Auditing Course Material

Part 7 of 61 (Chapters 601-700)

13. Systems Approach

Imagine an organization like a living organism in an ecosystem. It takes in things it needs, transforms them into something valuable, and then sends that out to the world. Just like how we eat food, turn it into energy, and then use that energy to do things, organizations take in resources, turn them into products or services, and then release them into the world. This cycle keeps them going, just like how we need food and water to survive. So, organizations are like living systems—they take in, transform, and release things to keep running smoothly.

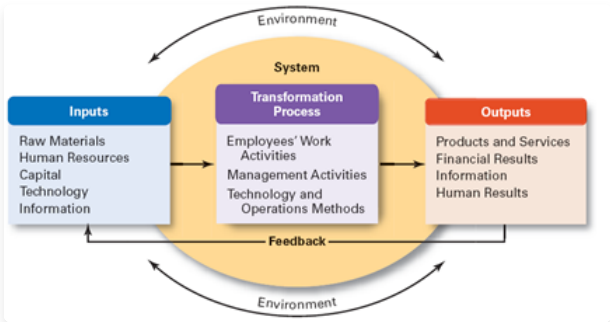
Open system also shares the characteristics of negative entropy, feedback, homeostasis, differentiation, and equifinality.

The law of *negative entropy* states that system survive and maintain their characteristic internal order only so long as they import from the environment more energy than they expend in the process of transformation and exportation.

The *feedback* principle has to do with information input, which is a special kind of energic importation, a kind of signal to the system about environmental conditions and about the functioning of the system in relation to its environment.

The feedback of such information enables the system to correct for its own malfunctioning or for changes in the environment, and thus to maintain a steady state or *homeostatis.* This is a dynamic rather than a static balance, however, open systems are not at rest but tend towards *differentiation* and elaboration, both because of subsystem dynamics and because of relationship between growth and survival.

Finally, open systems are characterized by the principle of *equifinality;* which assets that systems can reach the same final state from different initial conditions and by different paths of development.



Katz and Kahn believed that the following characteristics seemed to define all open systems:

1) **Importation of energy:** No social structure is self-sufficient or self-contained. All need resources and raw materials from the environment to survive. This importation of energy is typically referred to as input. In human service organizations, input refers to clients to be served and the resources available to serve them.

2) **The throughput:** Open systems use the energy available to them to transform or reorganize raw materials received as input. Clients represent the raw materials that (hopefully) become transformed from individuals or families with problems to individuals or families in which problems have been alleviated or resolved.

3) **The output**: Open systems export some products into the environment. A client who has completed all the services prescribed represents this product in human service organizations.

4) **Systems as cycles of events**: The pattern of activities defined by input, throughput, and output has a cyclic character; that is, successful completion of the cycle provides sources of energy and resources for repetition of the cycle. This is more easily recognized in organizations in which products are produced and sold and the profits used to regenerate the cycle. Successful resolution of client problems, in the same way, contributes to the generation of resources that allows the cycle to continue.

5) **Information input, negative feedback, and the coding process**: In addition to receiving energy and resources from the environment, open systems receive information. Some of this information comes in the form of negative feedback and allows the system to correct its deviations from course. This helps to keep the system in what is called a steady state. Consumer and client satisfaction and service effectiveness typically define the types of feedback received by human service organizations.

14. Socio-technical Approach

The socio-technical approach of modern management theories focuses on the interaction between the human and technical elements of an organization. It recognizes that an organization's success is dependent on the balance between its social and technical systems, and the environment in which it operates. According to this approach, people, who make up the social system, work with the technical system, which includes tools, techniques and knowledge, to produce goods or services that are valuable to the organization's external environment. In order to be effective, the organization must find a harmonious balance between its social and technical systems and the environment.

The socio-technical approach places a strong emphasis on the importance of considering both the human and technical aspects of an organization, rather than focusing solely on one or the other. This holistic view of the organization helps to ensure that all elements of the system are working together effectively and efficiently, leading to greater success and competitiveness.

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15. Ahmedabad Experiment

A. K. Rice, in his book *Productivity and Social Organization: The Ahmedabad Experiment 1958*, described an experimental reorganization of weaving in an Indian textile company. In the experiments, which were carried out in 1953-54 and which involved both automatic and non-automatic looms, semiautonomous work groups were formed with responsibility for production and routine maintenance on a group of looms. Rice's work was the first attempt to apply the concept of a socio-technical system to the design of a production process and the experimental changes resulted in substantial improvements in output, quality and work satisfaction. Rice also worked with this company in implementing a set of changes in organization and management. Subsequently, the experimental forms of group working were extended to other loom sheds in the company's mills.

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16. Quantitative Approach

The Quantitative Approach, also known as Operation Research, is a systematic method for solving complex management problems using mathematical and statistical techniques. This approach places a strong emphasis on using data to inform decision-making, by developing and analyzing statistical models to support decision-making in operations. It can only suggest the alternatives based on statistical data but cannot take final decision.

Management science and operations management are two interrelated fields within modern management that utilize quantitative methods to optimize organizational performance. Management science involves the use of mathematical and statistical models to support decision making and problem solving in various business and industrial settings. This includes areas such as linear programming, decision analysis, and simulation. Operations management, on the other hand, focuses on the design, control, and improvement of an organization's production processes. This includes areas such as supply chain management, quality control, project management, queuing theory, break even analysis and economic order quantity . Operations management uses quantitative methods such as mathematical modeling and statistical analysis to optimize the efficiency and effectiveness of production processes.

Together, management science and operations management provide a quantitative approach to modern management that helps organizations make informed decisions and improve their overall performance.

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17. Contingency Approach

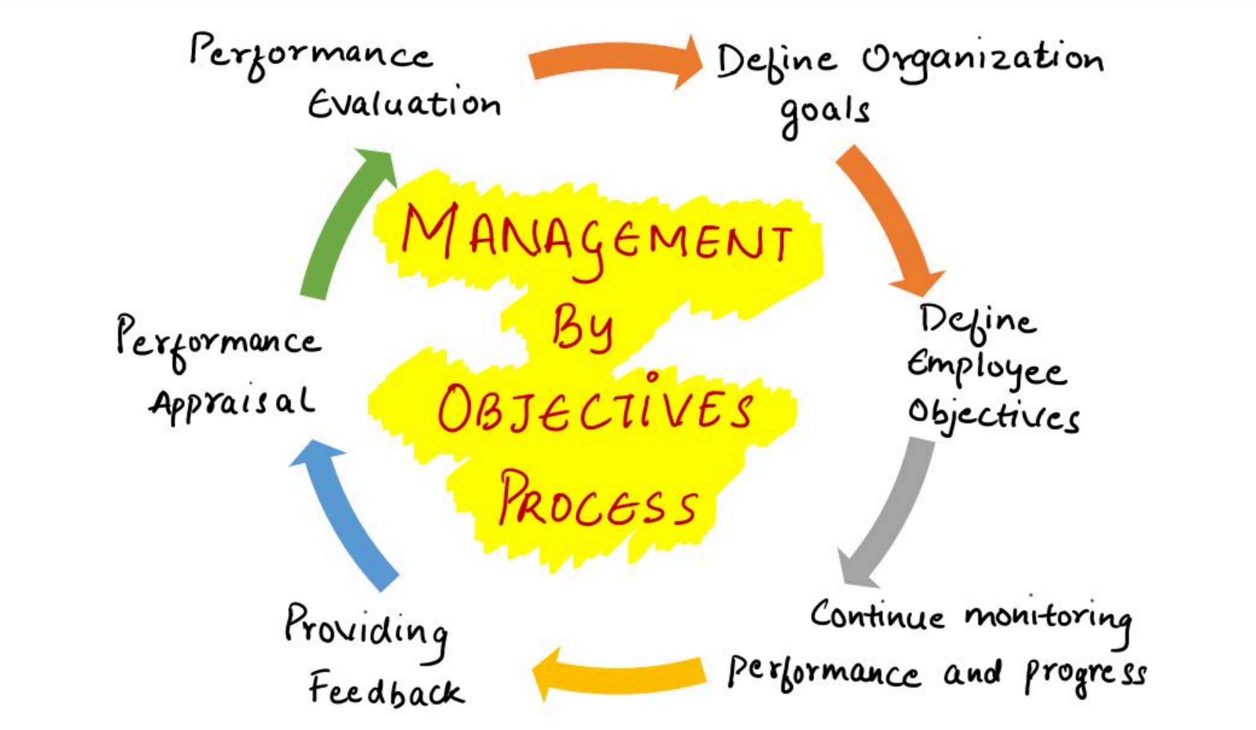
Contingency Approach is considered as a modern organizational theory that emphasizes the importance of considering external factors in organizational design and decision-making. The theory asserts that there is no one "best" way to structure an organization, but rather, the structure should be contingent, or dependent, on the conditions in which it operates.

In today's rapidly changing and dynamic business environment, the Contingency Approach is particularly relevant as organizations face new and complex challenges. It emphasizes the need for organizations to be adaptive and flexible in their approach, constantly re-evaluating and adjusting their structure based on the changing nature of their environment. This led to the development of the Contingency Theory, which was first introduced by **Paul Lawrence and J. Lorsch** in their book, *"Organization and Environment"* in 1967.

18. Management by Objectives

Management by Objectives (MBO) is a management theory developed by **Peter Drucker** in the 1950s. It is a performance-oriented approach to management that involves setting specific, measurable, and attainable goals for individuals and organizations. The core principle of MBO is that individuals and organizations can be motivated to achieve their goals through a process of participation, mutual agreement, and continuous feedback.

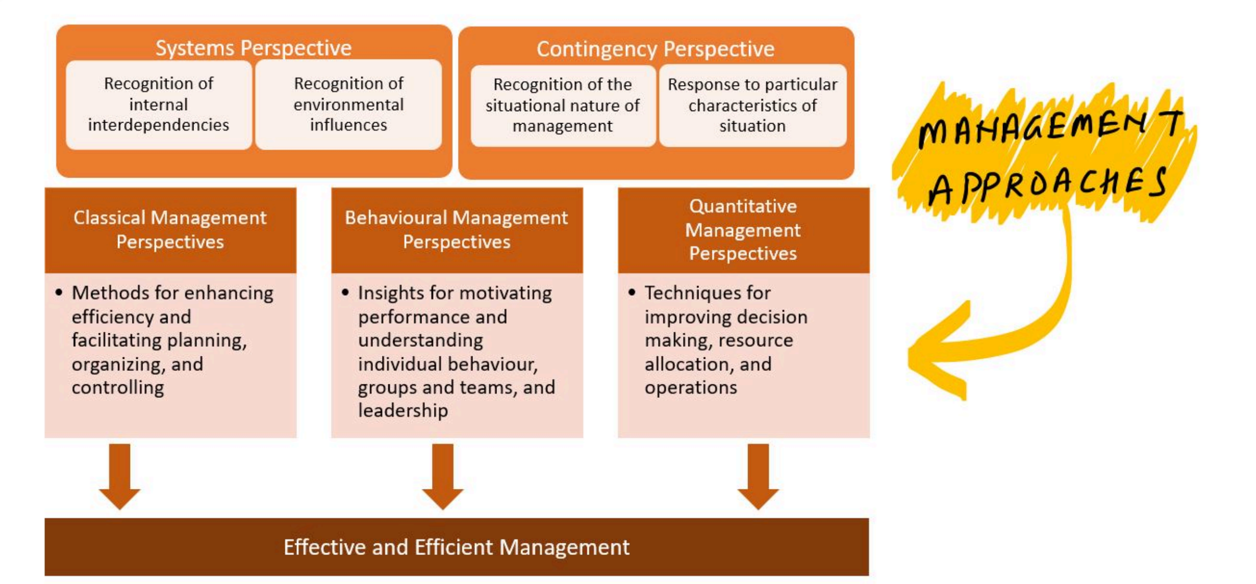
The MBO process starts with the identification of organizational goals, which are then broken down into specific, measurable, and attainable goals for each individual or department. These goals are then used to set performance standards, establish objectives, and evaluate performance. The process involves regular meetings between the manager and employee to review progress and make necessary adjustments.



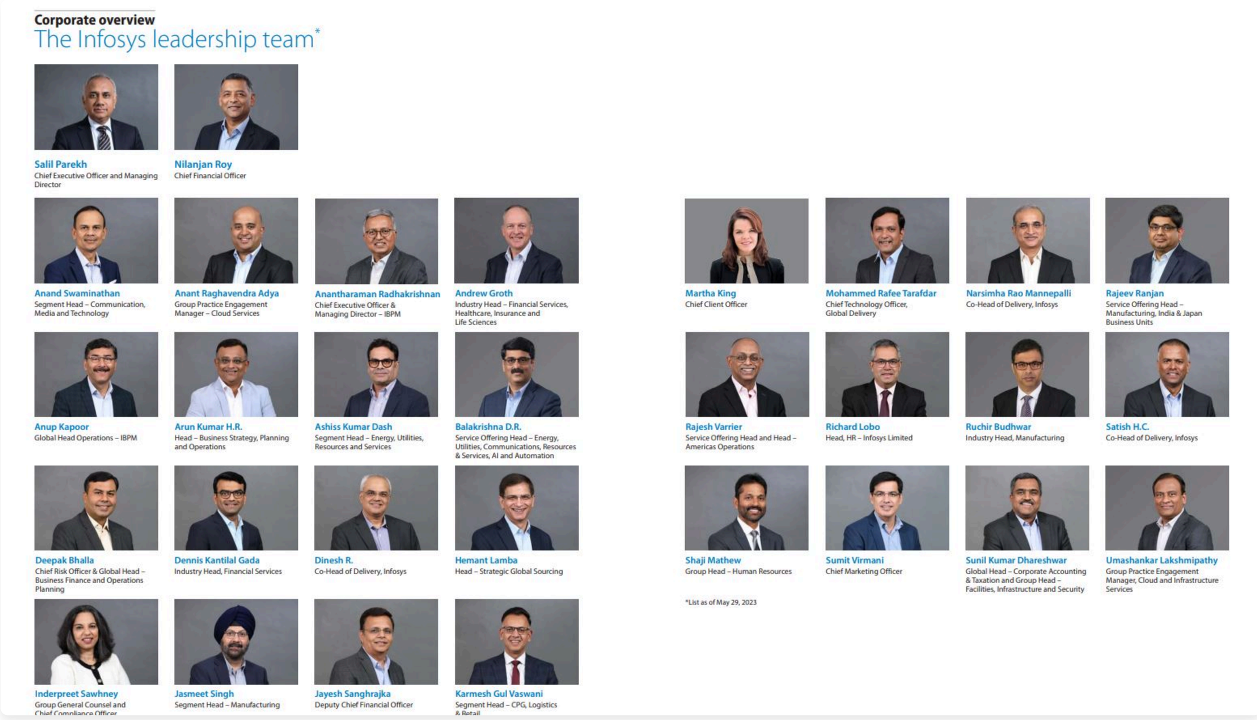
In the modern era, the MBO theory is considered an essential component of modern management practices. It provides a framework for aligning individual goals with organizational objectives and creating a culture of continuous improvement and accountability. MBO also provides a clear understanding of the roles and responsibilities of individuals within the organization, helping to reduce confusion and improve communication.

MBO has been widely adopted by organizations around the world and has proven to be an effective tool for improving performance and driving results. In today's rapidly changing business environment, the principles of MBO are more important than ever, as organizations seek to remain competitive and achieve their objectives.

19. Summarised View



1. Introduction



Organization design and structure are fundamental pillars within an organization. They encompass how tasks are divided, resources are allocated, and information flows across different levels of management. Imagine an organization as a living entity, with each aspect carefully organized to ensure it operates cohesively and efficiently.

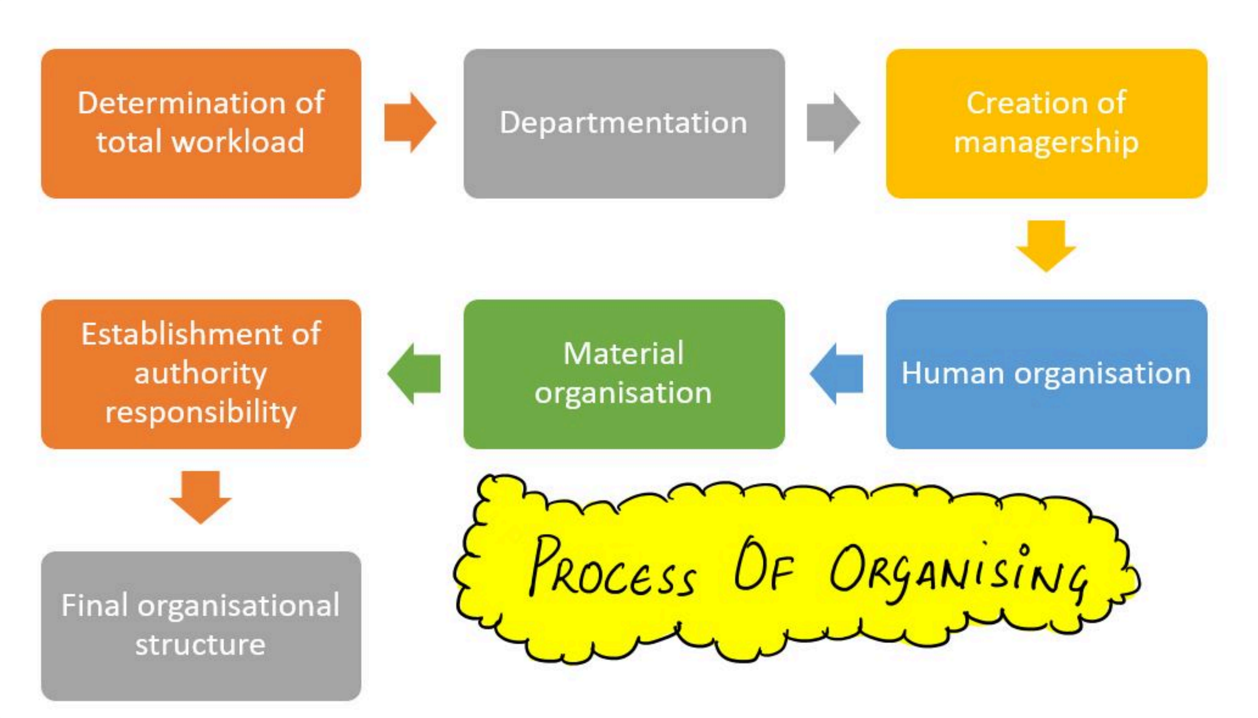
For instance, think of a large technology company. To function seamlessly, it organizes its workforce into specialized departments—like engineering, marketing, and finance. Each department has its own responsibilities and authority structures. This allows engineers to focus on product development, marketers to strategize promotion, and finance teams to manage resources effectively.

Moreover, the organization establishes clear reporting lines and communication channels. This clarity ensures that information travels swiftly between different levels of management. Just like a well-built network of roads facilitates smooth traffic flow, an organization's structure enables the seamless flow of information and resources to achieve its goals.

The design and structure of an organization play a crucial role in its success. When carefully crafted, they foster an environment where employees can perform optimally, collaborate effectively, and make informed decisions, ultimately steering the organization toward achieving its objectives.

2. Process of Organizing

As a function of management, organizing is a process; broadly consisting of the following steps:



(i) Determination of the total work load: The very first step in the process of organizing is to make a determination of all the activities which are necessary to be undertaken for the attainment of the enterprise objectives.

(ii) Grouping and sub-grouping of activities i.e. Creation of departmentation: Total activities determined for achieving enterprises objectives must be classified i.e. putting similar or related activities at one place in the form of a group or sub-group. This step of organizing directly leads to the process of creating departments.

(iii) Creation of manager-ship through delegation of authority: The next step in the process of organizing would be to entrust the responsibility for the functioning of each department to a distinct manager. Creation of manager-ship requires a requisite delegation of authority to each manager to enable the manager to take care of the job assigned to him.

(iv) Division of work within the departmental set-up 'human organization': Since no single individual can undertake the performance of the whole of the work assigned to one department; it becomes necessary to resort to division of work-assigning to each person only one part of the total job. As a result to undertake division of work for all departments; there emerges a human organization within the enterprise.

(v) Arrangement of physical facilities to personnel within the departmental set-up 'material organisation': Each individual of the enterprise, working in whatever capacity, in any department, must need the basic physical facilities-raw materials, machines and tools, technology and other inputs-for the proper execution of the assigned task. When physical facilities are made available to all personnel in all departments; there emerges a material organization (or a physical-technical organization) within the enterprise.

(vi) Definition and establishment of authority-responsibility relationships: It becomes necessary to devise a system which provides for defining and establishing authority-responsibility relationships among all personnel-managers and operators. Such relationships must be defined and established throughout the enterprise both-horizontally and vertically.

3. Principles of Organizing

An organizational structure defines how job tasks are formally divided, grouped, and coordinated.

Managers need to address six key elements when they design their organization's structure:

1. **Work specialization:** To what degree are activities sub-divided into separate jobs?
2. **Departmentalization**: On what basis will jobs be grouped together?
3. **Chain of command**: To whom do individuals and groups report
4. **Span of control**: How many individuals can a manager efficiently and effectively direct?
5. **Centralization and decentralization**: Where does decision making authority lie?
6. **Formalization**: To what degree will there be rules and regulations to direct employees and managers?

Let us discuss them one by one.

3. Principles of Organizing

Henry Ford, a pioneer in modern assembly line manufacturing, showcased the efficiency gained through work specialization. This concept, also known as the division of labor, delineates how tasks within an organization are divided into distinct jobs.

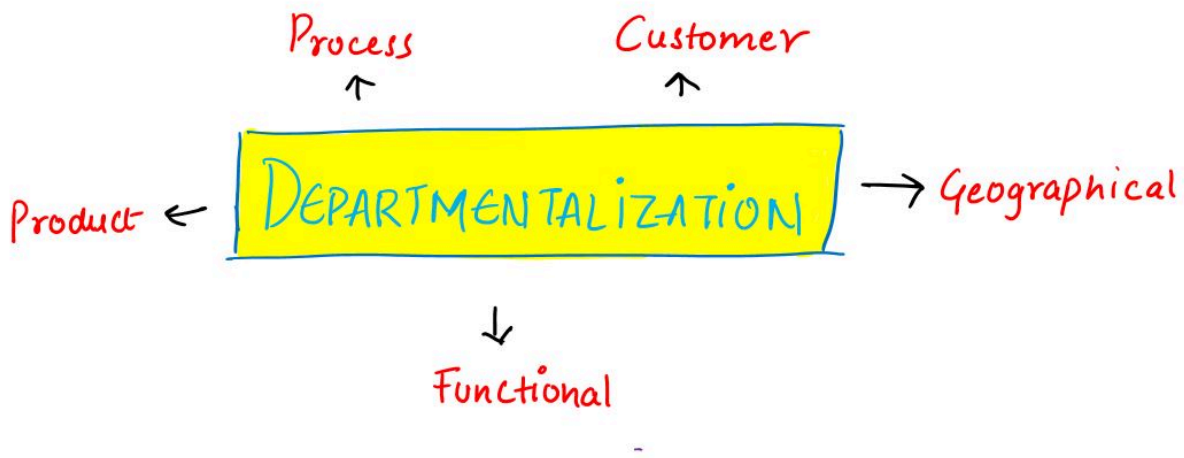
Consider an automotive manufacturing plant. In such a setting, work specialization is evident in the assembly line. Each worker focuses on a specific task or component, such as installing tires, fitting engines, or attaching doors. This division allows workers to become highly skilled at their specialized task, improving precision and efficiency.

For instance, a worker on the assembly line might specialize in installing car windshields. Instead of assembling an entire vehicle, they concentrate solely on fitting and securing windshields accurately. This specialization boosts proficiency and speed, contributing to the overall efficiency of the manufacturing process.

Ford's innovative approach revolutionized industrial production by demonstrating that breaking down complex tasks into smaller, specialized steps significantly enhances productivity. Today, this principle of **work specialization** remains a cornerstone in various industries, optimizing workflows and bolstering efficiency by assigning specific tasks to individuals based on their expertise.

3. Principles of Organizing

Once jobs have been divided through work specialization, they must be grouped so common tasks can be coordinated. The basis by which jobs are grouped is called **departmentalization**.



The division of labour leads to Departmentation (also called Departmentalization). It means dividing activities into specialised groups (departments) where each department performs specialised organisational task. All activities of similar nature are grouped in one department headed by the departmental manager.

The five broad types of departmentalization are: functional, product, customer, geographical and process.

1. **Functional**: Groups of employees based on work performed (e.g. engineering, accounting, information systems, human resources).
2. **Product**: Groups of employees based on major product areas in the corporation (e.g. women’s footwear, men’s footwear, and apparel and accessories).
3. **Customer**: Groups of employees based on customer’s problem and needs (e.g. wholesale, retail, government).
4. **Geographical**: Groups of employees based on location served (e.g. North, South, Midwest, East).
5. **Process**: Groups of employees based on the basis of work or customers flow (e.g. testing, payment).

3. Principles of Organizing

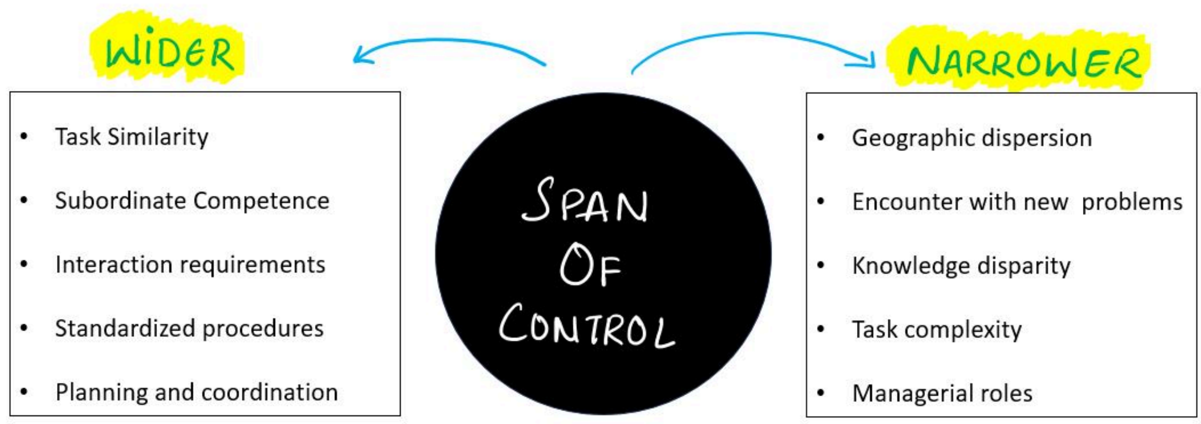
The chain of command is an important concept to build a robust organization structure. It is the unbroken line of authority that ultimately links each individual with the top organizational position through a managerial position at each successive layer in between.

A chain of command is established so that everyone knows whom they should report to and what responsibilities are expected at their level. A chain of command enforces responsibility and accountability. It is based on the 2 principles of Unity of command and Scalar Principle.

a). **Unity of Command**: One subordinate should have one boss. People should receive orders from their immediate boss only. This brings discipline and order in the organisation. Receiving orders from two or more bosses can create confusion and indiscipline. If the unity of command is broken, an employee might have to cope with conflicting demands or priorities from several superiors, as is often the case in the weaker "dotted-line" reporting relationships in some organizations.

b). **Scalar Chain**: Scalar chain is the line of authority running from top to lower levels. Authority flows from top to bottom in this chain and responsibilities flow from bottom to top. This chain promotes communication amongst people at different levels and facilitates decision making. Every person in the chain knows his superior and subordinate.

3. Principles of Organizing



Span of control means the number of subordinates that a superior can effectively supervise. Exact number of employees that a manager can supervise cannot be determined. It depends upon competence of managers, nature of work, system of control, capacity of subordinates etc. However, if a manager can supervise less number of workers, there will be more levels in the organisation structure and vice-versa. Supervising few subordinates creates tall structures and supervising large number of workers creates flat structures.

The concept of span of control was introduced by Sir **Ian Hamilton** in the United Kingdom in 1922. It was based on the understanding that managers have a limited amount of time, energy, and focus to allocate to their responsibilities. Through studies of British military leaders, Hamilton discovered that they could not effectively manage more than three to six individuals directly. These numbers have since become widely accepted as the standard "rule of thumb" for span of control.

Over a decade later, **A.V. Graicunas** expanded on this idea by illustrating it mathematically. His research demonstrated that the number of interactions between managers and their subordinates—and the amount of time managers spent on supervision—grew exponentially as the span of control increased.

