

UNIT IV DIRECTING

DEFINITION

"Activating deals with the steps a manager takes to get sub-ordinates and others to carry out plans" - Newman and Warren.

Directing concerns the total manner in which a manager influences the actions of subordinates. It is the final action of a manager in getting others to act after all preparations have been completed.

Characteristics

- Elements of Management
- Continuing Function
- Pervasive Function
- Creative Function
- Linking function
- Management of Human Factor

Scope of Directing

- Initiates action
- Ensures coordination
- Improves efficiency
- Facilitates change
- Assists stability and growth

Elements of Directing

The three elements of directing are

- Motivation
- Leadership
- Communication

CREATIVITY AND INNOVATION

Often used interchangeably, they should to be considered separate and distinct. Creativity can be described as problem identification and idea generation and innovation is considered as idea selection, development and commercialization. Creativity is creation of new ideas and Innovation is implementation of the new ideas. There cannot be innovation without creativity. There can be creativity without innovation but it has no value.

Steps involved in creativity

a) Preparation: This is the first stage at which the base for creativity and innovation is defined; the mind is prepared for subsequent use in creative thinking. During preparation the individual is encouraged to appreciate the fact that every opportunity provides situations that can educate and experiences from which to learn. The creativity aspect is kindled through a quest to become more knowledgeable. This can be done through reading about various topics and/or subjects and engaging in discussions with others. Taking part in brainstorming sessions in various forums like professional and trade association seminars, and taking time to study other countries and cultures to identify viable opportunities is also part of preparation. Of importance is the need to cultivate a personal ability to listen and learn from others.

b) Investigation: This stage of enhancing entrepreneurial creativity and innovation involves the business owner taking time to study the problem at hand and what its various components are.

c) Transformation: The information thus accumulated and acquired should then be subjected to convergent and divergent thinking which will serve to highlight the inherent similarities and differences. Convergent

thinking will help identify aspects that are similar and connected while divergent thinking will highlight the differences. This twin manner of thinking is of particular importance in realizing creativity and innovation for the following reasons:

- One will be able to skim the details and see what the bigger picture is the situation/problem's components can be reordered and in doing so new patterns can be identified.
- It will help visualize a number of approaches that can be used to simultaneously tackle the problem and the opportunity.
- One's decision-making abilities will be bettered such that the urge to make snap decisions will be resisted.

d) Incubation: At this stage in the quest for creativity and innovation it is imperative that the subconscious reflect on the accumulated information, i.e. through incubation, and this can be improved or augmented when the entrepreneur:

- Engages in an activity completely unrelated to the problem/opportunity under scrutiny.
- Takes time to daydream i.e. letting the mind roam beyond any restrictions self-imposed or otherwise.
- Relax and play
- Study the problem/opportunity in a wholly different environment

e) Illumination: This happens during the incubation stage and will often be spontaneous. The realizations from the past stages combine at this instance to form a breakthrough.

f) Verification: This is where the entrepreneur attempts to ascertain whether the creativity of thought and the action of innovation are truly effective as anticipated. It may involve activities like simulation, piloting, prototype building, test marketing, and various experiments. While the tendency to ignore this stage and plunge headlong with the breakthrough may be tempting, the transformation stage should ensure that the new idea is put to the test.

MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION

MOTIVATION

"Motivation" is a Latin word, meaning "to move". Human motives are internalized goals within individuals. Motivation may be defined as those forces that cause people to behave in certain ways. Motivation encompasses all those pressures and influences that trigger, channel, and sustain human behavior. Most successful managers have learned to understand the concept of human motivation and are able to use that understanding to achieve higher standards of subordinate work performance

According to Koontz and O'Donnell, "Motivation is a class of drives, needs, wishes and similar forces".

NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MOTIVATION

Psychologists generally agree that all behavior is motivated, and that people have reasons for doing the things they do or for behaving in the manner that they do. Motivating is the work a manager performs to inspire, encourage and impel people to take required action.

The characteristics of motivation are given below:-

- **Motivation is an Internal Feeling:** Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generates in the mind of an individual the feeling that he lacks certain things and needs those things. Motivation is a force within an individual that drives him to behave in a certain way.
- **Motivation is Related to Needs:** Needs are deficiencies which are created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance. In order to motivate a person, we have to understand his needs that call for satisfaction.
- **Motivation Produces Goal-Directed Behaviour:** Goals are anything which will alleviate a need and reduce a drive. An individual's behavior is directed towards a goal.
- **Motivation can be either Positive or Negative:** Positive or incentive motivation is generally based on reward. According to Flippo - "positive motivation is a process of attempting to influence others to do your will through the possibility of gain or reward". Negative or fear motivation is based on force and fear. Fear causes persons to act in certain way because they are afraid of the consequences if they don't.

IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

A manager's primary task is to motivate others to perform the tasks of the organization. Therefore, the manager must find the keys to get subordinates to come to work regularly and on time, to work hard, and to make positive contributions towards the effective and efficient achievement of organizational objectives. Motivation is an effective instrument in the hands of a manager for inspiring the work force and creating confidence in it. By motivating the work force, management creates "will to work" which is necessary for the achievement of organizational goals. The various benefits of motivation are:-

- 1) Motivation is one of the important elements in the directing process. By motivating the workers, a manager directs or guides the workers' actions in the desired direction for accomplishing the goals of the organization.
- 2) Workers will tend to be as efficient as possible by improving upon their skills and knowledge so that they are able to contribute to the progress of the organization thereby increasing productivity.
- 3) For performing any tasks, two things are necessary. They are: (a) ability to work and (b) willingness to work. Without willingness to work, ability to work is of no use. The willingness to work can be created only by motivation.
- 4) Organizational effectiveness becomes, to some degree, a question of management's ability to motivate its employees, to direct at least a reasonable effort towards the goals of the organization.
- 5) Motivation contributes to good industrial relations in the organization. When the workers are motivated, contented and disciplined, the frictions between the workers and the management will be reduced.
- 6) Motivation is the best remedy for resistance to changes. When changes are introduced in an organization, generally, there will be resistance from the workers. But if the workers of an organization are motivated, they will accept, introduce and implement the changes whole heartily and help to keep the organization on the right track of progress.
- 7) Motivation facilitates the maximum utilization of all factors of production, human, physical and financial resources and thereby contributes to higher production.
- 8) Motivation promotes a sense of belonging among the workers. The workers feel that the enterprise belongs to them and the interest of the enterprise is their interests.
- 9) Many organizations are now beginning to pay increasing attention to developing their employees as future resources upon which they can draw as they grow and develop.

SATISFACTION

Employee satisfaction (Job satisfaction) is the terminology used to describe whether employees are happy and contented and fulfilling their desires and needs at work. Many measures purport that employee satisfaction is a factor in employee motivation, employee goal achievement, and positive employee morale in the workplace. Employee satisfaction, while generally a positive in your organization, can also be a downer if mediocre employees stay because they are satisfied with your work environment. Factors contributing to employee satisfaction include treating employees with respect, providing regular employee recognition, empowering employees, offering above industry-average benefits and compensation, providing employee perks and company activities, and positive management within a success framework of goals, measurements, and expectations. Employee satisfaction is often measured by anonymous employee satisfaction surveys administered periodically that gauge employee satisfaction in areas such as:

- management,
- understanding of mission and vision,
- empowerment,
- teamwork,
- communication, and
- Coworker interaction.

The facets of employee satisfaction measured vary from company to company.

A second method used to measure employee satisfaction is meeting with small groups of employees and asking the same questions verbally. Depending on the culture of the company, either method can contribute knowledge about employee satisfaction to managers and employees.

JOB DESIGN

It is the process of Work arrangement (or rearrangement) aimed at reducing or overcoming job dissatisfaction and employee alienation arising from repetitive and mechanistic tasks. Through job design, organizations try to raise productivity levels by offering non-monetary rewards such as greater satisfaction from a sense of personal achievement in meeting the increased challenge and responsibility of one's work.

Approaches to job design include:

- **Job Enlargement:** Job enlargement changes the jobs to include more and/or different tasks. Job enlargement should add interest to the work but may or may not give employees more responsibility.
- **Job Rotation:** Job rotation moves employees from one task to another. It distributes the group tasks among a number of employees.
- **Job Enrichment:** Job enrichment allows employees to assume more responsibility, accountability, and independence when learning new tasks or to allow for greater participation and new opportunities.

