CHAPTER - 4
DIRECTION

Direction consists of telling people what to do and seeing that they do it to the best of their abilities (Dale) 1

The process of directing consists of the following steps: -

- Issuing orders and instructions that are clear, complete and within the capabilities of the subordinates.
- Continuing guidance and supervision to ensure that the assigned tasks are carried out efficiently and effectively.
- Maintaining discipline and rewarding those who perform well.
- Inspiring the subordinate to work hard for the achievement of predetermined targets.
- Thus motivation, leadership, communication and supervision are the main elements of directing.
- Direction is a complex function as it deals with people whose behaviours are unpredictable.

The following are the principles of direction.

- Principle of harmony of objectives: Management must reconcile the personal goals of the employees with the organizational goals.
- Principle of maximum individual contributions: Managers must try to elicit maximum possible contribution from each subordinate.
Unity of Command – a subordinate should get orders and instructions from only one superior. If he is made accountable to two bosses, simultaneously, there will be confusion conflict and indiscipline in the organization.

Principle of appropriate techniques: the techniques used should be suitable to the superior, subordinate and the situation.

Direct supervision:

Direction is more effective when there is direct personal contact between the superior and his subordinates.

Strategic use of informal organization: Management must understand and make use of informal groups to strengthen the formal relationships.

Managerial communications: There must be a good system of communication between the superior and his subordinates. Upward communication will help the manager to understand his subordinates and give an opportunity to the subordinates to express their feelings.

Comprehension managers must ensure that subordinates correctly understand their orders and instructions.

Principle of Effective leadership managers must act as leaders so that they can influence the activities of their subordinates without dissatisfying them.

Principle of follow through: After issuing orders and instructions a manager must find out whether the subordinates are working properly and what problems they are facing.

**Leadership**

"Leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives.\(^2\)"
The following are the features of leadership:

- Leadership does not exist in a vacuum. A leader must have followers.
- A leader influences his followers willingly and not by force or coercion
- Leadership is exercised for a given situation. It is a function of the leader the follower and other situational variables.
- Leadership is a working relationship between the leaders and his followers
- This means that the leaders must be active participants in the activities of the group.
- The purpose of leadership is to achieve some common goals:
- A leader seeks to make the follower strive willingly to accomplish group objectives.
- Leadership is a social interaction influence process between the leader and his followers. It is an interpersonal process of influencing behaviour
- Leadership is a continuous and dynamic process of influencing behaviour.
- It is also a psychological process. It is complex and multidimensional in character

Importance of Leadership

The success of a business enterprise depends greatly upon the quality of its leadership. A weak leader will wreck the morale and destroy the efficiency. A strong leader can transform an ailing concern into a successful enterprise

Some of the important functions performed by a leader are:

- Guiding people by acting as a friend, philosopher and guide to the group.
Developing team work by securing co-operation and coordination

Maintaining discipline, which is necessary for the achievement of objectives.

Building Morale

Representing his group by acting as a Linking pin between the work group and forces outside it.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

The Behaviour exhibited by a leader during supervision of subordinates is known as leadership style. Leadership styles can be classified into three broad Categories

I Autocratic or Authoritarian Leadership

Here the Leader exercises complete control over the subordinates. He centralizes power in himself and takes all decisions without consulting the subordinates. He dominates his group through coercion and command.

The leader gives orders and expects the subordinates to follow them without asking any questions. He does not delegate authority. He uses rewards and holds threat of penalties to direct the subordinates.

Autocratic style permits quick decision making and can be applied with success in situations where:

(1) The subordinates lack knowledge of company goals

(2) The subordinates are inexperienced or lack in training

(3) The company endorses fear and punishment as accepted disciplinary techniques

(4) The leader prefers to be active and dominant in decision making

(5) There is little room for error in final accomplishment

This style however leads to frustration, low morale and conflict among subordinates. Autocratic style is becoming less desirable these days as employees are becoming more educated and well organized.
II Democratic/participative leadership

Here the Leader takes decisions in consultation and participation with subordinates. He decentralizes authority and allows the subordinates to share his power. The leader does what the group wants and follows the majority opinion.

He keeps the followers informed about the matters affecting them.

The leader listens to the suggestion, grievances and opinion of the subordinates.

This style of leadership is approximate where:

(1) The organisation has communicated its goals and objectives to the subordinates and the subordinates have accepted them

(2) Rewards and Involvement are used as the primary means of motivation and control

(3) The workers are reasonably knowledgeable and experienced

(4) The leaders truly desires to hear the ideas of his employees before making decisions

(5) The time for task completion allows for participation

However this style is time consuming and may result in delays in decision making.