Factors Promoting Wider Spans of Control

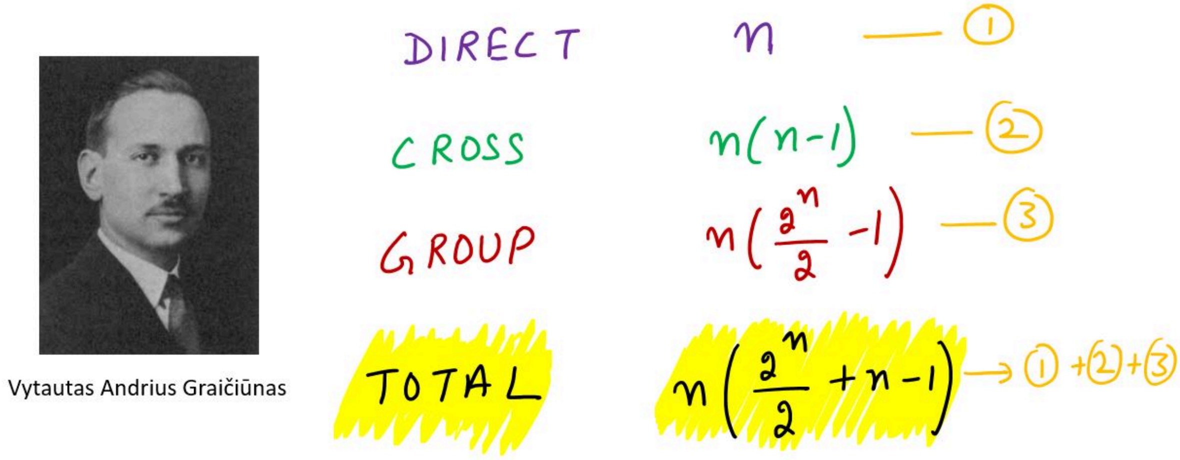
- *Task Similarity*: When the tasks performed by subordinates exhibit high similarity, it supports a wider span of control for managers.
- *Subordinate Competence*: A wider span of control is facilitated when subordinates demonstrate competence, responsibility, and capability in their roles.
- *Interaction Requirements*: If lower interaction is needed between managers and subordinates, it encourages a wider span of control.
- *Standardized Procedures*: Increased standardized procedures across functions or departments enable a wider span of control.
- *Planning and Coordination*: Reduced necessity for extensive planning and coordination in subordinates' work aligns with a wider span of control for managers.

Factors Favoring Narrower Spans of Control

- *Geographic Dispersion*: When subordinates are geographically dispersed, it necessitates a narrower span of control for effective management.
- *Encounter with New Problems*: Frequent encounters with new problems among subordinates often lead to a narrower span of control for managers to address these challenges efficiently.
- *Knowledge Disparity*: A greater gap in expertise between managers and subordinates often dictates a narrower span of control.
- *Task Complexity*: Higher complexity in the tasks assigned to employees generally calls for a narrower span of control for effective oversight and guidance.
- *Managerial Roles*: If a manager's role includes significant non-supervisory tasks, it typically results in a narrower span of control to manage other responsibilities effectively.

3. Principles of Organizing

V. A. Graicunas developed a formula for determining the number of possible relationships between a manager and subordinates when the number of subordinates is known.



Four basic kinds of relationships were described by Graicunas:
1. Direct single relationships between superior and individual subordinates (a), given by formula n
2. Cross relationships between individual subordinates (b), given by formula n(n-1)
3. Direct group relationships between superior and combinations of subordinates (c), given by formula $n(\frac{2^n}{2} -1)$
4. Total direct and cross relationships (a + b + c), given by formula $n(\frac{2^n}{2} +n-1)$

where, n is the number of subordinates.

According to V.A. Graicunas, as the number of subordinates increases arithmetically (like 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, etc.) the number of relationships which the superior has to control also increases almost geometrically (like 1, 6, 18, 44, 100, 222, etc.). Therefore, a superior can only control a limited number of subordinates, and anything beyond this limit is very hard to control. By using Graicunas formula, we can find out the number of relationships (r), if the number of subordinates ('n) is given.

3. Principles of Organizing

The concept of centralization pertains to the extent of decision-making control exercised at a single point within an organization. When an organization is centralized, top management alone makes decisions, with lower-level managers executing their directives. Conversely, in decentralized organizations, decision-making is handed over to managers who are closer to the operations or even to work groups.

Centralization and delegation are interlinked ideas. **Decentralization** refers to the distribution of authority throughout the organization to ensure stability and healthiness. **Delegation**, on the other hand, is the transfer of tasks and responsibilities from a higher-level manager to a subordinate, enabling them to share the workload and increase productivity.

Organizations that operate in a centralized fashion are fundamentally different from decentralized ones. In decentralized organizations, decision-making is more inclusive, employees are more engaged, and problems can be addressed more swiftly.

Advantages of Centralization

- *Efficient Policy Implementation*: Simplifies the implementation of unified policies across the entire organization.
- *Consistent Strategy*: Ensures a consistent and coherent strategy throughout the organization, aligning efforts towards common goals.
- *Prevention of Over-Independence*: Prevents individual sub-units from becoming too autonomous, fostering unity and alignment with the overarching objectives.
- *Enhanced Coordination and Control*: Streamlines coordination and management control, facilitating smoother communication and oversight.
- *Economies of Scale*: Improves economies of scale by consolidating resources and functions, leading to potential reductions in overhead costs.
- *Improved Decision Making*: Facilitates quicker and potentially more informed decision-making through a centralized authority structure.

Advantages of Decentralization

- *Empowered Decision Making*: Allows decisions to be made closer to the operational level, fostering faster responses and more tailored solutions.
- *Adaptability to Local Circumstances*: Enhances adaptability by responding more effectively to local or specific circumstances, increasing agility and responsiveness.
- *Enhanced Customer Service*: Improves the quality of customer service by enabling a more personalized and attentive approach, meeting unique customer needs.
- *Motivation and Morale*: Encourages and boosts staff morale and motivation by granting a sense of autonomy, responsibility, and ownership over decisions and outcomes.

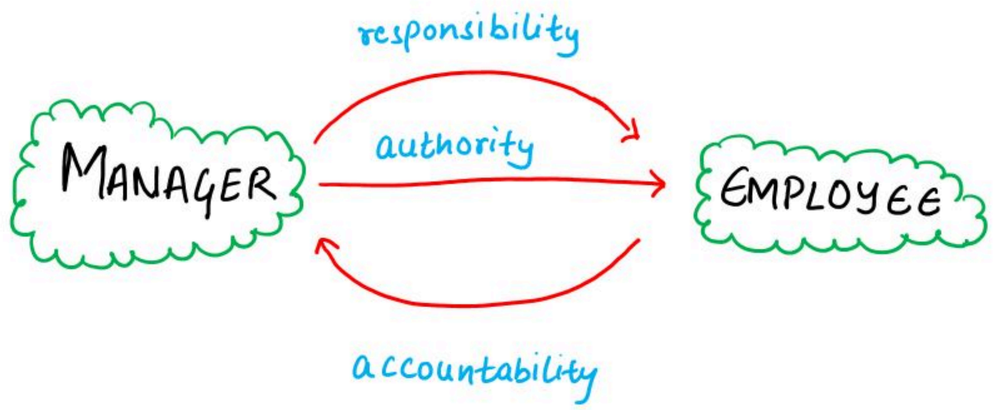
Both centralization and decentralization have their unique strengths, and the effectiveness of each approach can depend on various factors like the nature of the industry, organizational culture, and specific operational requirements. Balancing these advantages often involves finding a middle ground that best suits the organization's objectives and operational dynamics.

3. Principles of Organizing

Formalization refers to the level of standardization of jobs within an organization. When a job is highly formalized, the worker has limited discretion in performing the task, and the process is standardized, resulting in consistent and uniform output. There are precise job descriptions, many organizational rules, and well-defined procedures for highly formalized jobs.

On the other hand, low formalization allows for greater freedom in job performance, and employees have more discretion in their work. Behaviors in these jobs are less structured, and there is less emphasis on following specific procedures. In low formalization, employees are able to consider alternatives, whereas in high formalization, the possibility of alternative behaviors is eliminated. The degree of formalization can vary widely between organizations.

4. Authority, Responsibility, Accountability and Delegation



Authority is the legitimate power assigned to a manager to make decisions, issue orders, and allocate resources on behalf of the organization to achieve organizational objectives. Authority follows a top-down hierarchy. Roles or positions at the top of the hierarchy are vested with more formal authority than are positions at the bottom.

Authority and responsibility must go hand-in-hand. **Responsibility** means obligation to carry out the assigned task. Authority without responsibility will result in misuse of authority and responsibility without authority will result in poor performance.

Authority can be **delegated**. A part is assigned to subordinates and authority is given to efficiently carry out that task. Top managers delegate part of their duties to lower levels and concentrate on important organisational matters. This speeds up the organisational tasks and enables the organisation to grow in the dynamic, competitive business environment.

However, within a company no manager has complete authority or complete freedom to act. His authority is subject to restraint in the form of such overall corporate controls as objective, policies and budgets. Delegated authority thus emerges as freedom to act or make decisions within, and conforming to overall corporate objectives and policies.

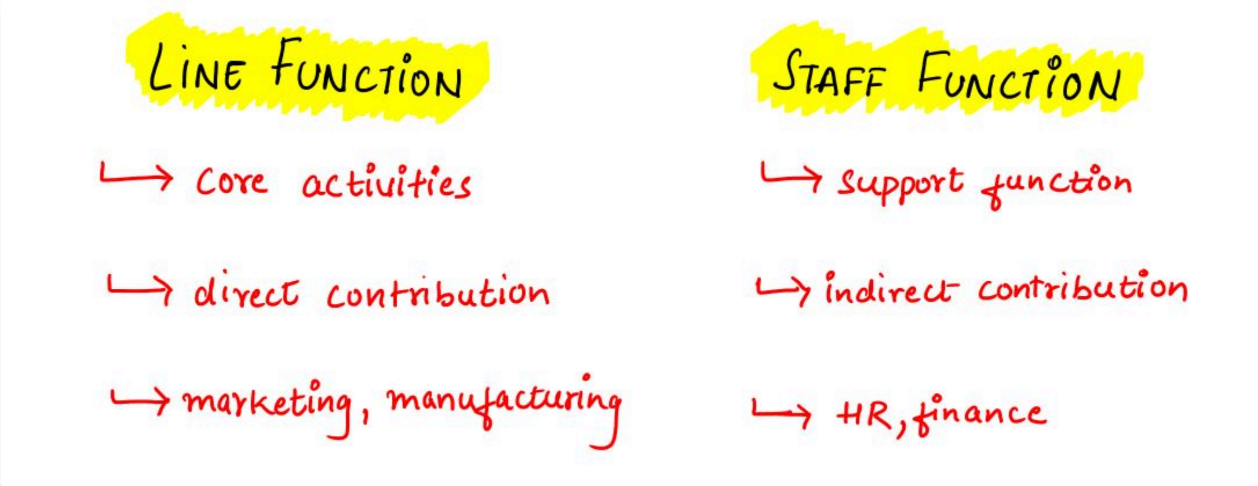
Accountability is an obligation to answer to a superior for carrying out delegated responsibilities; obligation to produce and account for results, in terms of objectives or work which have been delegated. Accountability cannot be delegated at all. It emerges each time responsibility is delegated. In other words, the responsibility for making decisions can be delegated, but the responsibility for the consequences of the decisions cannot be abdicated. Thus, the accountability of higher authority for the acts of its subordinates is absolute.

The comparative chart of authority, responsibility and accountability is given below.

Basis	Authority	Responsibility	Accountability
Meaning	Right to Command	Obligation to perform an assigned task	Answerability for outcome of the assigned task
Delegation	Can be delegated	Cannot be entirely delegated	Cannot be delegated at all
Origin	Arises from formal position	Arises from delegated authority	Arises from responsibility
Flow	Flows downward from superior to subordinate	Flows upward from subordinate to superior	Flows upward from subordinate to superior

5. Line, Staff and Functional Relationships

The organization can be divided into two types of employees: line employees and staff employees.



Line employees are the ones who directly contribute to the production of goods or services to the customers. For instance, in a car company, line employees include the production workers who assemble the car and the sales staff who sell it. They are considered to be the primary functions of the organization and are depicted on an organization chart, which illustrates their positions and relationships in the organization's structure. The line structure is the foundation of the organization and provides channels for communication and coordination between employees and the source of authority.

Staff employees, on the other hand, contribute indirectly to the provision of goods or services to the customer. They occupy advisory positions and support the line employees with their specialized expertise. They work in departments such as purchasing, human resources, information technology, and legal, which are considered to be secondary functions in the organization. A firm can provide line managers with advice by establishing a separate department headed by staff specialists, which is known as a line-and-staff structure. The staff departments and employees perform their tasks through the line structure, not independently of it.

In an organizational structure, individuals hold different positions and have different relationships with one another. These relationships can be categorized as line, staff and functional.

Line relationships involve a manager who has the power to direct the actions of their subordinates who are positioned below them on the organizational chart. This is depicted through vertical lines connecting each hierarchical level on the chart. The chain of command in an organization is made up of these line relationships, where authority flows from the top of the organizational pyramid to the bottom. For example, a line manager can instruct a shop floor worker on what to do, and all non-managerial employees have some level of authority within their role.

In contrast, **staff relationships** involve staff department specialists providing support to line managers. They can make recommendations, offer advice, and assist line managers, but they cannot insist that their recommendations be followed. For instance, the human resources department can provide guidance to a line manager, but cannot directly give orders to shop floor workers. Staff authority is typically subservient to line authority and is designed to help line managers carry out their responsibilities.

Functional relationships involve staff specialists having the power to enforce their instructions to line managers. This is only applicable within their area of expertise. For example, the human resources department may instruct a line manager to follow redundancy procedures. In this type of relationship, staff specialists have the authority to 'tell' line managers what to do.

6. Organizational Structure

Organizational structure formally determines the hierarchy within an organization. In other words, who reports to whom?

An **organizational chart**, often referred to as an org chart, is a visual representation of the structure of an organization. It outlines the hierarchy, relationships, and reporting structures within a company or entity. Org charts typically illustrate:

1. *Hierarchy*: The levels of management and their positions within the organization, from top-level executives to lower-level employees.

2. *Reporting Lines*: The lines of authority and communication, showing who reports to whom within the organization.

3. *Departments or Units*: The different departments, teams, or units within the organization and how they are interconnected.

4. *Roles and Responsibilities*: An overview of the roles and responsibilities of various positions or departments, clarifying their functions within the organization.

7. Structure and Strategy

Alfred Chandler

Alfred Chandler's pivotal work in the 1960s established a fundamental link between an organization's strategy and its structure. He extensively studied major American firms from 1909 to 1959, illustrating how these organizations evolved. His insights have significantly influenced subsequent studies on the relationship between strategy and structure, including frameworks like Peters and Waterman's examination of Organizational Excellence.

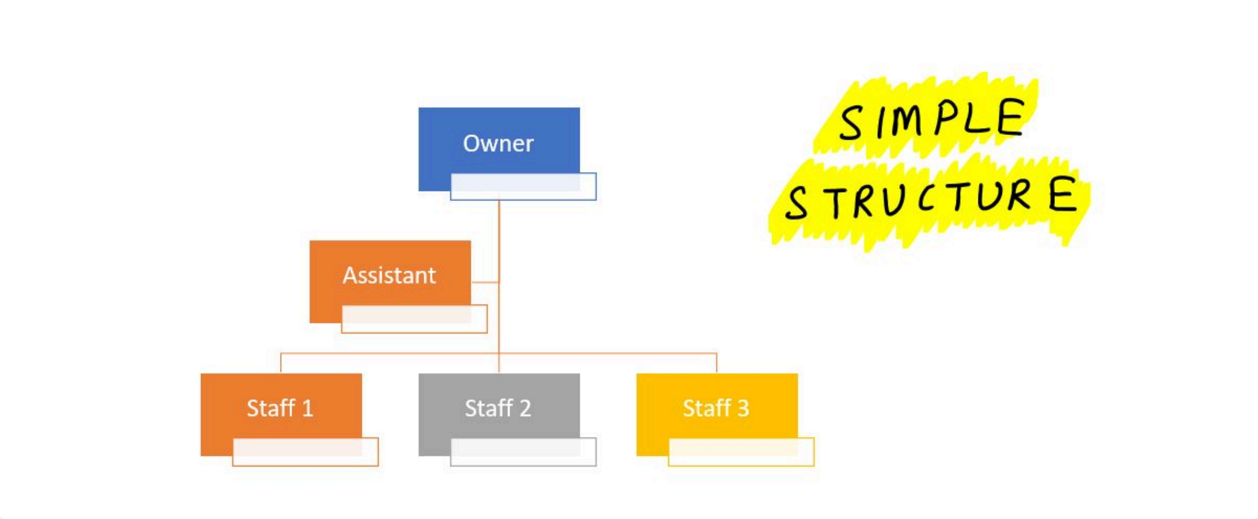
Chandler's key premise was simple: When an organization shifts or develops a new strategy, its structure needs to adapt or be redesigned to effectively support that strategy. He highlighted that for a growing or changing enterprise to function efficiently, its structure must align with its strategy. In essence, he coined the phrase "**structure follows strategy**."

In practical terms, this means that the way an organization is organized, its hierarchy, departments, reporting lines, and how it operates, should be shaped by its strategic goals. For example, if a company decides to expand its product line or enter new markets, it might require changes in its organizational structure to accommodate these shifts effectively. Failure to align the structure with the strategy could lead to inefficiencies, hindering the organization's ability to achieve its objectives.

8. Types of Organizational Structure

Let us discuss some of important types of Organizational Structures.

8. Types of Organizational Structure



Most of the small or newly emerging organizations use, the simple structure. The simple structure is not elaborated and it is low in complexity, has less formalization and the authority is centralized in a single person, as shown in the figure. It is more organic than mechanistic in character. It is also called **Entrepreneurial Organization**.

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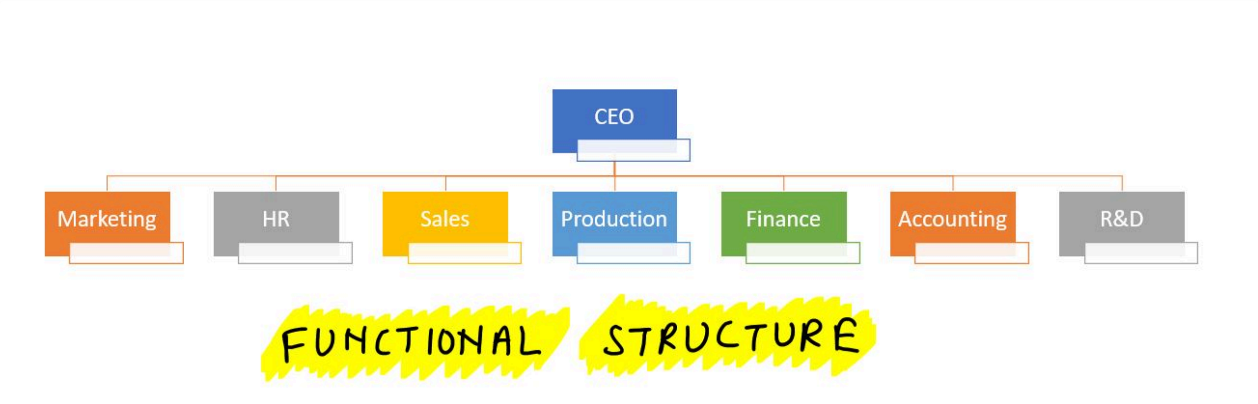
8. Types of Organizational Structure



The functional structure groups employees together based upon the functions of specific jobs within the organization. The functions might be manufacturing, HR, finance, R&D etc. The organizational chart of functional structure looks, as shown in the figure.

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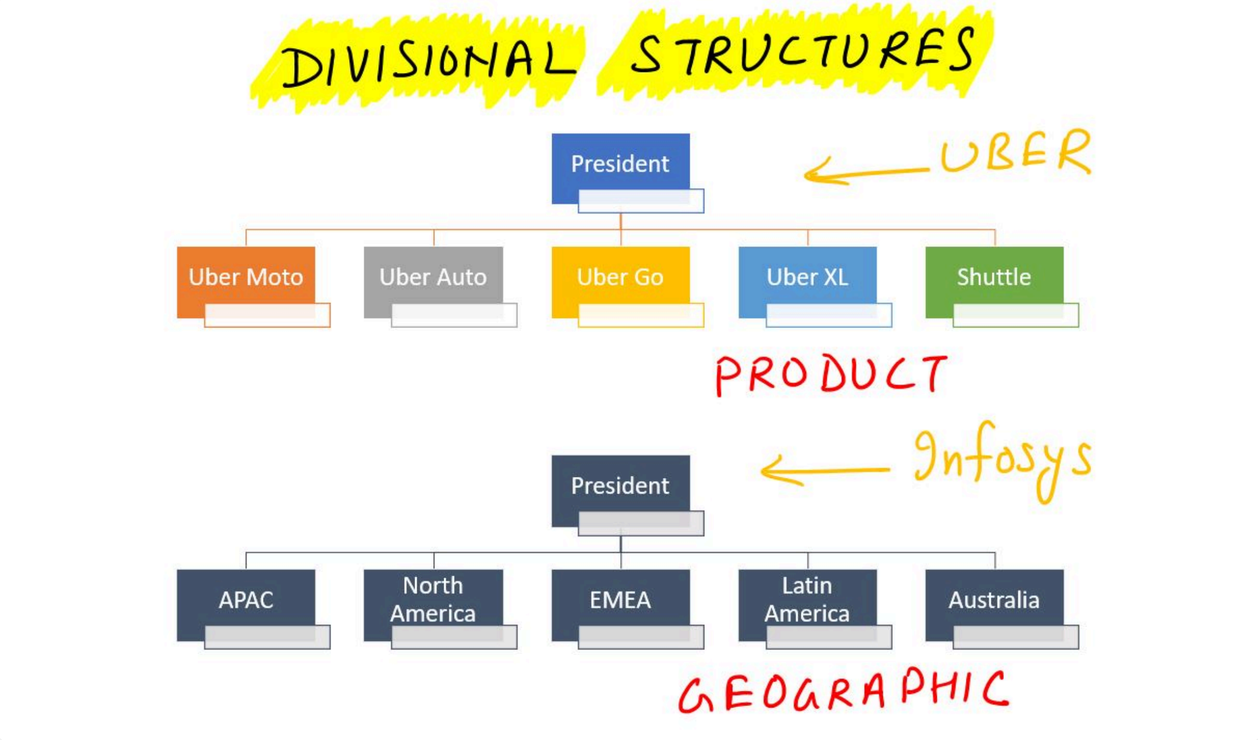
8. Types of Organizational Structure



Divisional organization is an extension of functional organization. Mostly the structure is based on either products, markets segments or geographies.

- **Product structure** groups employees together based upon specific products produced by the company. An example of this would be a company that produces three distinct products, "shampoo", "soap", and "washing powder". This company would have a separate division for each product.
- **Market structure** groups employees together based upon specific markets in which the company sells. A company might have different divisions for B2C and B2B customers.
- **Geographic structure** groups employees together based upon specific geographic location. This is often used by large companies that operate in many areas throughout the country. An example may be one division of a cosmetics company might cater north India and second division south India.

A **Strategic Business Unit (SBU)** is a business unit within the overall corporate identity which is distinguishable from other businesses because it serves a defined external market where management can conduct strategic planning in relation to products and markets. The phrase Strategic Business Unit came into existence in 1960's as a result of General Electric's many units. The SBU has its own business strategy, objectives and competitors and they are different from those of the parent company. An SBU is an autonomous division or organizational unit small enough to be flexible and large enough to exercise control over most of the factors affecting its long term performance. Strategic business units have their own independent vision and mission thus they allow their owning conglomerate to respond quickly to changing economic and market situations.

8. Types of Organizational Structure

The distinguishing feature of a committee organization is that there is a committee for a particular function or department. For example, instead of a marketing manager, there may be marketing committee for marketing activities, The Committee is also known by other names like commission, task force, quality circle, board etc. The Committee is always a group of people.

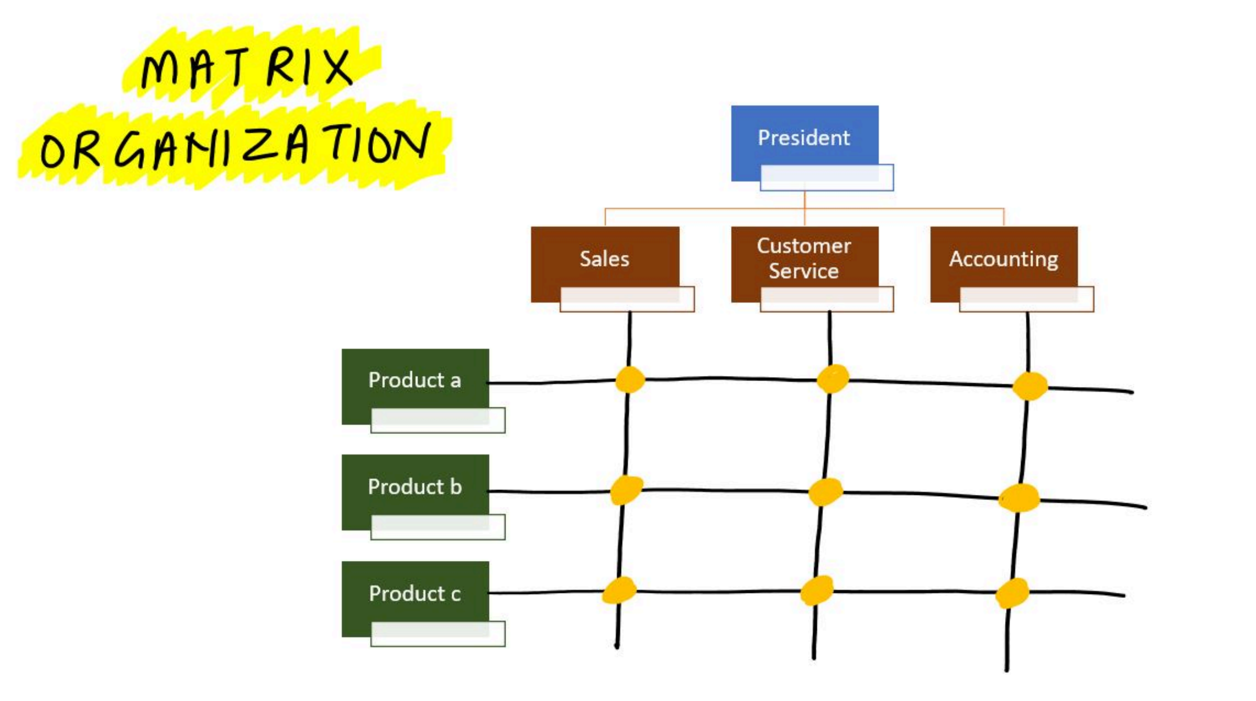
Some examples of Committee can be purchase committee, promotion committee, ethics committee, finance committee, executive committee.

An ad hoc committee for a specific purpose and time period is called **task force**.

8. Types of Organizational Structure

Project Organization is an improvement of the traditional functional organization. It may be temporary, if there is one or two projects. It may be permanent, when projects are to be executed on continuous basis. It is preferred, when a company has "small number of large projects".

