

Objective Part

Compulsory

Q.No.1: Attempt all parts and each require answer 2 – 3 lines

(16*2=32)

1. Bounded Rationality.

Bounded rationality is the idea that in decision-making, rationality of individuals is limited by the information they have, the cognitive limitations of their minds, and the finite amount of time they have to make a decision.

2. Unity of command.

Unity of command provides that an employee is responsible to only one supervisor, who in turn is responsible to only one supervisor, and so on up the organizational hierarchy. This is true even if the top of the organization is led by a group of peoples in real organization.

3. Organizational chart.

An organizational chart, also called organigram or organogram, is a diagram that shows the structure of an organization and the relationships and relative ranks of its parts and positions/jobs. An organizational chart shows the internal structure of an organization or company.

4. Job analysis.

Job analysis in human resource management (HRM) refers to the process of identifying and determining the duties, responsibilities, and specifications of a given job. It encompasses the collection of data required to put together a job description that will attract the right person to fill in the role.

5. Self-Actualization Stage.

Self-actualization is the final stage of development in Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs. This stage occurs when a person is able to take full advantage of their talents while still being mindful of their limitations.

The term is also used colloquially to refer to an enlightened maturity characterized by the achievement of goals, acceptance of oneself, and an ability to self-assess in a realistic and positive way.

6. Autocratic style of leadership.

Autocratic leadership is a management style wherein one person controls all the decisions and takes very little inputs from other group members. Autocratic leaders make choices or decisions based on their own beliefs and do not involve others for their suggestion or advice.

7. Industrial Revolution.

Industrial Revolution, in modern history, the process of change from an agrarian and handicraft economy to one dominated by industry and machine manufacturing. Industrial Revolution brought the growth of the factory system, enlarged markets and new scale technologies. The factory system brought large concentrations of workers and raw materials together, posing the problems of organizing, directing and controlling work.

8. Recruitment.

Recruitment is a process of identifying, screening, shortlisting and hiring potential resource for filling up the vacant positions in an organization. It is a core function of Human Resource Management. Recruitment is the process of choosing the right person for the right position and at the right time.

9. Conceptual Skill.

Conceptual skills allow a manager to visualize the entire organization and work with ideas and the relationships between abstract concepts. Human skills, also called human relation skills, require communication and attention to relationships with others. Technical skills are needed to actually get the work done; they are the techniques, practices, tools, and processes needed by front-line employees in the manager's functional area.

10. Geographical Departmentalization.

Grouping activities on the basis of territory. If an organization's customers are geographically dispersed, it can group jobs based on geography. An organization is organized along geographic lines. This is often a good idea for large multinational firms with offices around the world.

11. Transformational Leadership.

Transformational leadership is a theory of leadership where a leader works with teams to identify needed change, creating a vision to guide the change through inspiration, and executing the change in tandem with committed members of a group; it is an integral part of the Full Range Leadership Model.

12. Directional Plan.

Directional plans are flexible plans that set out general guidelines. They provide focus but don't lock managers into specific goals or courses of action.

13. Negotiation Skills.

Negotiation skills are qualities that allow two or more parties to reach a compromise. These are often soft skills and include abilities such as communication, persuasion, planning, strategizing and cooperating. Understanding these skills is the first step to becoming a stronger negotiator.

- ✓ Communication
- ✓ Persuasion
- ✓ Planning
- ✓ Strategizing

14. Management by objectives.

Management by Objectives (MBO) is a personnel management technique where managers and employees work together to set, record and monitor goals for a specific period of time. Organizational goals and planning flow top-down through the organization and are translated into personal goals for organizational members.

15. Communication Barrier.

A communication barrier is anything that prevents us from receiving and understanding the messages others use to convey their information, ideas and thoughts. They can interfere with or block the message you are trying to send.

