productivity. Through competitive analysis, consumer expectations, and market research, organizational development promotes change. 5. Increased profit margins Organizational development influences the bottom line in many different ways. As a result of increased productivity and innovation, profits and efficiency increase. Costs come down because the organization can better manage employee turnover and absenteeism. After the alignment of an entity's objectives, it can focus entirely on development and product

LEARNING: Learning involves change, although the change may be for good or bad from an organization's point of view. **Definition and Nature of Learning** ■ Learning can be defined as “relatively permanent change in behavior potentiality that results from reinforced practice or experience”. ■ Not all changes reflect learning. To constitute learning, change should be relatively permanent. Temporary changes may be only reflective and fail to represent any learning. ■ Learning is reflected in behavior. A change in an individual's thought process or attitudes, not accompanied by behaviour, is not learning. ■ The change in behavior should occur as a result of experience, practice or training. ■ The practice or experience must be reinforced in order for learning to occur. ■ Learning is not confined to one's schooling. It occurs throughout one's life.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING: Learning principles help, particularly a training manager, gain maximum efficiency in a learning situation. Some important principles of learning considered here are motivation, knowledge of results, reinforcement, schedule of learning, whole versus part learning, learning curves and meaningfulness of material.

i) **Motivation:** The concept of motivation is basic because, without motivation learning does not take place or, at least, is not discernible.

ii) **Knowledge of Results:** It is generally conceded that knowledge regarding one's own performance is a necessary condition for learning. Feedback about the performance will enable the learner to know where he stands and to initiate corrective action if any deviation from the expected goal has taken place.

iii) **Reinforcement:** Reinforcement refers to the consequences of behaviour. It may be understood as anything that both increases the strength of response and tends to induce repetitions of the behavior that preceded the reinforcement. There are four basic forms of reinforcement in organizations: positive reinforcement, avoidance, extinction, and punishment.

Positive reinforcement: Positive reinforcement strengthens and increases behavior by the presentation of desirable consequences. The reinforcement consists of a positive experience for the individual. For example, if an employee does something well and is complimented for it by the boss, the probability that the employee shall repeat the behaviour will strengthen. The main purpose of providing positive reinforcement after the behaviour is to maintain or increase the frequency of that behaviour.

Avoidance: Avoidance, also known as negative reinforcement, is another means of increasing the frequency of desirable behaviour. Here, the person is given the opportunity to avoid an unpleasant consequence. For example, a manager may habitually criticize individuals who dress casually. To avoid criticism, the employees may dress to suit the manager's demands.

Extinction: Whereas positive reinforcement and avoidance increase the frequency of desirable behaviour, extinction decreases the frequency of undesirable behaviour, especially behaviour that was previously rewarded. In other words, if rewards are withdrawn for behaviors that were previously reinforced, the behaviors probably will become less frequent and eventually die out.

Punishment: Punishment also tends to decrease the frequency of undesirable behaviour. In the work place, undesirable behaviour might include being late, stealing and the like. Examples of punishment include verbal or written reprimands, pay cuts, layoffs and termination.

iv) **Schedules of learning:** Schedules of learning also influence the learning effectiveness. It is proved that distributed or spaced practice is superior to continuous or massed practice.

v) **Whole versus part learning:** The effectiveness of learning is dependent on the fact whether learning is taking place in whole or part. In some cases, whole learning proves to be effective and in some other cases part learning seems to be effective.

DEFINITION AND MEANING OF MOTIVATION: Motivation is a process that starts with a psychological or physiological deficiency or need that activates Behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive. The source of motivation is in the needs resting in the personality of the person. Needs are like a bundle of energy which create tensions that are modified by the person's culture or habits to arouse certain wants or expectations. These wants are interpreted in terms of positive or negative incentives and the person's perception of the environment in order to produce a certain response or action. There are various ways of classifying needs. A simple but significant classification is; i) Basic Physiological Needs or Primary Needs ii) Social and Psychological Needs or Secondary Needs. Some of the Physiological needs are food, water, sex, sleep, air to breathe and temperature within tolerable limits. These needs arise out of the basic physiology of life, and are important for survival and preservation of the species. Secondary needs represent needs of the mind and spirit, rather than of the body. Some of the secondary needs are rivalry, self-esteem, sense of duty, self-assertion, sense of belonging, independence, giving and receiving affection etc., People vary in their secondary needs much more than primary physiological needs. The secondary needs are the ones which complicate the motivational efforts of workers, supervisors and managers in organizations. If the varied needs are understood properly, motivation is much easier.

MOTIVATIONAL TECHNIQUES: Men work for various reasons, sometimes for a combination of reasons and sometimes for different reasons at different times. It is important for the supervisors and managers to know the needs and expectations of the employees and to take timely action on them if they want to maintain motivation and involvement in the work. The following are some of the financial and non-financial rewards used to motivate the employees: i) Wage incentives A variety of wage incentives are available to the management for offer to their employees. The more common systems are: Straight time payment, piece rates, bonus systems, profit sharing and numerous formula rates based on production above a specified standard. ii) Non-Wage Incentives Competition and Achievement Orientation: Competition increases speed of performance and individual competition is more effective than competition between groups. Also, competition among persons of nearly equal skills produces better results than unequal skills. Competition as incentives takes various forms in the Indian Industry. Contests are one form of incentive of competition. Praise and Punishment: The incentives of praise and punishment are crucial to Indian business and industry as they directly relate to the intricately connected issue of motivation of workers on one hand and that of discipline on the other. Knowledge of Results: Periodic knowledge of results psychologically induces motivation and self-control in the person or a group of persons engaged in performing a task. It also helps the supervisor to effectively control and direct the performance by taking timely corrective actions. Participation: Various studies have shown the effectiveness of participation as an incentive to workers for increased and improved performance. Participation incorporates the strongest social motive of self-respect and social approval and the egoistic motive of self-expression. Suggestion Systems: Suggestion system is an incentive which provides the opportunity to satisfy self-expression needs. For the management it may provide valuable suggestions from employees. Fringe Benefits: The role of non-wage benefits like housing, subsidised canteens, schools and hospitals are important factors in increasing labour productivity.

MEANING AND CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNICATION: • Communication is the process through which two or more persons exchange ideas among them. • According to Newman & Summer, “Communication is an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions or emotions by two or more persons”. • Theo Haiman defines communication as “the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another, it is the process of imparting ideas and making oneself understood by others”. • The following are the characteristics of communication: • It involves more than one person. • It deals with the transmission of facts. • Media of communication may be numerous. • Since a business organization has continuity, the process of communication is also a continuous process. • It involves both information and understanding. • It includes all means by which meaning is conveyed from one person to another. • It is the basis for action and co-operation. • It travels up and down and also from side to side. • Its primary purpose is to motivate a response. • It is universal in nature.

