
UNIT V Directing

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5.0 Objectives

This unit aims at introducing the meaning of directing and its major components: motivation, leadership and communication. It gives a brief description of each component. It also aims at introducing the role of directing in harmonizing and guiding organizational resources towards the achievement of organizational objectives.

After reading this unit, you should be able to:

- Know the meaning of directing, motivation, leadership and communication
- Know the different motivational theories and approaches
- Describe the theories of leadership
- Describe the meaning of communication and different models of communication
- Explain the objectives of motivation, leadership and communication in an organization

5.1 Introduction

As a function of management, directing focuses on the leading activities undertaken by managers at different levels. Leading activities include motivating, communicating, supervising and resolving conflicts that arise from time to time. The leader's approach, the principles that he/she employs, the style of leadership that he/she assumes, the overall personality of the leader and the methods that he/she uses in resolving conflict need special attention to understand the unit as a whole.

5.2 Meaning of Directing

Directing is a management function which deals with what managers do to employees or cause them to do certain activities that lead to the achievement of the objectives of the organization. It includes guidance, supervision, communication, leadership, inspiring, coordinating and motivating employees for an action.

5.2.1 Components of Directing

Directing includes many activities such as guidance, supervision, communication, leading, coordinating and motivating. Among these only three components will be discussed: Motivation, Leadership and Communication in the same order.

5.3 Motivation

5.3.1 Meaning of Motivation

Motivation is the act of inducing, instigating, inciting or promoting someone to a particular course of action to get the results expected of him/her.

“Motivation is a general term applying to the entire class of drives, desires, needs, wishes and similar forces that induce an individual or a group of people to work.”
Koontz and O'Donnell.

The goal of motivation is to cause people to put forth their best efforts with enthusiasm and effectiveness in order to achieve and hopefully surpass the organizational objectives. In order to motivate employees, managers should identify the basic motives that initiate people. Motives are inner forces that move a person to

believe in a certain way. Sources of motives can be biogenic or psychogenic needs. Biogenic needs arise from physiological states of tension such as hunger, thirst, and discomfort. Psychogenic needs arise from psychological states of tension such as a need for self-esteem, affiliation, achievement, status, recognition or belonging. This fact can be expressed in short as follows.

/Needs=>Motives=>Drive=>Action=>Satisfaction/

Human motivation is influenced by environmental factors. An environment is the physical and cultural surrounding within which we find ourselves at any given time. For example, a person who see an ice cold water may feel thirsty; a person who sees the rain falling may feel cold; a person who feels the smell of food can feel hungry; a person who is satisfied in his job may be dissatisfied by the mistreatment of his boss.

5.3.2 Characteristics of Motivation

Motivation is characterized by the following features

- a) Motivation is unending process. As man has a number of wants and all wants cannot be satisfied at one time, motivation becomes a continuous task of managers. Human needs are infinite.
- b) Motivation is a psychological concept. It deals with the psychology of workers
- c) Motivation is total and not partial. An individual is motivated fully and not partly because motivation is related to the needs and psychological states of people.
- d) Motivation may be financial or non-financial

Motivation includes increasing wages, allowances, recognition, praise, giving more responsibility and inducing to participate in the decision-making process. The appropriateness of motivation depends on the situations and individual characteristics.

- e) Motivation is determined by human needs. In order to motivate, knowing the need of an individual is mandatory. A need that is already satisfied cannot be a motivator. The purpose of motivation is to induce an individual to put forth all his capacities to his job through satisfying his needs.
- f) Motivation cannot be applied to a frustrated man.
- g) Motivation may be positive or negative.

5.3.3 Importance of Motivation

Motivation provides the following advantages to an organization.

- a) Through motivation, an organization can utilize the factors of production to the maximum.
- b) When people are motivated there is willingness to work.
- c) When people are highly motivated absenteeism would be less.
- d) Labor turnover would be low. If employees are motivated positively, there is a tendency on their part to stay in the organization.
- e) Efficient personnel would be attracted to the organization.
- f) If there is positive motivation in the organization, there will be good labor relations.
- g) The knowledge and skill of employees can be developed and improved.
- h) Motivation develops a sense of belongingness.
- i) Motivation serves as a basis of co-operation.

5.3.4 Early Views of Motivation

At different stages in the evolution of management thought managers subscribed to different models or theories of motivation. They held their own views or supported the views of others.

5.3.4.1 The Traditional Model

This model is associated with Fredrick W. Taylor and scientific management. It assumed that workers were essentially lazy and that managers understood the worker's job better than the worker. Workers could only be motivated by financial reward and had little to contribute beyond their labor. Here workers had been expected to accept management's authority in return for high wages made possible by the efficient system designed by management and implemented by the workers.

A motivational theory related to this model is for example the reward vs punishment or the stick vs carrot theory. This theory states that if employees perform well reward them if not punish them. The reward/ carrot given for "good" behavior could be in the form of money, bonus, titles, special office arrangements, awards, more power or

company cars. The Punishment/stick administered for “bad” behavior could be in the form of demotion, undesirable transfers, no pay increase or lack of recognition.

5.3.4.2 The Human Relations Model

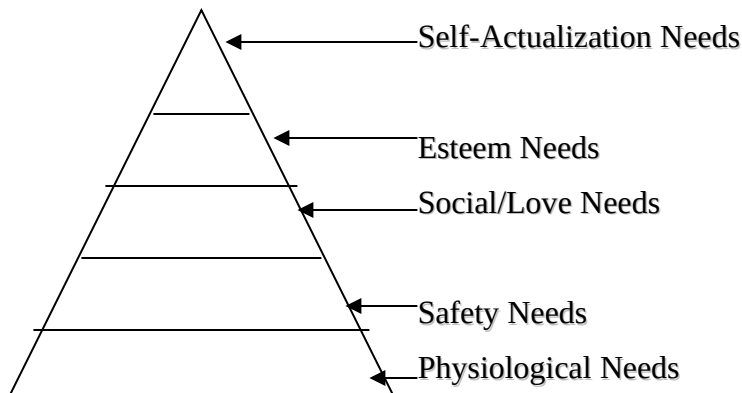
This model is associated with Elton Mayo and other human relations researchers. Elton Mayo and his associates carried out a study at the Hawthorne Plant of Western Electric Company in the 1930's. They studied the effects of environmental factors on productivity and concluded that worker's productivity increases when special attention is given them; the attention gives them a special status among their peers. Workers attitudes are the key to their motivation, and fair treatment improves their attitude. They believed that managers could motivate employees by acknowledging their social needs and by making them feel useful and important. Workers were expected to accept management's authority because supervisors treated them with consideration and attending to their needs.

5.3.4.3 The Human Resources Model

This model was developed by Douglas Mc Gregor, Abraham Maslow, Chris Argyris, Rensis Likert and Herzberg.