16. Behavioral Controls.

Behavioral control refers to facts that show whether there is a right to direct or control how the worker does the work. A worker is an employee when the business has the right to direct and control the worker. The business does not have to actually direct or control the way the work is done – as long as the employer has the right to direct and control the work.

Subjective Part (4*12)

Q2. Elaborate all steps in decision making process with an example from business world.

The decision-making process involves identifying a goal, getting the relevant and necessary information, and weighing the alternatives in order to make a decision. The concept sounds simple, yet many people overlook some of the critical stages and risks that occur when making decisions. Wherever possible, it's important to make the best decisions under the circumstances.

Decision making is an eight-step process that begins with identifying a problem and ends with evaluating the outcome of the decision. After problem identification, managers must determine the decision criteria that are relevant to solving the problem. For a manager looking for new laptops for her sales reps, the decision criteria may include price, display quality, memory and storage capabilities, battery life, and carrying weight. After the manager identifies the criteria, she must assign weights to the criteria if they aren't equally important.



Step 1: Identifying a Problem

Your team is dysfunctional, your customers are leaving, or your plans are no longer relevant. Every decision starts with a problem, a discrepancy between an existing and a desired condition.⁵ Amanda is a sales manager whose reps need new laptops because their old ones are outdated and inadequate for doing their job. To make it simple, assume it's not economical to add memory to the old computers and it's the company's policy to purchase, not lease. Now we have a problem—a disparity between the sales reps' current computers (existing condition) and their need to have more efficient ones (desired condition). Amanda has a decision to make.

Step 2: Identifying Decision Criteria

Once a manager has identified a problem, he or she must identify the decision criteria that are important or relevant to resolving the problem. Every decision maker has criteria guiding his or her decisions even if they're not explicitly stated. In our example, Amanda decides after careful consideration that memory and storage capabilities, display quality, battery life, warranty, and carrying weight are the relevant criteria in her decision.

Step 3: Allocating Weights to the Criteria

If the relevant criteria aren't equally important, the decision maker must weight the items in order to give them the correct priority in the decision. How? A simple way is to give the most important criterion a weight of 10 and then assign weights to the rest using that standard. Of course, you could use any number as the highest weight.

<i>Memory and storage</i>	10
<i>Battery life</i>	8
<i>Carrying weight</i>	6
<i>Warranty</i>	4
<i>Display quality</i>	3

	Memory and Storage	Battery Life	Carrying Weight	Warranty	Display Quality
HP ProBook	10	3	10	8	5
Sony VAIO	8	7	7	8	7
Lenovo IdeaPad	8	5	7	10	10
Apple Macbook	8	7	7	8	7
Toshiba Satellite	7	8	7	8	7
Sony NW	8	3	6	10	8
Dell Inspiron	10	7	8	6	7
HP Pavilion	4	10	4	8	10

Step 4: Developing Alternatives

The fourth step in the decision-making process requires the decision maker to list viable alternatives that could resolve the problem. In this step, a decision maker needs to be creative. And the alternatives are only listed, not evaluated just yet. Our sales manager, Amanda, identifies eight laptops as possible choices.

Step 5: Analyzing Alternatives

Once alternatives have been identified, a decision maker must evaluate each one. Amanda gave each alternative after doing some research on them. Keep in mind that these data represent an assessment of the eight alternatives using the decision criteria, but not the weighting. When you multiply each alternative by the assigned weight, you get the weighted alternatives. The total score for each alternative, then, is the sum of its weighted criteria.

	Memory and Storage	Battery Life	Carrying Weight	Warranty	Display Quality	Total
HP ProBook	100	24	60	32	15	231
Sony VAIO	80	56	42	32	21	231
Lenovo IdeaPad	80	40	42	40	30	232
Apple Macbook	80	56	42	32	21	231
Toshiba Satellite	70	64	42	32	21	229
Sony NW	80	24	36	40	24	204
Dell Inspiron	100	56	48	24	21	249
HP Pavilion	40	80	24	32	30	206

Step 6: Selecting an Alternative

The sixth step in the decision-making process is choosing the best alternative. In our example, Amanda would choose the Dell Inspiron because it scored higher than all other alternatives (249 total).