COMMUNICATION PROCESS: i) Sender: The person who intends to convey the message with the intention of passing information and ideas to others is known as sender or communicator. ii) Ideas: This is the subject matter of communication. This might be an opinion, attitude, feelings, views, orders or suggestions etc., iii) Encoding: Since the subject matter of communication is theoretical and intangible, its further passing requires use of certain symbols such as words, actions or pictures etc., Conversion of subject matter into these symbols is the process of encoding. iv) Communication Channel: The person who is interested in communicating has to choose the channel for sending the required information, ideas etc., This information is transmitted to the receiver through certain media. It may be either formal or informal. v) Receiver: Receiver is the person who receives the message or for whom the message is meant for. It is the receiver who tries to understand the message in the best possible manner in achieving the desired objectives. vi) Decoding: The person who receives the message or symbol from the communicator tries to convert the same in such a way so that he may extract its meaning to his complete understanding. vii) Feedback: Feedback is the process of ensuring that the receiver has received the message and understood it in the same sense as sender meant it.

IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION IN MANAGEMENT: Now-a-days communication is considered to be an important human skill. The ability to communicate effectively has become one of the major skills of a successful manager. An organization without the network of communication is inadequate and incomplete. The importance of communication in management can be judged from the following. i) Basis of Co-ordination: The work of the organization can be carried out without interruption only through co-ordination. Co-ordination requires mutual understanding about the organizational goals, the mode of their achievement and the inter relationships between the work being performed by various individuals and all this can be achieved through communication only. ii) Smooth working of an enterprise: Communication makes possible the smooth and unrestricted running of the enterprise. All the organizational interactions depend upon communication. If the persons engaged in performing the various tasks understand exactly the task which is required to perform, it can help in the smooth running of an enterprise. iii) Basis of Decision Making: Communication is a primary requirement for making decisions. Information must be received before any meaningful decision can be made. Again, to implement the decision effectively it becomes necessary to have a good communication system. iv) Increases managerial efficiency: Communication is essential for quick and systematic performance of managerial functions. In the modern day, the skill of communication has become an essential component of successful management. v) Promotion of co-operation and industrial peace: two-way communications promote co-operation and mutual understanding between both parties. Efficient downward communication helps the management to tell the subordinates what the management actually expects from them. Upward communication helps the workers in putting their grievances, suggestions and reactions before the management which ultimately helps in achieving the desired goals. vi) Establishment of effective leadership: Communication is the basis of direction and leadership. By developing the skill of communication, a manager can be a real leader of his subordinates. vii) Morale-building and motivation: An efficient system of communication enables the management to mold the attitude of the subordinates. Proper and timely communication between the interested parties reduce the points of friction and minimizes those that inevitably arise. Communication improves the human relations in any industry.

CO-ORDINATION: Definition and Features of Co-Ordination: According to Mooney and Reilley, "Co-ordination is an orderly arrangement of group effort to provide unity of action in the pursuit of a common purpose". The following are the features of co-ordination: • Co-ordination is synchronization of group efforts for achieving objectives of an enterprise. • Responsibility for co-ordination rests with management and managers at all levels and they must try to secure co-ordination of people working under them. • It is a continuous and dynamic activity carried on by managers. • The ultimate aim of co-ordination is to achieve unity of action of group efforts and attain the objectives of an enterprise. **IMPORTANCE AND NEED OF CO-ORDINATION:** The need for co-ordination arises only when two or more persons work together for achieving common objectives. The following points bring out the importance of co-ordination. i) Specialization: An organization is divided into various departments and each department is headed by a specialist. Co-ordination of diverse activities of various departments is of utmost importance otherwise there may be utter confusion and chaos. ii) Conflicting individual and organization goals: It is very important for every enterprise to bring about co-ordination between organization goals and individual goals. If an individual is diverting from the path of organization goals, he may be told immediately to mend his ways and try to achieve the objective of the organization. iii) Line and Staff Structure: The creation of line and staff structure in an organization also creates problems of co-ordination. The staff officers may confuse their authority with line officers. Thus, co-ordination is necessary between line and staff officers for achieving the goals of enterprise. iv) Personal politics: In every enterprise rival group of people can be formed. There is a need for bringing about co-ordination among the rival groups which sometimes tend to sabotage the co-ordination process. v) Different outlook: Each individual in an organization is a complex and unique personality. Individuals assess and interpret organization goals from their own view points. Hence, management has to co-ordinate the activities of these individuals. vi) Increase in efficiency: Co-ordination ensures a proper tempo for the whole organization. A co-ordinated group effort helps to make an optimum use of all the resources. It therefore increases the efficiency.

ORGANIZATION BEHAVIOUR AN OVERVIEW: Concept of Organizational Behavior: Organizational Behavior can be defined as the understanding, prediction and management of human behavior in the organizations. The human behavior in the organization is determined partly by the requirements of the formal organization and partly by the personal system of the individuals forming the organization.

ORGANIZATIONAL PARTICIPANTS: Organizational Behavior and Organizational Environment The key elements in organizational behavior are people, structure, technology, and the environment in which the organization operates. When people join together in an organization to accomplish an objective, some kind of structure is required. People also use technology to help get the job done, so there is an interaction of people, structure, and technology. In addition, these elements are influenced by the external environment and they influence it. (a) People: People make up the internal social system of the organization. They consist of individual groups, large groups as well as small ones. They may be unofficial, informal groups or official, formal ones. Groups are dynamic. They form, change, and disband. The Human organizations today are not the same as it was yesterday, or the day before. People are living, thinking, feeling beings that created the organization to achieve their objectives. (b) Structure: Structure defines the official relationships of people in the organizations. Different jobs are required to accomplish all of an organization's activities. The people who perform these jobs have to be related in some structural way so that their work can be effective. These relationships create complex problems of cooperation, negotiations, and decision making. (c) Technology: Technology provides the resources with which people work and it affects the task that they perform. The great benefit of technology is that it allows people to do more and better work, but it also restricts people in various ways. (d) Environment: All organizations operate within an external environment. A single operation does not exist alone. It is part of a larger system that contains many other elements. The environment in which an organization operates influences the attitude of people, affects working conditions, and provides competition for resources and power.