TYPES OF MOTIVATION TECHNIQUES

If a manager wants to get work done by his employees, he may either hold out a promise of a reward (positive motivation) or he/she may install fear (negative motivation). Both these types are widely used by managements.

a) Positive Motivation:

This type of motivation is generally based on reward. A positive motivation involves the possibility of increased motive satisfaction. According to Flippo - "Positive motivation is a process of attempting to

influence others to do your will through the possibility of gain or reward". Incentive motivation is the "pull" mechanism. The receipt of awards, due recognition and praise for work-well done definitely lead to good team spirit, co-operation and a feeling of happiness.

- Positive motivation include:-
- Praise and credit for work done
- Wages and Salaries
- Appreciation
- A sincere interest in subordinates as individuals
- Delegation of authority and responsibility

b) Negative Motivation:

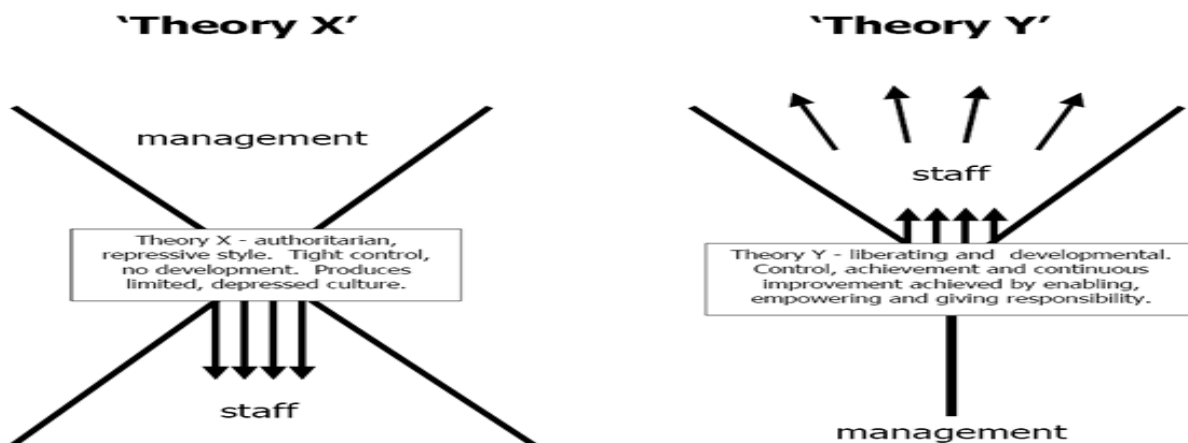
This type of motivation is based on force and fear. Fear causes persons to act in a certain way because they fear the consequences. Negative motivation involves the possibility of decreased motive satisfaction. It is a "push" mechanism. The imposition of punishment frequently results in frustration among those punished, leading to the development of maladaptive behaviour. It also creates a hostile state of mind and an unfavourable attitude to the job. However, there is no management which has not used the negative motivation at some time or the other.

MOTIVATION THEORIES

Some of the motivation theories are discussed below

a) McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y:

McGregor states that people inside the organization can be managed in two ways. The first is basically negative, which falls under the category X and the other is basically positive, which falls under the category Y. After viewing the way in which the manager dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mold his or her behavior towards subordinates according to these assumptions.



Under the assumptions of theory X:

- Employees inherently do not like work and whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
- Because employees dislike work, they have to be forced, coerced or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
- Employees avoid responsibilities and do not work full formal directions are issued.
- Most workers place a greater importance on security over all other factors and display little ambition.

In contrast under the assumptions of theory Y:

- Physical and mental effort at work is as natural as rest or play.
- People do exercise self-control and self-direction and if they are committed to those goals.

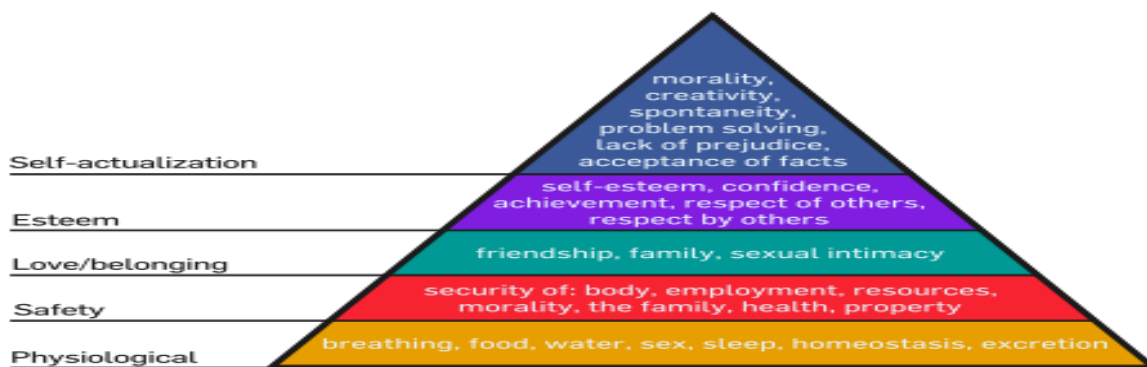
- Average human beings are willing to take responsibility and exercise imagination, ingenuity and creativity in solving the problems of the organization.
- That the way the things are organized, the average human being's brainpower is only partly used.

On analysis of the assumptions it can be detected that theory X assumes that lower-order needs dominate individuals and theory Y assumes that higher-order needs dominate individuals. An organization that is run on Theory X lines tends to be authoritarian in nature, the word “authoritarian” suggests such ideas as the “power to enforce obedience” and the “right to command.” In contrast Theory Y organizations can be described as “participative”, where the aims of the organization and of the individuals in it are integrated; individuals can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts towards the success of the organization.

b) Abraham Maslow's “Need Hierarchy Theory”:

One of the most widely mentioned theories of motivation is the hierarchy of needs theory put forth by psychologist Abraham Maslow. Maslow saw human needs in the form of a hierarchy, ascending from the lowest to the highest, and he concluded that when one set of needs is satisfied, this kind of need ceases to be a motivator.

As per his theory these needs are:



(i) Physiological needs: These are important needs for sustaining the human life. Food, water, warmth, shelter, sleep, medicine and education are the basic physiological needs which fall in the primary list of need satisfaction. Maslow was of an opinion that until these needs were satisfied to a degree to maintain life, no other motivating factors can work.

(ii) Security or Safety needs: These are the needs to be free of physical danger and of the fear of losing a job, property, food or shelter. It also includes protection against any emotional harm.

(iii) Social needs: Since people are social beings, they need to belong and be accepted by others. People try to satisfy their need for affection, acceptance and friendship.

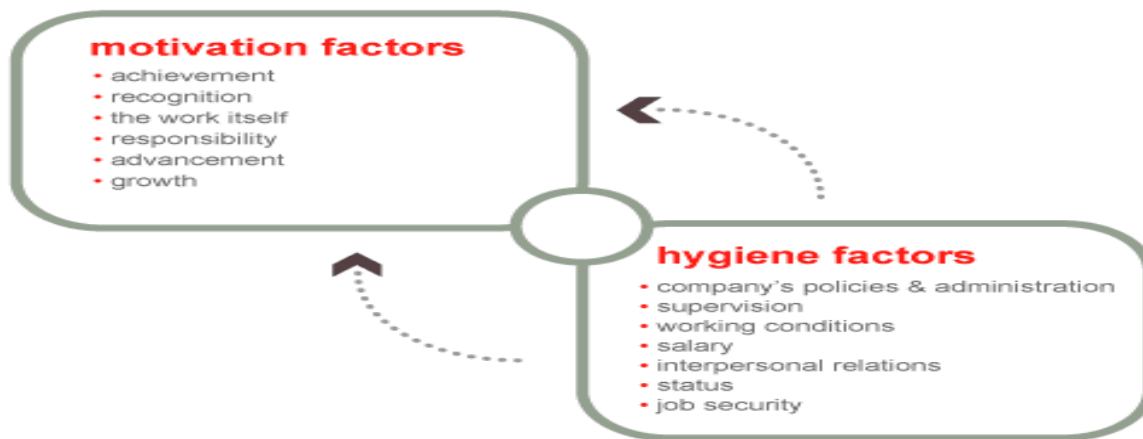
(iv) Esteem needs: According to Maslow, once people begin to satisfy their need to belong, they tend to want to be held in esteem both by themselves and by others. This kind of need produces such satisfaction as power, prestige status and self-confidence. It includes both internal esteem factors like self respect, autonomy and achievements and external esteem factors such as states, recognition and attention.