Step 7: Implementing the Alternative

In step 7 in the decision-making process, you put the decision into action by conveying it to those affected and getting their commitment to it. We know that if the people who must implement a decision participate in the process, they're more likely to support it than if you just tell them what to do. Another thing managers may need to do during implementation is reassess the environment for any changes, especially if it's a long-term decision. Are the criteria, alternatives, and choice still the best ones, or has the environment changed in such a way that we need to reevaluate?

Step 8: Evaluating Decision Effectiveness

The last step in the decision-making process involves evaluating the outcome or result of the decision to see whether the problem was resolved. If the evaluation shows that the problem still exists, then the manager needs to assess what went wrong. Was the problem incorrectly defined? Were errors made when evaluating alternatives? Was the right alternative selected but poorly implemented? The answers might lead you to redo an earlier step or might even require starting the whole process over.

* * ~~~~~ * *

Q3. Discuss with the real-world example different type of plans.

The most popular ways to describe organizational plans are breadth (strategic versus operational), time frame (short term versus long term), specificity (directional versus specific), and frequency of use (single use versus standing).

Strategic plans are plans that apply to the entire organization and establish the organization's overall goals. Plans that encompass a particular operational area of the organization are called **operational plans**. These two types of plans differ because strategic plans are broad while operational plans are narrow. The number of years used to define short-term and long-term plans has declined considerably because of environmental uncertainty. Long-term used to mean anything over seven years. Try to imagine what you're likely to be doing in seven years and you can begin to appreciate how difficult it would be for managers to establish plans that far in the future.

We define **long-term plans** as those with a time frame beyond three years. **Short-term plans** cover one year or less. Any time period in between would be an intermediate plan. Although these time classifications are fairly common, an organization can use any planning time frame it wants. Intuitively, it would seem that specific plans would be preferable to directional, or loosely guided, plans. **Specific plans** are clearly defined and leave no room for interpretation. A specific plan states its objectives in a way that eliminates ambiguity and problems with misunderstanding. For example, a manager who seeks to increase his or her unit's work output by 8 percent over a given 12-month period might establish specific procedures, budget allocations, and schedules of activities to reach that goal. However, when uncertainty is high and managers must be flexible in order to respond to unexpected changes, directional plans are preferable.

Directional plans are flexible plans that set out general guidelines. They provide focus but don't lock managers into specific goals or courses of action. For example, Sylvia Rhone, president of Motown Records, said she has a simple goal—to "sign great artists." So instead of creating a specific plan to produce and market 10 albums from new artists this year, she might formulate a directional plan to use a network of people around the world to alert her to new and promising talent so she can increase the number of new artists she has under contract. Keep in mind, however, that the flexibility of directional plans must be weighed against the lack of clarity of specific plans. Some plans that managers develop are ongoing while others are used only once.

A **single-use plan** is a one-time plan specifically designed to meet the needs of a unique situation. For instance, when Walmart wanted to expand the number of its stores in China, top-level executives formulated a single-use plan as a guide. In contrast, **standing plans** are ongoing plans that provide guidance for activities performed

repeatedly. Standing plans include policies, rules, and procedures. An example of a standing plan is the sexual harassment policy developed by the University of Arizona. It provides guidance to university administrators, faculty, and staff as they make hiring plans.

Q4. Discuss all steps of selection process to select a software engineer for a software house.

Selection activities follow a standard pattern, beginning with an initial screening interview and concluding with the final employment decision. The selection process typically consists of eight steps:

- (1) Initial Screening Interview**
- (2) Completion of The Application Form**
- (3) Preemployment Tests**
- (4) Comprehensive Interview**
- (5) Conditional Job Offer**
- (6) Background Investigation**
- (7) Medical or Physical Examination**
- (8) Permanent Job Offer**

Q5. (a) “Organizational Culture also contains sub-cultures”, criticize the statement.