CONTROL PROCESS: Meaning and Nature of Managerial Control According to Brech, "Control is the process of checking actual performance against the agreed standards or plans, with a view to ensuring adequate progress or satisfactory performance and also recording such experience as if gained as contribution to possible future needs. Managerial control seeks to compile events to conform to plans as closely as possible. Control is applicable to all activities of business finance, purchasing, production, marketing, personnel, cost, quality, materials, etc.

Nature of Managerial Control: Important management function - Control is an indispensable function of management. It is a follow up action taken to achieve the efficiency of other managerial functions. Control is affected by other functions and in turn it affects the other functions of management. Continuous process - It is a continuous or regular process. Management has to be continuously vigilant to ensure that the enterprise is following a right path. Mechanism - It is a mechanism according to which something or somebody is directed to follow the predetermined course. In a business enterprise it is the job of a manager to control performance of work and workers placed under his charge. Dynamic process - Control is not static but it is flexible. A control system can be effective only when it goes on changing according to the needs and conditions of the enterprise. Forward looking - Control is forward looking because one can control future happenings and not the past. It seeks to improve future events through past experience. Action oriented - The essence of control is the corrective action that brings plans and performance close to each other. To arrive at organizational objectives, actions and further actions are necessary. Each time there may be corrections and changes in the actions depending upon the information provided by control procedure.

PRE-REQUISITES OF CONTROL SYSTEM: The existence of the following factors is essential to the operation of the control system: i) Planning: Planning and control are closely linked with each other. Planning without control is meaningless and control without planning is blind. Planning provides the basis of control. Control brings to light all bottlenecks to work performance and operates as a straight pointer to the need of the situation. ii) Action: Control implies that actions can be taken to correct the variations that may occur between standards and actual results. Deviations may occur in spite of the best of guidance from the manager. In such a situation, the manager should be quick to act. iii) Delegation of Authority: A manager cannot exercise control without adequate authority. The authority is delegated to operate within a prescribed limit. iv) Information: For effective control, there must be a prompt flow of information to the manager. Effective feedback helps the manager to know where and when deviation from any plan has taken place. He can then initiate prompt corrective action. Promptness in reporting is vital to quick remedial action.

ROLE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY IN CONTROL PROCESS: The system model of management shows that communication is needed for carrying out the managerial functions and for linking the organization with its external environment. The Management Information System (MIS) provides the communication link that makes managing possible. MIS is a formal system of gathering, integrating, comparing, analysing and dispersing information both internal and external to the enterprise in a timely, effective and efficient manner. MIS has to be tailored to specific needs and may include routine information, such as monthly reports, information that points out exceptions, especially at critical points and information necessary to predict the future. Use of Computers in Controlling The computer can store, retrieve and process information at a very rapid pace. The following are the various kinds of computers. Mainframe: The mainframe is a full-scale computer, often costing millions of dollars, that is capable of handling huge amounts of data. These "Super Computers" are used for engineering, simulation and the manipulation of large data bases. Mini Computer: The minicomputer has less memory and is smaller than the mainframe. This kind of computer is often connected with peripheral equipment. Micro Computer: The microcomputer is even smaller and may be a desk computer, home computer, personal computer, portable computer or a small computer for a business system. But the distinction between the various classes of computer is disappearing. With the introduction of the new micro computers with large memory and high computing speed, these computers have become very powerful. Among the many business applications of the computer are material requirements planning, manufacturing, resource planning, computer aided control of manufacturing machinery project costing, inventory control and purchasing. There are many uses in processing financial information such as accounts receivable and accounts payable, pay roll, capital budgeting and financial planning.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTION: Perception is influenced by the perceiver, the perceived and the situation. Characteristics of the perceiver: A person's needs, past experience, habits, personality, values and attitudes may all influence the perception process. Characteristics of the perceived: The physical attributes, appearance, and behavior of other persons in the situations also influence how that situation is perceived. We tend to notice the physical attributes of a person in terms of age, sex, height and weight. Characteristics of the situation: The physical, social and organizational settings of the situation or event in question can also influence perceptions. Managing the Perception Process: Successful managers understand the importance of perception as an influencing factor on behavior, and they act accordingly. They are aware of perceptual distortions, and they know that perceptual differences are likely to exist in any situation. As a result, they try to make decisions and take action with a true understanding of the work situation as it is viewed by all persons concerned. A manager who is skilled in the perception process will – i) Have a high level of self-awareness ii) Seek information from various sources to confirm or disconfirm personal impressions of a decision situation. iii) Be empathetic – that is, be able to see a situation as it is perceived by other people. iv) Influence perceptions of other people when they are drawing incorrect or incomplete impressions of events in the work setting. v) Avoid common perceptual distortions that bias our views of people and situation. VI) Avoid inappropriate attributions

DEFINITION AND MEANING OF MANAGEMENT: The term Management has been defined in various ways. In the Following paragraphs, the term is explained in detail. "Management is the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, accomplish their aims effectively and efficiently" . It is defined as "the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the resources of an organization in the efficient and effective pursuit of specified organizational goals" . In the process of clarifying these definitions, an analysis of the terms 'efficient' and 'effective' would be appropriate. An efficient manager does things right, while an effective manager does the right things. An efficient manager uses resources carefully and expertly, maximizing, their application to the task at hand. The efficient manager achieves greater output at lower costs. The effective manager, on the other hand, understands the priorities of the organization and places emphasis on those things that are the most critical for success. Good management combines both efficiency and effectiveness. Management is seen as a process of activities that can be divided into four distinct, but inter-related activities: Planning (deciding what is to be done) Organizing (deciding how it will be done and who will do it) Directing (influencing behaviour) Staffing (insisting on choosing right person for right job) and Controlling (being certain that plans are carried out) As the Manager is engaged in these processes, efficiency is integrated with the management of organizational resources, which may be categorized into four groups. Human Resources, Financial Resources, Physical Resources and Information Resources **Who is a manager?** : After having understood the meaning of management now we may Define a manager as follows: "A manager is a person who plans, organizes, leads, and controls, human, financial, physical and information resources in the efficient and effective pursuit of specified organizational goals" .

MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS: The definition of Management indicates a management process of four major functions - planning, organizing, leading and controlling warrants a brief description now. These functions are generally best understood in the order presented here, suggesting that the manager first plans, then organizes, then leads and finally controls. However, in reality, managers seldom have the luxury of addressing these functions in such a simplified step-by-step sequence. At any time, the typical manager is engaged in a number of different activities at the same time. Furthermore, a situation that occurs in operations can result in changes to the plan, organization, and leadership function and to the control technique, or any combination of these. Now we will discuss the management functions in detail. **Planning:** Planning is defined as the Management function of developing a futuristic frame of reference from which to identify opportunities and threats that lie in the future and to take action now to exploit the opportunities and to defend against the threats. Planning involves forecasting and predicting the future, which in turn requires the ability to know the customer's needs and the variety of ways to satisfy them. It also involves the determining of organizational goals and the means of achieving them most efficiently and effectively. Moreover, planning demands creative decision making in order to maximize the selection of appropriate courses of corporate action. Failure to plan carefully or correctly can result in the loss of lucrative market opportunities to the competition.