(v) Need for self-actualization: Maslow regards this as the highest need in his hierarchy. It is the drive to become what one is capable of becoming; it includes growth, achieving one's potential and self-fulfillment. It is to maximize one's potential and to accomplish something. All of the needs are structured into a hierarchy and only once a lower level of need has been fully met, would a worker be motivated by the opportunity of having the next need up in the hierarchy satisfied. For example a person who is dying of hunger will be motivated to achieve a basic wage in order to buy food before worrying about having a secure job contract or

the respect of others. A business should therefore offer different incentives to workers in order to help them fulfill each need in turn and progress up the hierarchy. Managers should also recognize that workers are not all motivated in the same way and do not all move up the hierarchy at the same pace. They may therefore have to offer a slightly different set of incentives from worker to worker.

c) Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory:

Frederick has tried to modify Maslow's need Hierarchy theory. His theory is also known as two-factor theory or Hygiene theory. He stated that there are certain satisfiers and dissatisfiers for employees at work. Intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with dissatisfaction. He devised his theory on the question: "What do people want from their jobs?" He asked people to describe in detail, such situations when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad. From the responses that he received, he concluded that opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction. Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. He states that presence of certain factors in the organization is natural and the presence of the same does not lead to motivation. However, their non-presence leads to de-motivation. In similar manner there are certain factors, the absence of which causes no dissatisfaction, but their presence has motivational impact.

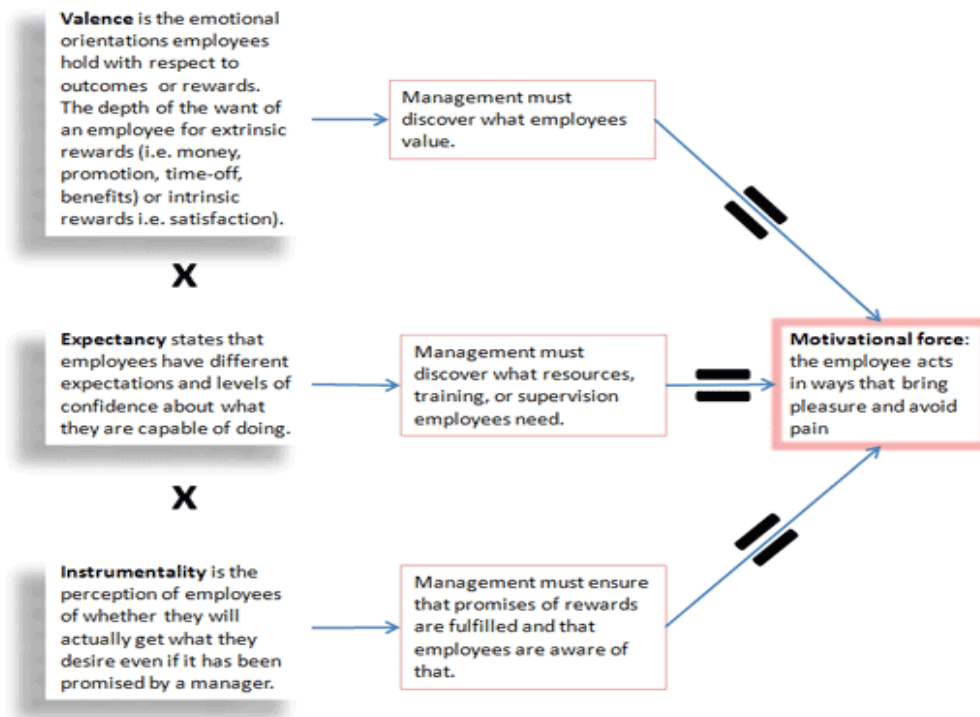
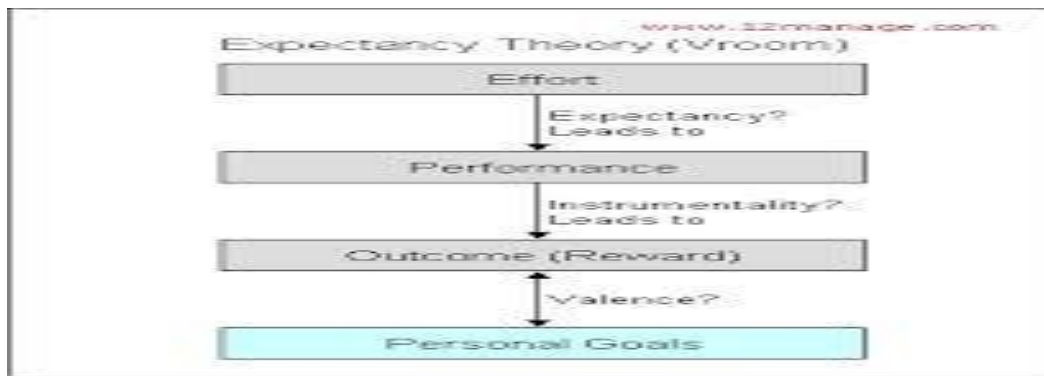


Examples of Hygiene factors are: Security, status, relationship with subordinates, personal life, salary, work conditions, relationship with supervisor and company policy and administration.

Examples of Motivational factors are: Growth prospectus job advancement, responsibility, challenges, recognition and achievements.

d) Victor Vroom's Expectancy theory:

The most widely accepted explanations of motivation have been propounded by Victor Vroom. His theory is commonly known as expectancy theory. The theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a specific way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual to make this simple, expectancy theory says that an employee can be motivated to perform better when there is a belief that the better performance will lead to good performance appraisal and that this shall result into realization of personal goal in form of some reward.



Therefore an employee is:

Motivation = Valence x Expectancy.

The theory focuses on three things:

- Efforts and performance relationship
- Performance and reward relationship
- Rewards and personal goal relationship

e) Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory:

Alderfer has tried to rebuild the hierarchy of needs of Maslow into another model named ERG i.e. Existence – Relatedness – Growth. According to him there are 3 groups of core needs as mentioned above. The existence group is concerned mainly with providing basic material existence. The second group is the individuals need to maintain interpersonal relationship with other members in the group. The final group is the intrinsic desire to grow and develop personally. The major conclusions of this theory are:

- In an individual, more than one need may be operative at the same time.
- If a higher need goes unsatisfied than the desire to satisfy a lower need intensifies.
- It also contains the frustration-regression dimension.

f) McClelland's Theory of Needs:

David McClelland has developed a theory on three types of motivating needs:

- (i) Need for Power
- (ii) Need for Affiliation
- (iii) Need for Achievement

Basically people for high need for power are inclined towards influence and control. They like to be at the center and are good orators. They are demanding in nature, forceful in manners and ambitious in life. They can be motivated to perform if they are given key positions or power positions. In the second category are the people who are social in nature. They try to affiliate themselves with individuals and groups. They are driven by love and faith. They like to build a friendly environment around themselves. Social recognition and affiliation with others provides them motivation. People in the third area are driven by the challenge of success and the fear of failure. Their need for achievement is moderate and they set for themselves moderately difficult tasks. They are analytical in nature and take calculated risks. Such people are motivated to perform when they see at least some chances of success.

McClelland observed that with the advancement in hierarchy the need for power and achievement increased rather than Affiliation. He also observed that people who were at the top, later ceased to be motivated by this drives.

g) Stacey Adams' Equity Theory:

As per the equity theory of J. Stacey Adams, people are motivated by their beliefs about the reward structure as being fair or unfair, relative to the inputs. People have a tendency to use subjective judgment to balance the outcomes and inputs in the relationship for comparisons between different individuals. Accordingly: If people feel that they are not equally rewarded they either reduce the quantity or quality of work or migrate to some other organization. However, if people perceive that they are rewarded higher, they may be motivated to work harder.

h) Skinner's Reinforcement Theory:

B.F. Skinner, who propounded the reinforcement theory, holds that by designing the environment properly, individuals can be motivated. Instead of considering internal factors like impressions, feelings, attitudes and other cognitive behavior, individuals are directed by what happens in the environment external to them. Skinner states that work environment should be made suitable to the individuals and that punishment actually leads to frustration and demotivation. Hence, the only way to motivate is to keep on making positive changes in the external environment of the organization.