Besides it may be used as a means of passing the Buck to others and of abdicating responsibility

The choice of the leadership style depends upon the immediate goal and on the subordinates. If the immediate goal is increase in productivity or subordinates have low need for independence, autocratic style is preferable
III Free rein or Laissez-faire Leadership

This involves complete delegation of authority so that subordinates themselves take decisions. The free-rein leader avoids power and relinquishes the leadership position.

This style may be approximate where the subordinates are well trained, highly knowledgeable, self-motivated and ready to assume responsibility.

THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Researches on leadership have identified three main approaches to leadership-trait theory, behavioural theory and situational theory.

I Trait Theory

It also known as the Great Man Theory. It follows that a leader is thought to possess certain traits, which separate him from the common mass of followers.

Researches have identified the following traits of leaders:

1. Physical qualities like good health, enthusiasm, personality etc
2. Intellectual qualities like high intelligence, sound judgement, scientific approach etc
3. Moral qualities like integrity, sense of purpose, achievement etc
4. Social qualities like tact, persuasiveness, Empathy, self-confidence, initiative, knowledge of human nature and human relations

II Behavioural Theory

This theory attempts to describe leadership in terms of what the leaders do rather than what they are.
According to this approach, leadership is a function of effective role behaviour. In other words, an effective leader is one who performs those acts, which help the group to achieve its objectives.

Blake and Mouton have developed a grid to explain leader behaviour called the managerial grid.

In the Managerial grid, the x-axis represents the concern for production while y-axis represents concern for people. Concern for production implies the managerial attitudes about volume of output, work procedures, work efficiency, etc. Concern for people means degree of personal commitment, self-esteem of workers, responsibility based on trust, and satisfying interpersonal relations. A manager has to get things done through people and therefore he is concerned with both the task and the people.

**The five styles of the grid are:**

**Impoverished (1,1):** The manager has low concern for both production and people.

**Country Club (1,9):** The leader has maximum concern for people and minimum concern for production.

**Task (9,1):** The leader is mainly concerned with production and has little concern for people.

**Team (9,9):** The leader has maximum concern for both production and people. (9, 9) is considered as the best leadership style (TEAM STYLE).

**III Situational Theories**

According to this theory, no leadership style is the best for all times and for all situations.
Leader effectiveness is the result of the situation in which the leader operates. Therefore situational variables must be analysed before an optimum style is selected.

The leader should adjust his style according to the nature of the task, the type of followers and the environment to improve his leadership effectiveness. Some of the important models of situational leadership are

1. FIEDLERS contingency model
2. House path-goal model
3. Life Cycle model
4. Hersey Blanchard model

Leadership is replete with multi-myriad reams of research theories and multifarious definitions. After over fifty years of empirical investigations, leadership remains an enigma. It is wrapped up in the paper of management and is tightly knotted with the cords of incomprehension and confusion.

Infact the term has never been clearly defined. There are many different definition of leaderships as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. The lack of generally accepted definition of the concept has led to a mushrooming growth of contingency models, path goal, and open system models, not to mention the transactional and vertical dyad approaches. Unfortunately the growing mountain of research information has produced an impressive mass of contradictions. Ralph Stogdill, after reviewing over three thousand studies, humble declares that as far as the understanding of the leadership is concerned only a beginning has been made. Frustrated writers feel that the concept has outlived its usefulness and must be abandoned in “favour of some other more fruitful way of cutting up of the theoretical pie”.

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**Skipping through a mine field:**

Leadership is a value loaded term. To many persons it has a dictatorial ring, associated with Führer concept and connotes people being driven away by a hypnotic influence. Early notion about leadership dealt with it almost in terms of personal abilities. Leaders were credited with super natural powers such as the ability to see through men's minds, to tell the future and to compel obedience hypnotically. Leadership is viewed as a characteristic of the individual. In the recent times such super natural explanations have given away to more rational explanations. The irony that permeates the existing literature is the lack of structural and universally acceptable definition of leadership. Leadership is defined as the process of influencing group activities toward the accomplishment of goals in a given situation. In this context the leader is viewed as the person in the group who is capable of influencing group activities with regard to goal formation and goal accomplishment.

The above definition contains many important points.

1. Leadership is a relation between two or more people in which influence and power are unevenly distributed.

2. Leaders do not flourish in vacuum. The essence of leadership is followership. Leadership implies that the followers must consent to being influenced. They must suspend their judgment and allow another person to make decisions in specific situations. This relationship involves psychological or economic exchange. Leaders gain their authority over a group by group consensus alone.

3. The leadership is a function of the leader, the follower and other situational variables. It is a matter of removing barriers in a situation so that subordinates work with freedom and independence.