Organizing: Organizing is defined as the management function of assigning duties, grouping tasks, establishing authority and allocating resources required to carry out a specific plan. Once a specific plan has been established for the accomplishment of an organizational goal, the organizing function examines the activities and resources required to implement the plan. It determines what activities and resources are required. It decides who will do certain tasks, where they will be done and when they will be done. Organizing involves the grouping of the required tasks into manageable departments or work units and the establishment of authority and reporting relationships within the corporate hierarchy. Failure to organize properly may make the best plans useless and create confusion. **Staffing:** Staffing may be defined as "function of management, which is concerned with selecting, developing, maintaining and utilizing the manpower such that the objectives of the organisation are achieved economically and effectively. The objectives of individual employees of the organisation are accomplished to the highest degree possible, serving in the process the objectives of the community at large." Staffing is the traditional management function of attraction and selection of the best people and putting them on job where their talents and skill can be best utilized, and retention of these people through incentives, job training and job enrichment programmes, in order to achieve both individual and organizational objectives.

Directing: Directing is defined as the management function of influencing, Motivating and directing human resources towards the achievement of organizational goals. First of all, leadership function involves the management of human resources through such activities such as recruitment, selection, placement and training of personnel. Second, leadership deals with the interpersonal task of motivating the individual employee. Third, leadership must deal with and motivate the work unit, work group, department as a complexity of individuals. Fourth, leadership involves the management of organizational power, political forces and organizational culture. Lastly, leadership requires the management of organizational communication processes. Outstanding leadership has the capacity to achieve organizational success in spite of poor plans and/or poor organizations. On the contrary, the best of plans and/or organizations will fail under poor leadership. **Controlling:**

Controlling is defined as the Management function of monitoring organizational performance towards the attainment of organizational goals. Controlling entails the establishment of the performance standards required to achieve goals, the measurement of performance against those standards, and the taking of required corrective action. Here, the management must determine what activities and/or outputs are critical to success, how and where they can be measured with reasonable cost effectiveness and who should have corrective action authority. It is also essential that the corporate management information system be coordinated with the control function to assure that necessary and timely information is available to those with hands on control authority. The champions of controlling functions are the Japanese, who have truly mastered such control related tasks such as quality and inventory control.

MANAGEMENT ROLES: After having understood the functions of management, let us try to understand the roles of management. The modern manager faces many problems in today's dynamic and fiercely competitive environment, but the basic management challenge is the management of work. Above all else, management is responsible for the work performance of an organization. All organizational resources – human, financial, physical and information resources – must be managed efficiently and effectively. The bottom line, however, is quite simply, “get the job done!” Getting the job done is a challenge that can be best examined in three parts: 1. Management of Work 2. Management of People 3. Management of Operations

Management of Work: In a factory, the product must be manufactured. In a retail store, the customers need must be satisfied. In the hospital, the patient must be treated. Management must decide what need is to be served, what goals must be established, and what means will be used for the conduct of work. Problems must be solved, decisions must be made, plans must be established, budgets must be prepared, responsibilities must be assigned, and authority must be delegated. All of these tasks are involved in the management of work.

Management of People: No matter how good the plans, how flexible the budget, or how clever the organization, the work of an organization must ultimately be accomplished by people. Despite all the new labor-saving technology and robotic equipment, ‘getting work done through people’ is still a major task for the manager. Human resources should still be considered the single most important organizational asset. Managing the people of the organization is, in fact, two tasks in one: (i) The task of dealing with each employee as an individual with uniquely different set of needs and behaviors. (ii) The task of dealing with each work group as a different group with uniquely different needs and behaviors.

Management of Operations: No matter what the organization, it has some basic products or services that it must provide in order to survive. Every organization has an operations process by which a product or service is produced and/or provided for the customer. The management of this production operation entails the flow of input materials and the technology of transforming those inputs into the desired outputs for consumption. Obviously, the management of operations is inextricably interwoven with both the management of work and the management of people.

MANAGERIAL ROLE CONSTELLATION: Here it is pertinent to mention the various roles of managers as prescribed by Mintzberg (1973). He developed a model of related roles that he called the ‘Managerial Role Constellation’.

- a) Interpersonal role: The first three managerial roles are classified as interpersonal roles, because they deal with interpersonal relationships both inside and outside the firm.
- b) Figurehead role: It deals largely with ceremonial and symbolic activities that may or may not have real substance. Conducting tours for visiting dignitaries and attending grand opening ceremonies are examples of figurehead role activity. The manager uses the above interpersonal roles to seek information from many sources, both inside and outside the corporation.)
- Disseminator role: This role entails the transmission of relevant information to those in the workplace that ‘have a need to know’. The dissemination may be written or oral, formal or informal.
- h) Spokesperson role: This role deals with the dissemination of information to those outside the company. Such information is usually related to corporate plans, strategies, policies, actions, performance and other issues of community interest.
- i) Decisional role: As the manager performs the interpersonal and informational roles, certain decisional roles emerge as a part of the manager's day to day activities.
- j) Entrepreneur role: It is the process by which the manager seeks and identifies opportunities to promote improvement and needed change. In this role, the manager is also involved in the development and implementation of change in strategy.
- k) Disturbance handler role: This role equips the manager to take corrective action needed to resolve important, unexpected disturbances. In this role, the manager must handle utility service problems, strikes and natural disasters.)
- Resource allocator role: This role entails the allocation of scarce resources to the many requests for those resources. Specific activities might include developing and monitoring budgets, predicting future resource needs, and forecasting future resource problems.
- m) Negotiator role: It requires that the manager negotiate resolutions to important disputes, both inside and outside, of the company. For example, a manager might represent the corporation to negotiate a trade union contract, a joint venture, or a trade agreement. It is important to recognize that these ten roles are highly inter-related. At any given point of time, the manager is apt to be engaged in several different role activities simultaneously.