They generally suggest that employees are motivated by many factors other than money or the desire for satisfaction, such as the need for achievement and meaningful work. They argued that most people are already motivated to do a good job and that they do not automatically see work as undesirable. Employees are likely to get satisfaction from good performance. Thus, employees can be given far more responsibility for making decisions and carrying out their tasks. The contribution of each scientist will be discussed as follows.

a) The Hierarchy of Needs Theory of Abraham H. Maslow.



- Physiological Needs are the basic needs for food, rest and sex.
- Safety Needs are the needs for physical and economic security.
- Social/Love Needs are the needs for affection and belongingness.
- Esteem Needs are the needs self-respect and recognition
- Self-Actualization Needs include the drive to become what one is capable of becoming. These include growth, achieving one's potential, self-fulfillment, etc.

He stipulated that as the first level needs are satisfied the next and higher level needs emerge. He also stated that a satisfied need cannot be a motivator. Once a person satisfies a certain need that need will not motivate him/her any more.

b) Participative-Management Approach

This approach to motivation was developed by Rensis Likert and his associates. They stated that managers who practice effective human relations let lower-level personnel to participate in making decisions that affect them in achieving better cooperation higher motivation and greater productivity. People who do some kind of work want to be consulted about how to do it.

c) Douglas Mc Gregor

Mc Gregor developed **Theory X and Theory Y** assumptions.

i) Theory X Assumption

This assumption is a pessimistic, static and rigid approach. According to this assumption:

- Authority and control are external.

- Average human beings have an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.

- Because of their characteristics, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to make them put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

- Average human beings prefer to be directed, wish to avoid responsibility, have relatively little ambition and want security above all.

ii) Theory Y Assumption

This assumption is an optimistic a dynamic and flexible approach. According to this assumption:

- Emphasis on self- direction and the integration of individual needs with organizational demands are necessary.

- The expenditure of physical effort and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

- People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.

- The degree of commitment to objectives is in proportion to the size of the rewards associated with their achievement.

- Under proper conditions the average person learns not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.

- The capacity to think creatively to innovate and to solve organizational problems is widely not narrowly distributed in the population.

- The intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

5.3.4.4 A systems View of Motivation in Organizations

According to this view of motivation, it is believed that a system consists of three sets of variables affecting motivation in organizations: individual characteristics, job characteristics and work situation.

a) Characteristics of the Individual

Each individual brings his or her own interest, attitudes and needs to the work situation. Obviously people differ in these characteristics and their motivations will therefore differ. These facts are based on the contributions of Abraham Maslow (The Hierarchy of Needs Theory); Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory (existence needs, relatedness needs and growth needs); (ERG is a combination of the first letters of the three needs: existence, relatedness and growth); and David McClelland's Need-Based Motivation Theory which states that human beings have power, affiliation and achievement needs.

David McClelland and John W. Atkinson developed a related theory known as "Need-based Motivation Theory". They suggested that human beings have three basic motivational needs: power affiliation and achievement.

Power need is expressed in a strong desire to change or alter the course of events. People who are motivated by power need are often effective speakers, may be argumentative, like communicating and want to exercise highly.

The achievement need is a twin desire to succeed and not fail. People who have strong achievement need seek challenge, set big goals, work hard and long hours, want to win for the sake of winning.

The affiliation need is the need for close interpersonal relationships, belongingness or love.

b) Characteristics of the Job Task

This includes the attributes of the employee's tasks such as the amount of responsibility, the variety of tasks and the extent to which the job's characteristics are found by people as satisfying.

The two-factor approach to work motivation developed by Frederick Herzberg and his associates states that there are hygienic and intrinsic (motivator) factors in any organization that may or may not motivate an individual.

i) Hygienic or Maintenance Factors are job factors which are necessary before an individual can be motivated. For example, an acceptable salary, company policy, supervision procedures, job security, work conditions, interpersonal relationships with one's supervisor, peers and subordinates.

Hygienic factors also known as extrinsic factors do not in themselves inspire or motivate a person to put forth maximum effort on a job. Their existence does not motivate a person but their absence demotivates an individual.

ii) Motivator or Intrinsic Factors include achievement, recognition and the possibility for growth and responsibility. Their existence motivates an individual and their absence demotivates an individual.

c) Characteristics of the Work Situation

The work situation consists of two categories: the actions, policies and culture of the organization as a whole and the immediate work environment. To motivate the individual, these have to be positive and attractive.

5.3.5 Integrative Approaches to Motivation

5.3.5.1 The Expectancy Approach

This model of motivation which was put forward by David Nadler and Edward Lwler. Specifies that the effort to achieve high performance is a function of the perceived likelihood that high performance can be achieved and will be achieved. If achieved, it will be rewarded and the reward will be worth the effort expended. The expectancy approach attempts to account for differences among individuals and situations. Three assumptions are identified in relation with the expectancy approach. They are:

a) Performance-outcome Expectancy

According to this assumption, individuals engaged in or contemplating a certain behavior expect certain consequences. For example, a worker who is thinking about doubling his or her output may expect that his act will result in praise, more pay, or perhaps no reward at all; the worker may even expect hostility from other workers. Each expected outcome will affect the individual's decision on whether or not to proceed with the contemplated behavior.

b) Valence

This refers to the value or motivating strength of a reward to the individual. Valence is determined by the individual and is not an objective quality of the outcome itself; for a given situation valence differs from one person to the next.

c) Effort- Performance Expectancy

People's expectations of how difficult it will be to perform successfully will also affect their decision on whether or not to proceed. For example, an individual may be told that increasing sales by 50 percent will lead to a much desired salary increase. Before deciding whether or not to pursue the task he asks in effect, 'Can I do it?' and 'If I do it, what will it bring to me?' and 'Is what it will bring me worth the effort of doing it?'

5.3.5.2 The Equity or Inequity Approach

This is a theory of job motivation emphasizing the role played by an individual's belief in the equity or fairness of rewards and punishments in determining his or her performance and satisfaction. Equity can be defined as a ratio between the individual's job inputs compared with the rewards others are receiving for similar job inputs.

5.3.5.3 Goal Setting Theory

This is a cognitive approach to the theory of work motivation which holds that workers are conscious (cognitive) creatures who strive toward goals.

According to psychologist Edwin Locke, the natural inclination to set and strive for goals is useful only if the individual both understands and accepts a particular goal. To motivate, goals should be:

- Specific and challenging, and
- Developed by the participation of subordinates rather than receiving them from superiors by means of one-way, top-down process.

5.3.6 Motivation Theories

5.3.6.1 Content Theories

These theories are associated with Maslow, Alderfer, Mc Gregor, Herzberg, Alkinson and Mc Clelland. Content theories stress that it is necessary to understand the factors within individuals, that cause them to act in a certain way. For example:

- a) An employee who has a strong need to achieve may be motivated to work extra hours in order to complete a difficult task on time
- b) An employee with a strong need for self-esteem may be motivated to work very carefully in order to produce high quality work.