4. Leadership is essentially a continuous process of influencing behavior. A leader breathes life into the group and motivates it toward goals. The lukewarm desires for achievement are transformed into a burning passion for accomplishment.

5. Leadership is something a person does, not something he has. Leadership is something that emerges, that grows and that is achieved.
What a leader does?

Leader is not a lay figure. He has much to do; such as, help groups in achieving their objectives, initiate changes help make decisions and resolve differences among the people. The functions may be relatively straight-forward such as choosing the group goal, supervising performance, making plans. The functions may also be much more complexity times, such as serving to integrate the groups needs with outside realities, satisfying interpersonal needs within the groups, creating an atmosphere free of conflict for group members. In the wake of vast, rapid technological changes leader has to perform multifarious functions. The list of these functions could go on and on. Some of the important functions the leader performs are given as under.

Leader develops team work: the three vital determinants of teamwork are the leader, subordinates and the environment. These factors are interdependent. It is the leader’s responsibility to make the environment conducive to work. He studies the employees individually and instills interest in them. By encouraging the inquisitive employees and by prohibiting insidious elements he creates hygienic environment. He inculcates the sense of collectivism in employees to work as a team. The resultant output will then be efficient.

Leader is a representative of subordinates: he is an intermediary between the work groups and top management. They are called linking pins by Rensis Likert. As linking pins they serve to integrate the entire organization and the effectiveness depends on the strength of these linking pins. Leader shows personal consideration for the employees. As representatives they carry the voice of the subordinates to the top management.

Leader is an appropriate counsellor: quite often people in the work place need counseling to eliminate the emotional disequilibrium that is created sometimes in them. Leader removes barriers and stumbling blocks to effective performance. For instance, frustration that result from blocked need drive keeps an employee derailed of the working track. It is here comes in, renders wise counsel, releases the employee of the emotional tension and restores equilibrium.
uses power properly: if a leader is to effectively achieve the goals expected of him, he must power and authority to act in a way that will stimulate a positive response from the workers. A leader depending on the situation exercises different type of power like that reward power coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power. Besides the formal basis, the informal basis of power also has a more powerful impact on organizational effectiveness. No leader is effective unless the subordinates obey his orders. Therefore the leader uses appropriate power so that the subordinates willingly obey the orders and come forward with the commitment.

Leaders manage the time well: time is precious and vital but often overlooked in management. there are three dimensions of time, boss imposed time, system imposed time and self imposed time, that are prominent in literature. Because the leader has thorough knowledge of the principles of time management such as time preparing charts, scheduling techniques etc. he is in a position to utilize the time productivity in the organizations.

Strives for effectiveness: quite frequently the managers are workaholic and too busy with petty things to address to major details of effectiveness. To fill the gap, sometimes the leader throws his concerted effort to bring effectiveness by encouraging and nurturing teamwork, by better time management and by the proper use of power. Further the leader provides an adequate reward structure to encourage performance of employees. Leader delegates authority where needed and invites the participation wherever possible to achieve the better results. He also provides the workers with necessary resources. By communicating to workers what is expected of them leader brings effectiveness to organization. The above functions of the leader are by no means comprehensive but they do suggest as so what leaders do generally.

Managing and leading: leading and managing are not synonymous. One popular way of distinguishing between managing and leading is brought out by a French terms dux and rex. Dux is an leader and activist, innovator and often and inspirational type; and rex is a stabilizer or broker of manager. But more realistically, effective management requires good
leadership. Bennis had once commented "there are many institutions I know are very well managed but very poorly led". This statement crystal clearly demonstrates that the difference between managing and leading is indeed a lot. Though a lay man considers managing as a broad term including leading function, a behaviourist advances the following points to marshall the difference between the these two terms leading and managing.

1. Relationships: managerial behaviour implies the existence of a manager managed relationships. This relationship arises within a organizational context. Whereas, leadership can occur anywhere. It does not have to originate in the organization context. For example a mob can have a leader but cannot have a manager. Further in an organization, informal groups have leaders but not managers.

2. Sources of influence: another potential difference between leader and manager lies in their sources of influence. Authority is attached to the managerial position in the case of a manager; where as a leader may not have the authority but can receive power directly from his followers. In other words managers obtain authority from the organization and the leader gets power from his followers. In rather pure terms, this is the difference between the formal authority theory and the acceptance theory of authority.