MANAGEMENT SKILLS: You would agree that a successful manager must possess a wide variety of expert skills and abilities appropriate to the nature of the job being performed. Katz (1974) categorized and compared these types of managerial skills as follows: a) Technical Skills b) Human Skills and c) Conceptual Skills

a) technical skills: A technical skill is the ability to perform a specific task or function. An accounting manager needs the basic technical skills of the accounting profession. A manufacturing manager needs the technical skills to deal with the equipment, technology, and methods of production. **b) Human skills:** Human skills are needed to get along with people, to get work done through people, or to motivate individual or work group performances. Human skills include interpersonal skills, such as communication, negotiation, and bargaining, leading, influencing, motivation, discipline and conflict resolution. Human skills are very important at all levels of management. **c) Conceptual skills:** Conceptual skills reflect the manager's ability to organize information and to judge relationships within a complex whole. That is, the manager must be able to view the total organization, appreciate the functional interrelationships of the many organizational units, and to understand how a change in one unit will impact the other units. A conceptual skill is often called the ability to see the 'big picture'. The importance of conceptual skill increases as the manager is promoted, higher in the organization. Certainly, the conceptual skills are usually the most difficult to develop and are most critical for top management.

TYPES OF MANAGEMENT APPROACHES: Management plays a crucial role in the making of the organization and therefore, effective management is required to ensure every organization is working towards a common objective or goal. Hence, it is essential to produce a good organization structure and organization relationship. The four different major types of management approaches will discuss in the following.

Classical Approach a) The classical or empirical approach is based on the following tenets: b) Management is a process consisting of interrelated functions performed to achieve the desired goals. c) From the experience of managers in different organizations, principles or guidelines can be derived. d) These principles are basic truths which can be applied in different organizations to improve managerial efficiency. e) Managers can be developed through formal education and training. f) People are motivated mainly by incentives and penalties. Therefore, managers use and control economic rewards. g) Theoretical research into management helps to develop a body of knowledge which is necessary to improve the art of management. The classical approach offers a convenient framework for the education and training of future managers. It views management as distinct discipline based on certain principles. Another merit of this approach is that it focuses attention on what managers actually do i.e. functions of management. It highlights the universal nature of management. It provides a foundation for further research in management. The classical approach however, suffers from several limitations. First, it is a mechanical approach which undermines the role of human factor in management. The focus is on technical and economic aspects, at the cost of socio-psychological issues in management. Secondly, the validity and universality of management principles is doubtful due to environmental changes. Thirdly, there is a danger in relying too much on past experience as two managerial situations are never identical. F.W. Taylor, Henri Fayol, Max Weber, L.F. Urwick, J.D. Mooney, A.C. Reiley and several other pioneers made significant contributions towards the development of the Classical approach.

Scientific Approach: This school of thought emerged in the late 1800's and early 1900's and were based on the management belief that people were rational, economic creatures who would rationally choose a course of action that provided the greatest economic gain. Scientific management is that kind of management which conducts a business or affairs by standards established by facts or truths gained through systematic observation, experiment or reasoning. The main contributors to scientific management school were Charles Babbage, Fredrick W. Taylor, Frank and Lillian Gilbreth and Henry Gantt. The contribution of F.W. Taylor is worth mentioning. F.W. Taylor (1856-1915) is widely known as the father of scientific management. As an engineer and consultant, Taylor observed and reported on what he found to be inexcusably inefficient work practices, especially in the steel industry. According to him scientific management implies the application of the following two-fold techniques: i. The discovery of the best method of performing a particular work. ii. The best method or the fruitful method for meeting a given situation. He defined scientific management as "knowing exactly what you want men to do and seeing that they do it in the best and the cheapest way". He suggested the following things for enhancing the productivity of the workers: • Science, not rule of thumb. • Harmony, not discord.

Behavioral Sciences Approach: The Hawthorne Experiments conducted by Elton Mayo and his team laid the foundations of behavioral sciences approach. Several pioneers such as A.H. Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Frederick Herzberg, and Rensis Likert expanded the findings of Hawthorne Experiments and launched the Human Relations Movement. Later on, Keith Davis, Chester Barnard, Kurt Lewin and others developed the fields of Group Dynamics and Organizational Behavior. Behavioral science approach involves the application of knowledge drawn from behavioral sciences (Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology etc) to managerial problems. The main propositions of this approach are: a) A business organization is not merely a techno-economic system. It is much more a social system of interpersonal and intergroup relations. b) The attitudes and performance of an employee are dominated by the social group to which he belongs. Members of an organization behave not as individuals but as members of some group. c) Social and Psychological incentives exercise a greater influence on employee motivation than working conditions and economic rewards. d) Management must understand and develop harmonious interpersonal relations among his subordinates. There should be harmony between human needs and organizational goals. e) Employees are capable of self-direction and control. Therefore, participative leadership is more productive than task centered leadership. f) Management requires social skills to make employees feel a part of the organisation. Human relations movement focused attention on human factor in industry. It corrected the imbalance in management theory caused by over emphasis on technical and economic aspects under the classical theory.

PLANNING: Planning is ascertaining prior to what to do and how to do. It is one of the primary managerial duties. Before doing something, the manager must form an opinion on how to work on a specific job. Hence, planning is firmly correlated with discovery and creativity. But the manager would first have to set goals. Planning is an essential step what managers at all levels take. It needs holding on to the decisions since it includes selecting a choice from alternative ways of performance. **Importance of Planning:** Planning is definitely significant as it directs us where to go, it furnishes direction and decreases the danger of risk by making predictions. The significant advantages of planning are provided below: a) Planning provides directions: Planning assures that the objectives are certainly asserted so that they serve as a model for determining what action should be taken and in which direction. If objects are well established, employees are informed of what the company has to do and what they need do to accomplish those purposes. b) Planning decreases the chances of risk: Planning is an activity which permits a manager to look forward and predict changes. By determining in prior the tasks to be completed, planning notes the way to deal with changes and unpredictable effects. c) Planning decreases overlapping and wasteful activities: Planning works as the foundation of organizing the activities and purposes of distinct branches, departments, and people. It assists in avoiding chaos and confusion. Since planning guarantees precision in understanding and action, work is conducted on easily without delays. d) Planning encourages innovative ideas: Since it is the primary function of management, new approaches can take the form of actual plans. It is the most challenging project for the management as it leads all planned actions pointing to growth and of the business. Planning aids decision making: It encourages the manager to look into the future and make a decision from amongst several alternative plans of action. The manager has to assess each option and pick the most viable plan