5.3.6.2 Process Theories

Process theories emphasize how and by what goals individuals are motivated. According to these theories, needs are just one element in the process by which individuals decide how to behave. For example, individuals may see the strong possibility of receiving some reward (a salary increase) if they act in a certain way (say, by working hard). This reward will become an incentive or motive for their behavior. Basic to process theories of motivation is the notion of expectancy, i.e. what a person anticipates is likely to occur as a result of his or her behavior.

Preference-Expectancy Theory by Victor Vroom deals with this same idea. He suggested that motivation relates to two factors: preference and expectancy. For example, if a student wants to get an “A” grade in his Introduction to Management course (preference), he/she then evaluates what actions to take and how the instructor will regard the actions (expectancy).

In other words, preference is what a person wishes to happen. Expectancy is what a person believes will probably happen if certain behavior patterns are pursued.

5.3.6.3 Reinforcement Theories

These theories are associated with B.F. Skinner and others. They do not utilize the concept of a motive or a process of motivation. Instead, they deal with how the consequences of a past action influence future action in a cyclical learning process. In this view, people behave the way they do because they have learned through experience that certain behaviors are associated with pleasant outcomes and others with unpleasant outcomes.

Skinner in his “Motivation through Positive Reinforcement” states that all behavior is a result of a stimulus. Behavior is best modified by deciding what behavior pattern is desired and then selecting and using the stimulus that produces the desired behavior.

In practice, almost any thing can be a status symbol if it is recognized by the responsible group as a badge of distinction. Therefore, it would act as a positive reinforcement and thus motivate the people to whom it is given, A key to the executive wash room, a large office, a ten-year service pin, a reserved parking space and carpeting the floor of the office in which one works are ways of recognition and thereby status can be conferred.

5.3.7 Guidelines to Effective Motivation

Richard M. Steers and Lyman W.Porter suggest the following guidelines of effective motivation.

- a) Managers must actively and intentionally motivate their subordinates.
- b) Managers should understand their own strengths and limitations before attempting to modify those of others.
- c) Managers must recognize that employees have different motives and abilities.
- d) Rewards should be related to performance, not seniority or other non-merit based considerations.
- e) Jobs should be designed to offer challenge and variety; subordinates must clearly understand what is expected of them.
- f) Management should foster an organizational culture oriented to performance.

- g) Managers should stay close to employees and remedy problems as they arise.
- h) The active cooperation of employees should be sought in improving the organization's output; employees are, after all also stakeholders in the organization.

5.3.8 Basic Factors that Motivate

The following factors are considered as motivators.

5.3.8.1 Challenging Work

To motivate personnel to perform at their best, managers should try to make work as challenging as possible, keeping in mind that what is challenging to one person may not excite another.

5.3.8.2. Participation in Planning

The higher in an organization one goes, the more participation in planning becomes a strong motivational force. Even at lower levels participation is important. If an individual is allowed to participate in developing the plan and setting goals to be achieved, he feels important and valuable to the organization. This motivates him in his job.

5.3.8.3 Recognition and Status

The desire for recognition and the improved status it brings appears universal regardless of position, age, education and other factors. All of us seem to want approval from our peers as well as from our superiors. Therefore, supervisors should give recognition for a specialized effort offered by subordinates.

5.3.8.4 More Responsibility and Power

More responsibility and power satisfies the need for security. The need for security, that is the desire to be free from fear of such things as job loss, demotion and loss of income apparently are inherent in all of us. Too little or too much security can be harmful.

5.3.8.5 Independence of Action

The desire to be one's own boss appears to give more self-reliance than others. Hence, supervisors should give their subordinates freedom to make certain decisions by themselves without referring to their superiors now and then.

5.3.8.6 Opportunity for Personal Growth

Growth in skill, professional capability and experience are very important in people's lives. A strong motivational device is to promise and then deliver an opportunity to an individual to grow more skillful as a result of work experience.

5.3.8.7 Good Working Conditions

Working conditions, which include both physical and psychological factors surrounding a job, vary in importance as a motivator. Some people may like a modern work environment while others may be motivated by unattractive environment.

5.3.8.8 Job Enrichment

This factor which is also known as job reform is the process of designing jobs to make them more interesting, challenging and meaningful. It includes efforts that are planned to make jobs more satisfying such as:

- giving workers greater freedom in choosing work methods; and
- letting them plan their work.

Finally, the result of motivation is high morale. High morale is a confident, resolute, often self-sacrificing attitude of a group that has strong faith in its leadership and believes organizational goals can be achieved.

Low morale is just the opposite. It is characterized by depression, lack of confidence and negative attitude toward the achievement of goals.

5.3.9 Check your progress questions

a) Define the following

- (i) Directing
- (ii) Motivation

- b) Explain the different views towards motivation
- c) Identify similarities and differences between and among different motivational approaches, views and theories.
- d) Link the different motivational approaches, views and theories to the evolution of management.

5.4. Leadership

5.4.1 Definition of Leadership

Leadership is the art of inspiring subordinates to perform their duties willingly, competently and enthusiastically. Leaders are examples or symbols to their subordinates. Therefore, they are expected to lead subordinates by their talent and skill. A leader is one who plays a directing role and imposes a commanding influence over others. Leaders can be chosen or appointed. Managers are appointed leaders.

Chosen leaders are those chosen from among members. The leader is chosen by members; i.e. members chose their leader. The leader is chosen on the basis of dominance physically or psychologically.

Appointed leaders are those that are not chosen by members. They may or may not be members of the group. They are appointed by someone outside the group. This is practical in formal organizations.

Managers should have an ability to lead which is not of course written on the job description but simply an implied one. Leaders are more likely to arise during crises such as war, or depression than when conditions are stable. When people feel threatened they are eager to follow someone who appears able to protect them and return conditions to normal.

5.4.2 Approaches to the Study of Leadership

There are three major approaches to the study of leadership: Trait, behavioral and situational approaches.

5.4.2.1 The Trait Approach to the Study of Leadership

According to this approach, leadership emphasizes psychological traits (qualities), compelling obedience from subordinates. The leader is endowed with natural psychological traits that give him/her advantages over most mortals. Leaders in general as a group have been found to be brighter more extrovert and more self-confident than non-leaders; they also tend to be taller. This theory is connected to the notion that leaders are born and not made. However, this approach is contested by a number of weaknesses. Even though it was mostly accepted during 1930s and 1950s.

5.4.2.2 The Behavioral Approach to the Study of Leadership

Unlike traits, behaviors can be learned and so it follows that individuals trained in appropriate leadership behavior would be able to lead more effectively. Thus, rather than trying to figure out what effective leaders were, researchers tried to determine what effective leaders did, how they delegate tasks, how they communicated with and tried to motivate their subordinates, how they carried out their tasks and so on.