(b) Critically discuss challenges faced by today's managers.

First, there are many challenges. It can be a tough and often thankless job. In addition, a portion of a manager's job (especially at lower organizational levels) may entail duties that are often more clerical (compiling and filing reports, dealing with bureaucratic procedures, or doing paperwork) than managerial. Managers often have to deal with a variety of personalities and have to make do with limited resources. It can be a challenge to motivate workers in the face of uncertainty and chaos, as this recession has illustrated time and time again. And managers may find it difficult to successfully blend the knowledge, skills, ambitions, and experiences of a diverse work group. Finally, as a manager, you're not in full control of your destiny. Your success typically is dependent upon others' work performance.

1. Achieving a Stretch Goal

The organization you're managing is responsible for something — whether it's performing a business process, supporting some other organization, developing a new product, or getting new customers. There are goals associated with your objectives, and if your organization is aggressive then those goals require more than the typical amount of effort. It's going to take some careful planning for you to figure out how to apply your organization's people and resources to achieve an aggressive goal. You're going to have to motivate people, remove roadblocks from their path, and focus them on the things that are most important. It's a stretch goal, but you can achieve it — maybe even surpass it.

2. Bringing Out the Best in Your Employees

All employees have good days and bad days. Some of the causes are out of your control. But it's important that you take steps to make as many days as possible “good days.” Here are some of the things that you can do:

- Treat every employee with respect. If you have praise for the employee, give the praise in front of coworkers. If you have criticism for the employee, give it in private. For all but the worst underperforming employees, make sure that the praise happens much more often than the criticism.
- Help employees align their personal goals with their work goals. Talk with each employee about his or her personal goals: what they want to get out of life, where they want their career to go. To the extent possible, use this information to help you allocate work assignments.
- Provide a work environment that is appropriate for the work and conducive to employee well-being. A comfortable work environment makes your employees more productive.
- Encourage employee communication and cooperation. For example, in one of my management jobs, I held a monthly lunch for my employees. During the lunch I updated them on any company news I'd heard, and I had some of the employees describe their recent work and some of their challenges. We also had a series of awards. But these were not your typical awards. Each award was given by the previous award recipient to someone who exemplified the spirit of the particular award. There was a "Gumby" award (a Gumby character) given to the most flexible employee, and other awards for things like putting the team ahead of yourself, most creative outside-the-box idea, and unluckiest employee. Employees sometimes even created their own one-time awards when something special or unusual happened. Over time the number of awards grew, and the interchange of enthusiasm and ideas made the organization a happy and fun place to work.

3. Dealing with Underperforming Employee

Not all of your employees will do their best. Some will have personal issues that interfere with their work. Technically it's not your problem, but in reality, any issue that contributes to an underperforming employee is your problem. You'll help employees cope with personal issues, you'll provide motivation and counsel, maybe steer them to appropriate resources inside or outside your company. You'll "carry" your underperforming employees to a point, and then beyond that point you'll have to ease them out of your organization. You'll be humane, but you have to balance the needs of the organization with the needs of the employees.

4. Dealing with Outstanding Employees

Some of your employees obviously outperform the others. That's good news for your organization, but it presents its own set of challenges. Outstanding employees need special treatment. You want them to keep doing an exceptional job but that usually means that you'll have to pay them special attention. They need recognition for their talents and efforts. They need encouragement, training and guidance. And above all they need to know that they have a career path in your company, even if that career path takes them out of your organization.

You'll be tempted to hold on to your outstanding employees and keep them from being promoted out of your organization. You shouldn't do that. When an employee star outgrows your organization, the best thing for your company is to make sure that the employee finds a home in another part of your company where he or she can continue to contribute. And ultimately, you'll be rewarded for your good deed of helping the employee achieve his or her potential. Your reputation as a "team player" and good manager will grow, and your own career will be enhanced.