8. Types of Organizational Structure

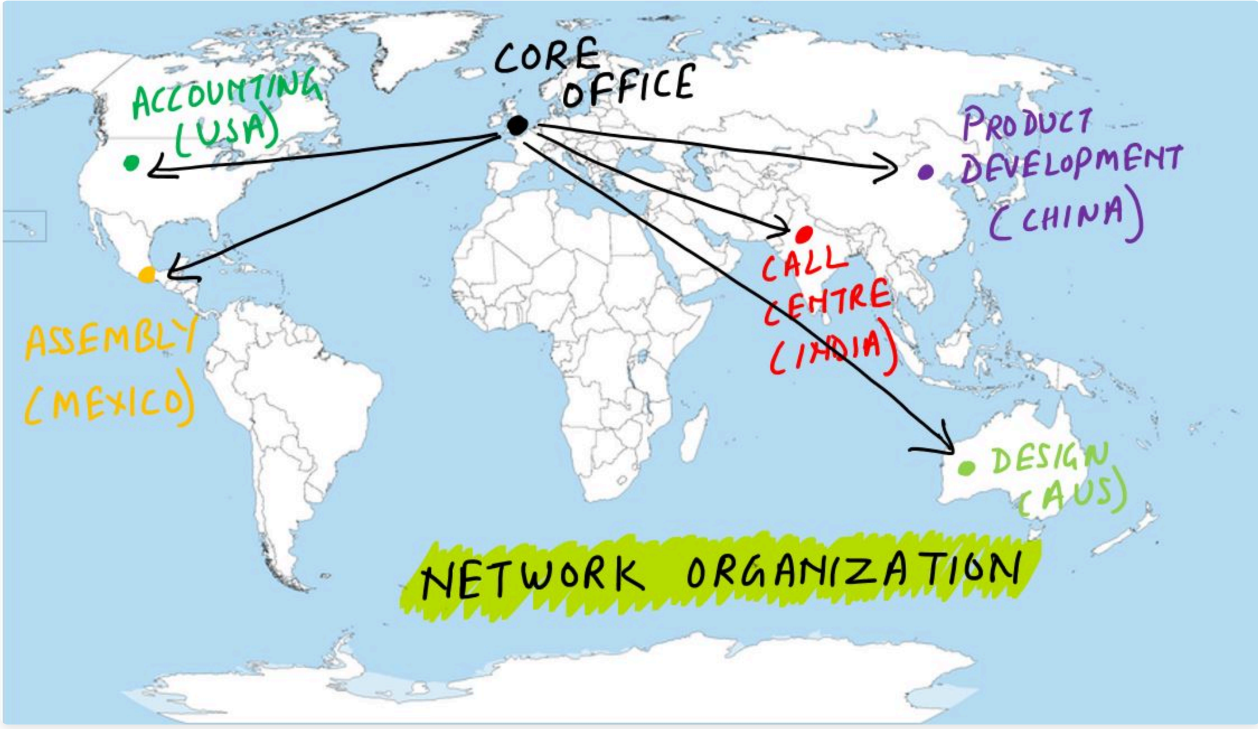


A matrix organization is a structure that groups employees by both function and product. This structure combines the strengths of separate structures into one complex organization.

An example of a matrix structure is a company that produces two products, "product a" and "product b". In this structure, the company would organize functions within the company as follows: "product a" sales department, "product a" customer service department, "product a" accounting, "product b" sales department, "product b" customer service department, "product b" accounting department.

The matrix structure is the most complex of the different organizational structures and is suitable for a large number of smaller projects, unlike the project organization which is better suited for a smaller number of large projects.

8. Types of Organizational Structure



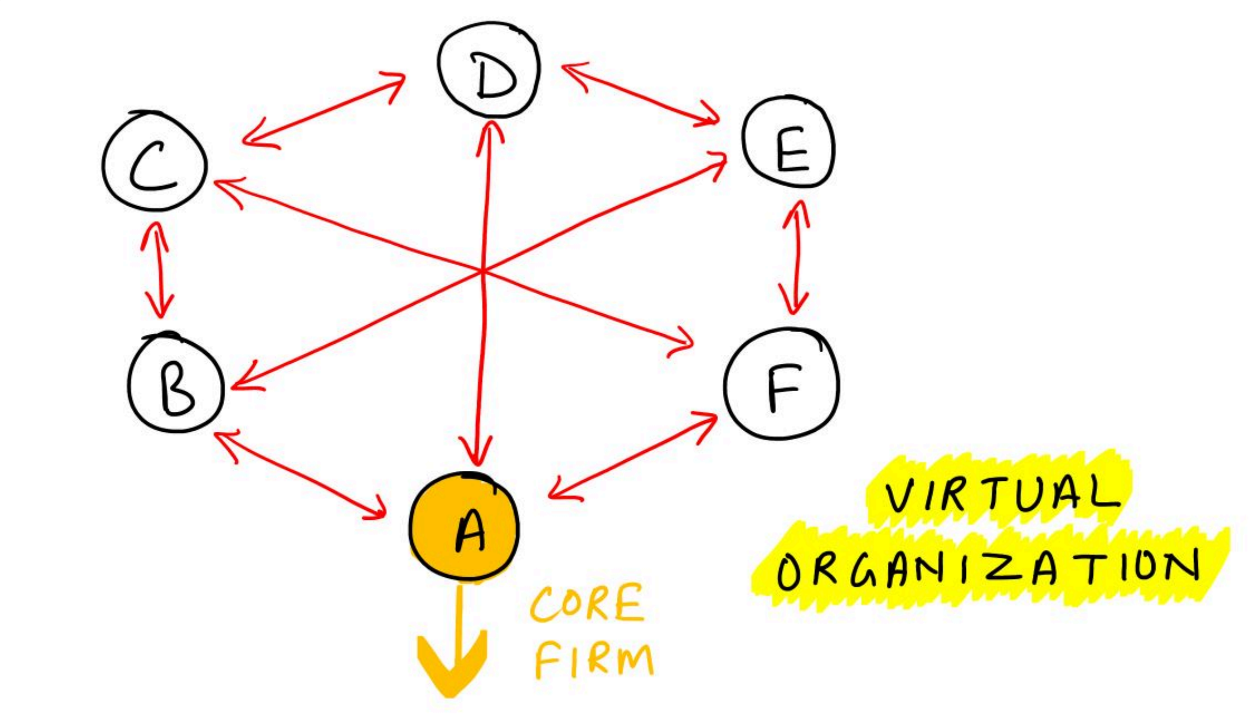
A network organization is a structure where a company operates through interconnected nodes or units across various locations. Rather than having a centralized structure where all operations are controlled from one place, a network organization disperses its functions and activities across different geographical locations while maintaining strong connectivity and collaboration among these dispersed units.

Characteristics of the Company as a Network Organization:

- **Decentralization of Operations**: The company's operations are spread across different countries, indicating a decentralized approach. Each location serves a specific purpose within the company's overall operations.
- **Interconnected Units**: Despite being geographically dispersed, the company ensures connectivity and collaboration among its different units. This connectivity allows for seamless communication and coordination between offices in different parts of the world.
- **Global Collaboration**: The diverse locations represent specialized functions such as product development, call center operations, design, accounting, and assembly. This setup encourages collaboration among various specialized teams across different regions.
- **Adaptability to Local Expertise**: By having specific functions in different countries, the company can leverage local expertise, resources, and market knowledge unique to each region. For instance, product development in China might benefit from local technological advancements, while the call center in India might utilize language skills and cultural understanding.
- **Technology-Enabled Connectivity**: To facilitate communication and coordination among its globally dispersed units, the company likely relies on advanced communication technology, digital platforms, and tools for seamless information sharing.

In summary, the company's structure, with its core office in London and specialized functions distributed across various countries, exemplifies a network organization. It operates through a network of interconnected units, leveraging global resources and expertise while maintaining effective communication and collaboration among its diverse locations.

8. Types of Organizational Structure



A virtual organization is a modern structural framework that heavily relies on technology to operate, often comprising a dispersed workforce across different locations. It's characterized by its use of digital tools to connect and coordinate individuals or teams who may not share a physical office space.

Furthermore, a virtual organization is an innovative design that leverages technology to present a unified front to customers, allowing a network of separate companies to function as a single entity.

These organizational models are prominent across various industries, notably in tech startups, freelancing, consulting, and other knowledge-driven sectors. They offer advantages such as increased flexibility for employees, reduced operational costs, and access to a wider talent pool. Nonetheless, they also pose challenges related to effective communication, maintaining team unity, and addressing potential isolation among remote workers, necessitating efficient management strategies.

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8. Types of Organizational Structure

A free form organization is a special type of team-based organization without organizational hierarchy and boss-subordinate positions. This type of organization operates with a greater degree of flexibility, speed, and adaptability in a highly dynamic environment and is also known as a naturalistic, organic, and ad-hoc form of organization.

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8. Types of Organizational Structure

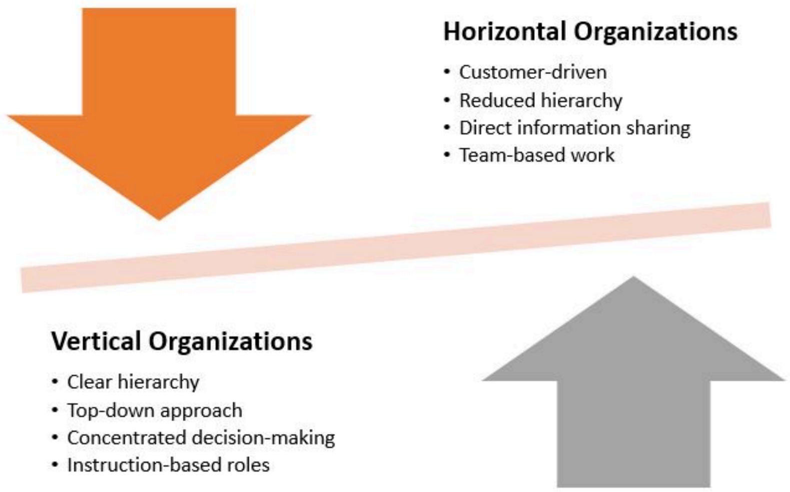
A boundaryless organization is a model that breaks down traditional barriers within an organization, including departmental divisions and hierarchical structures. It fosters a culture of openness, collaboration, and information sharing across various levels and functions. The primary aim is to enhance efficiency, innovation, and adaptability to change by encouraging seamless collaboration and communication throughout the organization.

Key features of a boundaryless organization include:

- **Elimination of Chain of Command:** This model reduces hierarchical layers and encourages a more flattened organizational structure where decision-making authority is decentralized.
- **Limitless Spans of Control**: Managers and leaders have wider spans of control, overseeing larger teams or functions, thus promoting a more interconnected working environment.
- **Empowered Teams over Departments:** Rather than rigid departments, boundaryless organizations rely on empowered, cross-functional teams that collaborate on projects or initiatives, promoting flexibility and responsiveness.
- **Breaking Geographical Barriers**: It emphasizes the use of technology and communication tools to bridge geographical distances, allowing employees from different locations to collaborate seamlessly.

The boundaryless organizational structure helps the company stay innovative, adaptive, and responsive in a fast-paced industry. It encourages a culture of collaboration, where employees from different backgrounds and expertise contribute collectively to the company's success, breaking down traditional barriers for improved efficiency and innovation.

8. Types of Organizational Structure



Horizontal organizations are modern forms of organizations that are customer-driven and have a reduced hierarchy. The key features of horizontal organizations include direct information sharing among participants, team-based work, openness in dealings, and flexibility in decision-making. These types of organizations are also referred to as "Flat Organizations".

For example, a company that operates with a horizontal structure may have a flat organizational chart, with employees having direct access to the top management. This structure encourages a more collaborative and flexible work environment, where decisions can be made quickly and efficiently.

Vertical Organization is the traditional form of organization with clear hierarchy and lines of authority. It has a top-down approach with decision-making power concentrated at the higher levels of management. The employees at the lower levels follow the instructions from their superiors.

It is important to note that each type of organizational structure has its own advantages and disadvantages, and the choice of structure depends on the specific needs and goals of the organization. For example, vertical organizations may be more suitable for organizations with large number of employees and complex operations, while horizontal organizations may be better suited for smaller, more flexible organizations that require quick decision-making.

9. Mechanistic and Organic Models

Organizational structures can be adapted to the external environment of an organization, which can range from certainty to uncertainty. The two main organizational designs that cater to these environments are the Mechanistic and the Organic Organizations.

Mechanistic organizations are best suited for highly certain external environments. They are characterized by:

- Clearly defined tasks
- Precisely specified member rights and obligations
- Hierarchical control, authority, and communication structure
- Vertical interaction and communication

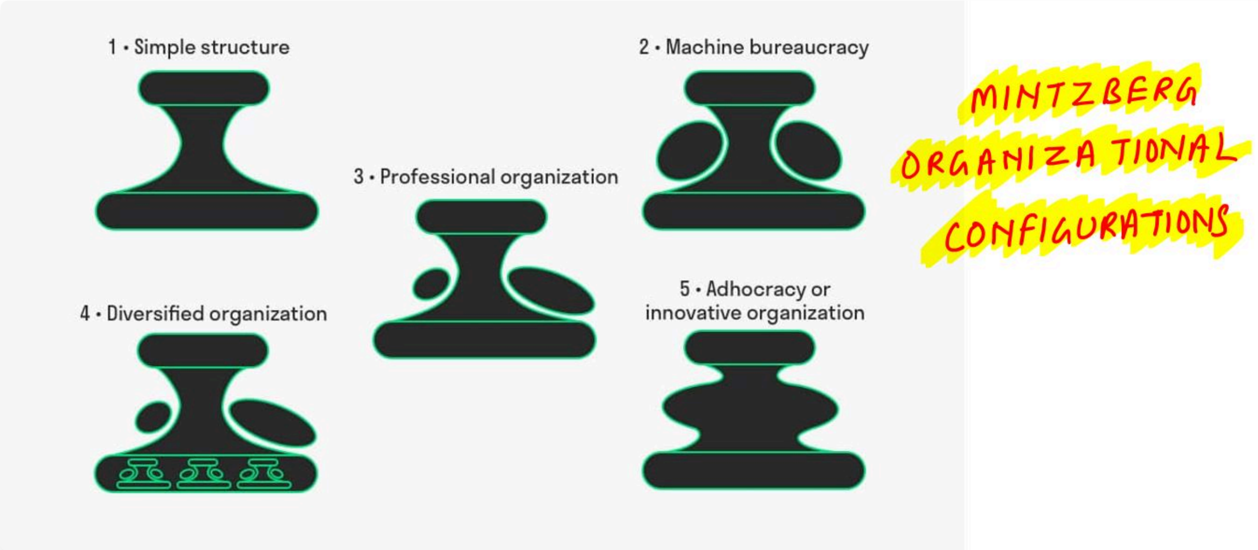
These organizations are bureaucratic in nature, with highly standardized processes and formal rules and procedures. They are best suited for recurring events that can be responded to with standardized responses.

Organic organizations are best suited for uncertain external environments. They are characterized by:

- Loosely defined roles
- Continually evolving tasks through interaction with other members
- Commitment to organization goals, rather than authority and control, to direct activities of members
- Decentralized control and decision making
- Fast decision-making processes
- Lateral and vertical communication

Organic organizations are more flexible in nature, with flat structures, fewer formal procedures, and multiple decision makers. They are better equipped to respond to changing events and have the advantage of decentralized decision-making, quick decision-making processes, and the ability to process information better than mechanistic organizations.

10. Organizational Configuration Framework by Mintzberg



Organizational structures refer to the ways in which a company is structured and managed. According to Mintzberg's (1980) research, there are 5 basic configurations of organizational structures:

1. Entrepreneurial Organization: Also known as simple organization, this structure is characterized by a flat structure with a management body created by one or a few top managers. This type of organization is commonly seen in small, young companies controlled directly by the owner. An entrepreneurial organization is flexible and reflexive but as the company grows, it becomes difficult to maintain. Example is A small, privately-owned bakery.

2. Machine Organization (Bureaucracy): This type of structure is focused on efficiency, with a centralized decision-making process, routines, and procedures. It has a tall, tight vertical structure where decision-making is centralized and brought to the top management. Examples of machine organizations are government agencies and large corporations. One example is a large government agency, such as the Income tax department.

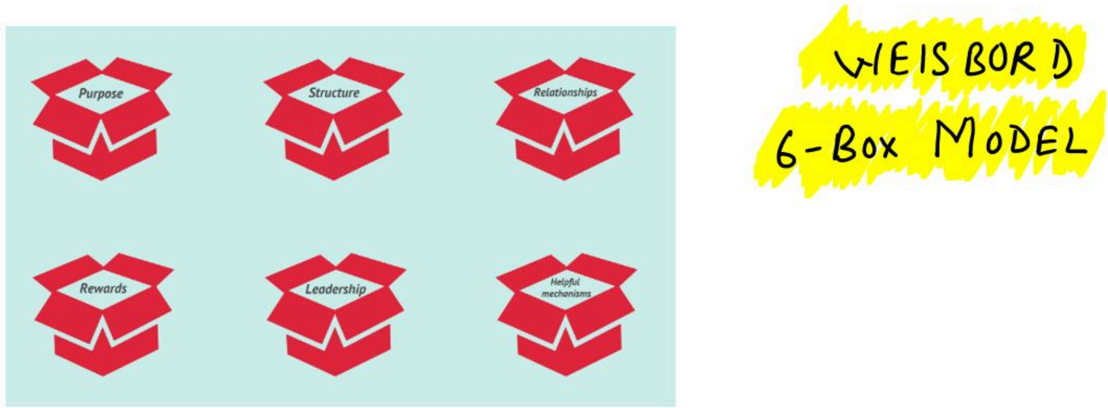
3. Professional Organization: In this type of structure, highly trained professional personnel demand control over their own work, creating a decentralized decision-making process. This structure is commonly seen in knowledge-based organizations where employees have freedom in their particular work area but the organization still maintains the procedures and standardization of a machine organization. An example is a consulting firm, such as McKinsey & Company.

4. Divisional (Diversified) Organization: This structure is used when a company has multiple business units and product lines. The divisional structure has a headquarters at the center to support all divisions, with each division having its own decision-making capabilities and unique organizational structure. One example is a multinational corporation, such as Procter & Gamble.

5. Innovative Organization (Adhocracy): The dynamic environment of today's times calls for new types of organizations that are fast, reflexive, and not limited by bureaucracy, central decision-making, or long routines and procedures. This type of structure is commonly seen in innovative or creative industries where the organization operates on an ad-hoc basis. An example is a tech startup, such as Phonepe.

In addition to these 5 structures, Mintzberg later added one more structure to his list, the Idealistic Organization (Missionary Organization), which is characterized by a set of norms infusing the work and controlled by the entire organization. This structure is similar to a religious order. An example is a non-profit organization, such as Amnesty International.

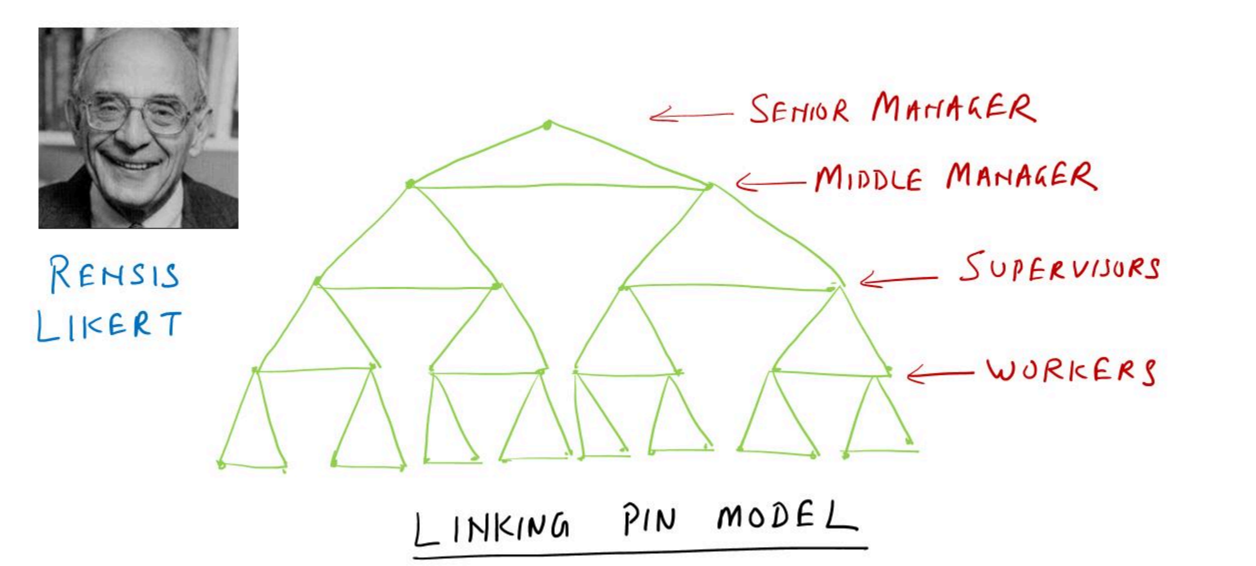
11. Six Box Model



The six-box model is a framework developed by the American analyst **Marvin Weisbord** to assess the functioning of organizations and is based on his book “Organizational Diagnosis: A Workbook of Theory and Practice”. It is a generic framework and is intended for use across a wide variety of organizations. The model represents a particular way of looking at organizational structure and design. The six-box model is comprised of the following components (boxes):

1. **Purposes**: What 'businesses' are we in?
2. **Structure**: How do we divide up the work?
3. **Relationships**: How do we manage conflict (coordinate) among people? With our technologies?
4. **Rewards**: Is there an incentive for doing all that needs doing?
5. **Leadership**: Is someone keeping the boxes in balance?
6. **Helpful mechanisms**: Have we adequate coordinating technologies?

12. Linking Pin Model



Rensis Likert's Linking Pin Model of organizational structure is a departure from the traditional hierarchies. According to Likert, every individual in an organization is important and is a member of two groups - one higher level group and a leader of a lower level group. This makes the individual function as a linking pin between the units in the organization above and below them.

Instead of individual relationships, this model emphasizes group-to-group relationships. The focus is on upward communication, supervisory influence, decision-making processes and high performance goals that grow from the bottom of the organization instead of top-down management.

Likert further developed his model by incorporating horizontal linkages. He provided examples to explain the horizontal coordination, such as a subordinate serving as a linking pin, vertical overlapping linkages of line and staff agencies, vertical overlapping linkages of product departments and multiple overlapping group structures of both horizontal and vertical linkages.

1. Introduction

Communication means sharing messages, ideas, or attitudes that produce a degree of understanding between a sender and the receiver. In everyday usage, "Communication" implies an attempt to share meaning by transmitting messages among people. Thus, communication involves at least two people - a sender and a receiver. Effective communication depends on the ability to listen as well as to speak. The end result of communication is understanding and to elicit a response.

Some of the prominent definitions for Communication are listed below.

Communication is a process of passing information and understanding from one person to another.
Keith Devis

Communication is essentially the ability of one person to make contact with another and make himself or herself understood.
John Adair

Communication is a bridge of meaning. It involves a systematic and continuous process of telling, listening and understanding.
Louis Allen

Communication is a process by which information is transmitted between individuals and / or organizations so that an understanding response results.
Peter Little

Communication is the exchange of information and the transmission of meaning. It is the very essence of a social system of an organization.
Katz and Kahn

In the exhaustive theory of organization, communication would occupy a central place because the structure, extensiveness and scope of organizations are almost entirely determined by communication techniques
Chester Barnard

Communication is the process of sending and receiving messages through verbal or nonverbal means, including speech, or oral communication; writing and graphical representations (such as infographics, maps, and charts); and signs, signals, and behaviour. More simply, communication is said to be "the creation and exchange of meaning.

1. Given below are two statements: **(UGC NET 21st Mar 2023 Morning)**

Statement I: Communicative language is the means of transmission of our values and social norms.

Statement II: Language defines and communicates the world around us.

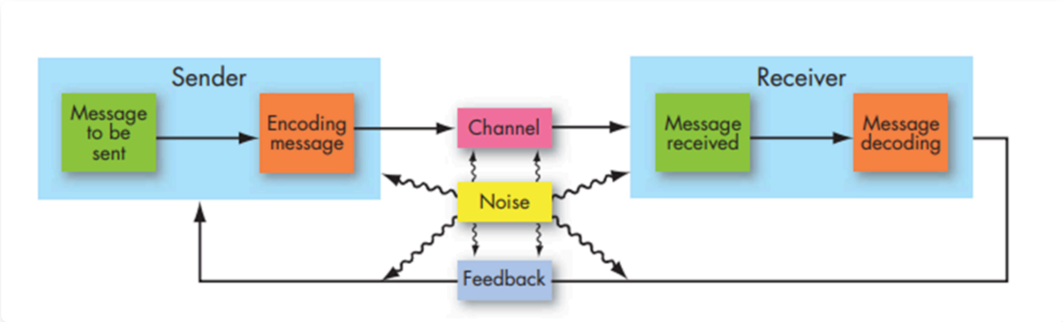
- Both Statement I and Statement II are false
- Statement I is true but Statement II is false
- Statement I is false but Statement II is true
- Both Statement I and Statement II are true

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

2. Process of Communication

The communication process is comprised of several key parts that work together to convey a message from one party to another. The following are the components of the communication model:



1. **Sender:** The sender is the party who initiates the message. They encode a thought into a message, which can take on various forms such as speech, writing, gestures, or expressions.
2. **Encoding:** Encoding refers to the process of putting thought into symbolic form. In other words, the sender converts their ideas into a message.
3. **Message:** The message is the actual physical product of the sender's encoding. It could be a speech, writing, or any other form of expression.
4. **Channel:** The channel refers to the medium through which the message travels. The sender decides which channel to use, whether it be a formal or informal one. Formal channels are established by the organization and transmit messages related to professional activities, while informal channels are spontaneous and determined by individual choice.
5. **Decoding:** The receiver is the party who receives the message, and must first translate the symbols into a form they can understand. This step is known as decoding.
6. **Receiver:** The receiver is the person or party to whom the message is directed.
7. **Noise/Barriers:** Noise refers to communication barriers that distort the clarity of the message, such as perceptual problems, information overload, semantic difficulties, or cultural differences.
8. **Feedback:** The final link in the communication process is feedback, which determines the success of the message transfer and whether understanding has been achieved.

For example, a manager wants to send a message to their team regarding an upcoming project. The manager is the sender, who encodes their thoughts into a message. The message is then transmitted through a formal channel, such as an email or meeting, to the team members who are the receivers. The team members must then decode the message to understand the manager's instructions. Feedback from the team members on their understanding of the message provides the manager with an understanding of the success of the communication process.

1. Identify the correct sequence for successful communication. **(UGC NET 4th Jan 2022- Morning Shift)**

- Sender → Encode message → Channel → Decode message → Feedback → Audience
- Sender → Encode message → Audience → Channel → Decode message → Feedback
- Sender → Encode message → Decode message → Channel → Audience → Feedback
- Sender → Encode message → Channel → Decode message → Audience → Feedback

Check

Question: 1 of 4 questions

3. Characteristics of Communication

The principles of communication encompass essential aspects to consider when conveying any message. These principles serve as guidelines for shaping the content and style of presentation according to the message's purpose and intended audience. These principles are commonly referred to as the **7 C's of Effective Communication.**

These are discussed below.

1. *Clarity:* Clarity refers to the clear expression of thoughts and ideas. Communicators should have a clear understanding of the concept they want to convey and the intended purpose of their communication. The goal is to accurately transfer the intended meaning from the sender's mind to the receiver's mind. Using precise, concrete, and familiar words helps ensure better understanding by the audience.
2. *Completeness:* Completeness emphasizes the inclusion of all necessary and relevant details in the message. It is important to organize the message appropriately and ensure that no important information is omitted. Checking the content for completeness helps guarantee that all essential facts are covered.
3. *Conciseness:* Conciseness involves expressing thoughts and ideas using the fewest words possible while maintaining clarity. Being concise grabs the reader's attention effectively. However, it is crucial to balance conciseness with appropriateness, clarity, correctness, completeness, and courtesy.
4. *Consideration:* Consideration emphasizes preparing messages with the receiver in mind. It involves putting oneself in the receiver's position and considering their needs, interests, and perspective. Tailoring the message to the receiver helps enhance understanding and engagement.
5. *Correctness*: Correctness relates to the proper tone, style, grammar, spelling, format, and factual accuracy in communication. Messages should be grammatically and mechanically accurate. Additionally, using the right level of language, ensuring the accuracy of figures and facts, and maintaining acceptable writing mechanics contribute to correctness.
6. *Courtesy:* Courtesy emphasizes politeness and decency in communication. Understanding the audience allows the use of courteous statements and respectful language that aligns with the receiver's expectations and cultural norms.
7. *Concreteness:* Concreteness focuses on conveying factual and specific information rather than using vague or general terms. Concrete communication involves providing research data, figures, and specific details to enhance clarity and avoid ambiguity.

By adhering to these principles, communicators can enhance the effectiveness and impact of their messages, ensuring they are clear, complete, concise, considerate, correct, courteous, and concrete.