These researchers have focused on two aspects of leadership behavior: leadership functions and leadership styles. The two major functions of leaders are “task related” or problem-solving functions and “group-maintenance” or social functions. Task-related functions might include suggesting solutions and offering information and opinions; group maintenance functions may include anything that helps the group operate more smoothly, agreeing with or complimenting another group member or mediating group disagreements.

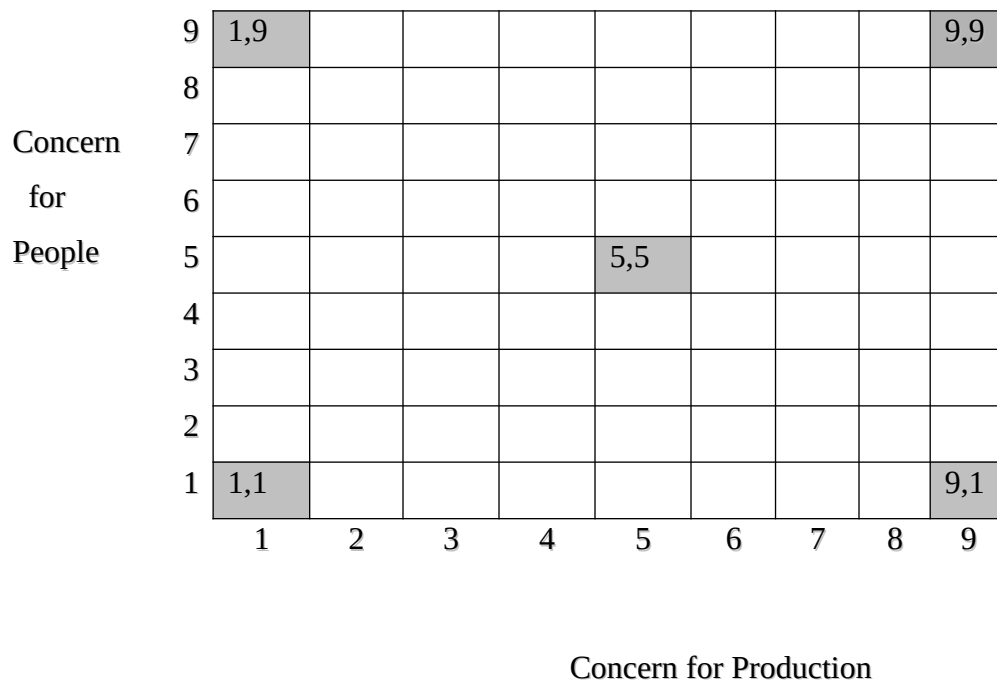
Leadership behavior focuses on one of two styles that a leader may use in dealing with subordinates: a task-oriented style and an employee-oriented style.

Task-oriented managers closely supervise subordinates to ensure that the task is performed to their satisfaction. A manager with this leadership style is more concerned with getting the job done than with the development and growth of subordinates.

Employee-oriented managers try to motivate rather than to control subordinates. They encourage group members to perform tasks by allowing group members to participate in decisions that affect them and by forming friendly, trusting and respectful relationships with group members. In order to analyze the relationship between the two factors a matrix grid has been developed.

The Leadership Grid

The Managerial/Leadership Grid, developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton to help measure a manager's relative concern for people and tasks is depicted below. In the diagram the relative concern of leaders for people and task is depicted in a two dimensional matrix grid. The vertical line represents concern for people whereas the horizontal line represents concern for production.



Concern for Production

Style 1,1 management is impoverished management; low concern for people and low concern for tasks or production. This style is sometimes called laissez-faire management, because the leader abdicates his or her leadership role. Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organizational membership.

Style 1,9 management is country club management. High concern for employees but low concern for production. Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

Style 9,1 management is task or authoritarian management. It shows high concern for production and efficiency but low concern for employees. Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

Style 5,5 is a middle-of-the-road management. Here an intermediate amount of concern for both production and employee satisfaction exists. Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

Style 9,9 management is team or democratic management. It indicates a high concern for both production and employee morale and satisfaction. Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a 'common stake' in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

5.4.2.3 Open System Leadership Theory: A Planning and Integrating Process

According to this theory, organizational leadership (as opposed to group leadership) must be macro and micro in its scope and extend through the

organization all the way to the employees who are actually doing the jobs, which is composed of objectives and the mission of the system. Leadership must also extend upward and outward into the external environment, controlling some systems and being controlled by others when appropriate (Hanson, 1979).

According to this theory, leadership can be thought of as a process by which the policies, people, and other resources of an organization can be integrated into a cohesive and effective effort to accomplish goal under the control of a management team that works within a planned framework established by the chief executive.

The management team is a problem-solving, program-developing leadership unit. Ideally, the member of the team possess high performance work norms and balanced mix of expertise and skills. The chief executive builds his/her management team through training and selection. He/she is only as effective as the management team he/she builds. The team members, not the chief executive, control the levels of information and power and exercise leadership in the far reaches of the organization (Hanson, 1979).

5.4.2.4 Contingency Approach to the Study of Leadership

No one trait was common to all effective leaders and no one style was effective in all situations. Therefore, this new approach was developed to include situations that influenced the effectiveness of a particular leadership style.

Contingency approach is the view that the management technique that best contributes to the attainment of organizational goals might vary in different types of situations or circumstances. Some of the situational factors in leadership effectiveness are:

a) the leader's personality, past experience and future expectations.

Naturally a manager's values, background, experiences and expectations affect his or her style of leadership.

b) the expectations and behavior of superiors.

c) subordinate's characteristics, expectations and behaviors.

d) task requirements

Jobs that require precise instructions demand a more task-oriented style than do jobs whose operating procedures can be left largely to the individual employees.

e) organizational culture and policies

The culture and policies of an organization shape the leader's behavior and the expectations of subordinates.

f) peers' expectations and behavior

The opinions and attitudes of a manager's peers can often affect how effectively the manager performs; hostile colleagues may harm the manager's reputation by competing for resources and behaving uncooperatively.

5.4.2.5 Contingency Models of Leadership

a) Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Model

This model describes how leaders should adjust their leadership style in response to their subordinate's evolving desire for achievement, experience, ability and willingness to accept responsibility. It believes that the most effective leadership style varies with the "maturity" of subordinates. Maturity – not as age or emotional stability but as desire for achievement, willingness to accept responsibility and task-related ability and experience.

b) Leadership Style and the Work Situation : The Fiedler Model

The basic assumption of this model is that it is quite difficult for managers to alter the management styles that have helped them develop successful careers and that, in fact, most managers are not very flexible. Fiedler believes that trying to change a manager's style to fit unpredictable or fluctuating situations is inefficient or useless. Since styles are relatively inflexible, and since no one style is appropriate for every situation, effective group performance can be achieved by matching the manager to the situation or by changing the situation to fit the manager.