Planning process: Setting Objectives • This is the primary step in the process of planning which specifies

the objective of an organization, i.e. what an organization wants to achieve. • The planning process begins with the setting of objectives. • Objectives are end results which the management wants to achieve by its operations. • Objectives are specific and are measurable in terms of units. • Objectives are set for the organization as a whole for all departments, and then departments set their own objectives within the framework of organizational objectives. (2) Developing Planning Premises • Planning is essentially focused on the future, and there are certain events which are expected to affect the policy formation. • Such events are external in nature and affect the planning adversely if ignored. • Their understanding and fair assessment are necessary for effective planning. • Such events are the assumptions on the basis of which plans are drawn and are known as planning premises. (3) Identifying Alternative Courses of Action • Once objectives are set, assumptions are made. • Then the next step is to act upon them. • There may be many ways to act and achieve objectives. • All the alternative courses of action should be identified. (4) Evaluating Alternative Course of Action • In this step, the positive and negative aspects of each alternative need to be evaluated in the light of objectives to be achieved. • Every alternative is evaluated in terms of lower cost, lower risks, and higher returns, within the planning premises and within the availability of capital. (5) Selecting One Best Alternative • The best plan, which is the most profitable plan and with minimum negative effects, is adopted and implemented. • In such cases, the manager's experience and judgment play an important role in selecting the best alternative. 6) Implementing the Plan • This is the step where other managerial functions come into the picture. • This step is concerned with "DOING WHAT IS REQUIRED" • In this step, managers communicate the plan to the employees clearly to convert the plans into action. • This step involves allocating the resources, organizing for labour and purchase of machinery. (7) Follow up Action • Monitoring the plan constantly and taking feedback at regular intervals is called follow-up. • Monitoring of plans is very important to ensure that the plans are being implemented according to the schedule. Regular checks and comparisons of the results with set standards are done to ensure that objectives are achieved.

DECISION MAKING: Decision making is the process of making choices by identifying a decision, gathering information, and assessing alternative resolutions. Using a step-by-step decision-making process can help you make more deliberate, thoughtful decisions by organizing relevant information and defining alternatives.

Concept of Decision Making: Decision Making is the process of selecting the best alternative course of action from among a number of alternatives given to management or developed by it – after carefully and critically examining each alternative. Decision Making is a process and a decision is the outcome of this process. Accordingly, the better the decision-making process the better would be the decisions emerging out of it, leading to an efficient commitment of precious organizational resources. **Features of Decision-Making** Following are the major features of Managerial Decision Making. i) Decision making is goal oriented: Each and every decision of management – major or minor – must make, at least some contribution towards the attainment of organizational objectives. ii) Decision Making is pervasive: There are three dimensions of the pervasiveness of decision making viz., a) All managers in the management hierarchy take decisions, b) within the limits of their authority, pertaining to their areas of functioning. c) Decision-making is done in all functional areas of management eg., Production, Marketing, Finance, Personnel, Research and Development etc., d) Decision-making is inherent in all functions of management i.e., Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing and Controlling. iii) Decision Making is an Intellectual exercise: Decision making calls for creativity and imagination on the part of managers. In fact, the more intelligent a manager is, the better would be the decision making done by him. iv) Decision making involves a problem of choice: Decision making is fundamentally a choosing problem i.e. a problem of choosing the best alternative, from out of a number of alternatives, in a rational and scientific manner. v) Decision making is a continuous process: Decision making process commences since the inception of business and continues throughout the organizational life. All managers take decisions for organizational purposes, so long as the enterprise is in existence. vi) Decision making is the basis of action: All actions of people operating the enterprise are based on the decisions taken by management vis-à-vis organizational issues. In fact, the quality of actions by people well depends on the quality of decisions taken by management. vii) It implies a commitment of organizational resources: Commitment of organizational resources, viz time, efforts, energies, physical resources etc., is implied both during the process of taking decisions and more particularly, at the time of implementation of decisions. Right decisions, accordingly imply a right commitment of resources and wrong decisions imply a wrong commitment of precious organizational resources. viii) Decision making is situational: Decision making depends much on the situation facing the management at the time when a decision-making problem crops up. Whenever the situation changes decision making also changes.

Importance of Decision Making: • Management is essentially a process of decision making and managers at various levels are mainly concerned with decision making. • Without decisions the functions of management cannot take place and the entire process of management cannot exist. • For performing various aspects of management functions like planning, organizing, control etc., decisions must be made because it helps to set objectives, prepare plans of action, introduce innovations, and determine organizational structure of the concern and so on.

DECENTRALISATION OF AUTHORITY: The previous section deals with the various aspects of Delegation of Authority. This section emphasizes the dispersion of authority in the organization. **The Nature of Decentralization:** Decentralization is the tendency to disperse decision-making authority in an organized structure. Decentralization is a fundamental aspect of delegation. To the extent, the authority is not delegated, it is centralized. Decentralization of authority is that philosophy of the top management of an enterprise under which maximum authority for the management of the enterprise is dispersed or distributed among managers of middle and specially, lower levels, and minimum authority is kept by the top management, in reserve, to be exercised by itself. Dalton E. McFarland defined Decentralization of authority as the degree to which an organization places authority and responsibility for decisions as far down in the organization as efficient management permits. **Measurement of Decentralization / Centralization:** In the management context there may be more centralization or more of decentralization but cannot exactly measure these tendencies. However, the degree of centralization or decentralization could be judged on the basis of following criteria. Quantity of Decisions: The larger is the number of decisions made at lower levels of management, the higher is the degree of decentralization and vice-versa. ii) Quality of Decisions: The more significant are the decisions made at lower levels of management, the higher is the degree of decentralization and vice-versa. iii) Functional areas affected by decisions: The more are the functional areas of management (eg : Finance, Marketing, Personnel, etc.,) affected by decisions made at lower levels of management the higher is the degree of decentralization and vice-versa. iv) Amount of control over decision making: The lesser is the amount of control exercised over the decisions made at lower levels of management, the higher is the degree of decentralization and vice-versa. **Factors Favoring Decentralization:** Major factors which favour a policy of decentralization are i) Optimum size of the enterprise: In order to achieve optimum size of business enterprise, it is imperative that productive and marketing operations are conducted on a large scale. As such some minimum decentralization does become necessary to cope with the larger volume of decision making in a large enterprise. ii) Management by Exception: When the top management wishes to adhere to the policy management by exception decentralization becomes necessary. In fact, management by exception requires top management to concentrate its attention only on strategic issues – leaving all operational details to be taken care of by subordinates. iii) Decentralized Performance: Where, the performance of the organization is geographically dispersed some minimum decentralization of authority becomes necessary to managers of decentralized units of smooth functioning of their departments or divisions. iv) To impart freedom to subordinates: Subordinates, at lower levels of management desire freedom in decision – making concerning their areas of operation. Such freedom is a great motivation for them. When, top management plans to motivate subordinates by imparting freedom in decision-making decentralization of authority becomes imperative.