1. Given below are two statements: **(UGC NET 11th July 2022 Morning shift)**

Statement I: More communication means better communication

Statement II: Closely related persons do not have communication needs

- Both statement I and II are true
- Both statement I and II are false
- Statement I is false but II is true
- Statement I is true but II is false

Check

Question: 1 of 2 questions

4. Message

Communication messages come in diverse forms and are perceived through various sensory organs or a combination of them. They include both verbal and nonverbal elements, transmitting meanings and intentions. Your expressions involve not only spoken language but also nonverbal cues such as clothing, posture, and facial expressions, all of which collectively convey a message.

1. Feedforward Messages

Feedforward constitutes information shared before delivering primary messages. It serves as an introduction or a preview, preparing the recipient for what's to follow. Examples of feedforward include a book's preface, a chapter's opening paragraph, movie trailers, magazine covers, or introductions in public speeches. It can be both verbal ("You won't believe what's coming up") or nonverbal (a deliberate pause before speaking). *Phatic communication*, like small talk, is another form of feedforward that initiates significant conversations by maintaining rapport and friendliness.

2. Feedback Messages

When you communicate, you not only convey messages but also receive feedback. This feedback can take various forms, such as facial expressions, verbal responses, or even physical actions. It helps you gauge the impact of your message on the recipient. Positive feedback, like laughter in response to a joke, often encourages the communicator, while negative feedback, like blank stares, may lead to adjustments in the message or delivery.

3. Metamessages

Metamessages refer to communication about the communication itself. They highlight messages that relate to or comment on other messages. Verbal examples are statements like "Do you understand?" or "This statement is false," which reflect communication awareness. Nonverbal behavior, such as crossing fingers while speaking or sending conflicting cues like saying one thing but displaying different nonverbal signals, also serves as metacommunication, revealing insights beyond the verbal content.

1. Select the advantage of feedback in the process of communication, from the following: **(UGC NET 4th Dec 201 Paper)**

- ○ It diagnoses the defects in receiver
- ○ It clarifies the communication
- ○ It is beneficial in understanding of the subject matter
- ○ It explores the defects in receiver

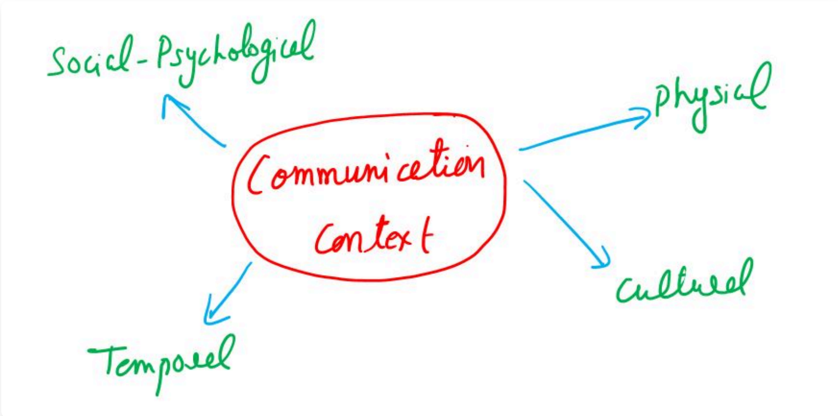
Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

5. Context

Communication is heavily influenced by the context in which it occurs, significantly shaping the meaning of both verbal and nonverbal messages. The same words or actions can hold vastly different meanings based on the context in which they are used.

For instance, the simple greeting "How are you?" holds distinct interpretations – a casual hello when passing someone on the street regularly, but a deeper inquiry about health when directed towards a friend in the hospital. Disconnected from the context, these signals alone cannot distinctly convey the intended meaning.



Context plays a crucial role in shaping not just what is said but how it is expressed. There are 4 key aspects to consider:

1. Physical Context

This involves the immediate physical environment, such as a room, park, or auditorium. Communication varies in different settings – the way one talks at a noisy football game contrasts sharply with how they communicate at a solemn funeral.

2. Cultural Context

This refers to the beliefs, values, and customs of a particular group. It encompasses the rules and norms that dictate what is considered acceptable or not within a society. What is appropriate or acceptable in one culture may not be so in another.

3. Social-Psychological Context

This aspect relates to the social dynamics and status relationships among peakers, the formality of the setting, and the norms of a group or organization. Conversations differ significantly, for instance, between casual interactions in a cafeteria versus formal settings like a dinner hosted by one's boss.

4. Temporal Context

The timing and sequence of events greatly impact communication. How one communicates after learning about a tragic event differs from the tone used after receiving exciting news.

These four contexts are interconnected, influencing and being influenced by each other. For instance, being late for a date (temporal context) might alter the level of comfort (social-psychological context), shaped by cultural norms (cultural context), and subsequently affect the choice of location for the date (physical context). The interplay of these contexts intricately shapes the nuances of communication.

1. The golden rules that communicators should follow are: **(UGC NET 5th Jan 2022 Evening paper)**

A. They should be aloof
B. They should take sides
C. They must be heard
D. They must be understood
E. They must be appreciated

- B, C, D only
- D, E, A only
- C, D, E only
- A, B, C only

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

6. Noise

Noise, in communication, refers to any factor that disrupts the reception of a message. It can range from completely preventing a message from reaching the recipient to slightly distorting parts of the communication. Just as messages can be auditory or visual, noise exists in various forms.

There are four main types of noise that significantly impact communication:

1. Physical Noise

This interference is external to both the speaker and listener, affecting the physical transmission of the message. Examples include external sounds like passing vehicles, computer hums, unclear visual elements such as blurred text, small fonts, misspellings, and distracting elements like popup ads.

2. Physiological Noise

It is caused by barriers within the sender or receiver. This includes visual or hearing impairments, speech difficulties, or memory issues that hinder the clear reception or transmission of a message.

3. Psychological Noise

This type refers to mental interferences in the speaker or listener, such as preconceived ideas, biases, wandering thoughts, close-mindedness, and extreme emotional states. Conversations with someone who is closed-minded or extremely biased often encounter this form of noise.

4. Semantic Noise

Interference arises when the sender and receiver possess different meaning systems. Language or dialect differences, jargon, overly complex terms, and ambiguous expressions can cause misinterpretation. For instance, a medical professional using technical terms without clarification or an insurance salesperson using industry-specific jargon could create semantic noise.

Understanding the concept of signal-to-noise ratio is helpful. Here, 'signal' represents valuable information, while 'noise' signifies useless information. A post or feed abundant in useful information has high signal and low noise, while one with excessive irrelevant information has high noise and low signal.

Although it's impossible to completely eliminate noise from communication, its effects can be lessened. Techniques such as using precise language, improving nonverbal communication, ensuring clear visual or auditory elements, and enhancing listening and feedback skills can help mitigate the impact of noise, making the communication process more effective.

1. Communication begins usually with: **(UGC NET 12th Nov 2020 Evening paper)**

- Confused ideas
- Apprehension
- Semantic noise
- Pictures in the mind

Check

Question: 1 of 1 questions

7. Principles of Communication

Several principles are essential to an understanding of the Communication in all its forms.

1. Communication has specific purposes

Communication serves five general purposes, which are common across various forms of communication. These include learning (acquiring knowledge about others and the world), relating (forming relationships with others), helping (assisting others through listening and offering solutions), influencing (changing or reinforcing attitudes and behaviors in others), and playing (enjoying the experience of the moment).

Example: Engaging in a conversation to learn about a different culture, seeking advice from a friend, persuading someone to support a cause, or having casual banter to enjoy a moment together.

2. Choices determine communication effectiveness

Communication involves making choices at different points in the process. The choice-making process involves five steps: identifying the problem, setting communication goals, considering communication choices, analyzing the pros and cons of each choice, and selecting and executing the best choice to resolve the problem or achieve the desired outcome.

Example: Deciding whether to express feelings openly or hold back in a conversation, choosing the appropriate language and tone in an email to convey professionalism, or selecting the best approach to resolve a conflict.

Principles	Basic Ideas	Skill Implications
Communication is purposeful.	Communication may serve a variety of purposes— for example, to learn, to relate, to help, to influence, to play.	Use your purposes to guide your verbal and nonverbal messages. Identify the purposes in the messages of others.
Communication involves choices.	In all communication situations you're confronted with choices as to what to say and how you say it. Communication training enlarges the number of choices.	Realize that you have choices in your communications and you don't have to say the first thing that comes into your head.
Communication is ambiguous.	All messages and all relationships are potentially ambiguous.	Use clear and specific terms, ask if you're being understood, and paraphrase complex ideas.
Communication involves content and relationship dimensions.	Messages may refer to the real world, to something external to both speaker and listener (the content) *and* to the relationships between the parties.	Distinguish between content and relationship messages and deal with relationship issues as relationship issues.
Communication has a power dimension.	Through verbal and nonverbal communication, you establish your power.	Follow the guidelines for effective ethical communication.
Communication is punctuated.	Communication events are continuous transactions, punctuated into causes and effects for convenience.	See alternative punctuations when trying to understand another's point of view.
Communication is inevitable, irreversible, and unrepeatable.	Messages are (almost) always being sent, can't be uncommunicated, and are always unique, one-time occurrences.	Be careful of what you say; you won't be able to take it back.

3. Communication is inherently ambiguous

Ambiguity is a common characteristic of communication and relationships. It comes in two main forms. The first is language ambiguity, where words can be interpreted in multiple ways. The second is grammatical ambiguity, which occurs when a sentence or phrase can be understood differently based on its structure.

Example: Ambiguity in phrases like "I never said she stole my money" where emphasis on different words alters the meaning, or interpreting ambiguous instructions that can have multiple interpretations.

4. Communication has Content and relationship dimensions

Communication involves two dimensions: content, which refers to the message's external subject matter, and the relationship, which pertains to the dynamics between the speaker and listener. Both dimensions play a role in shaping the communication process.

Example: A straightforward exchange about factual information (content) may also convey respect or disrespect within the relationship (relationship dimension).

5. Communication and relationships involve power dynamics

Power plays a significant role in communication and relationships. It influences how individuals communicate and is influenced by their communication. Six types of power are recognized: legitimate, referent, reward, coercive, expert, and information or persuasion.

Example: A manager using their legitimate power to instruct employees, individuals leveraging expert power in technical discussions, or the influence of reward power in negotiations.

6. Communication sequences are punctuated for processing

Communication sequences are broken down into stimuli and responses based on individual perception. Events in communication are continuous, but individuals segment them into causes and effects or stimuli and responses to make sense of the process.

Example: In a feedback loop, a speaker's message triggers a listener's response, and this response, in turn, shapes the subsequent communication.

7. Communication is Inevitable, Irreversible, and Unrepeatable

Communication is inevitable, meaning it always occurs in interactional situations, even if unintentional. It is irreversible, as once a message is sent, it cannot be taken back, only mitigated. Communication is also unrepeatable because the same conditions, mindset, and dynamics can never be replicated, making each communication act unique. Examples are given below:

Inevitability of Communication:

- A prolonged silence between a couple during an argument often communicates tension and unresolved issues, even without spoken words.
- A person's eye roll or sigh in response to a suggestion subtly conveys disapproval or disagreement without verbalizing it.

Irreversibility of Communication:

- Hurtful words spoken during a heated debate cannot be unsaid, even with subsequent apologies or regrets.
- A controversial tweet by a public figure, once posted and shared, remains accessible despite attempts to clarify or delete it.

Unrepeatability of Communication:

- The emotional depth and timing of comforting a grieving friend in one conversation can't be fully replicated in subsequent discussions.
- The initial impression made during a first meeting is unique and can't be exactly recreated in future encounters due to changing circumstances and perceptions.

1. Communication is a dynamic process across **(UGC NET 23rd Mar 2023 Evening)**

- ○ The meta universe
- ○ Varied situation
- ○ Specific populations only
- ○ Inanimate phenomena

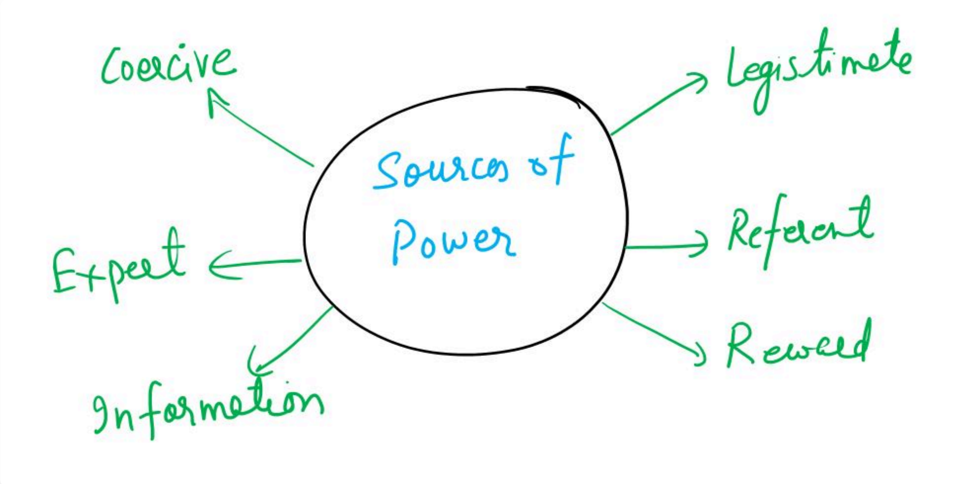
Check

Question: 1 of 4 questions

8. Power Dimensions

Power refers to your capacity to affect or manage the actions of another individual. Your power shapes how you communicate, and your communication style, in turn, influences the power you possess.

Research has classified power into 6 distinct types: legitimate, referent, reward, coercive, expert, and information or persuasion (French & Raven, 1968; Raven, Centers, & Rodrigues, 1975).



1. Legitimate power is held when others perceive you as having the authority, based on your role, to influence or direct the actions of others. For example, in roles such as employer, judge, manager, or police officer, your legitimate power is inherent due to your position.

2. Referent power is wielded when others aspire to emulate you. Referent power holders are often admired, possess significant prestige, and are both liked and respected. For instance, you might have referent power over a younger sibling because they want to emulate you.

3. Reward power is exercised when you control the rewards that others desire, which can be material (e.g., money, promotion, jewelry) or social (e.g., love, friendship, respect). For instance, teachers possess reward power over students since they control grades, letters of recommendation, and social approval.

4. Coercive power is possessed when you have the ability to impose penalties or withdraw rewards from others if they do not comply with your wishes. Typically, individuals who have reward power also possess coercive power. For example, teachers may issue low grades or withhold recommendations. However, exercise caution, as coercive power may diminish your other power bases and have adverse consequences, especially when used by supervisors on subordinates in the business context.

5. Expert power is granted when others perceive you as possessing expertise or specialized knowledge. Your expert power escalates when you are seen as impartial and having nothing to gain personally from exerting this power. For instance, judges wield expert power in legal matters, and doctors possess expert power in medical contexts.

6. Information power, also known as "persuasion power," is yours when others recognize your capacity to communicate logically and convincingly. For example, researchers and scientists can acquire information power because people perceive them as well-informed and critical thinkers.

Your power is not static; it can be amplified or diminished based on your actions. For instance, you can enhance your reward power by accumulating wealth and using it to exert influence, or boost your persuasive power by mastering the art of public speaking. Conversely, you can diminish or forfeit power. One common way to lose power is by attempting to control another person's behavior unsuccessfully. If, for instance, you issue a threat of punishment and fail to follow through, you are likely to lose power. Another way to lose power is by allowing others to manipulate or take unfair advantage of you. Failing to address these power dynamics results in a loss of power.

1. Given below are two statements: **(UGC NET 21st Mar 2023 Morning)**

Statement I: Communication can create a 'feel good' factor among receivers.

Statement II: Communication can be used as an instrument to divide and alienate the receivers.

- Statement I is false but Statement II is true
- Both Statement I and Statement II are false
- Statement I is true but Statement II is false
- Both Statement I and Statement II are true

Check

Question: 1 of 5 questions

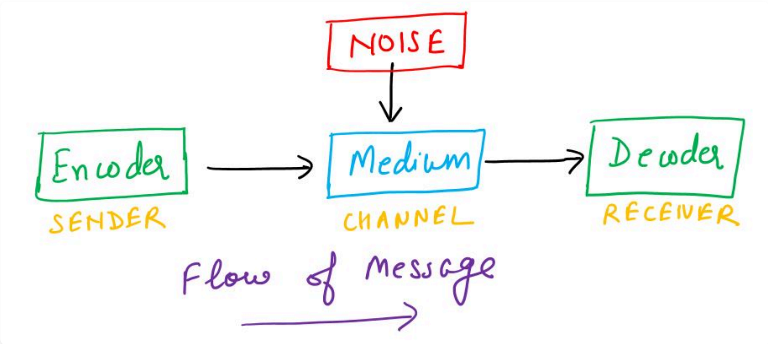
1. Models and Types of Communication

Sorry

Because of its privacy settings, this video cannot be played here.

2. Linear Model of Communication

Linear communication, also known as the transmission model of communication, is a one-way process where a sender intentionally transmits a message to a receiver. It is commonly used in mass communication platforms like television, radio, and newspapers, where messages are disseminated to a large audience. In this model, immediate feedback is absent, and the focus is primarily on the sender's intent and message delivery, with less emphasis on the receiver's involvement.



Major characteristics of the linear model of communication include:

- *One-Way Communication*: Information flows in a single direction, from the sender to the receiver, without immediate feedback.
- *Used for Mass Communication:* Linear communication is predominantly employed in mass media channels to reach a wide audience.
- *Sender-Centric Communication:* The model emphasizes the sender's intent and message delivery, with less focus on the receiver's active participation.

The sequence of elements in the linear model of communication is as follows:

1. *Encoder:* The sender encodes the message into a suitable format for transmission.
2. *Message:* The encoded information or content intended to be communicated.
3. *Medium:* The channel or means through which the message is transmitted.
4. *Noise:* Potential interference or noise that can disrupt the transmission or reception of the message.
5. *Decoder:* The receiver decodes and interprets the message to extract its meaning.

Also note that the introduction of noise as a significant variable in the linear model of communication is crucial, as it can hinder the accurate transmission and reception of the message.

Some notable models of linear communication are discussed next.

1. The linear model of communication can be described as **(UGC NET 24th Mar 2023 Evening)**

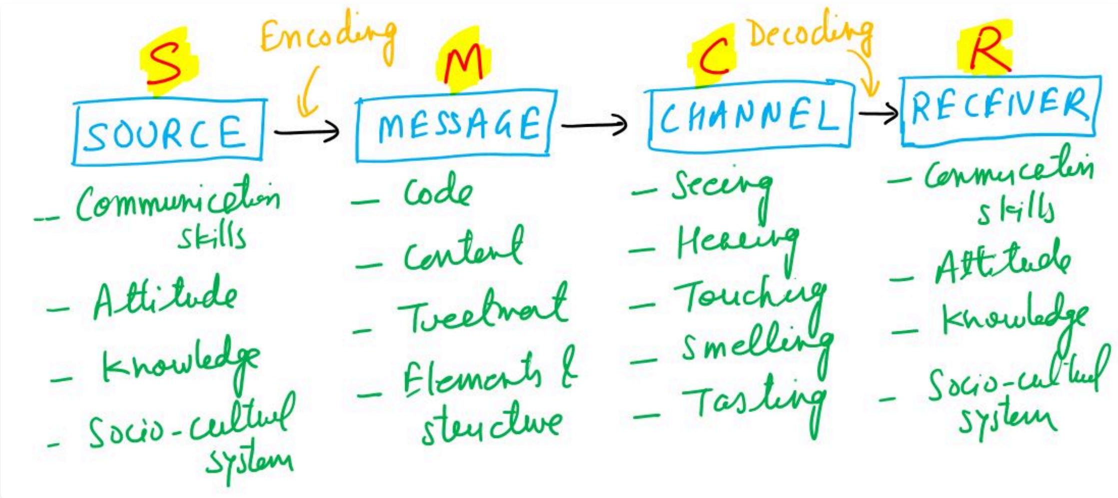
- Authoritarian
- Liberal
- Confessional
- Participatory

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

2. Linear Model of Communication

David Berlo devised the SMCR Communication Model, comprising 4 key elements: the Sender, Message, Channel, and Receiver. This model perceives communication as the conveyance of information. The sender takes a concept and converts it into a message, a process known as message encoding.



These elements are discussed below.

1. *Source:* The elements included in the source are the sender's communication skills, attitude, and culture.
2. *Message:* The elements included in the message are the content, structure, and code of the message.
3. *Channel:* The elements included in the channel are the senses of hearing, seeing, touching, smelling, etc.
4. *Receiver:* The elements of the receiver are their attitude, knowledge, and culture.

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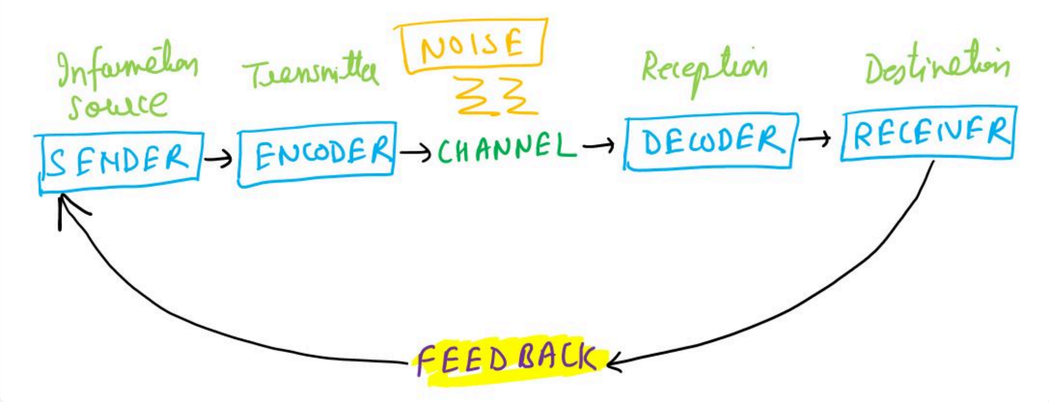
2. Linear Model of Communication

The Model was developed by Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver in 1949. This model is primarily focused on the transmission of information in the context of telecommunications and engineering but has also been adapted for use in the field of communication studies. This model is also referred as a Mathematical Theory of Communication.



The Model proposes that a message actually originates from the person who gets the thought or has the information. The sender is also called the Source of information or the Information Source. The information then gets transmitted from the brain to the mouth and comes out as a signal which then reaches the recipient after joining hands with several noises and other disturbances. The recipient then further passes on the message to its final destination or other minds of other individuals.

Note that this was the first model to acknowledge the existence of noise in communication that could disrupt or alter a message. This noise could refer to something like the static on a radio broadcast, but it could include spelling errors in written communication or the receiver mishearing the message.

1. Shannon and Weaver's communication model was not focused on: **(UGC NET 13th Mar 2023 Evening)**

A. Message transmission
B. Contents of messages
C. Meanings of messages
D. Intention behind messages
E. Medium of transmission

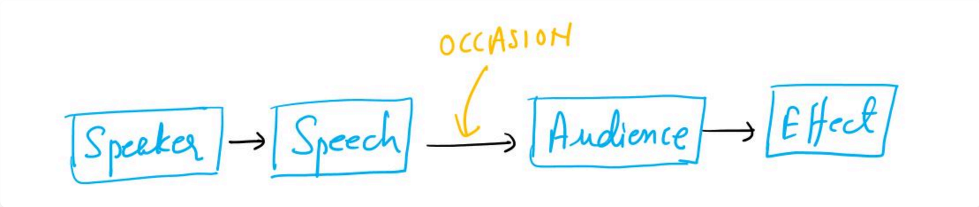
- A, B, C only
- A, D, E only
- B, C, D only
- C, D, E only

Check

Question: 1 of 2 questions

2. Linear Model of Communication

Aristotle's Model of Communication, developed by the Greek Philosopher Aristotle, focuses on the persuasive aspect of communication. It outlines the elements and principles necessary for effective and persuasive communication.



According to this model, the elements of communication are structured in the following sequence:

1. *Speaker:* The individual who conveys the message is the central figure in communication. The speaker's credibility, knowledge, and expertise play a significant role in influencing the audience.
2. *Speech:* The message itself, which is the content conveyed by the speaker. The speech should be well-crafted, logical, and persuasive to effectively communicate the intended message.
3. *Occasion:* The context in which the communication takes place, including the time, place, and purpose of the message. Understanding the occasion helps tailor the speech to the specific circumstances and audience.
4. *Target Audience:* The intended recipients of the message. The speaker must consider the characteristics, needs, and interests of the audience to effectively engage and persuade them.
5. *Effect:* The impact or outcome of the communication. This refers to how the audience responds, whether they are convinced, persuaded, or influenced by the message. The effectiveness of the communication is measured by the desired effect it has on the audience.

Aristotle's model does not emphasize the role of feedback in communication, as it primarily focuses on the speaker's persuasive abilities. However, Aristotle identified 3 elements that have the power to enhance communication. These are:

1. *Ethos:* Credibility and trustworthiness of the speaker. Building and maintaining a positive ethos helps establish the speaker's authority and influence.
2. *Pathos:* The ability to connect with the audience on an emotional level. By appealing to the emotions, the speaker can evoke empathy, sympathy, or other emotional responses from the audience.
3. *Logos:* Logical argument and reasoning. Presenting a well-structured and reasoned argument strengthens the speaker's position and enhances their persuasive abilities.

1. The disadvantages of Aristotle's model of communication are: **(UGC NET 20th Oct 2022 Morning shift)**

A. Weak encoding
B. Audience created content
C. One-way communication
D. Stress on the speaker
E. Ignorance of noise

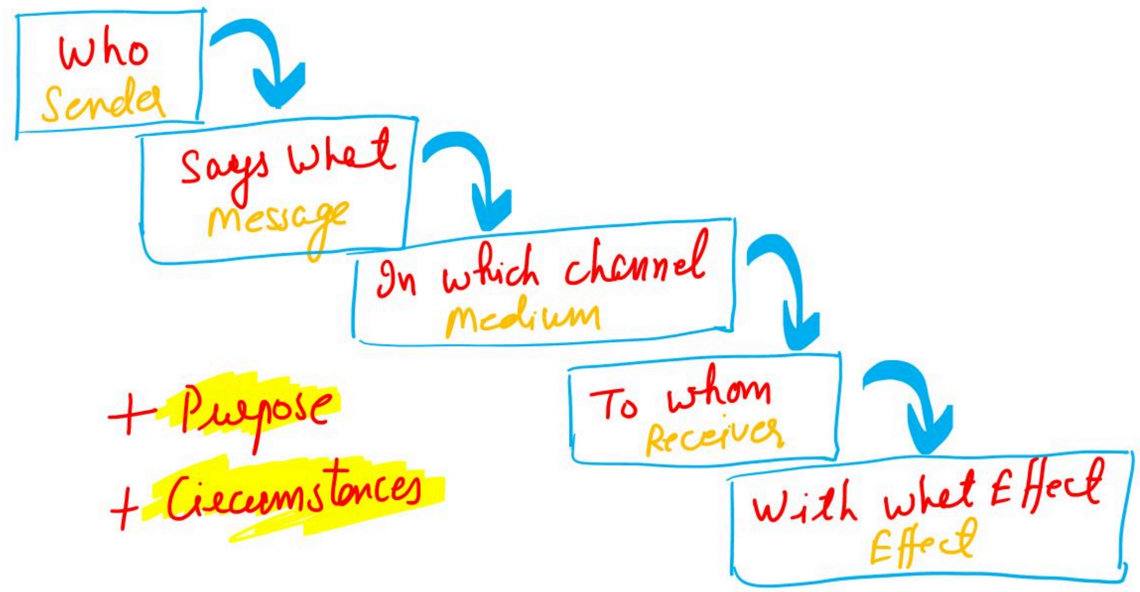
- C, D and E only
- B and C only
- A, D and E only
- A and B only

Check

Question: 1 of 2 questions

2. Linear Model of Communication

Harold Lasswell's communication model, introduced in 1948, stands as one of the earliest and most influential models in the field of communication.



This model examines communication through five key questions:

1. **Who?** refers to the sender.
2. **Says What?** represents the message being communicated.
3. **To Whom?** addresses the receiver.
4. **In What Channel?** pertains to the medium or method of communication.
5. **With What Effect?** considers the impact or result of the communication.

Initially conceived for mass media like newspapers, television, and radio, this model was originally known as 'Lasswell's definition' or 'Lasswell's formula.' However, over time, it has transformed into a more comprehensive and general model for communication.

Presently, theorists have expanded this model by adding new questions like **For What Purpose?** and **Under What Circumstances?** These additions further enrich and broaden the understanding of the communication process.