LEADERSHIP

Definition

Leadership is defined as influence, the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically toward the achievement of group goals.

- Leaders act to help a group attain objectives through the maximum application of its capabilities.
- Leaders must instill values – whether it be concern for quality, honesty and calculated risk taking or for employees and customers.

Importance of Leadership

- Aid to authority
- Motive power to group efforts
- Basis for co operation
- Integration of Formal and Informal Organization.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

The leadership style we will discuss here are:

- a) Autocratic style
- b) Democratic Style
- c) Laissez Faire Style

a) Autocratic style

Manager retains as much power and decision-making authority as possible. The manager does not consult employees, nor are they allowed to give any input. Employees are expected to obey orders without receiving any explanations. The motivation environment is produced by creating a structured set of rewards and punishments.

Autocratic leadership is a classical leadership style with the following characteristics:

- Manager seeks to make as many decisions as possible
- Manager seeks to have the most authority and control in decision making
- Manager seeks to retain responsibility rather than utilize complete delegation
- Consultation with other colleagues in minimal and decision making becomes a solitary process
- Managers are less concerned with investing their own leadership development, and prefer to simply work on the task at hand.

Advantages

1. Reduced stress due to increased control
2. A more productive group 'while the leader is watching'
3. Improved logistics of operations
4. Faster decision making

Disadvantages

1. Short-term approach to management.
2. Manager perceived as having poor leadership skills
3. Increased workload for the manager
4. People dislike being ordered around
5. Teams become dependent upon their leader

b) Democratic Style

Democratic Leadership is the leadership style that promotes the sharing of responsibility, the exercise of delegation and continual consultation.

The style has the following characteristics:

- a. Manager seeks consultation on all major issues and decisions.
- b. Manager effectively delegate tasks to subordinates and give them full control and responsibility for those tasks.
- c. Manager welcomes feedback on the results of initiatives and the work environment.
- d. Manager encourages others to become leaders and be involved in leadership development.

Advantages

1. Positive work environment

2. Successful initiatives
3. Creative thinking
4. Reduction of friction and office politics
5. Reduced employee turnover

Disadvantages

1. Takes long time to take decisions
2. Danger of pseudo participation
3. Like the other styles, the democratic style is not always appropriate. It is most successful when used with highly skilled or experienced employees or when implementing operational changes or resolving individual or group problems.

c) Laissez-Faire Style:

This French phrase means “leave it be” and is used to describe a leader who leaves his/her colleagues to get on with their work. The style is largely a "hands off" view that tends to minimize the amount of direction and face time required.

Advantages

- No work for the leader
- Frustration may force others into leadership roles
- Allows the visionary worker the opportunity to do what they want, free from interference Empowers the group

Disadvantages

- It makes employees feel insecure at the unavailability of a manager.
- The manager cannot provide regular feedback to let employees know how well they are doing.
- Managers are unable to thank employees for their good work.
- The manager doesn't understand his or her responsibilities and is hoping the employees can cover for him or her.

COMMUNICATION

Communication is the exchange of messages between people for the purpose of achieving common meanings. Unless common meanings are shared, managers find it extremely difficult to influence others. Whenever group of people interact, communication takes place. Communication is the exchange of information using a shared set of symbols. It is the process that links group members and enables them to coordinate their activities. Therefore, when managers foster effective communication, they strengthen the connections between employees and build cooperation. Communication also functions to build and reinforce interdependence between various parts of the organization. As a linking mechanism among the different organizational subsystems, communication is a central feature of the structure of groups and organizations. It helps to coordinate tasks and activities within and between organizations.

DEFINITION

According to Koontz and O'Donnell, "Communication, is an intercourse by words, letters symbols or messages, and is a way that the organization members shares meaning and understanding with another".

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

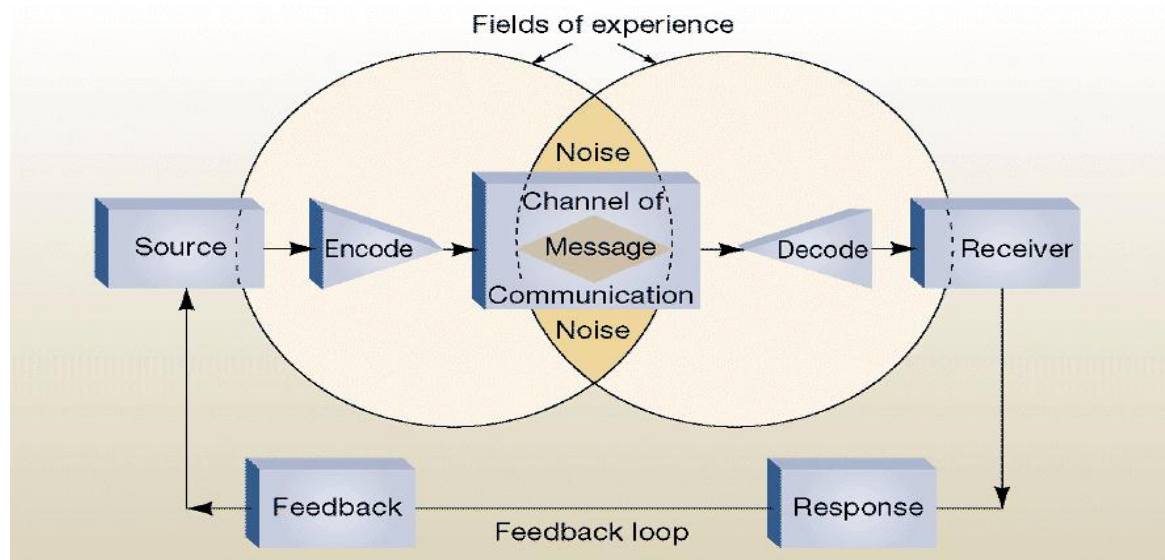
Communication is important in building and sustaining human relationships at work. Communication can be thought of as a process or flow. Before communication can take place, a purpose, expressed as a

message to be conveyed is needed. It passes between the sender and the receiver. The result is transference of meaning from one person to another.

The figure below depicts the communication process.

This model is made up of seven parts:

(1) Source, (2) Encoding, (3) Message, (4) Channel, (5) Decoding, (6) Receiver, and (7) Feedback.



a) Source:

The source initiates a message. This is the origin of the communication and can be an individual, group or inanimate object. The effectiveness of a communication depends to a considerable degree on the characteristics of the source. The person who initiates the communication process is known as sender, source or communicator. In an organization, the sender will be a person who has a need or desire to send a message to others. The sender has some information which he wants to communicate to some other person to achieve some purpose.

b) Encoding:

Once the source has decided what message to communicate, the content of the message must be put in a form the receiver can understand. As the background for encoding information, the sender uses his or her own frame of reference. It includes the individual's view of the organization or situation as a function of personal education, interpersonal relationships, attitudes, knowledge and experience. Three conditions are necessary for successful encoding the message.