Distinction between Delegation and Decentralization:

i. In delegation a superior delegate or transfers some rights and duties to a subordinate but his responsibility in respect of the work does not end. On the other hand, decentralization relieves him from responsibility and the subordinate becomes liable for that work. ii. Delegation is a process while decentralization is the end result of a deliberate policy of making delegation of authority to the lowest levels in managerial hierarchy. iii. Delegation is almost essential for management to get things done in the organization. Decentralization may or may not be practiced as a systematic policy in the organization. iv. In delegation the final control over the activities of organization lies with the top executive while in decentralization the power of control is exercised by the unit head to which the authority has been delegated. v. Decentralization is effective only in big organizations, whereas delegation is required and gives good results in all types of organizations irrespective of their size. vi. Delegation is the result of human limitations to the span of management. Decentralization on the other hand, is the result of big size and multifarious functions of the enterprise.

Tall structures: These structures are found in classical bureaucratic organizations. In this structure, a manager can supervise less number of subordinates. He can, therefore, exercise tight control over their activities. This creates large number of levels in the organization. This is also known as narrow span of control. **Merits:** 1. Managers can closely supervise activities of the subordinates. 2. There can be better communication amongst superiors and subordinates. 3. It promotes personal relationships amongst superiors and subordinates. 4. Control on subordinates can be tightened in a narrow span. **Limitations:** 1. It creates many levels in the organization structure which complicates co-ordination amongst levels. 2. More managers are needed to supervise the subordinates. This increases the overhead expenditure (salary etc.). It is, thus, a costly form of structure. 3. Increasing gap between top managers and workers slows the communication process. 4. Decision-making becomes difficult because of too many levels. 5. Superiors perform routine jobs of supervising the subordinates and have less time for strategic matters. 6. Employees work under strict control of superiors. Decision-making is primarily centralized. This restricts employees' creative and innovative abilities. 7. Strict control leads to low morale and job satisfaction. This can affect productivity in the long-run. To overcome the limitations of a tall structure, many organizations reduce the number of levels in the hierarchy by downsizing the organization. Downsizing is "the process of significantly reducing the layers of middle management, expanding spans of control and shrinking the size of the work force." Many companies downsize their work force through the process of restructuring. Restructuring is "the process of making a major change in organization structure that often involves reducing management levels and also possibly changing some major components of the organizations through divestiture and/or acquisition." "The most common and most serious symptom of mal-organization is multiplication of the number of management levels. A basic rule of organization is to build the least possible number of management levels and forge the shortest possible chains of command." — Peter F. Drucker.

II. Flat Structures: These structures have a wide span of control. When superior supervises a larger number of subordinates, flat structure is created with lesser number of hierarchical levels. A departure was made from tall structures to flat structures by James C. Worthy who was a consultant in the L. Sears, Roebuck and company. To illustrate, if organizations A and B, both have 256 workers and the span of control for each managerial position is 2 for company A and 4 for company B, there will be 9 levels in company A (requiring 128 supervisors at the lowest level, 64 at the next higher level and so on) and 5 levels in company B. A narrow span of control creates more levels in the organizational hierarchy than the wide span of control. For the sake of simplicity, the figure represents the span for only one functional area and one level. **Merits:** 1. There is low cost as a smaller number of managers can supervise organizational activities. 2. The decision-making process is effective as superior's delegate authority to subordinates. They are relieved of routine matters and concentrate on strategic matters. The decision-making is decentralized. 3. Subordinates perform the work efficiently since they are considered worthy of doing so by the superiors. 4. There is effective communication as the number of levels is less. 5. It promotes innovative abilities of the top management. **Limitations**

Factors Affecting Span of Management: The following factors help in determining the suitable span of

management

1. **Competence of managers:** If managers are competent in their jobs, they can have a wide span of management. Competence of managers is judged by their ability to make decisions related to motivational plans, leadership styles, communication channels and chains, techniques of control etc. Managers who rank high on these parameters can effectively supervise larger number of subordinates.
2. **Nature of work:** If employees perform similar and repetitive work, managers can supervise large number of subordinates and, thus, have a wide span of control. Non-repetitive and challenging work requires narrow span of control. Changes in the nature of work also affect the span of management. Frequent changes as a result of dynamic environment support a narrow span as superiors frequently have to direct the activities of subordinates. Stability in the nature of work supports a wide span of management as superiors' directions are not frequently required to carry out the work processes.
3. **Assistance to managers:** If managers have access to technical or secretarial assistance, a larger group of subordinates can be managed. Span of control can, therefore, be wide. Staff assistance can be useful for collecting and processing information related to various decisions and issuing orders to the subordinates. Managers save time in communicating with subordinates, direct the activities of larger number of subordinates and focus on other strategic organizational matters.
4. **Competence of subordinates:** If subordinates are competent to manage their jobs without much assistance from the superiors, span of control can be wide. Competent subordinates do not require frequent directions from the superiors with respect to various organizational activities. Superiors can thus, manage a larger group of subordinates.
5. **Plans and policies:** If plans clearly define the organizational/individual goals and policies, superiors can supervise a larger group of subordinates and have a wide span of control. Clearly defined plans include well formulated policies procedures, methods etc. Particularly, if standing plans are well defined, subordinates know the broad guidelines within which they have to make decisions in similar and repetitive situations. They do not approach the superiors every time they face similar problem-solving situations. Superiors can, thus, manage a larger group of subordinates. However, if most of the decisions are made by resorting to single use plans (programmes, budgets, projects etc.), managers have to be frequently approached and the span can, thus, be narrow.
6. **Organizational level:** The top executives look after important and specialized activities and, therefore, the span is narrow at the top level but at lower levels the span can be wide, since supervisors are mainly concerned with routine jobs. According to J.C. Worthy, a manager can supervise as many as 20 subordinates at the lower levels.
7. **Authority-responsibility structure:** If authority-responsibility structure is well-defined and understood, superiors can supervise larger number of subordinates. People work within the confines of their responsibility and take directions from superiors only when required. Lack of clarity in authority-responsibility structure will create confusion in the organization. Jobs and who will perform which job, which is accountable to whom will not be clear. In such a situation, managers cannot supervise a large group of subordinates. The span of management will, thus, be narrow.
8. **System of control:** Effective techniques of control can enable the manager to supervise larger number of subordinates. Effective system of control promotes decentralization. Superiors are not actively involved in the decision-making processes as decisions are taken at the levels where they are required. There is extensive delegation, clarity of jobs, authority responsibility relationships and freedom to take decisions. The span of control can, thus, be wide.
9. **Financial factors:** Both narrow and wide structures have financial constraints. A narrow span requires more managers and is, thus, a costly form of structure. Wide span, on the other hand, may result into organizational inefficiencies. Proper balance has to be maintained between the costs and benefits of the span that a manager can effectively supervise. These factors are situational in nature and the span of management is also, thus, situational. Sometimes it can be narrow and sometimes wide. For the same organization, it can be different for different functional areas and different levels. The span is usually narrow in the finance department and wide in the marketing department for the same level. It may be different in different organizations for the same functional areas and levels.