1. The Lasswellian model of mass communication is the foundation of media: **(UGC NET 13th Mar 2023 Evening**

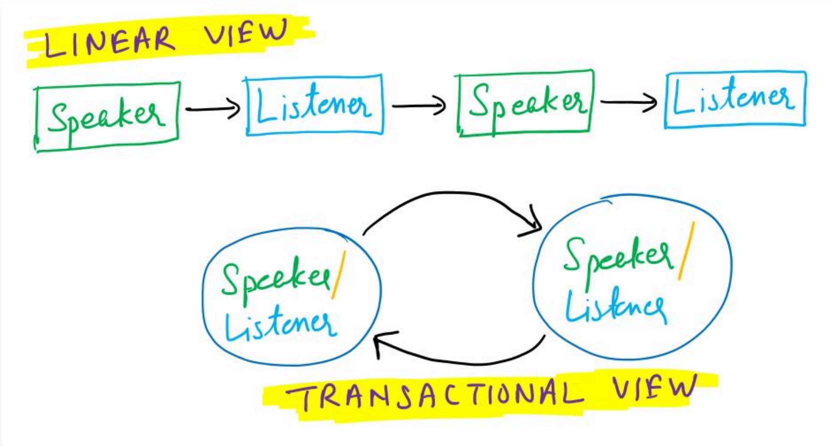
- Culture analysis
- Effects theory
- Ethical studies
- Causal theory

Check

Question: 1 of 1 questions

3. Transactional Model of Communication

The Transactional Model of Communication characterizes our everyday conversations. In this model, communication occurs simultaneously between the sender and receiver, with an overlap in the encoding and decoding of information. As the sender completes a sentence, the receiver is already contemplating their response. This model also encompasses intrapersonal communication and feedback, with individuals engaging in a dynamic process of exchanging information. The key aspect of this model is the simultaneous nature of communication, with both parties actively participating.



For example, in a classroom setting, a teacher might organize a group discussion to find a solution to a problem. This scenario aligns with the transactional model of communication. The teacher divides the students into groups, and assigns each group a sub-theme for discussion and reporting, thereby facilitating a transactional communication process. Determinants such as social context, cultural context, and relational context play a crucial role in transactional communication, as these elements are interdependent.

Key features of the transactional model include:

- extensive use in interpersonal communication,
- feedback being conveyed as a new message, and
- the exchange of roles between the encoder and decoder.

The Transaction Model of communication characterizes communication as a process in which individuals create social realities while operating within social, relational, and cultural settings. In this model, communication is not merely a means to exchange messages; it serves to:

- Foster relationships,
- Establish intercultural connections,
- Influence one's self-concept,
- Facilitate dialogues for the formation of communities.

In essence, communication isn't just a discussion about your realities; it actively contributes to the construction of those realities.

1. In a classroom situation, a teacher organizes group discussion to help arrive at a solution of a problem. In term model of communication used, it will be called **(UGC NET 24th June 2019 Morning Paper)**

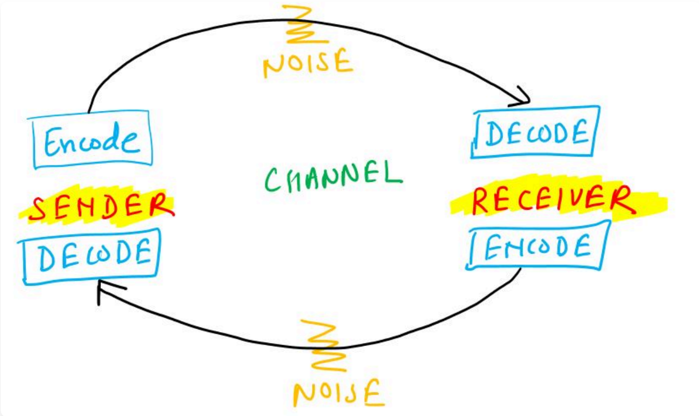
- A horizontal model
- An interaction model
- A transactional model
- A linear mode

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

4. Interactional Model of Communication

The Interactional Model of Communication emphasizes a conversational exchange where individuals await the completion of a feedback loop before responding. This model portrays communication as an interactive process involving the sender and receiver, with messages being encoded and sent back and forth, resulting in a two-way conversation. In this model, there is no significant time lag in communication.



For example, a question-and-answer session exemplifies the interactional model of communication. When a question is asked, a response is provided, and the exchange continues with feedback and context shaping the interactive nature of the communication process. Participants seamlessly alternate between the roles of sender and receiver, allowing the communication encounter to progress fluidly, often without conscious thought.

1. The key features of the interaction model of communication are: **(UGC NET 11th Oct 2022- Evening shift)**

A. It is a two way process
B. The physical context of communication is unimportant
C. The psychological context of communication
D. Feedback is not a response to the message received
E. It is less message focused

- A, B, C
- B, C, D
- A, C, E
- C, D, E

Check

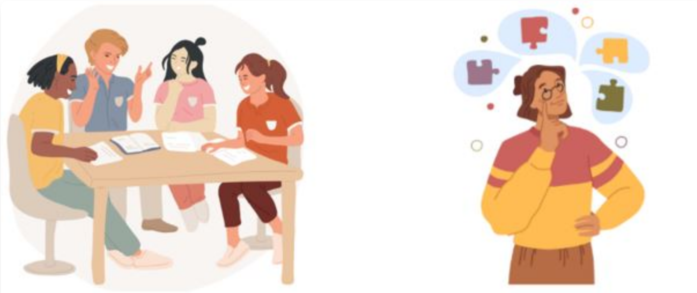
Question: 1 of 2 questions

5. Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication

Interpersonal communication refers to the exchange of information and ideas between individuals. It occurs when you interact with a person with whom you have some kind of relationship; it can take place face-to-face as well as through electronic channels (e-mail or instant messaging, for example) or even in traditional letter writing.

It plays a crucial role in the relational approach to classroom communication. Interpersonal communication can be both focused and unfocused, allowing individuals to engage in meaningful conversations or informal corridor discussions. For instance, when two teachers engage in a debate about the curriculum for the 21st century, they are involved in interpersonal communication. Similarly, communication through letters between two individuals is an example of interpersonal verbal communication. It serves as a means to connect, share thoughts, and maintain relationships, such as when writing a letter to a friend.



Interpersonal Communication   Intrapersonal Communication

Intrapersonal communication

Intrapersonal communication, on the other hand, is the communication you have with yourself—when you talk with, learn about, and judge yourself. You persuade yourself of this or that, reason about possible decisions to make, and rehearse messages that you plan to send to others. In intrapersonal communication you might, for example, wonder how you did in an interview and what you could have done differently. You might conclude you did a pretty good job but tell yourself you need to be more assertive when discussing salary.

1. Communication with oneself is known as **(UGC NET Jun 2008)**

- Intrapersonal Communication
- Grapevine Communication
- Organizational Communication
- Interpersonal Communication

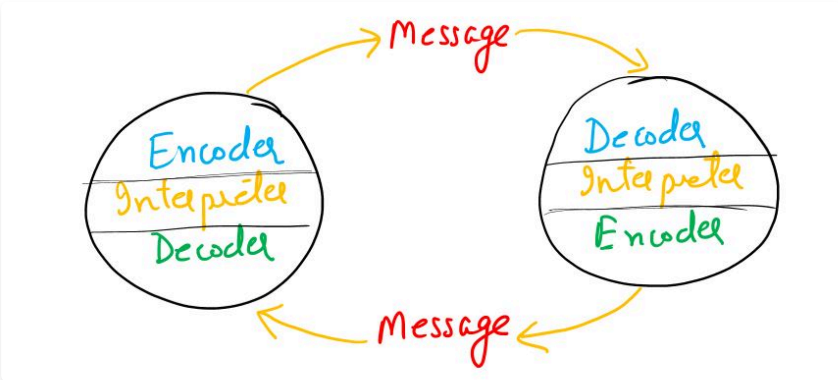
Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

5. Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Communication

In 1954 Charles E. Osgood presented the theory of meaning. Wilbur Schramm changed this theory of meaning into a model and after this model became the Circular Model of communication. It was published in 1954.

Osgood-Schramm's model of communication is known as a circular model because it indicates that messages can go in two directions. Hence, once a person decodes a message, then they can encode it and send a message back to the sender. They could continue encoding and decoding into a continuous cycle.



This revised model indicates that:

- Communication is not linear, but circular.
- Communication is reciprocal and equal
- Messages are based on interpretation
- Communication involves encoding, decoding, and interpreting.

The benefit of this model is that the model illustrates that feedback is cyclical. It also shows that communication is complex because it accounts for interpretation. This model also showcases the fact that we are active communicators, and we are active in interpreting the messages that we receive.

1. The simplified communication model created by Wilbur Schramm initially had the elements of: **(UGC NET 24th Morning)**

A. An encoding source
B. A noise breaker
C. A noise marker
D. A message for transmission
E. A decoder to decode the message.

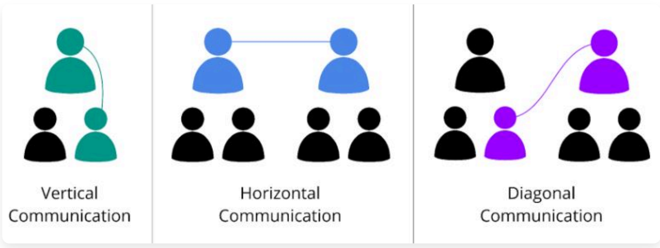
- B, C, D only
- A, B, C only
- A, D, E only
- C, D, E only

Check

Question: 1 of 1 questions

6. Communication types based on Levels

Communication within an organization takes on various forms and directions, each serving a distinct purpose in facilitating the flow of information, ideas, and decisions. These communication pathways can be broadly categorized as horizontal, vertical, and diagonal. Understanding these dimensions of communication is essential for the smooth functioning and coordination of any group or organization.



Let's explore each of these communication orientations in more detail.

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6. Communication types based on Levels

Horizontal communication refers to the exchange of information, ideas, and messages between individuals or departments at the same hierarchical level within an organization. It involves communication among peers, colleagues, or co-workers who work in the same department or are at the same level. This type of communication facilitates collaboration, coordination, and problem-solving within teams or across different units of an organization. It helps in sharing information, seeking feedback, and fostering a sense of unity and cooperation among employees.

Horizontal Communication is also known as *Lateral Communication* or *Sideward Communication or Intra-Scalar Communication*.

Given below are a few examples:

- Two marketing managers from different regions discussing marketing strategies and sharing best practices.
- Team members within a project group collaborating and coordinating their efforts to complete a task.
- Employees from different departments, such as finance and operations, exchanging information and coordinating activities to ensure smooth workflow.

1. Peer-to-peer communication is: **(UGC NET 28th Nov 2021 Morning paper)**

- ○ Convoluted
- ○ Authoritarian
- ○ Horizontal
- ○ Non-transactional

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

---

6. Communication types based on Levels

Vertical Communication refers to the flow of information, ideas, and messages between individuals at different hierarchical levels within an organization. It involves communication between superiors and subordinates, such as managers and employees, or higher-level executives and lower-level staff members. It is also known as *Inter-Scalar Communication.*

Vertical communication can be further divided into downward communication and upward communication.

1. Downward Communication

Downward Communication refers to the flow of information from higher-level authorities or managers to lower-level employees within an organization. It involves conveying instructions, providing feedback, sharing organizational goals and policies, and assigning tasks or responsibilities.

Given below are a few examples to understand downward communication:

- A manager providing instructions and guidelines to their team members regarding a new project.
- Senior executives communicating company-wide goals and strategies during a town hall meeting.
- The CEO announcing changes in company policies or procedures through an official email to all employees.

2. Upward Communication

Upward Communication refers to the flow of information from lower-level employees to higher-level authorities or managers within an organization. It involves sharing feedback, suggestions, concerns, and progress reports. Upward communication enables employees to voice their ideas, provide input, and seek support or guidance from their superiors.

Given below are a few examples to understand downward communication:

- Employees submitting a progress report to their supervisor, highlighting achievements, challenges, and proposed solutions.
- Team members providing feedback and suggestions to their manager during a performance review meeting.
- Staff members sharing concerns or ideas through an employee suggestion box or a designated communication channel.

1. A leave application from a clerk to the principal of the institution, is an example of: **(UGC NET 4th Jan 2022 Eve paper)**

- General communication
- Downward communication
- Horizontal communication
- Upward communication

Check

Question: 1 of 2 questions

6. Communication types based on Levels

Diagonal communication refers to the exchange of information and messages between individuals or departments at different hierarchical levels within an organization. In other words, the transfer of information between people who are neither in the same department nor on the same level of organisation hierarchy is called diagonal communication. This form of communication can help bridge gaps and promote a more well-rounded flow of information.

For example, when the Assistant Marketing Manager communicates with the accounts clerk directly, it is the case of diagonal communication. This type of communication increases organizational efficiency by speeding up information and cutting across departmental barriers.

1. The advantages of diagonal communication are: **(UGC NET 26th Dec 2021 Evening paper)**

A. Resistance
B. Side-tracking
C. Anomie
D. Morale boosting
E. Co-ordination

- C, D and E only
- B, D and E only
- B, C and D only
- A, B and C only

Check

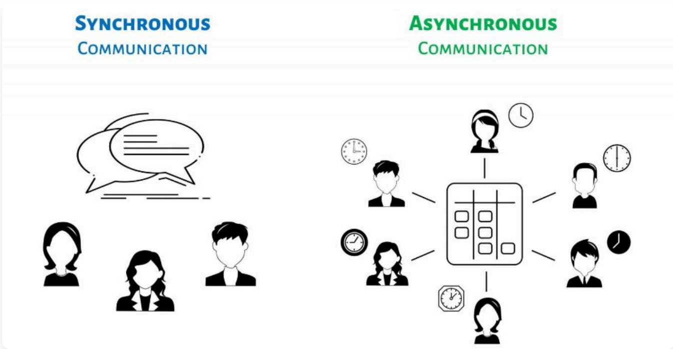
Question: 1 of 2 questions

7. Asynchronous and Synchronous Communication

Asynchronous Communication refers to a type of communication where the exchange of information and messages does not occur in real-time. It involves a time delay between sending and receiving messages, allowing participants to communicate at their own convenience. Asynchronous communication is commonly used in online platforms for teaching and learning, as well as in various other contexts.

Examples of asynchronous communication include:

- Blogs, Discussion Boards, and Vlogs
- Video Conferencing and Email
- Forums



Synchronous Communication refers to communication that occurs in real-time, where participants engage in immediate back-and-forth interaction. It enables instant communication and provides a sense of immediate connection and responsiveness.

Examples of synchronous communication include:

- Video Chat and Virtual Classrooms
- Audio Conferencing
- Wikis and Electronic Mail (Email)
- Chatting on WhatsApp

1. Chatting on WhatsApp is an example of: **(UGC NET 29th Nov 2021 Evening paper)**

- ○ Friendly communication
- ○ Non-verbal communication
- ○ Synchronous communication
- ○ Asynchronous communication

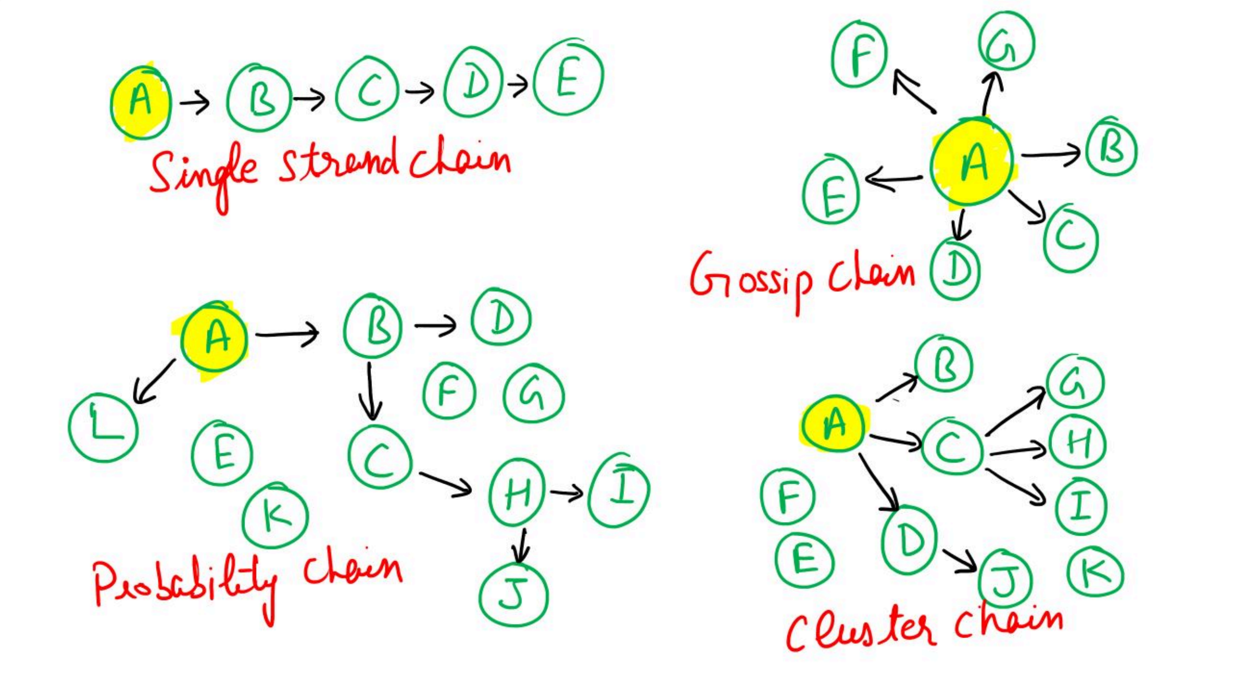
Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

8. Grapevine Communication

Grapevine Communication refers to the informal and unofficial communication network that exists within an organization. It is characterized by the transmission of information, rumors, gossip, and unofficial news through unofficial channels, rather than through formal channels of communication. The grapevine network typically spreads information rapidly, reaching individuals or groups within the organization.

Informal communication is implicit, spontaneous multidimensional and varied. It operates with much greater speed than formal communication. It often works in clusters of people, i.e. when one person has some information of interest he passes it on to his informal group and some members of the group may pass it on to another informal group and so on. This is why some researchers prefer to call it an 'organization', 'bush telegraph' or 'jungle telegraph'.



Grapevine communication has been classified into 4 types:

1. Single Strand Chain

In this type of grapevine communication the information passes through a number of persons like a chain. A tells something to B, who tells it to C, who tells it to D and so on.

It is generally a long chain. The longer the chain the greater is the possibility of distortion of the information.

2. Gossip Chain

In Gossip Chain one person actively conveys information to other persons around him. A circle or wheel-like figure is formed in this communication. Here, in this picture. A is at the centre and transmits messages to 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F, 'G', and 'H' around him/her. Gossip Chain is generally used when information to be communicated is non-job oriented in nature.

3. Probability Chain

It is a random process in which information may move from one person to any other person or persons according to law of probability. Naturally, in this type of communication, some people of the organisation will be informed and some others will remain outside the arena of communication.

Here, in the illustration, E, F, G and K are outside the communication chain. This chain is used when information is interesting but less important.

4. Cluster Chain

Cluster chain is mostly used and the dominant pattern of grapevine communication. In this type one person tells something to some selected trust worthy persons. Some of these persons may inform a few selected other individuals. Here in the picture, A tells some selected and trustworthy persons, B, C and D. C again relays it to his selected persons, G, H and I. D tells J, a person of his choice. E and F remain outside the cluster.

1. The main challenges of grapevine communication are: **(UGC NET 28th Nov 2021 Morning paper)**

a. Its formal nature
b. Distortion
c. Misunderstanding
d. Source anonymity
e. Conformity

- a, c and d only
- a, b and c only
- b, c and d only
- c, d and e only

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

1. Verbal and non-Verbal Communication

Sorry

Because of its privacy settings, this video cannot be played here.

Verbal communication and non-verbal communication are two essential forms of human interaction. While verbal communication involves the use of spoken or written words, non-verbal communication relies on other cues and behaviors to convey messages and information.

Both Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication are discussed next.

1. In describing elements of communication, a person or an event which provides verbal or non-verbal cues to wh someone can respond is known as: **(UGC NET 3rd Dec 2021 Morning paper)**

- Message
- Channel
- Communication context
- Source

Check

Question: 1 of 1 questions

2. Verbal Communication

Verbal communication is the transmission of messages using words, encompassing both oral and written forms. It specifically involves the use of linguistic expressions, spoken or written, to convey information, ideas, or emotions.

This mode of communication excludes non-linguistic vocal sounds such as laughter, vocalized pauses ('er,' 'um,' 'ah'), and other oral responses that lack words. Verbal communication distinctively focuses on language-based expressions, excluding non-word-based vocal sounds or nonverbal cues like facial expressions, gestures, and eye movements.

Examples of Verbal Communication:

- *Spoken Conversations:* When people talk to each other, sharing information, discussing ideas, or having a casual conversation.
- *Written Messages:* Emails, letters, reports, texts, or any form of written communication that uses words to convey a message.
- *Public Speaking:* Delivering a speech or presentation where words are used to inform, persuade, or entertain.
- *Scripted Dialogue:* Lines spoken by actors in a play, movie, or television show to convey the storyline.
- Verbal Instructions: Giving someone directions, explaining a process, or providing guidance using spoken words.

Examples NOT Considered Verbal Communication:

- *Laughter:* Laughing is a nonverbal form of expressing emotions and is not considered part of verbal communication.
- *Vocalized Pauses:* Sounds like "um," "ah," or "uh" made during speech that indicate hesitation or pauses; these are not considered part of verbal communication.
- *Non-Word Responses:* Utterances like "ha-ha," "aha," or "ugh!" that convey emotions or reactions but don’t involve meaningful words.

1. Which of the following are identified as verbal communication skills? **(UGC NET 28th Nov 2021 Evening pape**

A. Use of aggressive language
B. Assertiveness
C. Opening feedback channels
D. Taking credit for oneself
E. Use of affirmative words

- ○ B, C and E only
- ○ C, D and E only
- ○ B, C and D only
- ○ A, B and C only

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

3. Principles of Verbal Communication

The principles of verbal messages that define how verbal messages work in interpersonal communication, are discussed below:

1. Interplay of Verbal and Nonverbal Messages

Verbal and nonverbal cues collaborate to convey a unified message. These signals often work together, reinforcing the intended message. For instance, when saying "I'm so excited," a wide smile and enthusiastic tone accentuate the excitement.

2. Message Meaning Is Constructed

Message meaning isn't simply received but constructed by the interaction of messages and the receiver's thoughts and feelings. It depends on one's personal and cultural perspectives. For example, the phrase "I'm fine" can have different meanings depending on the context and the person's tone.

3. Denotation and Connotation

Messages possess denotative (dictionary) and connotative (emotional) meanings. Denotation is the objective definition, while connotation is the subjective, emotional meaning. Take the word "home" as an example; denotatively, it's a physical dwelling, but connotatively, it carries emotions and memories.

4. Variation in Abstraction

Messages range from specific and concrete to abstract and general. Effective communication involves choosing the right level of abstraction. Specific terms guide listeners' thoughts more effectively. For instance, saying "sports car" is more specific than "vehicle" and paints a clearer mental image.

5. Variation in Politeness

Messages can vary in politeness, from impolite to extremely polite, with consideration for maintaining positive and negative "face." Politeness in communication is about balancing the need to be viewed favorably by others (positive face) and the need to maintain one's autonomy (negative face). Cultural variations in politeness are significant. For instance, addressing someone as "sir" or "ma'am" demonstrates politeness and respect for positive face, while phrasing a request politely preserves negative face by allowing the person the option to refuse.

6. Sender Identification in Messages

Messages can be categorized as onymous, where the sender is clearly stated, like in news articles or personal conversations, or anonymous, where the sender remains unidentified, such as in online reviews on platforms like RateMyProfessor.com.

7. Truthfulness and Deception

Some messages convey truth, while others deceive. For instance, a factual news report is truthful, while a misleading advertisement might be deceptive.

8. Variation in Assertiveness

Communication styles vary in assertiveness, aiming to express one's opinions respectfully without suppressing others. For example, in group discussions, an assertive person respectfully expresses their disagreement without dominating the conversation.

9. Confirmation and Disconfirmation

Messages can confirm or disconfirm individuals. Disconfirmation might ignore or contradict someone's self-perception, while confirmation validates and accepts others. An example of disconfirmation is dismissing someone's ideas in a meeting, while acknowledgment and respect represent confirmation.

10. Cultural Sensitivity in Messages

Messages can vary in their level of cultural sensitivity. Being culturally sensitive means using language and behavior that respect diverse cultures. For example, avoiding language or jokes that may offend specific cultural groups demonstrates cultural sensitivity.

1. In verbal communication, words act as: **(UGC NET 20th Dec 2018 Morning)**

- Passive barriers
- Decorative
- Symbols
- Fillers

Check

Question: 1 of 2 questions

4. Non-Verbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is the exchange of messages without the use of words. It encompasses actions like gestures, facial expressions, eye movements, physical proximity adjustments, clothing and accessories choices, physical touch, vocal tone variations, and even silence. What's essential in nonverbal communication is that the message conveyed is perceived by one or more individuals.

For instance, if you make a gesture while alone in a room with no observers, most experts would argue that communication did not occur. The same principle applies to verbal messages; if you deliver a speech that goes unheard, it also lacks communication.

Proficiency in utilizing nonverbal communication offers two significant advantages.

Firstly, a heightened ability to transmit and interpret nonverbal cues tends to enhance one's attractiveness, popularity, and overall psychosocial well-being.

Secondly, enhanced nonverbal communication skills often lead to success in various interpersonal communication scenarios, spanning from intimate relationships and workplace interactions to cross-cultural exchanges, legal proceedings, political engagements, and healthcare settings.

1. The means of non-verbal communication are: **(UGC NET 24th December 2021)**

A. Spoken language
B. Time language
C. Sign language
D. Space language
E. Written language

- D, C and E only
- A, B and C only
- B, C and D only
- A, D and E only

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

5. Principles of non-Verbal Communication

Principles of Nonverbal Communication are discussed below:

1. Nonverbal messages interact with verbal messages

Nonverbal messages intersect with verbal messages in six primary ways: they can accentuate, complement, contradict, control, repeat, or substitute for each other. For instance, when verbally expressing excitement about a topic, nodding your head enthusiastically accents your words, reinforcing your enthusiasm nonverbally.

2. Nonverbal messages help manage impressions

Nonverbal messages play a pivotal role in impression management. It is primarily through observing others' nonverbal cues that you form impressions of them, while your own nonverbal behavior shapes the impressions they develop about you. For instance, a firm handshake may convey confidence and reliability in a job interview.

3. Nonverbal messages help form relationships

Nonverbal messages are instrumental in forming relationships. They convey a spectrum of emotions, from affection and support to displeasure and anger. For example, offering a comforting hug communicates support and empathy during a difficult time.

4. Nonverbal messages structure conversations

Nonverbal messages structure conversations by signaling readiness to speak, listen, or respond. For instance, maintaining eye contact and nodding affirmatively can indicate active listening during a discussion.

5. Nonverbal messages can influence and deceive

Nonverbal messages hold influence and can deceive. Beyond spoken words, nonverbal signals also have the power to persuade or mislead others. An individual might use a convincing tone and maintain direct eye contact to deceive someone about their true intentions.

6. Nonverbal messages are crucial for expressing emotions

Nonverbal messages play a vital role in emotional expression. While emotions are often communicated verbally, nonverbal cues, such as facial expressions or body language, convey a substantial part of an individual's emotional experience. For instance, a beaming smile can convey happiness more effectively than words in certain situations.

1. Which of the following influence non-verbal communication? **(UGC NET 24th Nov 2021 Evening paper)**

A. Avoidance of signals
B. Invisible incongruence
C. Culture
D. Geographical location
E. Contextuality

- A, B and C only
- A, D and E only
- C, D and E only
- B, C and D only

Check

Question: 1 of 4 questions

6. Channels of non-Verbal Communication

Nonverbal communication involves a variety of channels, which are discussed below:

1. Body Messages

In much interpersonal interaction, it’s the person’s body that communicates most immediately. *Kinesics* refers to the study of body movements and posture, including various components such as gestures, head movements, posture, eye contact, and facial expressions.