Fiedler had identified three "leadership situations" that help to determine which leadership style will be effective: Leader-member situation, the task structure and the leader's position power.

i) Leader-Member Relations

The quality of the interaction between a leader and his subordinates is the most important influence on the manager's power. If the manager gets along well with the rest of the group, if group members respect the manager for reasons of personality, character or ability, then the manager may not have to rely on formal rank or authority. On the other hand, a manager who is disliked or distressed may be less able to lead informally and may have to rely on directives to accomplish group tasks.

ii) Task Structure

This is a work situation variable that helps to determine a manager's power. In structured tasks, managers automatically have high power; in unstructured tasks; the manager's power is diminished. A highly structured task is one in which:

- step-by-step procedures or instructions for the task are available;
- group members have a very clear idea of what they are expected to do;
- managers have a great deal of authority;
- guidelines are developed to measure worker performance; and
- managers instructions can be backed by a note book or manual.

When tasks re unstructured as in committee meetings:

- group member roles are more ambiguous.
- no clear guidelines on how to proceed.
- manager's power is diminished, since group members can more easily disagree with or question the manager's instructions.

iii) Position Power

This is the power that is inherent in the formal position the leader holds. This power may be great or small depending upon the specific position. High position power simplifies leader's task of influencing subordinates, while low position power makes a leader's task more difficult.

c) A Path-Goal Approach to Leadership

This approach formulated by Martin G. Evans and Robert J. House, emphasizes the leader's role in clarifying for subordinates how they can achieve high performance and its associated rewards.

This approach is based on the expectancy model which states that an individual's motivation depends on his or her expectation of reward and valence or attractiveness of the reward. It focuses on the leader as a source of rewards and attempts to predict how different types of rewards and different leadership styles affect the motivation, performance and satisfaction of subordinates. This approach views the leader's ability as the most important to provide rewards and clarify what subordinates must do to earn them. Leaders determine the availability of "goals" (rewards) and make clear the "paths" to be taken to reach them.

5.4.3 Major Principles or Guidelines of Leading/Leadership

H. Koontz (1989, p. 485-489), in his book "Management" points out the following principles of managerial leadership.

- a) Principle of harmony of objective. The more managers can harmonize the personal goals of individuals with the goals of the enterprise, the more effective and efficient the enterprise will be.
- b) Principle of motivation. Since Motivation is not a simple cause-and-effect matter, the more managers carefully assess a reward structure, look upon it from a situation and contingency point of view, and integrate it into the entire system of managing, the more effective a motivation program and leadership will be.
- c) Principles of leadership. People tend to follow those who, in their view, offer them a means of satisfying their personal goals; therefore, the more managers understand what motivates operatives, and the more they reflect this understanding in carrying out their managerial actions, the more effective they are likely to be as leaders.
- d) Principle of communication clarity. Communication tends to be clear when it is expressed in a language and transmitted in a way that can be understood by the

receiver. The responsibility of the sender is to formulate the message so that it is understandable to the receiver. The responsibility pertains primarily to written and oral communication and points to the necessity for planning the message, staffing the underlying assumptions, and applying the generally accepted roles for effective writing and speaking.

- e) Principle of communication integrity. The greater the integrity and consistency of written, oral and nonverbal messages, as well as of the moral behavior of the sender, the greater the acceptance of the message by the receiver.
- f) Principle of supplemental use of informal organization. Communication tends to be more effective when managers utilize the informal organization to supplement the communication channels of the formal organization. Informal organization is a phenomenon managers must accept. Information, true or not, flows quickly through the informal organization. Consequently, P.T.O managers should take advantage of this device to correct misinformation and to provide information that cannot be effectively sent or appropriately received through the formal communication system.

5.4.4 Personal Characteristics of an Ideal Leader

Leadership is an intangible art. The success /effectiveness of leaders can best be judged by the behavior of their subordinates not by what they profess. When subordinates perform well, cooperate effectively and put forth extra effort to achieve group goals, the manager is described as a good leader. When people perform badly fail to cooperate and do a minimal amount of work the manager is described as a weak or ineffective leader.

“ The overall effectiveness of leadership is a function of the effectiveness of decisions minus the cost of making the decisions plus the value realized in developing people’s abilities by means of committed decision making.” Vroom and Jago.

The following are personal characteristics of an ideal leader

- a) Ability to inspire others. A leader’s charisma is his/her personal qualities of being attractive, extra-special and usually interesting. These qualities enable the leader to be acceptable by his/her followers.

- b) Ability to understand human behavior. To gain the respect and cooperation of people, it is necessary to understand them and give them the due respect.
- c) Similarity to the group. Occasionally, there is a need on the part of managers to look like the group when some kinds of social gathering goes on.
- d) Verbal assertiveness. An ideal leader is assertive; he/she has the ability to speak up and make people understand him/her.
- e) Willingness to communicate honestly. In life, honesty is the best policy. This means, an ideal leader tells the truth; straight forwardness, fairness in conduct and speech, openness and transparency are good and essential qualities.
- f) Ability to set up example to be followed. An ideal is diligent. He/she does not behave in a manner that goes against the ethical and cultural standards of the people with whom he/she works.
- g) Willingness to take risks. An ideal leader is daring enough to take risks in the right proportion. It is this readiness to take risks that makes organizational life more exciting.
- h) Willingness to assume responsibility. An ideal leader does not shun responsibility. He/she knows and takes responsibility that a position entails.
- i) Willingness to be supportive of personnel. Occasionally situations force the leader to assume a paternalistic attitude towards personnel that are desperately in problems that they could not overcome without the help of the organization.
- j) Skill in the art of compromise. Compromising is one of the techniques of resolving conflicts. It is an art that requires skill. An ideal leader needs to master this art.
- k) Ability to tolerate criticism. Criticisms are either constructive or destructive. AS a leader, a manager has to be able to differentiate the two, accept the constructive, and refute the destructive ones convincingly.

So, according to the contingency theory of leadership described above, situational factors and certain personality attributes or traits interact in determining leadership effectiveness. This theory, as pointed out earlier, considers contingency variables as those variables that influence the relationship between leadership styles and subordinate response to those styles.

5.4.5 Theories of Leadership Styles

Rensis Likert has developed a system for classifying leaders in to four based on their leadership style. They are:

5.4.5.1 Exploitative – Authoritative Leadership Style

- They are autocratic
- They do not seek the opinions of subordinates
- They make all major decisions independently
- They motivate through fear and punishment

5.4.5.2 Benevolent – Authoritative Leadership Style

- They have a “big-daddy” approach to leadership.
- They sometimes seek advice from subordinates, but make key decisions themselves.
- They use both fear and rewards to motivate.
- They say to subordinates, “I will treat you all right and see that your needs are met if you play along with the system.”