STAFFING: Staffing might be defined as manning each organizational position – that of managers and operators with the most competent personnel; obtaining a perfect matching of jobs and personnel so as to convert a material and technical organization into a human organization full of efficiency and happiness. Koontz and O’Donnell have defined staffing as follows: “The managerial function of staffing involves manning the organization structure through proper and effective selection, appraisal and development of personnel to fill the roles designed into the structure”. The essence of staffing is the placement of the right man on the right job and at the right time. It includes identifying work-force requirements, inventorying the people available and recruiting, selecting, placing, promoting, appraising, planning the careers of compensation and training or otherwise developing both candidates and current job holders to accomplish their tasks effectively and efficiently.

Nature of Staffing: It is concerned with the acquisition, utilization and maintenance of the human factor. • The crux of staffing is to put the right man at the right job, at the right time. • Staffing gives a finishing touch to the process of organizing. • It is the key to the managerial functions of directing and controlling. • It has a multiplier effect on the efficiency of the whole organization. • It is a continuous managerial exercise. • It is crucial for the successful functioning of the enterprise. • It is affected, to some extent, by external factors Eg : Reservation policy of the Government. Need for Staffing The basic need for staffing arises for reasons of the maintenance of a satisfactory and satisfied work-force. The following are the factors requiring emphasis on staffing: i) Preparations for Human Resource in advance: It is imperative to make preparations for the acquisition of the human factor, in advance as requisite number of personnel of the desired type might not be available, to the enterprise just in the nick of time. ii) best realization of enterprise objectives: Adequate staffing ensures a best realization of enterprise objectives in terms of - the quantity of production, quality of production, minimization of costs, maximization of profits, optimum utilization of physical facilities, technology and machines etc., iii) best utilization of the human factor: best utilization of the human factor is necessary both at the micro and macro levels. At the micro level (enterprise level) best utilization of the human factor implies a minimization of labour costs while at the macro level (society level) it would help, contribute to the growth of society. iv) Development of Personnel: Staffing ensures the development of personnel to the fullest of their potential. Such development of personnel not only benefits the individual and organization but also is instrumental in the growth of the society by providing it with the best of the human asset. v) Job Satisfaction: The staffing function would do well to plan for offering ‘job satisfaction’ to personnel with a view to ensuring a loyal and stable work force, in the long-run interests of both the individual and the organization. vi) Healthy Personnel Relations: Staffing ensures healthy personnel relations. It comprises relations among superiors and subordinates, subordinates inter-sect etc.,

SELECTION:

The selection process starts immediately after recruitment. It is a negative process i.e. rejection of those candidates who do not qualify the selection procedure. Selection process requires exactness. A candidate will be selected after he clears all the steps laid down in the selection process.

Steps in Selection Process: The following steps are involved in the selection process: i) Reception of Applicants ii) Scrutiny of Applications iii) Preliminary Interview iv) Application Blank

v) Employment Tasks vi) Interview vii) Checking References viii) Approval of the Supervisor ix) Physical Examination x) Selection and Placement xi) Induction All these steps are explained in the diagram below:

RECRUITMENT: Recruitment is a positive process of searching for prospective employees and stimulating them to apply for the jobs in the organization. In simple words, the term recruitment stands for discovering the sources from where potential employee will be available. The scientific recruitment leads to greater productivity, better wages, high morale, reduction in labour turn over and better reputation. It stimulates people to apply for a job and hence it is a positive process.

TRAINING: After selecting an employee, the most important and established part of the personnel programme is to impart training to the newcomer. In the modern world of technological changes, the need for training employees is being increasingly recognized so as to keep the employees in touch with the new developments. According to Edward B. Flippo "Training is the act of increasing the knowledge and skill of an employee for doing a particular job". Training can thus be defined as a systematic procedure for transferring technical know-how to the employees so as to increase their knowledge and skill for doing particular jobs.

Need for Training: Training is necessary both for existing and new employees. It increases the skill of the employees. The factors usually indicating the training need are given below: • Frequent accidents • Low quality • Higher production cost Management can also discover training needs of employees by taking the following steps: If the employees' performance is below standard, training is immediately required.

IMPORTANCE OF DIRECTING FUNCTION OF MANAGEMENT: Directing or Direction function is usually considered the central point for any organization around which objectives are achieved. Being at the center of all enterprise activities, it ensures numerous benefits to any organization, which are as follows. Makes the organization goal-oriented Planning as we all know lays down goals. But the mere laying down of goals isn't enough. It is directing in terms of those goals that gets them achieved. It is that process that retains the goal oriented-ness with which the business process begins. If not for direction the business will proceed in hap hazard manners thereby making all other processes difficult and also making the business fragile. Creates a motivated workforce As already discussed above, motivation acts a sub set of the broader function of direction. Direction ensures that the workforce is motivated and remains motivated. This is so because the process will be successful only with the effort of motivated people and motivated people is the secret of a budding effective business. Thus, managers pay extra attention to motivating workers while directing the business. Ensures conformity and facilitates Controlling and Coordination Direction as stated above deals with specifying what to do. Thus, direction lays down the benchmark on what is to be expected from a person or a process. This instruction or direction given ensures such tasks and effort conform to goals. The benchmark so created allows for coordination whereby other tasks can aligned to make a congruous whole and controlling whereby one better understands where and what went wrong in the entire framework. Initiates Action Direction is the process that kicks the plan into motion by using the resources organized and humans staffed to achieve what is envisioned in the plan. It is the stepping stone to carrying out business processes which till then remain only on paper. It creates adaptability A business has to cope with constant changes in its environment. Direction plays a key role in ensuring that a business is capable of adjusting and adapting to such changes by understanding the environment and by relaying suitable information. Such instruction at the right point of time allows for meeting various contingencies and ensures the business isn't knocked off its feet. Ensures Employee Discipline Direction goes a long way in ensuring employee discipline. It involves the process of giving an instruction and the instruction being unconditionally followed. Such conformity with instructions is ensured by controlling; however, it cannot exist in isolation without direction which is the source of the instruction. This ensures that the employee doesn't stray away from what is to be done and keeps him disciplined.