The body gestures are of 5 types:

- *Emblems* are symbolic movements that substitute for words, like the universally recognized "peace" sign or culturally specific gestures. Example: “Okay” sign, “Come here” wave, hitchhiker’s sign.
- *Illustrators* complement verbal messages by making communication more vivid and engaging, enhancing comprehension. Example: Circular hand movements when talking of a circle, hands far apart when talking of something large
- *Affect displays* are the facial expressions that convey emotional states, whether intentionally or inadvertently. Example: Expressions of happiness, surprise, fear, anger, sadness, disgust, contempt, and interest
- *Regulators* are the subtle cues that guide and manage the flow of conversation, signaling expectations and preferences. Example: Facial expressions and hand gestures indicating “Keep going,” “Slow down,” or “What else happened?”
- *Adaptors* are often unconscious movements satisfying underlying needs, occurring without deliberate awareness. Example: Scratching head, chewing on pencil, adjusting glasses

2. Facial Communication

During interpersonal interactions, facial expressions mainly convey emotions, particularly indicating feelings of pleasantness, agreement, and sympathy. In contrast, the body's movements generally don't add extra emotional information. However, both facial and bodily cues come into play when assessing the intensity of emotions experienced in these interactions.

3. Eye Communication

Occulesis is the study of the messages communicated by the eyes, which vary depending on the duration, direction, and quality of the eye behavior.

Eye contact in communication serves several vital functions, including monitoring feedback, securing attention, regulating conversations, signaling relationship dynamics, indicating status, and compensating for physical distance. It helps speakers gauge the listeners' reactions, maintaining conversation flow and conveying emotions, relationships, and social status, thus playing a significant role in effective communication.

4. Touch Communication

Tactile communication, or communication by touch, also referred to as *haptics*, is perhaps the most primitive form of communication.

Touch serves various purposes in nonverbal communication. It conveys emotions like support, appreciation, and affection, while also facilitating self-disclosure and fostering positive perceptions of sincerity and friendliness. Touch can signify playfulness, control, or serve ritualistic functions such as greetings or departures. Task-related touch, linked to performing functions like assisting someone, is generally perceived positively, resulting in enhanced attitudes and behaviors, such as increased tipping in restaurants and improved customer satisfaction.

5. Paralanguage

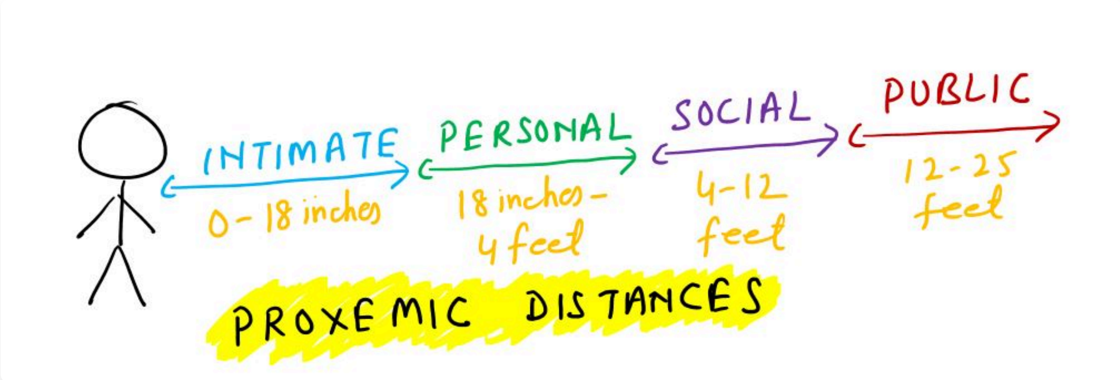
Paralanguage is the vocal but nonverbal dimension of speech. It has to do with the manner in which you say something rather than with what you say. *Stress* (on one or more words) is one of the main aspects of paralanguage. In addition to stress, paralanguage includes vocal characteristics such as *rate* and *volume*. Paralanguage also includes the vocalizations that we make when laughing, yelling, moaning, whining, and belching; vocal segregates—sound combinations that aren’t words—such as “uh-uh” and “shh”; and *pitch*, the highness or lowness of vocal tone.

6. Silence

Silence, much like words and gestures, plays various roles in communication. It offers a space for thought and organization of verbal messages, can be employed to hurt or punish others through the silent treatment, may act as a response to personal anxiety, and can be used to prevent certain messages from being communicated in conflict situations. Silence also serves to convey emotions and can be strategically positioned to achieve specific effects, such as emphasizing the importance of a comment or indicating greater concern.

7. Spatial Messages

Space is an especially important factor in interpersonal communication, although we seldom think about it. Edward T. Hall, who pioneered the study of spatial communication, called this area *Proxemics.*



Four proxemic distances, the distances we maintain between each other in our interactions, correspond closely to the major types of relationships:

- *Intimate Distance* (0 to 18 inches) constitutes the closest personal space, fostering close and confidential interactions. In this intimate zone, privacy is upheld, enabling hushed conversations and physical proximity typically reserved for those with strong emotional ties or affectionate relationships.
- *Personal Distance* (18 inches to approximately 4 feet) serves as a protective zone, enabling limited touch within the close phase, extending to personal control boundaries in the far phase. It facilitates interaction with specific individuals and demands etiquette for breath control.
- *Social Distance* (4 to 12 feet) blurs close visual details, signifying a shift to more formal interactions in the far phase, often used in professional settings. Eye contact becomes crucial at this level, where vocal volume also elevates.
- *Public Distance* (12 to over 25 feet) provides a safety zone for defensive actions, where limited facial details can be observed, suitable for public scenarios such as transport, keeping individuals at a considerable distance to ensure safety.

8. Artifactual communication

Artifactual communication consists of messages conveyed by objects that are made by human hands. Thus, aesthetics, color, clothing, jewelry, and hairstyle, as well as scents such as perfume, cologne, or incense, all are considered artifactual.

9. Olfactory messages

Smell plays a vital role in nonverbal communication and can be categorized under artifactual communication, encompassing both scents like perfumes and body odors. The intriguing aspect is that smell not only affects how others perceive you but also influences your own emotional state. Olfactory communication, or olfactics, is highly significant in various contexts, allowing people to identify relatives, sense fear, and even perceive illness.

10. Temporal communication

The study of temporal communication, known technically as *Chronemics*, concerns the use of time—how you organize it, react to it, and communicate messages through it.

Psychological time orientation includes past, present, and future perspectives, with implications for personal and professional aspects. Socioeconomic class and cultural influences shape these orientations. Interpersonal time elements like punctuality, duration, and talk time impact interactions. Cultural time encompasses formal and informal divisions, influencing communication with different perspectives on time units like seconds, minutes, and unique informal terms.

1. Which of the following constitute the paralanguage in communication? **(UGC NET 18th Dec 2018 Evening)**

(a) Pitch of the voice
(b) Internal noise
(c) External noise
(d) Use of pause
(e) Rate and volume of speech

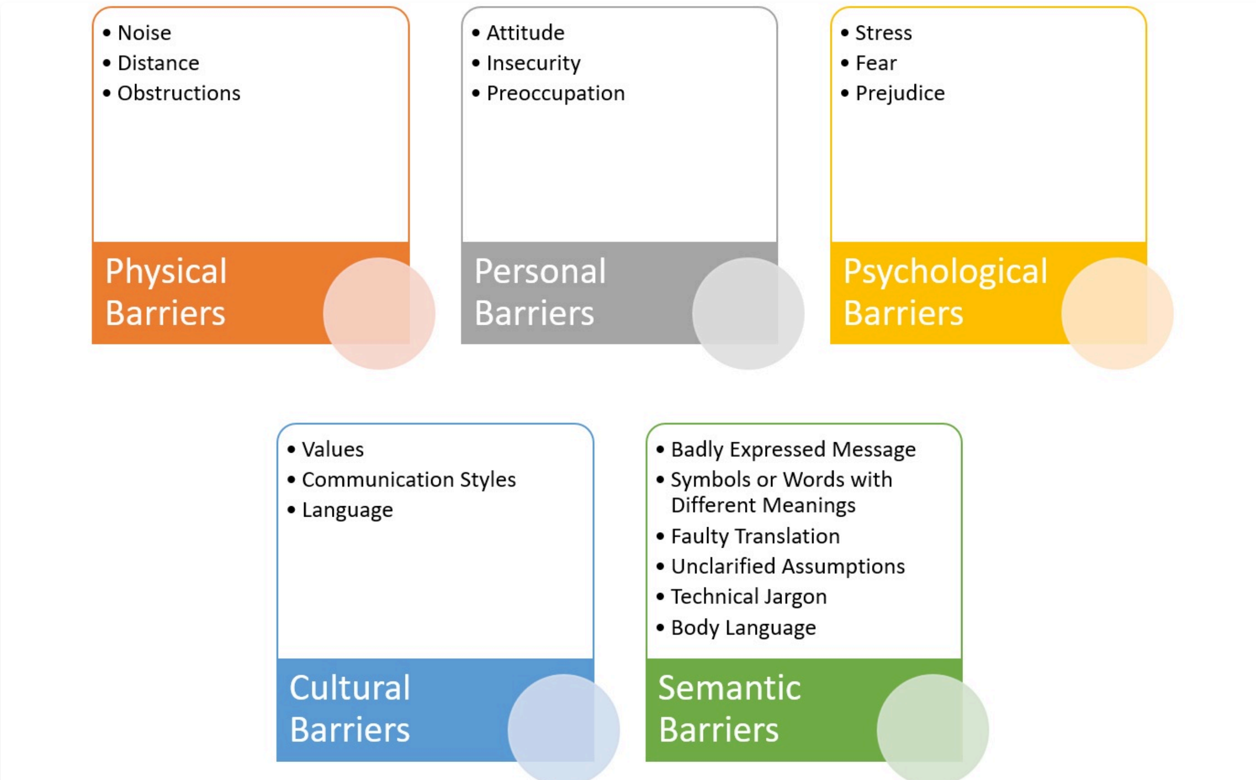
- (a), (c) and (e)
- (a), (b) and (c)
- (a), (d) and (e)
- (b), (c) and (d)

Check

Question: 1 of 4 questions

1. Barriers to Communication

Communication will be effective only when employees understand, accept and act upon the information that has been transmitted to them. The sender of message must know the various barriers that can impede not only transmission of information but also affect understanding and acceptance of it. Communication barriers cause the breakdown of the communication process leading to many managerial problems.



Different Categories of barriers are discussed next.

1. Identify the barriers to communication from the list given below : **(UGC NET 20th November 2021 Evening pa**

A. Time and distance
B. By-passed instructions
C. Encoding of thoughts and ideas
D. Decoding of thoughts and ideas
E. Logical sequence

- D and E only
- A and B only
- B and C only
- C and D only

Check

Question: 1 of 2 questions

1. Barriers to Communication

Physical obstacles that impede the transmission of messages are called physical barriers. Examples of physical barriers include:

- *Noise:* High levels of noise in the environment can make it difficult for people to hear and understand messages.
- *Distance:* When people are physically far apart, it can be challenging to communicate effectively, especially when relying on face-to-face communication.
- *Physical Obstructions:* Objects or structures that physically block or interfere with communication, such as walls or partitions, can be physical barriers.

1. Which of the following is an example of physical barrier to communication? **(UGC NET 22nd November 2021 E paper)**

- Verbalism
- Cultural disparity
- Inattention
- Ill health

Check

Question: 1 of 1 questions

1. Barriers to Communication

Personal barriers to communication refer to individual factors that can impact the transmission and understanding of messages. Examples of personal barriers include:

- *Attitude:* Negative attitudes or perceptions can prevent people from actively listening or engaging with messages.
- *Insecurity:* People who are insecure may have difficulty communicating effectively, as they may be too nervous or self-conscious to express themselves clearly.
- *Preoccupation:* People who are preoccupied with their own thoughts or activities may not be fully present or attentive to messages.

1. Which of the following can be considered as personal barriers in communication? **(UGC NET 21st Oct 2022 M shift)**

a. Regular message assessment
b. Immediate feedback
c. Poor retention
d. Failure to respond
e. Trust deficit in encoder

- c, d, e
- a, b, c
- a, c, d
- b, c, d

Check

Question: 1 of 1 questions

1. Barriers to Communication

Psychological barriers to communication refer to mental or emotional factors that can impact the transmission and understanding of messages. Examples of psychological barriers include:

- *Stress:* High levels of stress can make it difficult for people to think clearly or communicate effectively.
- *Fear:* People who are afraid or anxious may have difficulty expressing themselves or engaging with messages.
- *Prejudice:* Prejudices or biases can impact how people perceive and interpret messages, leading to misunderstandings or misinterpretations.

1. Which of the following can be considered as psychological barriers to effective communication? **(UGC NET 29t 2020 Morning paper)**

a. Descriptive message
b. Inattentiveness
c. Too much reliance on the written word
d. Limited retention
e. Logical organization
f. Flow of thought

- c, d and e only
- a, b and c only
- d, e and f only
- b, c and d only

Check

Question: 1 of 5 questions

1. Barriers to Communication

Cultural differences can impact how messages are perceived and understood. Examples of cultural barriers include:

- *Differences in Values:* Different cultures may have differing values, beliefs, and norms, which can impact how messages are perceived and understood.
- *Differences in Communication Styles:* Different cultures may have distinct styles of communication, such as the use of body language, tone of voice, or gestures, which can lead to misunderstandings.
- *Differences in Language*: Language differences can create barriers to communication, especially when people are not fluent in the same language or when technical terms are used.

1. In communication, cross-cultural barrier refers to: **(UGC NET 29th Nov 2021 Evening paper)**

- ○ Perceptions of people
- ○ Physical entities
- ○ General human values
- ○ Sincerity of speaker

Check

Question: 1 of 2 questions

1. Barriers to Communication

Semantic barriers to communication refer to difficulties with language, including the use of jargon or technical terms that may not be understood by the recipient. Some examples are:

- Badly Expressed Message
- Symbols or Words with Different Meanings
- Faulty Translation
- Unclarified Assumptions
- Technical Jargon
- Body Language and Gesture Decoding

1. Semantic barrier of communication is implied when the: **(UGC NET 24th June 2019 Evening Paper)**

- ○ receiver's attention is diverted
- ○ receiver does not understand the meaning of the message
- ○ message transmitted by the source is unclear
- ○ signal is lost before reaching the receiver

Check

Question: 1 of 3 questions

1. Barriers to Communication

Few other barriers of communication are filtering, selective perception, information overload, emotional disconnects, lack of source familiarity or credibility, workplace gossip, semantics, gender differences, differences in meaning between Sender and Receiver, and biased language.

- *Filtering* is the distortion or withholding of information to manage a person's reactions. Example of filtering include a manager who keeps his division's poor sales figures from his boss, the vice president, fearing that the bad news will make him angry. A gatekeeper who doesn't pass along a complete message is also filtering.
- *Information overload* can be defined as "occurring when the information processing demands on an individual's time to perform interactions and internal calculations exceed the supply or capacity of time available for such processing." Messages reach us in countless ways every day. Some are societal—advertisements that we may hear or see in the course of our day. Others are professional—e-mails, and memos, voice mails, and conversations from our colleagues. Others are personal—messages and conversations from our loved ones and friends. Add these together and it's easy to see how we may be receiving more information than we can take in. This state of imbalance is known as information overload.
- *Emotional disconnects* happen when the Sender or the Receiver is upset, whether about the subject at hand or about some unrelated incident that may have happened earlier. An effective communication requires a Sender and a Receiver to be open to speaking and listening to one another. Both parties may have to put their emotions aside to achieve the goal of communicating clearly. A Receiver who is emotionally upset tends to ignore or distort what the Sender is saying. A Sender who is emotionally upset may not present ideas effectively.
- *Gender* refers to the social and cultural characteristics associated with being male or female, including norms, behaviors, values, and attitudes. Gender can influence communication style, expectations, and power dynamics.
- *Defensiveness* refers to the tendency of individuals to protect themselves and their position in a conflict or challenge by denying responsibility, making excuses, or attacking others. This can create a barrier to effective communication and problem-solving.

1. Which of the following are barriers to effective communication? **(UGC NET 21st June 2019 Morning Paper)**

(a) Physical noise
(b) Semantic noise
(c) Psychological noise
(d) Non-semantic noise

- (a), (c) and (d)
- (a), (b) and (d)
- (a) and (d) only
- (a), (b) and (c)

Check

Question: 1 of 4 questions

2. Selectivity in Communication

Selectivity in communication refers to the deliberate and sub-unconscious process of choosing what information to pay attention to and what to filter out. It is influenced by factors such as personal interests, beliefs, and cognitive limitations, and it plays a significant role in shaping how individuals perceive and interpret the world around them. Selectivity can lead to a narrowing of focus, as people tend to prioritize information that aligns with their existing biases, preferences, and goals, while ignoring or discounting information that contradicts or challenges their existing views.

Different kinds of selectivity in Communication are: (1) selective exposure (2) selective attention (3) selective perception (4) selective retention.

1. Selective Exposure

Selective exposure refers to the fact that individuals tend to accept communication messages consistent with their existing attitudes and beliefs.

4 parts of Selective Exposure are:

1. *Involvement:* when we are a part of something, we are most interested in it and want to know more about it.
2. *Proximity:* a less popular TV show will air after a popular TV show in hopes that people won't change the channel.
3. *Utility:* we expose ourselves to people we feel will be useful.
4. *Reinforcement:* We don't expose ourselves to things that make us feel bad.

2. Selective Attention

Selective attention is the cognitive process where individuals filter and prioritize specific incoming stimuli while ignoring others, allowing only chosen information to enter their conscious awareness.

5 parts of Selective Attention are:

1. *Novelty:* New things get your attention, Old things don't get your attention.
2. *Concreteness:* we like to see what is actually going on.
3. *Less Competing Stimuli:* we pay more attention where there is less competition.
4. *Momentum:* once you start paying attention, you keep paying attention, and vice versa
5. *Utility:* we expose ourselves to people we feel will be useful.

3. Selective Perception

It refers to the fact that individuals tend to interpret stimuli in terms of their existing attitudes or beliefs. Four parts of Selective Perception are:

1. *Understand Biases:* Our self-interests shape what we see and hear.
2. *Reduce Ambiguity:* create all sorts of misunderstandings.
3. *Use Redundancy:* use of additional or repetitive information to enhance understanding.
4. *Focus on the Listener's Needs:* such as need for control; need for inclusion; need for affection; and need for efficacy.

4. Selective Retention

It refers to an individual's tendency to recall only information pertinent to their own needs and dispositions. Four parts of Selective Retention are:

1. *Redundancy & Repetition:* individuals tend to remember information that is reinforced through repetition or redundancy.
2. *Utility:* we expose ourselves to people we feel will be useful.
3. *Primacy/Recency:* often remember the first and the last, but the middle fades out
4. *Salience:* might not be as interesting/useful, but you remember it because you've never thought about that before.

1. We listen attentively to and favorably interpret messages which boost our self-image, and reject or misinterpret which threaten that image. This is called: **(UGC NET 25th June 2020 Evening paper)**

- communication selectivity
- communication distortion
- image rationalization
- change resistance

Check

Question: 1 of 2 questions

3. Effective Communication Skills

Effective communication skills encompass the ability to convey messages clearly and concisely, actively listen to others, and adapt communication to suit the audience and context. These skills involve not only speaking and writing but also non-verbal cues like body language, and they play a vital role in building strong relationships, resolving conflicts, and achieving successful outcomes in both personal and professional interactions.

By employing the following strategies, individuals can enhance their communication abilities:

- *Enhance Clarity:* Use clear and concise language, organize thoughts coherently, and avoid ambiguity. Clear communication ensures that the message is easily understood by others.
- *Active Listening:* Give full attention to the speaker, focus on understanding their message, and provide appropriate responses. Active listening demonstrates respect, empathy, and a genuine interest in understanding others.
- *Non-Verbal Communication:* Pay attention to body language, facial expressions, gestures, and tone of voice. These non-verbal cues can significantly impact the message being conveyed and help establish rapport and connection.
- *Adaptability and Flexibility:* Tailor communication style, tone, and approach to suit the specific context and needs of the audience. Adapting to different situations and individuals enables effective communication and fosters understanding.
- *Cultural Sensitivity:* Recognize and respect cultural differences in communication styles, values, norms, and language. Cultural sensitivity promotes inclusivity and helps avoid misunderstandings and conflicts.
- *Empathy:* Seek to understand others' perspectives, feelings, and experiences. Demonstrating empathy allows for more meaningful and compassionate communication.
- *Feedback:* Encourage open and honest feedback, both giving and receiving it constructively. Feedback helps clarify understanding, address misconceptions, and improve future communication.
- *Emotional Intelligence:* Be aware of your emotions and those of others, and manage them effectively. Emotional intelligence enables better self-expression, understanding, and relationship-building.
- *Conflict Resolution:* Develop skills in resolving conflicts and disagreements peacefully and constructively. Effective communication during conflicts promotes understanding, collaboration, and mutually beneficial outcomes.
- *Continuous Learning:* Cultivate a mindset of continuous learning and improvement in communication skills. Seek feedback, reflect on experiences, and actively seek opportunities to develop and refine communication abilities.

1. What are the barriers to effective communication? **(UGC NET Jul 2016)**

- ○ Dialogue, summary and self-review
- ○ Moralizing, being judgmental and comments of consolation
- ○ Personal statements, eye contact and simple narration
- ○ Use of simple words, cool reaction and defensive attitude

Check

Question: 1 of 4 questions

4. Types of Listeners

Listening is a fundamental component of effective communication, and individuals can exhibit various listening styles or types. These listening styles reflect how people approach and engage with information when they are on the receiving end of a conversation or message. By recognizing and adapting to different listening styles, communicators can enhance the clarity and impact of their messages, ultimately leading to more successful and productive interactions.

Listeners can be categorized into 4 general types based on their level of engagement and understanding:

1. Non-listeners

These individuals show little to no effort in hearing and understanding what is being said. They may appear disinterested, have a blank stare, and exhibit nervous mannerisms or gestures. Non-listeners often have their minds elsewhere and may not actively engage in the conversation.

2. Marginal listeners

Marginal listeners listen superficially, focusing more on formulating their own responses rather than fully understanding the message. They can be easily distracted by environmental factors, such as noises or their own thoughts. Marginal listeners may miss important details or nuances in the conversation.

3. Evaluative listeners

Evaluative listeners actively try to hear the speaker's words but tend to focus solely on the content without considering the speaker's intent or non-verbal cues. They are often logical and unemotional, evaluating the message based on its logical merits rather than considering the speaker's emotions or underlying meaning.

4. Active listeners

Active listening represents the highest level of engagement and understanding. Active listeners suspend their own thoughts and judgments, focusing their attention on understanding the speaker's perspective. They aim to comprehend not only the words spoken but also the emotions, thoughts, and intentions behind them. Active listeners pay attention to non-verbal cues, such as body language and facial expressions, to gain a comprehensive understanding of the speaker's message.

Drag the words into the correct boxes

- is engaged in information other than the one need
- pays heed to the communicated information occasionally
- receives information without processing the significance in the context of communication
- looks into the relevance of the information for understanding its implication

Non-l

Margina

Evaluati

Active

Check

Question: 1 of 1 questions

1. Introduction

Decision making is the process of choosing a course of action from several alternatives to achieve a specific goal or outcome. It involves evaluating the available options, weighing their potential consequences, and making a choice that is most likely to result in a desired outcome. Decision making is a critical component of problem solving, planning, and managing, as it helps individuals and organizations determine the best way to allocate resources, respond to challenges, and achieve their objectives.

As Peter F. Drucker famously stated, "Whatever a manager does, he does through decision making." This applies not just to managers, but to all professionals, including teachers.

Here are two examples illustrating decision making in the business world:

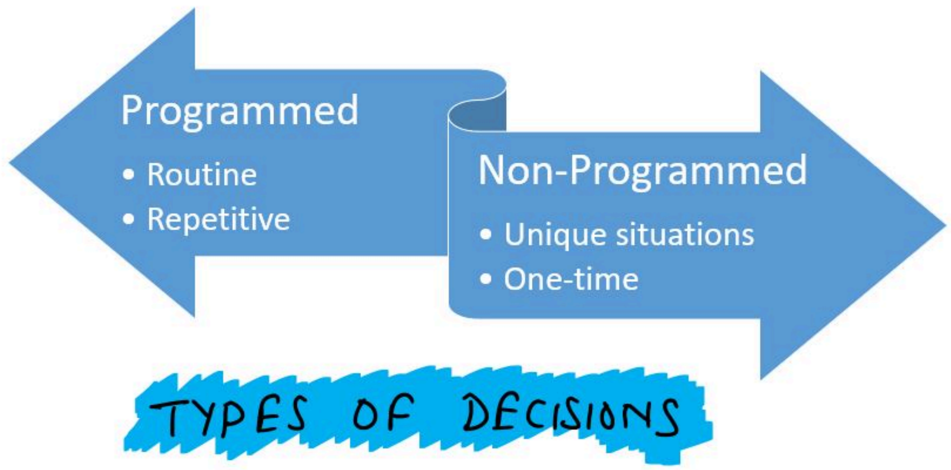
Product Launch Strategy

Imagine a company developing a new product. The decision-making process involves evaluating different launch strategies. A manager assesses factors like market research, target audience, budget allocation, and competitor analysis to decide between a phased rollout or a big-bang launch. Each approach has its risks and benefits, requiring careful evaluation to maximize success.

Hiring Process

In recruiting, decision making is fundamental. HR managers assess candidates based on qualifications, experience, cultural fit, and potential contributions to the organization. They weigh these factors to choose the best candidate for a role. This decision can significantly impact team dynamics, productivity, and overall company culture.

1. Introduction



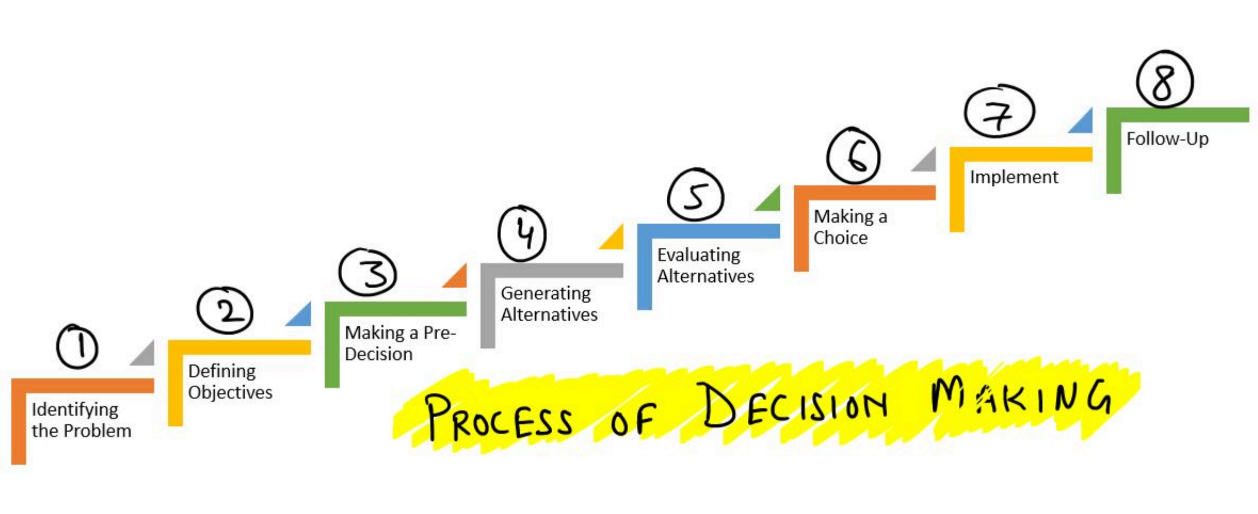
Simon (1977) distinguishes between Programmed (routine, repetitive) decisions and Non-programmed (unique, one-shot) decisions. While programmed decisions are typically handled through structured or bureaucratic techniques (standard operating procedures), non-programmed decisions must be made by managers using available information and their own judgement.

For example, a programmed decision might involve an automated inventory system that routinely orders stock when supplies drop below a certain threshold. This process follows a set protocol without requiring managerial intervention.

Conversely, a non-programmed decision could be a company's response to a sudden market disruption, like the emergence of a new technology, demanding strategic adjustments and creative solutions from managers, as there are no established protocols to address such unprecedented challenges.

2. Process of Decision Making

Decision making is a complex process that involves multiple steps. Managers use different techniques to make a decision, ranging from mathematical analysis to guesswork. The selection of the appropriate technique depends on the judgment of the person who is making the decision.



Following are the important steps of the decision making process. Each step may be supported by different tools and techniques.