5. Hiring the Right People

No matter how happy your employees are, you'll get occasional turnover. And if your organization is successful then you'll often find that your budget and headcount will grow as you are assigned more and more responsibility. Either way, you'll need to hire. Hiring is easy, but hiring the right person is extremely difficult.

The trick in hiring is to get an understanding of how an employee will actually perform the work — not just how the employee does in interviews. Interviews are seldom a good predictor of work and work habits, so going beyond the interview is crucial.

I've sometimes used unconventional interviewing techniques. I've done the traditional interview, but then I've tried some things that gave me a better feel for how the interviewee will perform in an actual work situation. For example, for some programmer positions, I had the prospective employee spend some time with his/her future coworkers, going through a task that the current employee was doing. Getting feedback from the current employee (who had a vested interest in finding someone who would carry a part of the workload) made a big difference in

our choice for some potential new hires. And the process also increased our acceptance rate for job offers, since the job applicants had a better feel for the environment into which they were being hired.

6. Responding to a Crisis

No matter how much planning you do, things will go wrong. An employee will get sick at a critical time. A weather disaster will hit your facility and disrupt your plans. A crime will be committed — maybe a theft or even something that harms an employee.

Planning is a part of managing, but perhaps more important is a manager's ability to change plans on the fly in response to changing conditions. When a crisis hits, you have to be able to deal with it — calmly, quietly and without being overwhelmed by stress.

7. Continuous Improvement

No matter how good your organization gets, it can do better. There's always some type of improvement that can be made: a change in a process, a better working environment, better employee motivation, more focus on the essentials. If you ever get to the point where you honestly have no idea how to improve things further, then you should either (a) seek outside advice, or (b) look for another job. There's always a better way, and you have to keep looking for it.

* * ~~~~~ * *

Q6. Discuss various Early theories of motivation.

➤ Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

The best-known theory of motivation is probably Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory. Maslow was a psychologist who proposed that within every person is a hierarchy of five needs:

- 1. Physiological needs:** A person's needs for food, drink, shelter, sex, and other physical requirements.
- 2. Safety needs:** A person's needs for security and protection from physical and emotional harm, as well as assurance that physical needs will continue to be met.
- 3. Social needs:** A person's needs for affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship.
- 4. Esteem needs:** A person's needs for internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention.
- 5. Self-actualization needs:** A person's needs for growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfillment; the drive to become what one is capable of becoming.

Maslow argued that each level in the need's hierarchy must be substantially satisfied before the next need becomes dominant. An individual moves up the need's hierarchy from one level to the next. In addition, Maslow separated the five needs into higher and lower levels. Physiological and safety needs were considered lower-order needs; social, esteem, and self-actualization needs were considered higher-order needs. Lower-order needs are predominantly satisfied externally while higher-order needs are satisfied internally.

Maslow's need theory was widely recognized during the 1960s and 1970s, especially among practicing managers, probably because it was intuitively logical and easy to understand. But Maslow provided no empirical support for his theory, and several studies that sought to validate it could not.

➤ McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor is best known for proposing two assumptions about human nature: Theory X and Theory Y. Very simply, Theory X is a negative view of people that assumes workers have little ambition, dislike work, want to avoid responsibility, and need to be closely controlled to work effectively. Theory Y is a positive view that assumes employees enjoy work, seek out and accept responsibility, and exercise self-direction. McGregor believed that Theory Y assumptions should guide management practice and proposed that participation in decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations would maximize employee motivation.