5.4.5.3 Consultative Leadership Style

- They have considerable confidence in their subordinates.
- They delegate extensively.
- They encourage subordinates to make recommendations.
- They rely on rewards more than punishment to motivate.

5.4.5.4 Democratic Participative – Group leadership style

- They intentionally seek to involve members of the group in decision making process
- They liberally delegate authority and use rewards, not punishment to motivate.

- This leadership style is more effective in achieving group goals than any other style.

Other indicates a fifth category as laissez-faire style of leadership. These leaders do not have a leadership ability and confidence. They do not set goals to the group rather the group sets its own goal.

5.4.6 Supervision as a Facilitating Tool of Leadership Activities

5.4.6.1 Meaning of Supervision

Supervision means overseeing subordinates at work. It implies a face-to-face contact between the supervisor and those whom he/she supervises. The aim is to ensure that subordinates work efficiently and effectively to accomplish the tasks assigned to them. The function of supervision is universal. That is, it is performed at all levels of management from top to bottom.

5.4.6.2 Qualities of a Good Supervisor

- a) Knowledge of the organization. A good supervisor knows his organization very well.
- b) Technical ability. A good supervisor knows her/his job very well.
- c) Ability to communicate well. A good supervisor transmits information eloquently.
- d) Ability to listen. A good supervisor is an excellent listener.
- e) Ability to memorize. A good supervisor is not forgetful.
- f) Ability to secure cooperation through good leadership.
- g) Ability to think logically. A good supervisor is reasonable.
- h) Ability to judge people objectively. A good supervisor is fair.
- i) Patience and emotional stability. A good supervisor is not temperamental.
- j) Ability to instruct and inspire. A good supervisor is an excellent teacher.
- k) Ability to delegate. A good supervisor authority with others.
- l) Physical vigor. A good supervisor tries to keep physically fit and healthy.

5.4.7 Leadership and Conflict Resolution/Management

5.4.7.1 Definition of Conflict

A conflict is an interactive state manifested in disagreements, differences or incapability within or between social entities (individuals, groups and whole organization). It is a fact of life that occurs and a result of incompatible goals interfering with each other as they try to attain their respective goals.

There are five stages of conflict.

Stage 1. Latent conflict-arises from competition.

Stage 2. Perceived conflict-may arise due to misunderstandings of the points of view of others:

Stage 3. Felt conflict-is a stage at which perceived conflict develops into felt conflict creating anxieties and tensions

Stage 4. Manifest conflict-may take the form of any conflict behavior breakdowns of cooperative interaction- fistfights, insults, etc.

Stage 5. Conflict aftermath- results from inadequate resolution of conflict situations. If suppressed, the latent conditions for conflict will remain to flare up again at a later date.

5.4.7.2 Types of Conflict

- a) Intra-personal/Intra-individual conflict-occurs when a member of an organization is required to perform certain tasks and roles which do not match his/her expertise, goals, interests and values.
- b) Inter-personal/Inter-individual conflict refers to conflict between two or more organization members of the same or different hierarchical levels or merits. It can be generated from disagreement over organization policies, power struggles, competitions, anger, distrust, fear, rejection, etc.
- c) Intra-group/Intra-individual group conflict is conflict among members of a group (department) or between two or more sub-groups within a group; it may also occur as a result of incompatibilities or disagreements between some or all members of a group. It can be generated from leadership styles of the heads, or an individual violating group norms.

- d) Inter-group conflict-is between two or more units or groups within an organization. Conflicts between line and staff, administrative quarters, and departments are examples.

Conflicts can be positives/functional (result in better ideas, innovations, etc), or negative/dysfunctional.

The amount of performance depends on the levels of conflicts. Low conflict results in good performance while high conflict results in anxiety, fear and reduced performance.

5.4.7.3 Methods of Conflict Resolving/Conflict Management

Depending on whether the conflict is functional or dysfunctional, one can stimulate or resolve it.

The following are five methods of resolving conflicts.

- a) Dominating or compelling. This approach depends on forcing behavior to win one's position.
- b) Smoothing or obliging refers to the tendency to minimize or suppress the open recognition of real or perceived differences while emphasizing common interests.
- c) Compromising refers to the tendency to sacrifice one's own position by seeking a middle ground by splitting the differences in conflict situations. This is the most widely used technique.
- d) Integrating involves openness in exchange of information, and examination of differences to reach a solution that is acceptable to both parties.
- e) Avoiding or flight is withdrawing, by-passing, and side-stepping. This is at the other extreme of dominance.

Conflict resolution must be handled just like a problem-solving process. UNESCO suggests the following scientific steps.

- Recognize the existence of the problem;
- Establish a hypothetical solution(s);

- Select the hypothesis and assess its feasibility;
- Select the optimal (best) solution; and
- Check and make adjustment if necessary.

The manager can be an initiator, a defendant, and a mediator or conciliator in conflict situations.

As a conflict initiator, he develops and employs mechanism for the discovery of conflict of interests expressed through grievances, work procedures, direct observations, suggestion boxes, open door policy, personnel counselors, etc.

As a conflict defendant, the manager uses his authority to dominate conflict situations because others defer to the forcefulness or magnetism of his personality; he also dominates by arranging facts for compelling arguments.

As a conflict mediator or conciliator, the manager can use a preventive-maintenance approach, which involves designing and structuring the organization in ways that lessen the potential for destructive conflict; or he can use a fire-fighting approach, which involves coping with problems as they develop.

The ideal resolution to a conflict is to remove its source or to help the participants reach a mutually satisfying solution.

5.4.7.4 Check your progress question

- a) Define the following:
 - i) Leadership
 - ii) Supervision
 - iii) Conflict
- b) Identify the principles of leadership and briefly discuss them.
- c) Identify the different leadership theories and approaches and briefly explain them.
- d) Compare and contrast the different leadership approaches and theories of leadership.
- e) Identify the qualities of a good supervisor
- f) Identify the personal characteristics of an ideal leader

- g) Identify the methods of conflict management methods and discuss them briefly.
- h) What are organizational conflicts?
- i) What are the different stages of conflicts?

5.5.Communication

5.5.1 Definition

There is no agreeable single definition for communication but a number of scholars define it in the following manner.

- Communication is effective self-expression.
- Communication is the exchange of messages in writing, speaking or images.
- Communication is sharing information of providing entertainment through works or speech or other methods.
- Communication is the exchange of meanings between individuals using a common symbol system.
- Communication is the process whereby one person transmits a message through a channel to another person, with some effect.
- Communication is an intercourse by words, letters, symbols or messages and is a way that one organization member shares meaning and understanding with another.” Koontz and O'Donnell.
- To communicate means to make known, to impart or to transmit information.

Each definition has elements of truth or utility, but no one of them is complete. Managers, rarely, spend their time alone at their desks thinking, planning or contemplating alternatives. Infact managerial time is spent largely in face-to-face electronic or telephone communication with subordinates, peers, supervisors, suppliers or customers. They transmit and receive ideas, reports, data and other forms of information needed to make an enterprise function. The success achieved by an organization reflects the effectiveness of its communication.