- **Skill:** Successful communicating depends on the skill you possess. Without the requisite skills, the message of the communicator will not reach the receiver in the desired form. One's total communicative success includes speaking, reading, listening and reasoning skills.
- **Attitudes:** Our attitudes influence our behaviour. We hold predisposed ideas on a number of topics and our communications are affected by these attitudes.
- **Knowledge:** We cannot communicate what we don't know. The amount of knowledge the source holds about his or her subject will affect the message he or she seeks to transfer.

c) The Message:

The message is the actual physical product from the source encoding. The message contains the thoughts and feelings that the communicator intends to evoke in the receiver. The message has two primary components:-

- **The Content:** The thought or conceptual component of the message is contained in the words, ideas, symbols and concepts chosen to relay the message.
- **The Affect:** The feeling or emotional component of the message is contained in the intensity, force, demeanour (conduct or behaviour), and sometimes the gestures of the communicator.

d) The Channel:

The actual means by which the message is transmitted to the receiver (Visual, auditory, written or some combination of these three) is called the channel. The channel is the medium through which the message travels. The channel is the observable carrier of the message. Communication in which the sender's voice is used as the channel is called oral communication. When the channel involves written language, the sender is using written communication. The sender's choice of a channel conveys additional information beyond that contained in the message itself. For example, documenting an employee's poor performance in writing conveys that the manager has taken the problem seriously.

f) Decoding:

Decoding means interpreting what the message means. The extent to which the decoding by the receiver depends heavily on the individual characteristics of the sender and receiver. The greater the similarity in the background or status factors of the communicators, the greater the probability that a message will be perceived accurately. Most messages can be decoded in more than one way. Receiving and decoding a message are a type of perception. The decoding process is therefore subject to the perception biases.

g) The Receiver:

The receiver is the object to whom the message is directed. Receiving the message means one or more of the receiver's senses register the message - for example, hearing the sound of a supplier's voice over the telephone or seeing the boss give a thumbs-up signal. Like the sender, the receiver is subject to many influences that can affect the understanding of the message. Most important, the receiver will perceive a communication in a manner that is consistent with previous experiences. Communications that are not consistent with expectations is likely to be rejected.

h) Feedback:

The final link in the communication process is a feedback loop. Feedback, in effect, is communication travelling in the opposite direction. If the sender pays attention to the feedback and interprets it accurately, the feedback can help the sender learn whether the original communication was decoded accurately. Without feedback, one-way communication occurs between managers and their employees. Faced with differences in their power, lack of time, and a desire to save face by not passing on negative information, employees may be discouraged from providing the necessary feedback to their managers.

Guidelines for effective Communication

- Senders of message must clarify in their minds what they want to communicate. Purpose of the message and making a plan to achieve the intended end must be clarified.
- Encoding and decoding be done with symbols that are familiar to the sender and the receiver of the message.
- For the planning of the communication, other people should be consulted and encouraged to participate.
- It is important to consider the needs of the receivers of the information. Whenever appropriate, one should communicate something that is of value to them, in the short run as well as in the more distant future.
- In communication, tone of voice, the choice of language and the congruency between what is said and how it is said influence the reactions of the receiver of the message.

- Communication is complete only when the message is understood by the receiver. And one never knows whether communication is understood unless the sender gets a feedback.
- The function of communication is more than transmitting the information. It also deals with emotions that are very important in interpersonal relationships between superiors, subordinates and colleagues in an organization.
- Effective communicating is the responsibility not only of the sender but also of the receiver of the information.

BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Barriers to communication are factors that block or significantly distort successful communication. Effective managerial communication skills helps overcome some, but not all, barriers to communication in organizations. The more prominent barriers to effective communication which every manager should be aware of are given below:

1. **Perceptual and Language Differences:** Perception is generally how each individual interprets the world around him. All generally want to receive messages which are significant to them. But any message which is against their values is not accepted. A same event may be taken differently by different individuals. For example: A person is on leave for a month due to personal reasons (family member being critical). The HR Manager might be in confusion whether to retain that employee or not, the immediate manager might think of replacement because his teams productivity is being hampered, the family members might take him as an emotional support.

The linguistic differences also lead to communication breakdown. Same word may mean different to different individuals. For example: consider a word “value”.

- a. What is the **value** of this Laptop?
- b. I **value** our relation?
- c. What is the **value** of learning technical skills?

“Value” means different in different sentences. Communication breakdown occurs if there is wrong perception by the receiver.

2. **Information Overload:** Managers are surrounded with a pool of information. It is essential to control this information flow else the information is likely to be misinterpreted or forgotten or overlooked. As a result communication is less effective.
3. **Inattention:** At times we just not listen, but only hear. For example a traveler may pay attention to one “NO PARKING” sign, but if such sign is put all over the city, he no longer listens to it. Thus, repetitive messages should be ignored for effective communication. Similarly if a superior is engrossed in his paper work and his subordinate explains him his problem, the superior may not get what he is saying and it leads to disappointment of subordinate.
4. **Time Pressures:** Often in organization the targets have to be achieved within a specified time period, the failure of which has adverse consequences. In a haste to meet deadlines, the formal channels of communication are shortened, or messages are partially given, i.e., not completely transferred. Thus sufficient time should be given for effective communication.
5. **Distraction/Noise:** Communication is also affected a lot by noise to distractions. Physical distractions are also there such as, poor lightning, uncomfortable sitting, unhygienic room also affects

Sure, sometimes we might hear things but not really pay attention. For example, if there are many "NO PARKING" signs everywhere, people might stop noticing them. Similarly, if a boss is busy with work and a colleague tries to talk to them, the boss might not understand what they're saying, which can make the colleague feel bad. It's important to focus on what someone is saying to have effective communication.

communication in a meeting. Similarly use of loud speakers interferes with communication.

6. **Emotions:** Emotional state at a particular point of time also affects communication. If the receiver feels that communicator is angry he interprets that the information being sent is very bad. While he takes it differently if the communicator is happy and jovial (in that case the message is interpreted to be good and interesting).
7. **Complexity in Organizational Structure:** Greater the hierarchy in an organization (i.e. more the number of managerial levels), more is the chances of communication getting destroyed. Only the people at the top level can see the overall picture while the people at low level just have knowledge about their own area and a little knowledge about other areas.
8. **Poor retention:** Human memory cannot function beyond a limit. One cant always retain what is being told specially if he is not interested or not attentive. This leads to communication breakdown

OVERCOMING COMMUNICATION BARRIERS / EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

1. **Eliminating differences in perception:** The organization should ensure that it is recruiting right individuals on the job. It's the responsibility of the interviewer to ensure that the interviewee has command over the written and spoken language. There should be proper Induction program so that the policies of the company are clear to all the employees. There should be proper trainings conducted for required employees (for eg: Voice and Accent training).
2. **Use of Simple Language:** Use of simple and clear words should be emphasized. Use of ambiguous words and jargons should be avoided.
3. **Reduction and elimination of noise levels:** Noise is the main communication barrier which must be overcome on priority basis. It is essential to identify the source of noise and then eliminate that source.
4. **Active Listening:** Listen attentively and carefully. There is a difference between "listening" and "hearing". Active listening means hearing with proper understanding of the message that is heard. By asking questions the speaker can ensure whether his/her message is understood or not by the receiver in the same terms as intended by the speaker.
5. **Emotional State:** During communication one should make effective use of body language. He/she should not show their emotions while communication as the receiver might misinterpret the message being delivered. For example, if the conveyer of the message is in a bad mood then the receiver might think that the information being delivered is not good.
6. **Simple Organizational Structure:** The organizational structure should not be complex. The number of hierarchical levels should be optimum. There should be a ideal span of control within the organization. Simpler the organizational structure, more effective will be the communication.
7. **Avoid Information Overload:** The managers should know how to prioritize their work. They should not overload themselves with the work. They should spend quality time with their subordinates and should listen to their problems and feedbacks actively.
8. **Give Constructive Feedback:** Avoid giving negative feedback. The contents of the feedback might be negative, but it should be delivered constructively. Constructive feedback will lead to effective communication between the superior and subordinate.
9. **Proper Media Selection:** The managers should properly select the medium of communication. Simple messages should be conveyed orally, like: face to face interaction or meetings. Use of written means of communication should be encouraged for delivering complex messages. For significant messages reminders can be given by using written means of communication such as : Memos, Notices etc.

10. **Flexibility in meeting the targets:** For effective communication in an organization the managers should ensure that the individuals are meeting their targets timely without skipping the formal channels of communication. There should not be much pressure on employees to meet their targets.