1. **Identifying the Problem:** The first step in the decision making process is to identify the problem that needs to be solved. This involves recognizing the issue and deciding how to approach it.
2. **Defining Objectives:** The next step is to define the objectives that must be met in order to solve the problem. This involves conceiving the problem in a way that makes it possible to identify possible solutions.
3. **Making a Pre-Decision** : The third step is to make a pre-decision. This involves assessing the type of problem and other aspects of the situation to determine how best to approach the decision making process. The manager may decide to make the decision themselves or seek assistance from others.
4. **Generating Alternatives**: The fourth step is to generate alternatives. This involves identifying possible solutions to the problem, whether by relying on previously used approaches or exploring new options.
5. **Evaluating Alternatives**: The fifth step is to evaluate the alternatives generated in step four. Some alternatives may be more effective, while others may be more difficult to implement. The alternatives are evaluated based on their feasibility.
6. **Making a Choice**: The sixth step is to make a choice. Out of the several evaluated alternatives, the manager selects the one that is most acceptable.
7. **Implementation**: The seventh step is to implement the chosen alternative. This involves carrying out the solution that was selected.
8. **Follow-Up**: The final step is to follow up, which involves monitoring the effectiveness of the chosen solution. The manager reviews whether the chosen alternative is working, and makes any necessary adjustments.

Example: A manager is faced with a problem of increasing employee morale in the workplace. The following steps can be taken to make a decision:

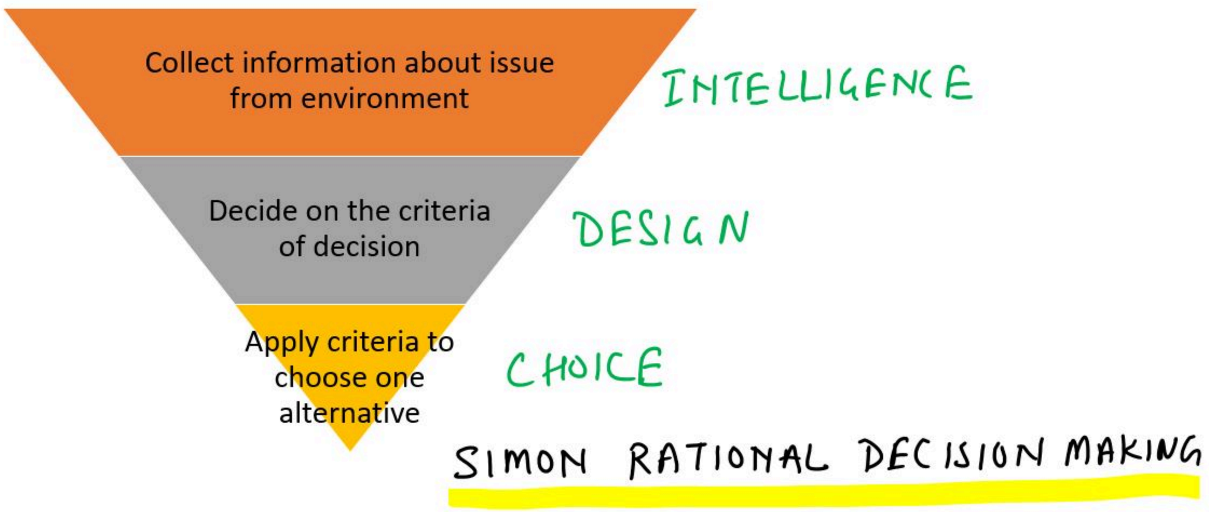
1. **Identifying the problem** - low employee morale
2. **Defining objectives** - increase employee morale
3. **Making a pre-decision** - the manager decides to gather data and conduct surveys to gather information about the employees
4. **Generating alternatives** - the manager considers offering additional benefits, organizing team building activities, and improving the workplace environment
5. **Evaluating alternatives** - the manager considers the feasibility of each alternative and their potential impact on employee morale
6. **Making a choice** - the manager decides to offer additional benefits and improve the workplace environment
7. **Implementation** - the manager implements the chosen solution by offering additional benefits and making changes to the workplace environment
8. **Follow-up** - the manager regularly monitors employee morale to ensure the chosen solution is effective.

3. Models of Decision Making

Let us now discuss some of prominent models of decision making.

3. Models of Decision Making

Decision making, as Herbert Simon illustrated, involves three stages:
(i) Intelligence,
(ii) Design, and
(iii) Choice.



Let us understand these 3 stages, with an example, in the decision-making process. Consider a company aiming to expand its market presence by launching a new product line.

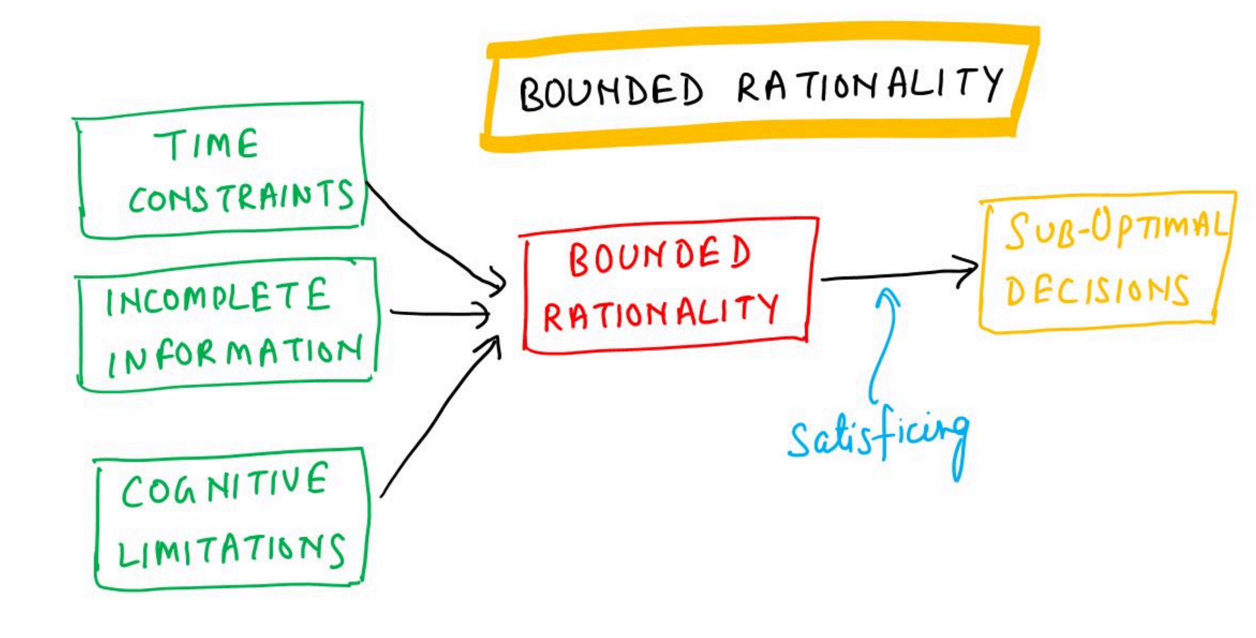
In the **intelligence stage**, the management team collects extensive data: market trends, consumer behavior, competitor analysis, production costs, and potential risks. They explore various avenues like market research reports, consumer surveys, and industry expert opinions to gather comprehensive information about potential market opportunities and challenges.

Moving to the **design stage**, the team determines the critical criteria for success, such as market demand, production feasibility, and profitability. They weigh these criteria to prioritize and rank them based on their importance in achieving the company's objectives. For instance, they might identify that consumer demand and production costs are the most pivotal factors for success.

Finally, in the **choice stage**, the management applies the predefined criteria to evaluate various product options. They analyze how each product aligns with the identified criteria. Using sophisticated analytical tools or decision models, they might select the product line that strikes the best balance between meeting consumer demand and maintaining feasible production costs.

The decision-making process here involves collecting intelligence about market conditions, defining essential criteria, and choosing the most viable product line, mirroring the three stages delineated by Simon. Additionally, Decision Support Systems (DSS) can assist managers in this process by organizing data, prioritizing criteria, and generating optimal solutions to aid decision making.

3. Models of Decision Making



The decision-making process is simpler in simple situations, where the sequence of events is easier to analyze. But, in complex situations involving multiple decision points, rationality in decision-making can be compromised.

Bounded rationality, a term introduced by Herbert Simon, Nobel Prize-winning economist, challenges the notion of human decision-making as entirely rational. It suggests that due to inherent cognitive limitations, people are unable to make fully rational choices, and their decision-making abilities are bound or constrained by factors like limited information, cognitive capacity, and time pressures. It leads to *satisficing* rather than optimizing outcomes.

1. Incomplete Information

Decision-makers often operate in environments where information is scarce or incomplete. For example, when considering a new market entry strategy, executives might lack comprehensive data about local consumer behaviors, market trends, or competitor strategies. In such cases, they might base decisions on available information, leading to a satisfactory but not necessarily optimal choice.

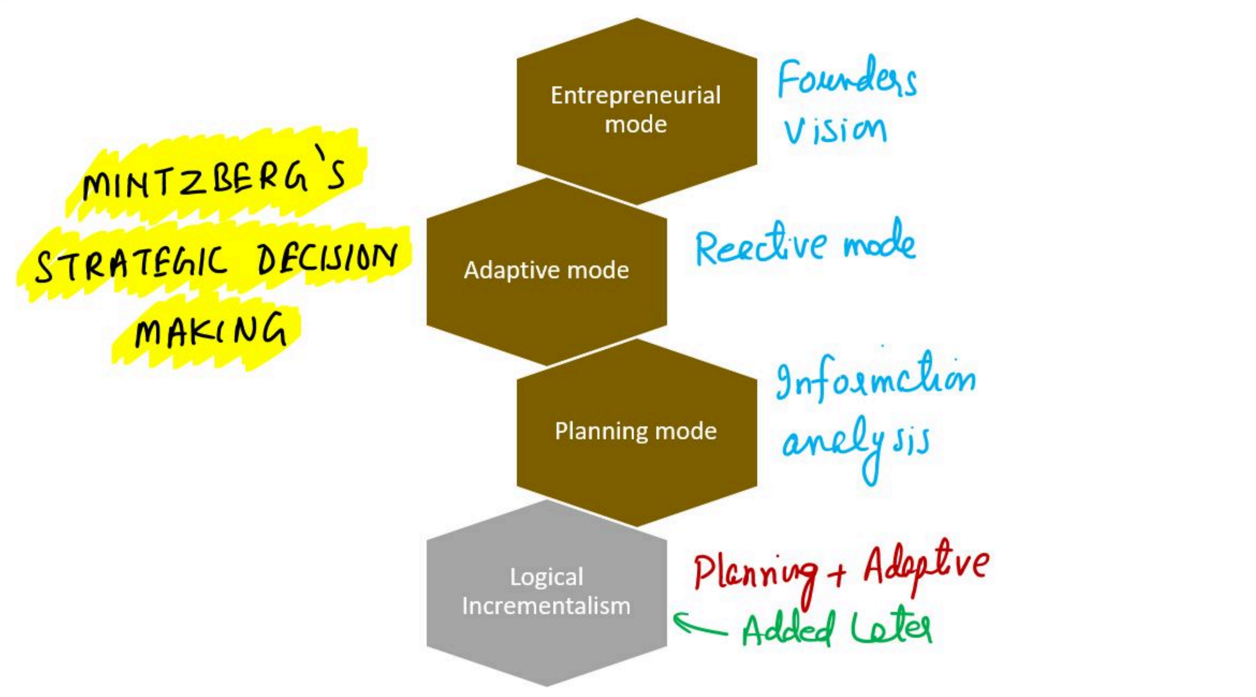
2. Time Constraints

In business, quick decisions are often essential. However, these time pressures restrict the ability to analyze all available options thoroughly. For instance, during a financial crisis, company leaders might need to decide promptly on cost-cutting measures. This urgency might limit their ability to consider all long-term implications, resulting in choices aimed at immediate relief rather than a more strategically sound resolution.

3. Cognitive Limitations

Decision-makers have limited cognitive capacities, leading to difficulties in processing vast amounts of information. When confronted with complex decisions, individuals might use simplified decision rules or heuristics. For instance, in project management, when allocating resources among multiple projects, managers might prioritize based on past successes rather than a comprehensive analysis of each project's potential.

3. Models of Decision Making



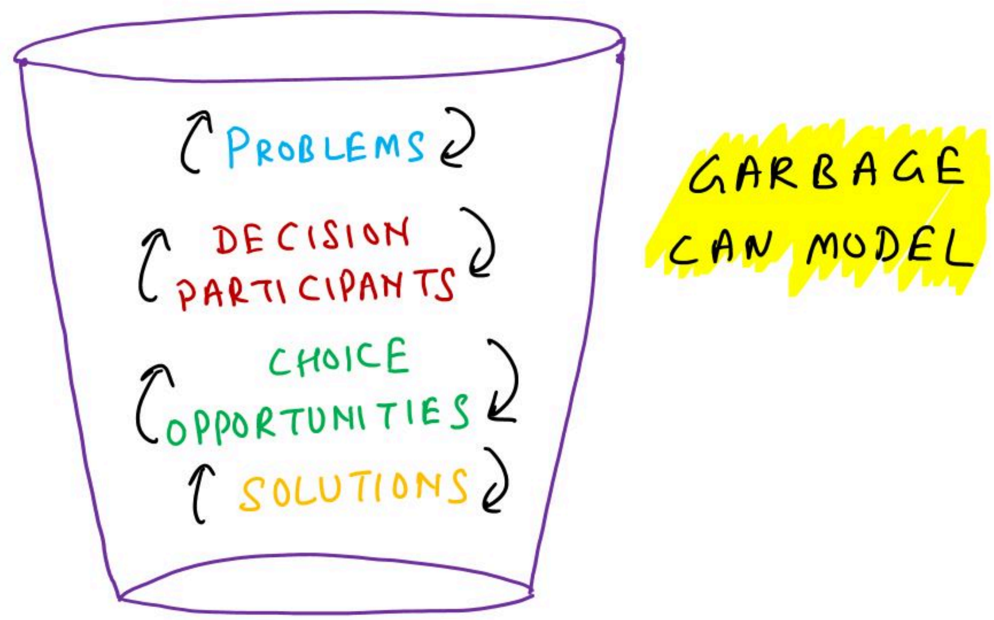
The Mintzberg Strategic Decision Making model identifies three modes of strategic decision-making: entrepreneurial, adaptive, and planning.

1. **Entrepreneurial mode strategy** is created by individuals with entrepreneurial skills such as innovation and risk-taking. The focus is on opportunities and problems are secondary. A good example of this mode is Biocon India, founded by Kiran Mazumdur Shaw, where the strategy is guided by the founder's vision.
2. **Adaptive mode** also known as "muddling through," is characterized by reactive solutions to existing problems rather than a proactive search for new opportunities. The strategy is fragmented and developed incrementally, making this mode typical of many universities, large hospitals, and governmental agencies.
3. **Planning mode strategy** is developed through a systematic gathering of information, analysis of the situation, generation of alternative strategies, and rational selection of the best strategy. Both proactive search for new opportunities and reactive solutions to existing problems are included. Hewlett-Packard (HP) is an example of this mode.

Logical Incrementalism: Quinn added a fourth approach called logical incrementalism, where top management first develops a clear understanding of the company's mission and objectives. Strategy is allowed to emerge through debate, discussion, and experimentation. This mode is useful in rapidly changing environments and emphasizes building consensus and developing resources before fully committing to a strategy.

3. Models of Decision Making

The Garbage Can Model, developed by Cohen, March, and Olsen, offers an alternative perspective to decision-making within organizations. This model describes decision-making as occurring in an environment of "organized anarchy," characterized by unclear preferences, ambiguous technologies, and a fluid decision-making process.



In this model, four variables or "streams"— (i) problems, (ii) decision participants, (iii) choice opportunities, and (iv) solutions— interact in a dynamic way within a decision space resembling a garbage can.

Unlike traditional rational models, the Garbage Can Model doesn't follow a linear sequence; solutions might be seeking problems, the expertise of participants influences problem selection, and available choices determine the solutions.

Moreover, it diverges from the notion of a feedback loop. Rather than waiting until the end to precisely define the solution, this model assumes that the solution's content is anticipated and shapes resource availability, influencing the choice of intervention along the way.

This model often reflects how many managers navigate decisions—relying on accumulated managerial experience, improvisation, and adaptability rather than strictly following predefined logical processes. The model acknowledges the influence of situational factors, resources, and individual expertise on decision-making, often resulting in a more organic and less linear approach.

Let us consider a univrsity administration facing a challenge of declining enrollment. Within the Garbage Can Model's framework:

(i) **Problems**: The university administration identifies declining enrollment as a significant issue, recognizing it as a problem that needs resolution.

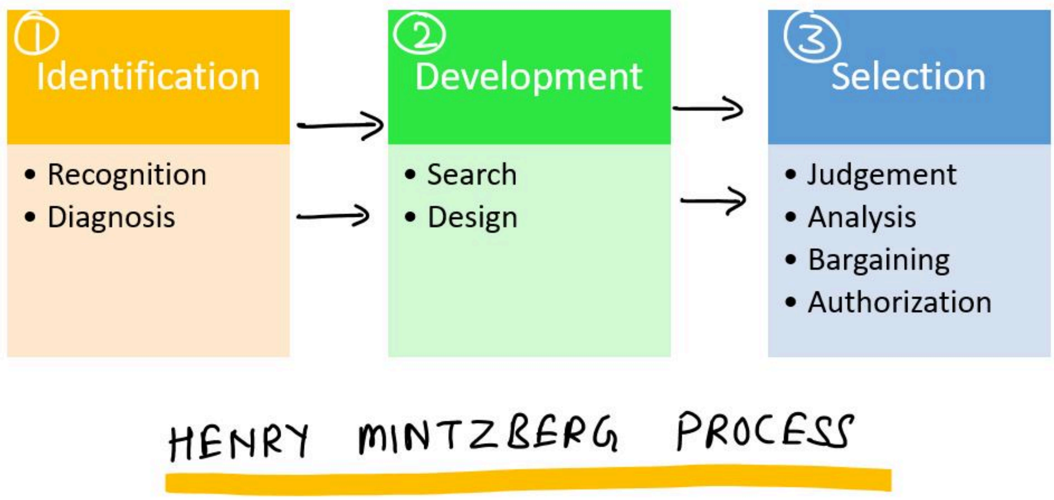
(ii) **Decision Participants**: Various stakeholders are involved—administrators, faculty members, student representatives, and marketing experts—each contributing their perspectives and expertise to address the enrollment issue.

(iii) **Choice Opportunities**: A sudden surplus budget is allocated for new initiatives, presenting an opportunity to invest in attracting students. Additionally, a new grant for innovative educational programs becomes available.

(iv) **Solutions**: The faculty proposes introducing new courses and flexible scheduling to attract a wider student base. Simultaneously, the marketing team suggests a rebranding campaign highlighting the university's unique strengths. Another proposal involves investing in online learning platforms to appeal to a broader demographic of students.

These streams interact in an unpredictable manner within the decision-making process. The declining enrollment problem intersects with the choice opportunities created by surplus budget allocations and grants. The decision participants explore various solutions proposed by different teams, and the final decision might result from a convergence of these elements, occurring opportunistically rather than following a structured and sequential approach.

3. Models of Decision Making



Henry Mintzberg and his colleagues (1976) conducted a study on the decision-making process in organizations.

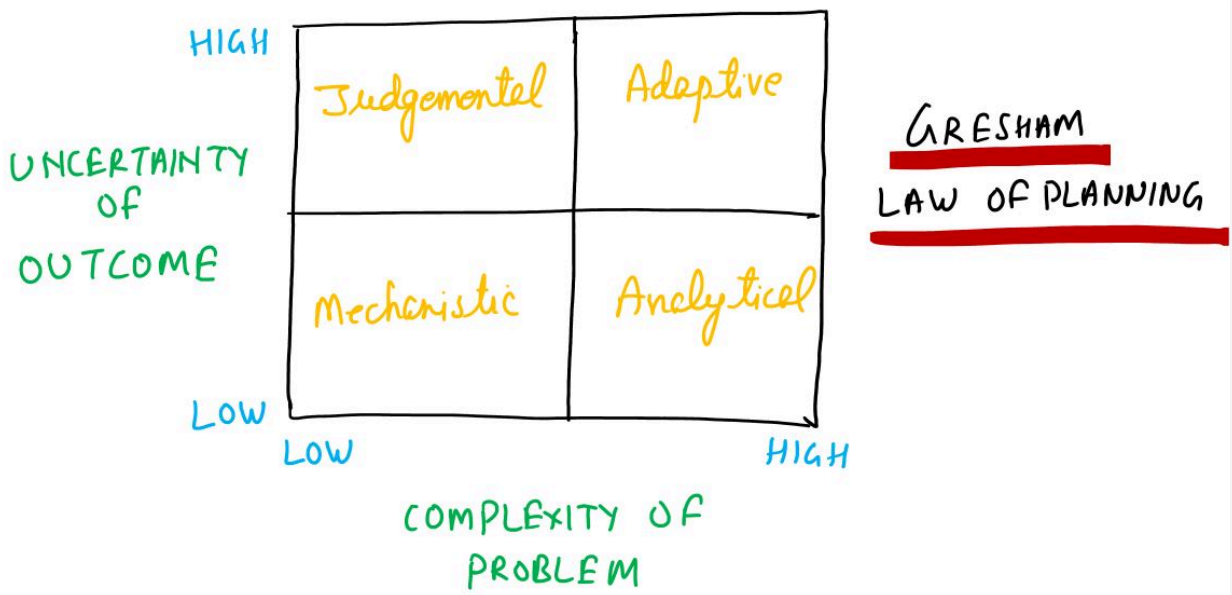
They identified three phases in the process:

1. **Identification phase:** This is the stage where a problem or opportunity is recognized and a diagnosis is made.
2. **Development phase**: In this phase, decision makers may search for existing standard procedures or ready-made solutions, or design a new, customized solution. The design process is often a trial and error process, and decision makers may have only a vague idea of the ideal solution.
3. **Selection Phase**: During this phase, a solution is chosen. There are three ways to make this choice: by the judgement of the decision maker, based on experience or intuition; by analyzing the alternatives systematically; or by bargaining when a group of decision makers is involved. Once the decision is formally accepted, authorization is granted.

This three-phase model sheds light on the complexities of the decision-making process in organizations and how it often involves a mixture of intuition, trial and error, and systematic analysis.

3. Models of Decision Making

Gresham's Law of Planning is an important principle in organizational design that impacts managerial decision making. It suggests that programmed activities tend to receive more attention than non-programmed activities, so decisions that are routine and repetitive are usually made before those that require more thought and consideration.



Two key factors in decision making are:

1. The complexity of the problem.
2. The level of certainty regarding the outcome of a decision.

Based on these two dimensions, four types of decision modes can be identified:

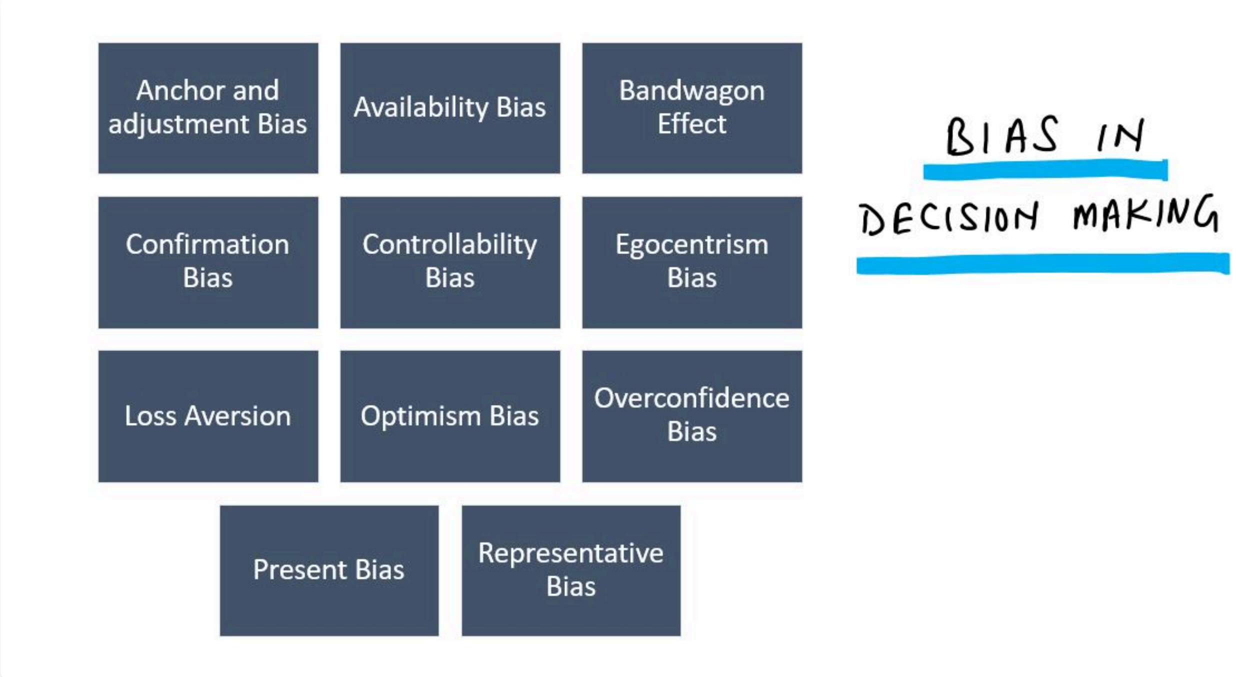
1. Mechanistic Decisions: These are routine and repetitive in nature, and involve a limited number of decision variables with known outcomes.

2. Analytical Decisions: These involve problems with many decision variables, where the outcomes of each alternative can be computed. Examples of such problems include complex production and engineering challenges.

3. Judgmental Decisions: These involve problems with a limited number of decision variables, but the outcomes of the alternatives are unknown. Examples include marketing, investment, and resource allocation problems.

4. Adaptive Decisions: These involve problems with many decision variables and unpredictable outcomes. Because of the complexity and uncertainty of such problems, decision makers may struggle to agree on their nature or on decision strategies.

4. Bias in Decision Making



Some of the prominent biases in decision making are:

1. Anchor and adjustment bias: Occurs when a decision-maker starts with an initial value, also known as an "anchor," and fails to adjust sufficiently from that point before making a decision. For example, a person may start with an anchor of $100 for a product they want to buy and only adjust slightly upward or downward, even though the actual value of the product may be much different.

2. Availability Bias: Availability bias occurs when a person judges the probability of an event based on information that is readily available to them. For instance, a person may overestimate the likelihood of a natural disaster happening because they have seen frequent news coverage about it, even though the actual likelihood may be low.

3. Bandwagon Effect: The bandwagon effect is the belief in certain outcomes because others believe the same. For example, a person may invest in a stock because they see that everyone else is doing it, even though the stock may not be a good investment.

4. Confirmation Bias: Confirmation bias is the tendency to place extra value on information that supports our favored beliefs, ignore information that does not, and fail to search for impartial evidence. For example, a person who supports a particular political candidate may only seek out news sources that confirm their beliefs and ignore opposing viewpoints.

5. Controllability Bias: Controllability bias is the belief that we can control outcomes more than is actually the case, leading to a misjudgment of the riskiness of our actions. For example, a person may believe they can control the outcome of a risky investment, when in reality, they have little control over the outcome.

6. Egocentrism Bias: Egocentrism bias is the tendency to focus too narrowly on our own perspective, unable to imagine how others will be affected by our actions. For instance, a person may make a decision that only benefits themselves, without considering the impact it may have on others.

7. Loss Aversion: Loss aversion is the preference to avoid losses over acquiring gains of the same amount, making us more risk averse than is rational. For example, a person may choose not to invest in a new business opportunity because they are afraid of losing their money, even though the potential for gain is high.

8. Optimism Bias: Optimism bias is the tendency to be excessively optimistic about the likelihood of positive outcomes from our planned actions and to underestimate negative consequences. For example, a person may start a new business without thoroughly researching the market and competition, leading to a higher likelihood of failure.

9. Overconfidence Bias: Overconfidence bias is the tendency to overestimate our skills and abilities and to take credit for past positive successes while ignoring the luck that might have been involved. For example, a person may believe they are a great stock trader, even though their success may be due to luck or market conditions.

10. Present Bias: Present bias is the tendency to value immediate rewards more highly than long-term gains. For instance, a person may choose to spend their savings on a luxury item instead of saving for their future needs.