5.5.2 Elements in the Communication Process

Communication can be thought of as a process involving five elements.

- a) The message sender is the person who sends the message.

- b) The message is the information.
 - c) The encoder is the person who feeds the message in the message vehicle.
 - d) The message vehicle is the means by which the message is transmitted. The vehicle may be:
 - i) Face-to-face. This includes one-to-one contact personally in discussion or several people in discussion, committee meetings, etc.
 - ii) Written Statements. Which may include memos, status reports, recommendations, tax reports, letters, etc.
 - iii) Advertisement. Which may include radio, television, newspaper, magazine, billboard direct mail etc.
 - iv) Telephone telegraph, e-mail, fax
- Factors used to determine the message vehicle are:
- Urgency – telephone call or personal visit, not a letter.
 - Importance – fax instead of a telephone to have a record.
 - Delicacy of the message – if the message is sensitive, face-to-face conversation than sending memo or a letter is better.
 - Cost Considerations
 - When the message is intended for a large number of people.
 - a news item or an advertisement instead of telephone calls, telegrams or personal letters.
 - Future reference to information
 - If the message may need to be referred to later:
 - a written vehicle (letter, memo, report, and so on) or
 - a tape recording is best.
- e) The decoder is the person who interprets the message from the message-vehicle.
 - f) The message recover is any one the message sender wants to influence or inform.
 - g) The message feedback is the reversal of the communication process that occurs when the receiver expresses his or her reaction to the senders message.

h) Noise -Anything that confuses, disturbs, diminishes or interferes with communication. It may occur at any stage of communication and it can be internal or external.

For communication to be effective, the message must be as brief and simple as possible.

5.5.3 Types of Communication

Communication may be

- One way or two-way
- Formal or informal
- Vertical or Horizontal or diagonal

5.5.3.1 One way communication

Any communication from the sender without expecting or getting feedback from the receiver. Example, policy statements from top managers.

5.5.3.2 Two way communication

Any communication that occurs or exists when the receiver provides feedback to the sender. Example, making a suggestion to a subordinate and receiving a question or counter suggestion.

5.5.3.3 Formal communication is inherent to organizational communication and it might be vertical (downward, upward) or horizontal. It follows formal channels in an organization and maintains the hierarchy of authority and chain of command.

Downward communication starts with top management and flows down through management levels to line workers and non supervisory personnel. Its major purposes are to advise, inform, direct, instruct and evaluate subordinates and to provide organization members with information about organizational goals and objectives.

a) Upward communication is the transmission of information formally from the lower levels of the organization to the top. Its main function is to supply information to the upper levels about what is happening at the lower levels. It includes progress reports, suggestions, explanations, and requests for aid or decisions.

b) Lateral/Horizontal Communication

This is a type of formal communication between people at different units having the same status in an organizational structure. It is communication between and among members of work group, different departments, one work group and another, line and staff. Its main purpose is to provide a direct channel for organizational coordination and problem solving. It helps to avoid a much slower procedure of communications through a common superior. It also enables organization members to form relationships with their peers.

5.5.3.4 Informal Communication is the grapevine. Grapevines are developed within an organization as a result of common hobbies, hometowns, lunch or tea breaks, family ties, and social relationships among employees. The grapevine in an organization is made up of several informal communication networks that overlap and intersect at a number of points. It disregards rank and authority and may link organization members in any combination of directions-horizontal, vertical and diagonal.

5.5.4 Barriers to Effective Communication

Any factor that impels the exchange of information between a sender and receiver is a barrier to communication,

The following are some of the most common barriers of effective communication:

- a) Differing perceptions:-Individual variation is one common source of communication barriers. People who have different backgrounds of knowledge and experience often perceive the same phenomenon from different perspectives.
- b) Language differences: - For a message to be properly communicated, the words used must mean the same thing to the sender and the receiver. The same symbolic meaning must be shared. Jargons must be avoided.
- c) Noise: - Any factor that disturbs confuses or otherwise interferes with communication. Noise leads to information distortion.

- d) **Emotionality:** - Emotional reactions such as anger, love, defensiveness, hate, jealousy, fear, and embarrassment influence how we understand others' messages and how we influence others with our own messages.
- e) **Inconsistent Verbal and Nonverbal Communication**
The message we send and receive are strongly influenced by such nonverbal factors as body movements, clothing, the distance we stand from the person we are talking to, our posture, gestures, facial expression, eye movement and body contact.
- f) **Distrust:** The credibility of a message is to a large extent a function of the credibility of the sender in the mind of the receiver. A sender's credibility is in turn determined by a variety of factors.
- g) **Filtering:** - Is the act of interpreting information only having better conditions.

5.5.5 Overcoming Barriers to Communication

Overcoming barriers is a two-step process. First one must learn to recognize the various types of barriers that can occur. Second, one must act to overcome the barriers.

- a) **Overcoming differing perceptions**
The message should be explained so that it can be understood by those with different views and experiences.
- b) **Overcoming differences in language**
The meanings of unconventional or technical terms should be explained; single, direct and natural language should be used.
- c) **Overcoming noise**
Noise is best dealt with by eliminating it. As a whole it is good to avoid distracting environments. When noise is unavoidable, increase the clarity and strength of the message.
- d) **Overcoming emotionality**

Before a crisis, try to understand your subordinate's emotional reactions and prepare yourself to deal with receivers. Also think about your own moods and how they influence others.

e) Overcoming inconsistent verbal and nonverbal communication

Gestures, clothes, posture, facial expression and other powerful nonverbal communications should agree with the message.

f) Overcoming distrust

Overcoming distrust is to a large extent the process of creating trust.

g) Redundancy

Being redundant purposefully might be necessary. Repeating or restating a message ensures its perception or reinforces its impact.

5.5.6 Characteristics of Communication

The following are some of the characteristics of communication

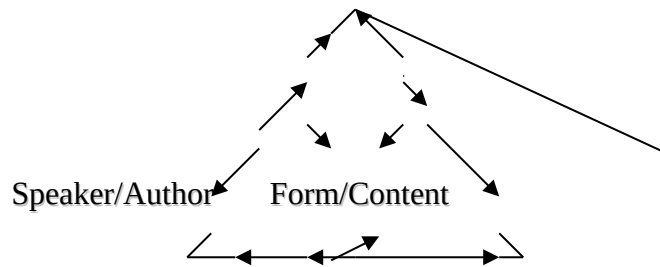
- a) Communication is a process.
- b) Communication is symbolic-gestures, sounds, letters, numbers and words represent an idea meant to communicate.
- c) Communication is contextual-the meaning may vary depending on contexts
- d) Communication is purposive- it is done to share meaning, to impart information or influence.
- e) Communication is two way
- f) Communication involves people.