CHANNELS/TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

a) Formal Communication: Formal communication follows the route formally laid down in the organization structure. There are three directions in which communications flow: downward, upward and laterally (horizontal).

i) Downward Communication: Downward communication involves a message travelling to one or more receivers at the lower level in the hierarchy. The message frequently involves directions or performance feedback. The downward flow of communication generally corresponds to the formal organizational communications system, which is usually synonymous with the chain of command or line of authority. This system has received a great deal of attention from both managers and behavioral scientists since it is crucial to organizational functioning.

ii) Upward Communication: In upward communication, the message is directed toward a higher level in the hierarchy. It often takes the form of progress reports or information about successes and failures of the individuals or work groups reporting to the receiver of the message. Sometimes employees also send suggestions or complaints upward through the organization's hierarchy. The upward flow of communication involves two distinct manager-subordinate activities in addition to feedback:

- The participation by employees in formal organizational decisions.
- Employee appeal is a result against formal organization decisions. The employee appeal is a result of the industrial democracy concept that provides for two-way communication in areas of disagreement.

iii) Horizontal Communication: When takes place among members of the same work group, among members of work groups at the same level, among managers at the same level or among any horizontally equivalent personnel, we describe it as lateral communications. In lateral communication, the sender and receiver(s) are at the same level in the hierarchy. Formal communications that travel laterally involve employees engaged in carrying out the same or related tasks. The messages might concern advice, problem solving, or coordination of activities.

b) Informal Communication or Grapevine: Informal communication, generally associated with interpersonal communication, was primarily seen as a potential hindrance to effective organizational performance. This is no longer the case. Informal communication has become more important to ensuring the effective conduct of work in modern organizations. Probably the most common term used for the informal communication in the workplace is “grapevine” and this communication that is sent through the organizational grapevine is often considered gossip or rumor. While grapevine communication can spread information quickly and can easily cross established organizational boundaries, the information it carries can be changed through the deletion or exaggeration crucial details thus causing the information inaccurate – even if it’s based on truth. The use of the organizational grapevine as an informal communication channel often results when employees feel threatened, vulnerable, or when the organization is experiencing change and when communication from management is restricted and not forthcoming.

NOTE: LEADERSHIP THEORIES COVERED IN UNIT V NOTES

UNIT IV LEFT OUT TOPICS

FOUNDATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOR

Understanding individuals in organizations is important for all managers. A basic framework for facilitating this understanding is the psychological contract - people's expectations regarding what they will contribute to the organization and what they will get in return. Organizations strive to achieve an optimal person-job fit, but this process is complicated by the existence of individual differences.

Biographical Characteristics:

- **Age:** Age of an employee has a significant impact on performance. It is envisaged that younger people are more energetic, skilful and talented than older people. The belief is true but this is not always true because in many cases, older people are highly skilled, regularly updating their skills, well-experienced, persistent, and even physically and mentally fit.
- **Gender:** Do males perform better than females? Most research reveals, no. Females do not perform less than males, if they are equally trained or having similar capabilities.
- **Marital Status:** The scientific studies uncover that married people are more responsible, persistent in nature and undergo less absence and turnover and are more satisfied from their jobs because marriages cause them to accept new responsibilities.
- **Number of dependants:** The greater the children or other dependents a person has, the lesser is the concentration on work. It has been observed in most cases, that many times, employees especially females with huge children or other persons, such as relatives as dependents make leaves to take care of the schooling and hospitalization needs of their dependents.
- **Tenure:** Switching jobs or companies is not a big deal/ problem, rather it may be a result of serious need to leave a problematic company or to avail a better opportunity. But the persons that show greater stay (of years) on a job show their persistent nature and an indication of their satisfactory performance.

Ability:

Ability refers to an individual's capacity to perform the various tasks in a job. It is a current assessment of what one can do. Individual overall abilities are made up of two sets of factors: intellectual and physical.

- **Intellectual Abilities:** Intellectual abilities are those needed to perform mental activities. IQ tests are designed to ascertain one's general intellectual abilities. Examples of such tests are popular college admission tests such as the SAT, GMAT, and LSAT. The seven most frequently cited dimensions making up intellectual abilities are: number aptitude, verbal comprehension, perceptual speed, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, spatial visualization, and memory.
- **Physical Abilities:** Specific physical abilities gain importance in doing less skilled and more standardized jobs. Research has identified nine basic abilities involved in the performance of physical tasks. Individuals differ in the extent to which they have each of these abilities. High employee performance is likely to be achieved when management matches the extent to which a job requires each of the nine abilities and the employees' abilities.

Personality:

Personality is a set of distinct characteristics of an individual. Some people tend to be emotional, others intellectual, bold or timid, hesitant or confident, reserved or social, etc.

- **Heredity:** Heredity refers to those factors that were determined at conception (expectancy time of a female), for instance, physical stature/ structure, facial attractiveness, skin color, hair color, muscles composition, energy level, height, built, sex/ gender, temperament, and so on. Heredity is a transformed from molecular structure of genes located in the chromosomes. Moreover, our parents or forefathers' genes determine our biological, physiological, and psychological make-up.
- **Culture & Environment:** Culture is a set of values, norms, customs, traditions, rituals, and attitudes passed from one generation to the other. The norms of our family, friend circle, and social groups influence our behavior. Environment also impacts our personality; the person groomed in highly educated society tends to be well-educated, well-mannered, and gentle.
- **The "Big Five" Personality Traits:** The Big Five personality factors are as follows:
 - **Extraversion.** This dimension captures a person's comfort level with relationships. Extraverted individuals are sociable, talkative, and assertive.
 - **Agreeableness.** This dimension refers to how readily a person will go along with others. Highly agreeable people are good-natured, cooperative, warm and trusting.
 - **Conscientiousness.** This dimension is a measure of a person's reliability. People who score high on conscientiousness are responsible, dependable, persistent, and achievement-oriented.
 - **Emotional stability.** This dimension taps a person's ability to withstand stress. People high on emotional stability are calm, self-confident, and secure.
 - **Openness to experience.** The final dimension addresses a person's range of interests and fascination with novelty. People high on openness to experience are imaginative, artistically sensitive, and intellectual.
- **Locus of control:** Some people believe they are masters of their own fate/ destiny, and other believes in luck or chance. Individuals who believe that they control what happens to them are called "internals" and the individuals who believe that what happens to them is controlled by outside forces, such as luck or chance are called "externals".
- **Self-Esteem:** It is the individual's degree of liking or disliking of oneself. In OB, it is generalized that people with high self-esteem (high-SE) are choosy in selection of jobs and strive to be result-oriented. On the contrary, people with low self-esteem (low-SE) are dependant on others for guidance and control to get the job done.
- **Self-Monitoring:** This is the ability to measure one's own performance against some performance standards or benchmarks. Such people offer better results.
- **Risk Taking:** It is the willingness to take risks or chances. Risk is the degree of failure or uncertainty. Risk taking managers are challenge-acceptors and fast decision-makers. Research proves that risk taking managers make rapid decisions with less information but surprising with greater accuracy of decisions.

FOUNDATIONS OF GROUP BEHAVIOR

A group is defined as two or more individuals, interacting and interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives. Groups can be either formal or informal.

Formal groups: those defined by the organization's structure, with designated work assignments establishing tasks

- The behaviors that one should engage in are stipulated by and directed toward organizational goals.
- An airline flight crew is an example of a formal group.

Informal groups: alliances that is neither formally structured nor organizationally determined

- Natural formations in the work environment in response to the need for social contact
- Three employees from different departments who regularly eat lunch together is an informal group. These types of interactions among individuals, even though informal, deeply affect their behavior and performance.
- There is no single reason why individuals join groups.

Command groups: are dictated by the formal organization.

- The organization chart determines a command group.
- Composed of direct reports to a given manager

Task group: organizationally determined—represent those working together to complete a job task.

- A task group's boundaries are not limited to its immediate hierarchical superior. It can cross command relationships.
- For instance, if a college student is accused of a campus crime, it may require communication and coordination among the dean of academic affairs, the dean of students, the registrar, the director of security, and the student's advisor.
- All command groups are also task groups, but the reverse need not be true.

An interest group: People who affiliate to attain a specific objective with which each is concerned.

- Employees who band together to have their vacation schedules altered
- Friendship groups often develop because the individual members have one or more common characteristics.
- Social alliances, which frequently extend outside the work situation, can be based on similar age or ethnic heritage.

STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

Forming:

- Characterized by a great deal of uncertainty about the group's purpose, structure, and leadership.
- Members are trying to determine what types of behavior are acceptable.
- Stage is complete when members have begun to think of themselves as part of a group.

Storming:

- One of intragroup conflict. Members accept the existence of the group, but there is resistance to constraints on individuality.
- Conflict over who will control the group.
- When complete, there will be a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership within the group.