Unfortunately, no evidence confirms that either set of assumptions is valid or that being a Theory Y manager is the only way to motivate employees. For instance, Jen-Hsun Huang, founder of Nvidia Corporation, an innovative and successful microchip manufacturer, has been known to use both reassuring hugs and tough love in motivating employees. But he has little tolerance for screw-ups. “In one legendary meeting, he’s said to have ripped into a project team for its tendency to repeat mistakes. ‘Do you suck?’ he asked the stunned employees. ‘Because if you suck, just get up and say you suck.’” His message, delivered in classic Theory X style, was that if you need help, ask for it. It’s a harsh approach, but in this case, it worked.

➤ Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

The motivation theory that intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction and motivation, whereas extrinsic factors are associated with job dissatisfaction.

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory (also called motivation-hygiene theory) proposes that intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with job dissatisfaction. Herzberg wanted to know when people felt exceptionally good (satisfied) or bad (dissatisfied) about their jobs. He concluded that the replies people gave when they felt good about their jobs were significantly different from the replies they gave when they felt badly. Certain characteristics were consistently related to job satisfaction (factors on the left side of the exhibit), and others to job dissatisfaction (factors on the right side). When people felt good about their work, they tended to cite intrinsic factors arising from the job itself such as achievement, recognition, and responsibility. On the other hand, when they were dissatisfied, they tended to cite extrinsic factors arising from the job context such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, and working conditions.

Herzberg's theory enjoyed wide popularity from the mid-1960s to the early 1980s, despite criticisms of his procedures and methodology. Although some critics said his theory was too simplistic, it has influenced how we currently design jobs, especially when it comes to job enrichment, which we'll discuss at a later point in this chapter.

➤ Three-Needs Theory

The motivation theory that says three acquired (not innate) needs—achievement, power, and affiliation—are major motives in work.

David McClelland and his associates proposed the three-needs theory, which says there are three acquired (not innate) needs that are major motives in work. These three needs include the need for achievement (*nAch*), which is the drive to succeed and excel in relation to a set of standards; the need for power (*nPow*), which is the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise; and the need for affiliation (*nAff*), which is the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships. Of these three needs, the need for achievement has been researched the most.

All three of these needs can be measured by using a projective test (known as the Thematic Apperception Test or TAT) in which respondents react to a set of pictures. Each picture is briefly shown to a person who writes a story based on the picture. Trained interpreters then determine the individual's levels of *nAch*, *nPow*, and *nAff* from the stories written.

* * ~~~~~ * *

Q7. According to trait theory of leadership what are different traits of a successful leader?

Ask the average person on the street what comes to mind when he or she thinks of leadership. You're likely to get a list of qualities such as intelligence, charisma, decisiveness, enthusiasm, strength, bravery, integrity, and self-confidence. These responses represent, in essence, trait theories of leadership. The search for traits or characteristics that differentiate leaders from non-leaders dominated early leadership research efforts. If the concept of traits were valid, all leaders would have to possess specific characteristics.

The seven traits shown to be associated with effective leadership are described briefly:

1. Drive

Leaders exhibit a high effort level. They have a relatively high desire for achievement, they are ambitious, they have a lot of energy, they are tirelessly persistent in their activities, and they show initiative.

2. Desire to lead

Leaders have a strong desire to influence and lead others. They demonstrate the willingness to take responsibility.

3. Honesty and integrity

Leaders build trusting relationships with followers by being truthful, or non-deceitful, and by showing high consistency between word and deed.

4. Self-confidence

Followers look to leaders for an absence of self-doubt. Leaders, therefore, need to show self confidence in order to convince followers of the rightness of their goals and decisions.

5. Intelligence

Leaders need to be intelligent enough to gather, synthesize, and interpret large amounts of information, and they need to be able to create visions, solve problems, and make correct decisions.

6. Job-relevant knowledge

Effective leaders have a high degree of knowledge about the company, industry, and technical matters. In-depth knowledge allows leaders to make well-informed decisions and to understand the implications of those decisions.

7. Extraversion

Leaders are energetic, lively people. They are sociable, assertive, and rarely silent or withdrawn.

* * ~~~~~ * *