5.5.7 Models of Communication

a) Aristotle's Model

This is the earliest model which is the foundation of speech communication as a discipline. Aristotle tried to understand what constituted effective public speaking or oratory. The variables are the speaker, the message and audience. The figure below shows these variables.

Audience/Reader



b) David Berlo's Model

This is one of the simplest and most urgent contemporary models of communications. It is commonly referred to as the **SMCR** model. This stands for source –Message–Channel–Receiver.

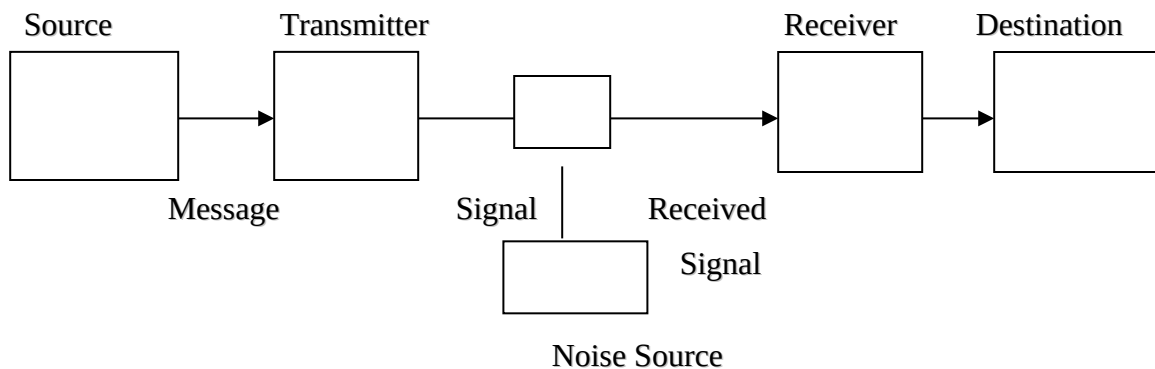
Six basic constituents:

- i) the source
- ii) the encoder
- iii) the message
- iv) the channel
- v) the decoder
- vi) the receiver

In a face-to-face communication (i) and (ii) and (v) and (vi) are the same.

c) Shammon and Weaner's Model

Information

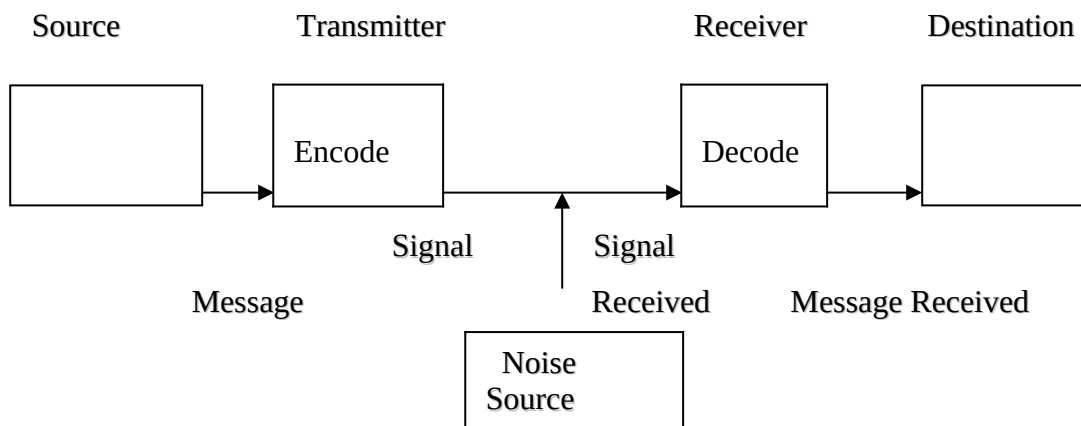


This model introduced new concepts to communication

- i) Noise – is anything in the channel (or medium) that interferes with the message.

- ii) Bits or binary digits are the information a channel could carry in a given period of time and noise's adverse effects on the information flow.
- iii) Channel noise is the interference which exists in the medium of communication.
- iv) Semantic noise is when we do not exactly share the communication context and the messages are noisy.
- v) Entropy is the unpredictability that contains more information.
- vi) Redundancy is the predictability that contains less information.

d) Gerbne's Model

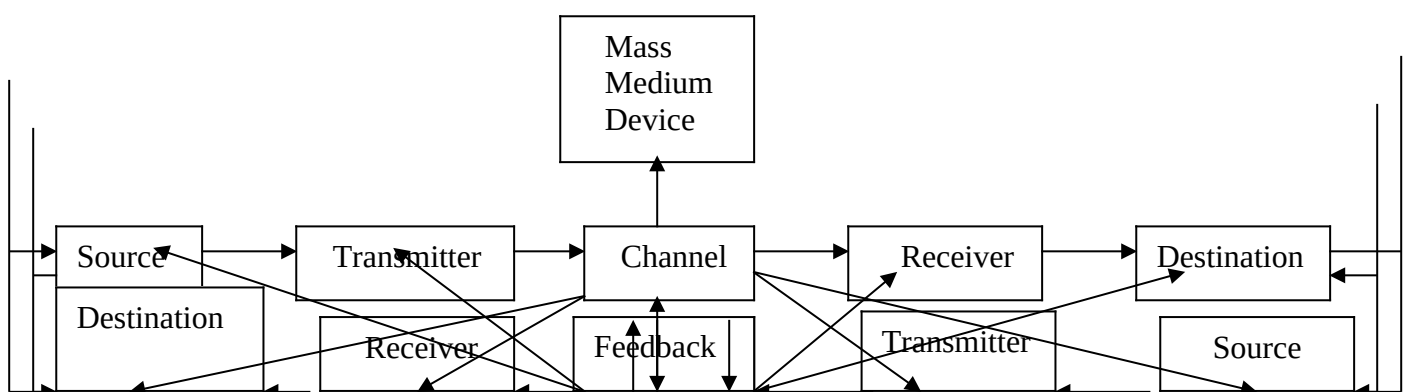


e) Lasswell's Model

Lasswell concluded that a useful way to describe communication was to ask the following about communication:

- i) Who?
- ii) Says what?
- iii) In which channel?
- iv) To whom?
- v) With what effect?

f) Defluer's Model



5.5.8 Check your progress questions

- a) Define communication
- b) What are the important elements of the communication process?
- c) What are the different types of communication?

Define each type of communication.

- d) Identify the common barriers of communication and briefly explain the methods of overcoming these barriers.
- e) What are the characteristics of communication?

Recommended Books

1. Harold Koontz, and O'Donnell, (1985) Management, 9th ed., Mc Graw Hill Co.,USA.
2. Robert Krietner, (1996) Management, 6th ed., AITBS Publishers and Distributors, India.
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