Norming:

- One in which close relationships develop and the group demonstrates cohesiveness.
- There is now a strong sense of group identity and camaraderie.
- Stage is complete when the group structure solidifies and the group has assimilated a common set of expectations of what defines correct member behavior.

Performing:

- The structure at this point is fully functional and accepted.
- Group energy has moved from getting to know and understand each other to performing.
- For permanent work groups, performing is the last stage in their development.

Adjourning:

- For temporary committees, teams, task forces, and similar groups that have a limited task to perform, there is an adjourning stage.
- In this stage, the group prepares for its disbandment. Attention is directed toward wrapping up activities.
- Responses of group members vary in this stage. Some are upbeat, basking in the group's accomplishments. Others may be depressed over the loss of camaraderie and friendships.

THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Some of the theories of leadership ranging from conventional theories to contemporary theories have been dealt with over here, the chief of them being the following:

GREAT MAN THEORY/TRAIT THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Some of the leaders in the history have always been identified as strong leaders based on the qualities or traits that they display. Leaders like Mahatma Gandhi, Indira Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher, Nelson Mandela, Narayana Murthy of Infosys, Apple's Co-founder Steve Jobs etc. has been identified, based on the traits that they displayed. For instance, when Margaret Thatcher was the prime minister of the Great Britain, she was regularly described as a confident, iron-willed, determined and decisive leader. Thus, the trait theories of leadership consider personal qualities and characteristics that differentiate leaders from non-leaders.

Physical characteristics	Personality	Social characteristics
Activity	Alertness	Ability to enlist
Energy	Originality, creativity	cooperation
Social background	Personal integrity, ethical conduct	Cooperativeness
Mobility	Self-confidence	Popularity, prestige
Intelligence and ability	Work-related characteristics	Sociability,
Judgment, decisiveness	Achievement drive, desire to excel	interpersonal skills
Knowledge	Drive for responsibility	Social participation
Fluency of speech	Responsibility in pursuit of goals	Tact, diplomacy
	Task orientation	

BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES

(1) **Ohio State Studies:** One of the foremost studies that emanated on behavioural theories was the study made by Ohio State University in 1945 by E.A. Fleishman, E.F. Harris and H.E. Burt. The study narrowed the leadership behaviours into two categories, viz. *initiating structure* and *consideration*, under which the various leadership behaviours were clubbed.

- *Initiating Structure:* Initiating structure refers to the extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his or her role and those of employees in the search for goal attainment. It includes behaviour that attempts to organize work, work relationships, and goals. A leader with initiating structure is generally task oriented, with focus on performance of employees and meeting of deadlines.
- *Consideration:* As per „consideration“ category, a leader pays more attention to the employee of the organization rather than the task and shows concern for the Well-being, comfort and satisfaction of employees. That is, a leader focuses on the relationships that are characterized by mutual trust, respect for employees“ ideas, and regard for their feelings.

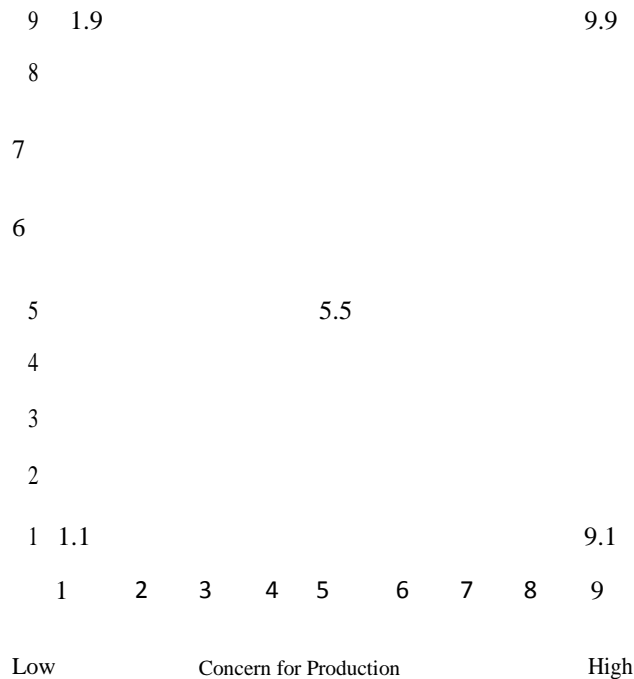
(2) **University of Michigan Studies:** Similar to the Ohio State University studies, research on leadership studies was also carried out by the University of Michigan’s Research centers, in 1946 by Rensis Likert and his associates. The study made an analysis of the relationship between leadership behaviours and organizational performances. Michigan Studies also identified a two-factor component, viz. „employee-oriented leader“ and „production-oriented leader“.

- *Employee-Oriented Leader:* The concern of the employee-oriented leaders were more on the interpersonal relations with the employees and such leaders paid more attention on the needs of the employees and accepted the individual differences among members.
- *Production-Oriented Leader:* The production oriented-leaders paid attention to the technical aspects of the job or the tasks assigned to the employees, rather than on employees. Such leaders gave least importance to the group members, and regarded the employees as only a means to achieve the ends, that is, the goals of an organization.

(3) **The Managerial Grid:** Like the Ohio State studies and Michigan studies, the Managerial Grid theory of leadership was also based on the styles of concern for people and concern for production. The Managerial Grid theory of leadership was proposed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964. This theory which is depicted in a graphical form is also known as the Leadership Grid Theory. The grid is a nine-by-nine matrix which outlines 81 different styles of leadership. The grid has 9 possible positions along each axis creating 81 different positions in which the leader’s style may fall. Through the Managerial Grid, 5 kinds of Leadership Style were identified, which include the following:

- *Impoverished*, in which there is low concern for people and production (1 by 1)
- *Country Club*, wherein the concern for production is low, but for people is high (1 by 9)
- *Task*, in which there is high concern for production and low concern for people (9 by 1)
- *Middle of the Road*, where there is moderate concern for both the production and the people (5 by 5)
- *Team*, wherein there is high concern for both the people and production (9 by 9).

Managerial Grid



CONTINGENCY/SITUATIONAL THEORIES

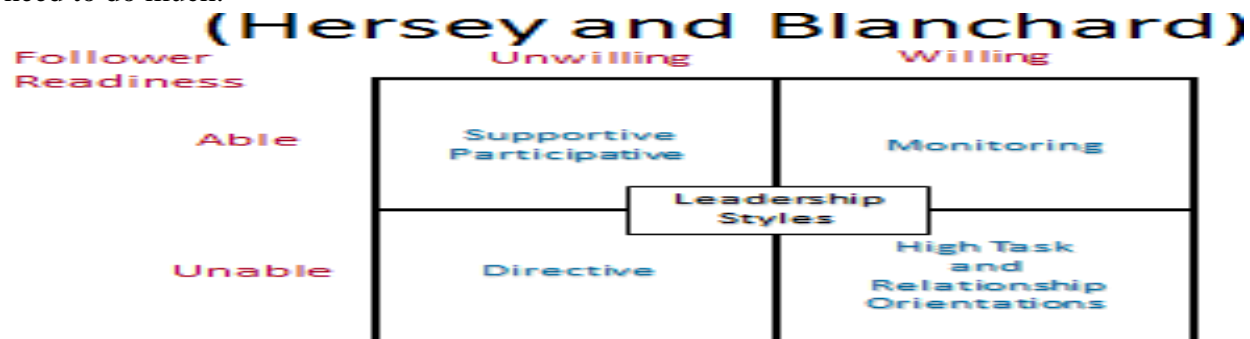
(1) **Fiedler Model:** The basic premise behind this theory is that, effective performance of an organization or a group of people in an organization highly depend upon the style adopted by a leader and the degree to which a situation gives control to the leader. In order to assess the style followed by a leader, Fiedler developed, Least-Preferred Coworker" (LPC) scale, in which the leaders were asked to give their preference on the employee with whom they have least preference to work with. If the least preferred co-worker was described in favourable terms, such response was rated as '*relationship-oriented*' and if rated in unfavourable terms, a leader was regarded as '*production-oriented*'.

- **Leader-Member Relations:** The degree of confidence, trust and respect that members have on their leader;
- **Task Structure:** The degree to which the job assignments are structured or unstructured;
- **Position Power:** The degree of influence a leader has over power variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions, and salary increases.