11. Representative bias is the tendency to base judgements of probability on things with which we are familiar. For example, a person may believe that all politicians are corrupt because they have only had negative experiences with politicians in the past.

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1. Introduction

Attitude refers to a person's tendency to respond to specific objects, people, or situations. It is a combination of feelings and beliefs that influence an individual's behavior.

Attitudes can be either positive or negative, and they play a significant role in determining an individual's behavior in the workplace. The positive attitudes yield favourable behaviour and the negative attitudes yield unfavourable behaviour. Therefore, all variables must be identified and analysed which help in the formation of favourable attitudes.

Studying attitudes in Organizational Behavior is crucial as it enables predicting behaviors, understanding cultural influences, and managing change effectively. Attitudes strongly affect job satisfaction, employee performance, and organizational culture, guiding decision-making and strategies for conflict resolution and retention.

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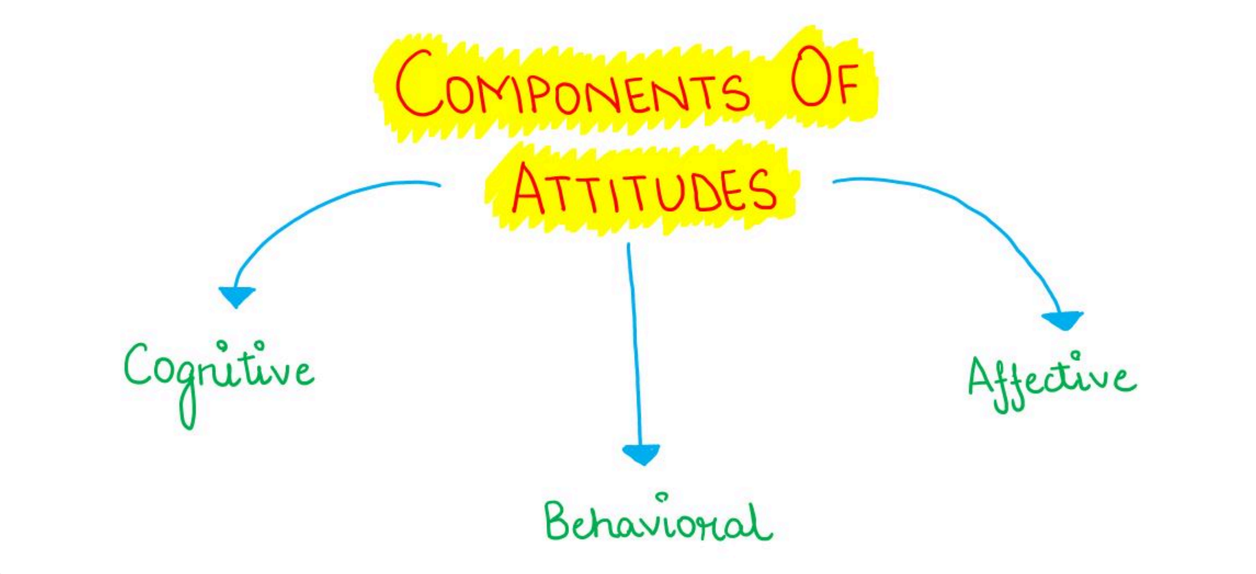
2. Components of attitudes



The three components of attitudes are:

1. Cognitive Component: This component involves the beliefs and perceptions held by an individual about a particular person, object, or situation. The belief that "discrimination is wrong" serves as a value statement, and is an example of the cognitive component of an attitude. Learned beliefs, such as "you need to work long hours to get ahead in this job," can have a significant impact on an individual's behavior in the workplace. The cognitive component of an attitude reflects a person's beliefs and perceptions.

2. Affective Component: This component refers to the emotions and feelings an individual experiences as a result of their beliefs about a person, object, or situation. For example, if a person believes that hard work leads to promotions and then does not receive a promotion despite working hard, they may feel angry or frustrated. The emotional component of an attitude becomes stronger with frequent and direct exposure to a particular person, object, or situation.

3. Behavioural Component: This component pertains to the behavior an individual exhibits based on their feelings about a person, object, or situation. If an individual feels dissatisfied with work, they may choose to complain, request a transfer, or become less productive. The behavioral component of an attitude refers to an individual's intention to act in a certain way towards someone or something.

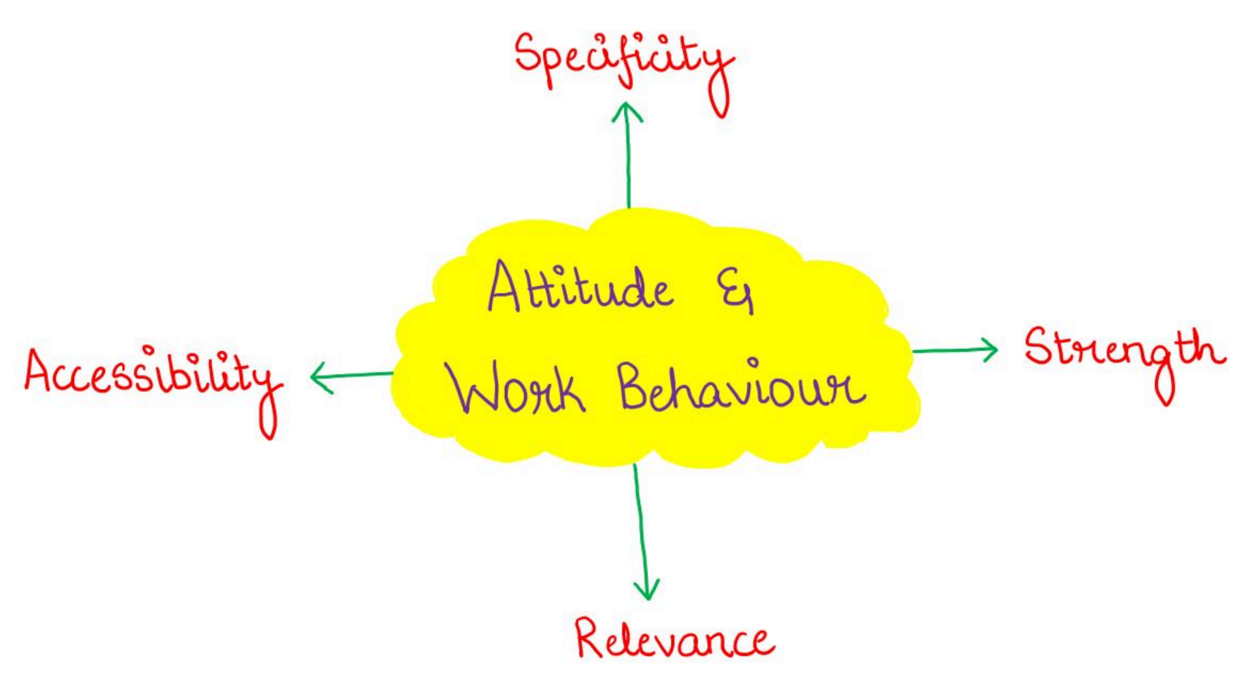
3. Cognitive Dissonance

Cognitive dissonance is a theory presented by psychologist **Leon Festinger**. Cognitive dissonance is a psychological term used to describe the discomfort that arises from conflicting thoughts, beliefs, or attitudes. It occurs when a person's beliefs and actions do not align. This inconsistency creates an unpleasant feeling and a pressure to change one's beliefs in order to reduce the discomfort.

For example, a smoker who holds the belief that smoking is harmful to their health, yet continues to smoke, is experiencing cognitive dissonance. The dissonance arises from the conflict between the belief that smoking is harmful and the behavior of smoking. The individual may feel pressure to either quit smoking or change their belief to align with their behavior.

The severity of cognitive dissonance is dependent on the strength of the reasons behind the conflicting thoughts or behaviors. If there are weak reasons for acting in a manner that is inconsistent with one's beliefs, then the pressure to resolve the dissonance will be stronger. This is because individuals have a strong motivation to reduce the discomfort that arises from cognitive dissonance.

4. Attitude and Work Behaviour



The main aim of research on attitudes is to determine the impact of attitudes on work behavior. It has been established that attitudes can significantly impact behavior, as long as we focus on specific, well-defined attitudes instead of general ones. This is due to the presence of certain moderating variables, which can affect the influence of attitudes on behavior.

Following are the factors which determine degree of influence of attitude on behaviour:

1. **Attitude Specificity**: One of the factors that determine the influence of attitudes on behavior is attitude specificity. Specific attitudes are much more effective in predicting behavior than general attitudes. For example, a person's attitude towards a specific task at work, such as "I really enjoy working on this project," is more likely to impact their behavior in a positive way compared to a general attitude like "I like my job."

2. **Attitude Strength**: Another factor is attitude strength, which refers to the intensity of an attitude. Strong attitudes, or those that are intense, are better predictors of behavior than weak attitudes. For example, a person who has a strong positive attitude towards their job, such as "I love my job," is more likely to exhibit positive behavior at work than someone with a weak positive attitude, such as "I kind of like my job.

3. **Attitude Relevance**: The relevance of an attitude also plays a role in determining its impact on behavior. The relevance of an attitude refers to the extent to which the attitude object has an impact on the person's life. The stronger the impact, the stronger the link between the attitude and behavior. For example, a person who has a strong attitude towards their job, such as "I love my job," will be more likely to exhibit positive behavior at work if their job has a significant impact on their life.

4. **Attitude Accessibility**: The ease with which specific attitudes can be brought into consciousness from memory also plays a role in determining the impact of attitudes on behavior. The greater the accessibility of an attitude, the stronger the impact on behavior. For example, a person who has a strong positive attitude towards their job and can easily recall it, will be more likely to exhibit positive behavior at work compared to someone with a strong positive attitude towards their job but has difficulty bringing it to consciousness.

5. Major Job work-related attitudes

The study of job-related attitudes is crucial for organizations to understand the impact of attitudes on work behavior. The following are the major job-related attitudes that organizations should be aware of:

1. **Job Satisfaction**: Job satisfaction refers to the attitudes people hold towards their jobs. It is a combination of cognitive, affective, and evaluative reactions to the job.

2. **Job Involvement**: This attitude reflects how individuals identify with their job and whether the outcome of their work is tied to their self-worth.

3. **Organizational Commitment**: This attitude explains how people feel about their organizations. It reflects the extent to which individuals identify with and are involved with their organizations and are reluctant to leave them. organizations should continuously monitor the attitudes of their personnel at the workplace, so that proactive measures can be taken to ensure desirable behavior.

4. **Perceived Organizational Support**: This refers to the employees' perception of the support they receive from the organization.

5. **Employee Engagement**: Employee engagement is a measure of an individual's involvement and commitment to their job.

By continuously monitoring these job-related attitudes, organizations can take steps to maintain a positive work environment and improve overall job satisfaction, commitment, and engagement of their personnel.

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1. Attitude scaling

Attitude scaling involves evaluating an individual's attitudinal inclination by representing it with a numerical value on a scale, depicting a spectrum from highly favorable to extremely unfavorable sentiments. Scaling refers to the "method of assigning numbers (or other symbols) to a characteristic of objects to imbue those properties with numerical qualities." In practice, numbers are allocated to indicators of object properties. For example, the measurement of temperature employs a thermometer, where mercury expands or contracts to indicate temperature variations. Likewise, assessing one's attitude towards their university can involve multiple scales capturing diverse facets of their awareness, emotions, or behavioral inclinations related to the institution.

Type	Restrictions	Scale Items	Data Type
Rating Scales			
Simple Category Scale	Needs mutually exclusive choices.	One or more	Nominal
Multiple Choice Single-Response Scale	Needs mutually exclusive choices; may use exhaustive list or "other."	Many	Nominal
Multiple Choice Multiple-Response Scale (checklist)	Needs mutually exclusive choices; needs exhaustive list or "other."	Many	Nominal
Likert Scale	Needs definitive positive or negative statements with which to agree/disagree.	One or more	Interval
Likert-type Scale	Needs definitive positive or negative statements with which to agree/disagree.	One or more	Ordinal or interval
Semantic Differential Scale	Needs words that are opposites to anchor the graphic space.	One or more	Interval
Numerical Scale	Needs concepts with standardized or defined meanings; needs numbers to anchor the end-points or points along the scale; score is a measurement of graphical space from one anchor.	One or many	Ordinal or interval
Multiple Rating List Scale	Needs words that are opposites to anchor the end-points on the verbal scale.	Up to 10	Ordinal or interval
Fixed (Constant) Sum Scale	Participant needs ability to calculate total to some fixed number, often 100.	Two or more	Ratio
Stapel Scale	Needs verbal labels that are operationally defined or standard.	One or more	Ordinal or interval
Graphic Rating Scale	Needs visual images that can be interpreted as positive or negative anchors; score is a measurement of graphical space from one anchor.	One or more	Ordinal, interval, or ratio
Ranking Scales			
Paired Comparison Scale	Number is controlled by participant's stamina and interest.	Up to 10	Ordinal
Forced Ranking Scale	Needs mutually exclusive choices.	Up to 10	Ordinal
Comparative Scale	Can use verbal or graphical scale.	Up to 10	Ordinal

Types of Scaling

Measurement scales fall into one of four general types: rating, ranking, categorization, and sorting.

A **rating scale** is used when participants score an object or indicant without making a direct comparison to another object or attitude. For example, they may be asked to evaluate the styling of a new automobile on a 7-point rating scale.

Ranking scales constrain the study participant to making comparisons and determining order among two or more properties (or their indicants) or objects. Participants may be asked to choose which one of a pair of cars has more attractive styling.

A **choice scale** requires that participants choose one alternative over another. They could also be asked to rank-order the importance of comfort, ergonomics, performance, and price for the target vehicle. Categorization asks participants to put themselves or property indicants in groups or categories. Asking auto show attendees to identify their gender or ethnic background or to indicate whether a particular prototype design would appeal to a youthful or mature driver would require a category response strategy.

Sorting requires that participants sort cards (representing concepts or constructs) into piles using criteria established by the researcher. The cards might contain photos or images or verbal statements of product features such as various descriptors of the car's performance.

Let us discuss various types of scales, which are used in questionare design.

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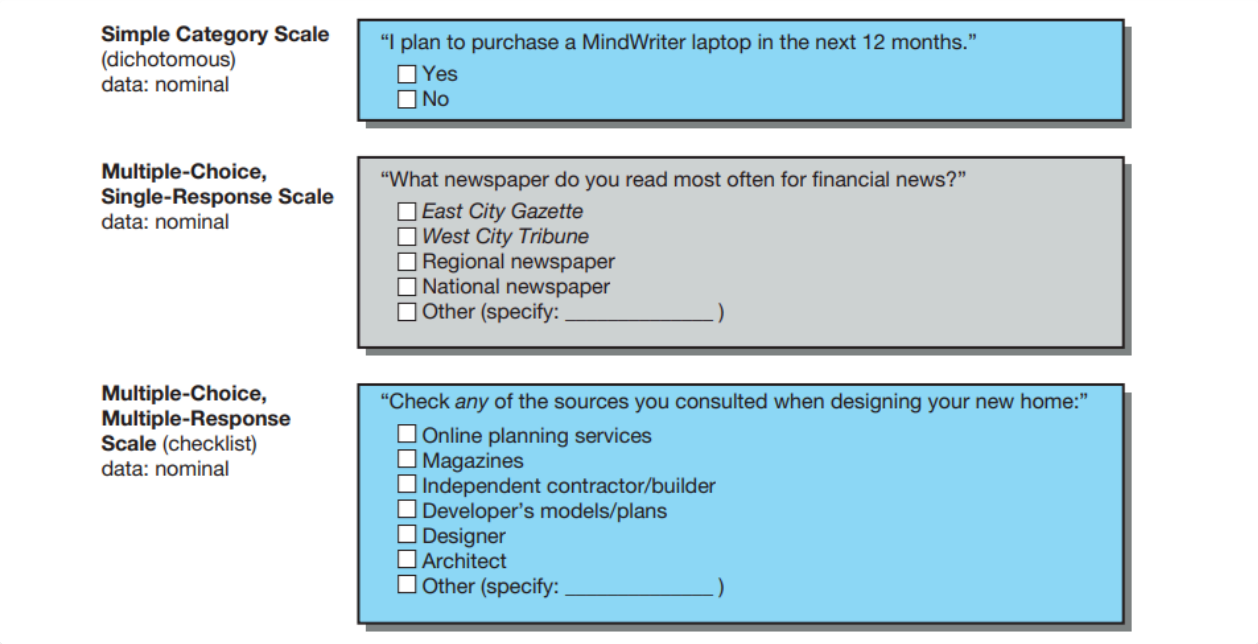
1. Attitude scaling



Simple Attitude Scales manifest in 3 distinct types:

Dichotomous Scale (Simple Category Scale)

The dichotomous scale provides a choice between two exclusive responses, such as "yes" and "no," or other contrasting categories like "important" and "unimportant," suitable for scenarios requiring a straightforward dichotomous answer, often seen in demographic inquiries. For instance, in a survey asking about satisfaction with a product, respondents might choose either "satisfied" or "unsatisfied." This scale is ideal for straightforward, binary inquiries.

Single-Response Multiple-Choice Scale

In situations where respondents have multiple options but are expected to select only one answer, the single-response multiple-choice scale fits best. This scale usually offers primary alternatives covering the majority of the range, occasionally complemented by an "other" category. Both this scale and the dichotomous scale yield nominal data. Imagine a survey inquiring about preferred genres of music. Respondents are prompted to select one genre from options like rock, pop, jazz, or classical.

Multiple-Response Multiple-Choice Scale (Checklist)

Another variant, the multiple-response multiple-choice scale (also known as a checklist), permits respondents to select one or more alternatives. While advantageous for capturing a comprehensive overview of participant choices, it can pose challenges in reporting, particularly if research sponsors anticipate responses to sum up to 100 percent. This scale also generates nominal data. Consider a survey asking respondents about the types of exercises they engage in regularly. Participants can select all options that apply, such as jogging, weightlifting, yoga, or swimming.

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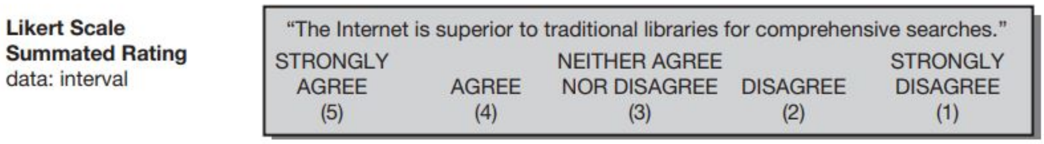
1. Attitude scaling

The Likert scale, developed by Rensis Likert, is the most frequently used variation of the summated rating scale. Summated rating scales consist of statements that express either a favorable or an unfavorable attitude toward the object of interest. The participant is asked to agree or disagree with each statement. Each response is given a numerical score to refl ect its degree of attitudinal favorableness, and the scores may be summed to measure the participant's overall attitude.

The scale produces interval data.



Originally, creating a Likert scale involved a procedure known as **item analysis** . In the first step, a large number of statements were collected that met two criteria: (1) Each statement was relevant to the attitude being studied; (2) each was believed to refl ect a favorable or unfavorable position on that attitude.

People similar to those who are going to be studied were asked to read each statement and to state the level of their agreement with it, using a 5-point scale. A scale value of 1 indicated a strongly unfavorable attitude (strongly disagree). The other intensities were 2 (disagree), 3 (neither agree nor disagree), 4 (agree), and 5 (strongly agree), a strongly favorable attitude.

To ensure consistent results, the assigned numerical values are reversed if the statement is worded negatively (1 is always strongly unfavorable and 5 is always strongly favorable). Each person's responses are then added to secure a total score. The next step is to array these total scores and select some portion representing the highest and lowest total scores (generally defi ned as the top and bottom 10 to 25 percent of the distribution). The middle group (50 to 80 percent of participants) are excluded from the subsequent analysis.

The two extreme groups represent people with the most favorable and least favorable attitudes toward the attitude being studied. These extremes are the two criterion groups by which individual items are evaluated. Item analysis assesses each item based on how well it discriminates between those persons whose total score is high and those whose total score is low. It involves calculating the mean scores for each scale item among the low scorers and high scorers.

1. Attitude scaling

The Thurstone Scale, known as an **equal-appearing interval scale**, differs from the Likert scale in its approach. In a Thurstone Scale, each item in a set isn't considered equal; instead, items are scaled along the attitude being measured. Each item is assigned a specific scale value indicating the strength of attitude for an agreement response to that item. These items are arranged in a way that indicates different levels of agreement, rather than being viewed as equal in their attitude or value.

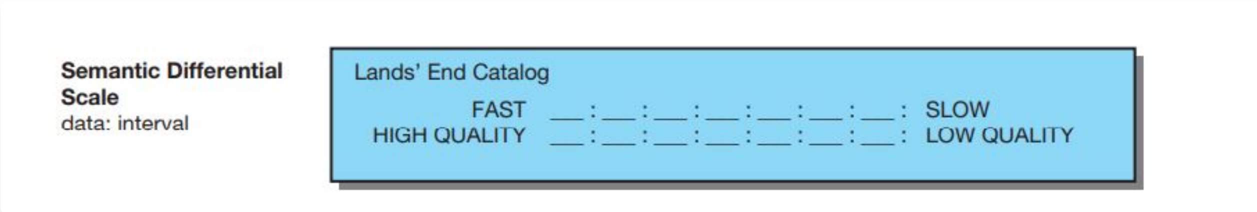
Constructing a Thurstone Scale tends to be more challenging compared to the Likert or summated scale, yet both methods generally yield similar outcomes. Respondents select the items they agree with, and each chosen item corresponds to a certain number of points (scale value). The points for each item are added up and then divided by the number of answered items, yielding an average score for each respondent. A higher score indicates a more favorable attitude.

The Likert scale was born out of the Thurstone scale four years after the invention of the latter. The aim of developing the Likert scale was to simplify the complex Thurstone scale and ensure that it is more reliable.

The major differences between the two scales are that while the Thurstone scale has a complex scoring system, and time-consuming developing format, the Likert scale is simplified, and has less development time. Also, unlike the Thurstone scale that requires the intervention of intermediary judges, which can be often biased and unreliable, the Likert scale doesn’t require interventions and is rather more reliable.

1. Attitude scaling

The Semantic Differential (SD), developed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum in 1957, serves as an attitude scale focusing on the evaluative domain and the affective dimension.



The semantic differential scale measures the psychological meanings of an attitude object using bipolar adjectives. Researchers use this scale for studies such as brand and institutional image. The method consists of a set of bipolar rating scales, usually with 7 points, by which one or more participants rate one or more concepts on each scale item. The SD scale is based on the proposition that an object can have several dimensions of connotative meaning. The meanings are located in multidimensional property space, called semantic space. Connotative meanings are suggested or implied meanings, in addition to the explicit meaning of an object.

It functions in two key ways: first, measuring the semantic properties of words and concepts, and second, evaluating attitudes. Respondents are prompted to rate an object, like "school" or "supervisor," across a series of opposing adjectives using a seven-point scale to denote the intensity and direction of their feelings toward that object.

This method, analyzed through factor analysis, identifies three main factors of meaning: evaluative, potency, and activity.

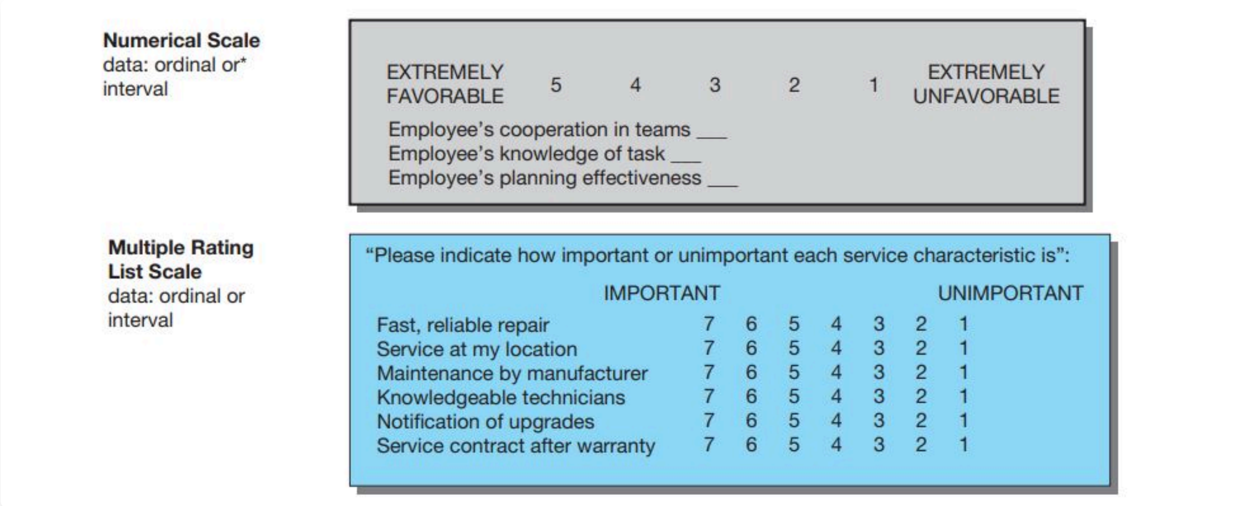
Around 15 to 20 pairs of bipolar adjectives are chosen based on the study's focus on these dimensions. The Semantic Differential efficiently generates substantial data with minimal effort, capturing variances among concepts, scales, and subjects for analysis. For instance, participants rate their perception or feelings towards a supervisor by marking an "X" along the seven-point scale.

The semantic differential has several advantages. It is an effi cient and easy way to secure attitudes from a large sample. These attitudes may be measured in both direction and intensity. The total set of responses provides a comprehensive picture of the meaning of an object and a measure of the person doing the rating. It is a standardized technique that is easily repeated but escapes many problems of response distortion found with more direct methods.

It produces interval data.

1. Attitude scaling

Numerical scales have equal intervals that separate their numeric scale points. The verbal anchors serve as the labels for the extreme points. Numerical scales are often 5-point scales but may have 7 or 10 points. The participants write a number from the scale next to each item. If numerous questions about a product's performance were included in the example, the scale would provide both an absolute measure of importance and a relative measure (ranking) of the various items rated. The scale's linearity, simplicity, and production of ordinal or interval data make it popular for managers and researchers.



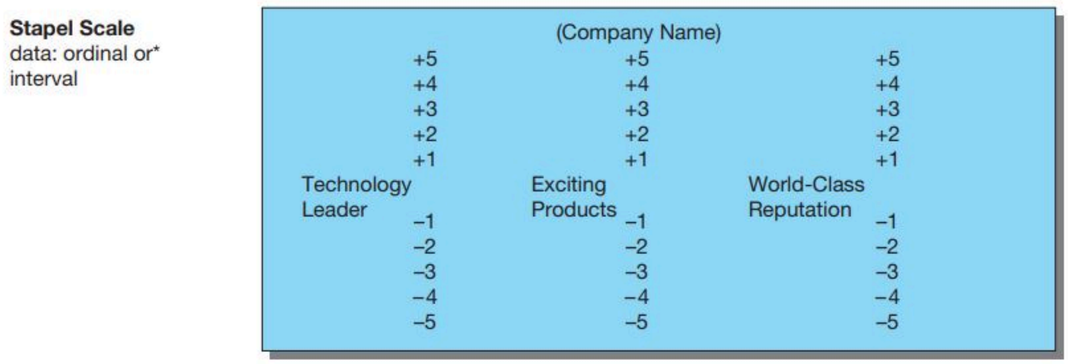
A **multiple rating list scale** is similar to the numerical scale but differs in two ways:
(i) It accepts a circled response from the rater, and
(ii) the layout facilitates visualization of the results.

The advantage is that a mental map of the participant's evaluations is evident to both the rater and the researcher.

This scale produces interval data.

1. Attitude scaling

The Stapel scale is used as an alternative to the semantic differential, especially when it is difficult to find bipolar adjectives that match the investigative question. In the figure, there are three attributes of corporate image. The scale is composed of the word (or phrase) identifying the image dimension and a set of 10 response categories for each of the three attributes.



Fewer response categories are sometimes used. Participants select a plus number for the characteristic that describes the attitude object. The more accurate the description, the larger is the positive number. Similarly, the less accurate the description, the larger is the negative number chosen. Ratings range from 15 to 25, with participants selecting a number that describes the store very accurately to very inaccurately. .

Like the Likert, SD, and numerical scales, Stapel scales usually produce interval data.