Category	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Leader-Member Relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Task Structure	High	High	Low	Low	High	High	Low	Low
Position Power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak

Fiedler states that a task oriented leader performs better in situations that are very favourable to her/him and in situations that are very unfavourable. That is, when faced with a Category I, II, III, VII or VIII situation, task-oriented leaders perform better. Relationship-oriented leaders perform better in moderately favourable situations – categories IV through VII.

(2) **Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory:** According to Hersey and Blanchard there are four types of leadership behaviour that varies from highly directive to highly *laissez-faire*, which again depends upon the ability and willingness of followers to perform a given task. According to SLT, if a follower is unable and unwilling to do a task, the leader needs to give clear and specific directions; if followers are unable and willing, the leader needs to display high task orientation to compensate for the followers' lack of ability and high relationship orientation to get the followers to „buy into“ the leader's desire; if followers are able and unwilling, the leader needs to use a supportive and participative style; and if the employee is both able and willing, the leader doesn't need to do much.



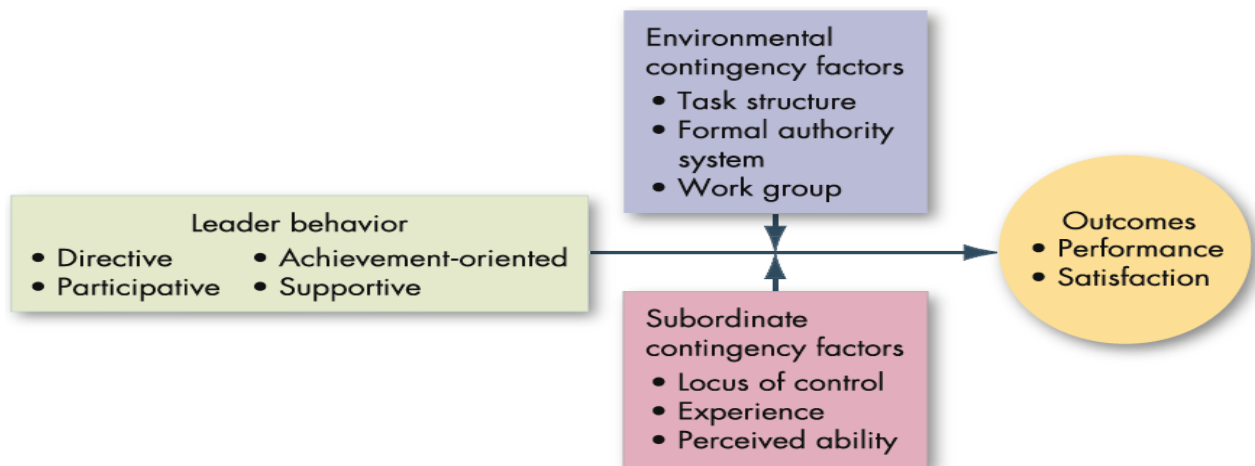
(3) **Leadership Continuum Theory:** According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt, the leader must consider the following three forces or variables before choosing the best leadership style for a particular situation:

- **Supervisor:** The leader's personality and preferred behavioural style, expectation, values, background, knowledge, feeling of security and confidence in the subordinates should be considered in selecting a leadership style. Based on personality and behaviour, some leaders tend to be more autocratic and others more participative.
- **Subordinates:** The leadership style preferred by followers is based on personality and behaviour. Generally, the more willing and able the followers are to participate, the more freedom of participation should be used, and vice versa.
- **Situation (Environment):** The environmental considerations, such as the organization size, structure, climate, goals and technology, are taken into consideration when selecting a leadership style. Managers on higher levels also influence leadership styles. For example, if a senior manager uses an autocratic leadership style, the middle manager may tend to follow suit.

Autocratic Style						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Leader makes decision and announces it to followers individually or in a group without discussion (it could also be in writing).	Leader makes decisions and sells it to followers by explaining why it is a good idea (it could also be in writing)	Leader presents ideas and invites followers' questions.	Leader presents tentative decision subject to change.	Leader presents problem, invites suggested solutions and makes the decision.	Leader defines limits and asks the followers to make a decision	Leader permits followers to make ongoing decisions within defined limits

(4) Path-Goal Theory: The base behind Path-Goal theory is that effective leaders clarify the path to help their followers to move forward from their current position towards achieving the work goals. The four types of leadership behaviour, identified by Robert House are as follows:

- *Directive Leader:* A directive leader clarifies the followers of the role expected of them, schedules the work to be done and gives the needed direction or guidance as to how to accomplish tasks;
- *Supportive Leader:* A supportive leader behaves in an friendly manner with the followers, and the main concern of the leader is placed on the needs of the followers, rather than on accomplishing the tasks;
- *Participative Leader:* A participative leader involves the followers in the consultation process and also gets the suggestions or views of the followers, before making a decision;
- *Achievement-Oriented Leader:* An achievement oriented leader set challenging goals for the followers and expects them to perform at their highest level.



A COMPARISON OF MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

Subject	Leader	Manager
Essence	Change	Stability
Focus	Leading people	Managing work
Have	Followers	Subordinates
Horizon	Long-term	Short-term
Seeks	Vision	Objectives
Approach	Sets direction	Plans detail
Decision	Facilitates	Makes
Power	Personal charisma	Formal authority
Appeal to	Heart	Head
Energy	Passion	Control
Culture	Shapes	Enacts
Dynamic	Proactive	Reactive
Persuasion	Sell	Tell

Style	<u>Transformational</u>	<u>Transactional</u>
Exchange	Excitement for work	Money for work
Likes	Striving	Action
Wants	Achievement	Results
Risk	Takes	Minimizes
Rules	Breaks	Makes
Conflict	Uses	Avoids
Direction	New roads	Existing roads
Truth	Seeks	Establishes
Concern	What is right	Being right
Credit	Gives	Takes
Blame	Takes	Blames

JOB SATISFACTION a feeling of fulfilment or enjoyment that a person derives from their job.

Factors influencing job satisfaction

- Supervision
- Co –workers & Pay
- Age
- Working condition etc.,

JOB ENLARGEMENT is a job design technique wherein there is an increase in the number of tasks associated with a certain job. In other words, it means increasing the scope of one's duties and responsibilities. The difference between job enrichment and job enlargement is essentially of **quantity** and **quality**.

JOB ENRICHMENT is the process of making a job more interesting, challenging and satisfying for the employees. It can either be in the form of **up gradation** of responsibilities, increase in the range of influence and the challenges.

Whereas job enlargement means increasing the scope of job quantitatively by adding up more tasks, job enrichment means **improvement in the quality of job** such that employees are more satisfied and fulfilled

Job Enrichment address the Following areas

- skill variety,
- task identity,
- task significance,
- autonomy, and feedback

Job Enrichment Options

- Rotate Jobs
- Combine Tasks
- Increase Employee-Directed Feedback
- Redistribute Power and Authority
- Implement Participative Management
- Create Autonomous Work Teams

Steps of Job Enrichment

- Job Selection
- Identifying the Changes
- Change in contents of jobs
- Employees counseling
- Job Integration

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUP & TEAM

	Group	Team
Purpose	General	Specific
Work basis	Individual	Collective
Process	Discuss, Decide and Delegate	Discuss, Decide and Do
Leadership	A single leader	Shared
Accountability	Individual	Individual & Mutual
Evaluation	Indirect	Direct

GROUP STRUCTURE

- Group Size & Group Roles
- Group Norms- “Standardized patterns of belief, attitude, communication and behavior within groups
- Group Cohesiveness- The degree to which members are attracted to a group and share the group’s goals
- Group Think- Psychological phenomenon that occurs within a group of people in which the desire for harmony or conformity in the group results in an irrational or dysfunctional decision-making outcome.
- Group Dynamics-Group dynamics concern the forces operating within groups that affect the way members relate to and work with one another.

Group Decision Making Techniques

- Brain Storming
- Nominal Group Technique
- Dialectical Inquiry
- Delphi Technique.

MOTIVATIONAL TECHNIQUES

- Financial Incentives
- Job Enlargement
- Job Enrichment
- Job rotation
- Participation
- Delegation of Authority
- Quality of Work Life
- MBO
- Behaviour Modification
- Positive Imagery
- Team building activities
- Training
- Enhanced Communication
- Targets, rewards and incentives.