3. Sanctions: a manager has command over the allocation and distributions of sanctions. For example manager has control over the positive sanctions such as promotions and awards for high task performance and the contribution to organizational objectives. Manager is also in a position to exercise the negative sanctions with holding promotions, or increments, demotion in some cases of extreme default or mistakes etc. in sharp contrast a leader has say altogether different type of sanctions. To exercise and grant he can grant or withhold access to satisfying the very purpose of joining the groups-social satisfaction and related task rewards. These sanctions are essentially informal in nature. These informal sanctions are relevant to the individual with belongingness or ego needs; where as the
organizational sanctions granted or exercised by the manager are geared to the psychological and security needs of individual.

4. Role continuance: another fundamental difference between managing and leading is the role continuance a manager may continue in office as long as his performance is satisfactory and acceptable to the organization. In sharp contrast, a leader maintains his position only through the day to day wish of the followers such that how well he facilitates his group in accomplishing their objectives.

5. Reasons for following: though in both managing and leading followers become involved the reasons may be different. People may follow managers because their job description, supported by a system of rewards and sanctions, requires them to follow. Whereas people follow leaders on voluntary basis. Further if there are no followers no leader exists. But even if there are no followers a manager may exist.

6. Accountability: managers are accountable for the job behaviour of those managed as well as their own behaviour. Leaders are not accountable for their behaviour of the followers in the similar fashion of the managers accountability. Thus manager-ship implies a clear-cut accountability relationship whereas leadership implies no accountability relationship between himself and the followers and to the organization.

The concept of managerial leadership

Actually it is not always possible to segregate the behavioural functions of managerial and leadership. It is because "every act of influences on a matter of organizational relevance in some degree an act of leadership". The implication is that every instance of managerial behaviour has a leadership component in it and how much of these represents leadership is difficult to determine. Therefore instead of indulging in separating and determining what a behaviour is associated with the leadership and what is associated with the managership it is better to divert the attention in locating the essentials of managerial leadership. The concept of managerial leadership is important. The term itself suggests the necessity of bringing together the managerial and leadership roles for the more effective task performance, organizational effectiveness and human
satisfactions. The managerial leader then is generally evaluated on both formal accomplishment and informal basis of personal and group goal accomplishment. Finally the organizational performance is closely related to quality of leadership. A bungling leader can wreck the morale and destroy efficiency. Strong leadership can transform a lack lustre group in to a strong, aggressive, successful organization.

Theories of leadership

Leadership is complex and multidimensional in character and as such no one can afford to jump prematurely to prescriptions and generalizations from the leadership research. Though researchers have attempted to study it a lot, there has been surprisingly a narrow preoccupation with the tone or style of leaders and their interpersonal relations with the subordinates. Indeed a great bulk of leadership studies has been directed at this single issue – what is the style of leadership?

Leadership is crucial ingredient in organizational effectiveness. It is a complex interpersonal process of influencing behaviour. There are three theories of leadership – trait theory, behavioural theory and situational theory.

The first approach views leadership as a conglomeration of a set of personality traits. The oldest tradition in these studies of leadership has been the search for a cluster of traits, attributes, or other types of individual differences, which set leaders apart from their followers or which discriminate effective leaders from ineffective ones. Trait theorists tried to unearth a pure prototype of leadership personality. The second approach to the study of leadership attempts to identify the individual behaviour of leaders associated with effective leadership. Of course, one fundamental assumption underlying these trait and behavioural theories is that an individual who possesses the appropriate traits or displays appropriate behaviour will emerge as the leader in whatever the group situation he is.

Current thinking and research leans toward a situational perspective third approach. Here the researchers turn their attention to identify certain situational factors that determine how effective a particular leadership style will be.
Trait theory:

In an attempt to develop a quick and easy test for assessing leader-ship potential, early writers concluded that leadership is largely a matter of personality, a function of specific traits. Trait theorists suggest that leaders differ from followers with respect to a small number of key traits and these traits remain unchanged across time.

The trait theory attempts to isolate the attributes of successful and unsuccessful leaders and, using this list of traits, predict the success or failure of potential leaders. If traits can be measured in some way, most of the organizations can easily select for leadership only persons well suited by their personality or temperament for such roles.

Why it failed? Attempts to determine exactly the traits of a leader have resulted in complete failure. Unfortunately “fifty years of study has failed to produce a personality trait or set of traits than can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders”. Many agreed that the use of traits had not proved useful for selecting leaders. Byrd analysed over 100 trait studies upto 1940 and found that only 5 per cent of the traits appeared in four or more studies. But why the trait theory failed? The answer lies in the simple fact that different situations demand different characteristics, styles and skills for effective leadership. In some situations, directive actions by the leader work. In others such behaviour is resented, and a more participative approach may be better. In the words of Charles R. Melton “the trait theory failed because it is the leadership situation the nature of the subordinates and task that determines what leader traits are essential for effective leadership. Such traits differ somewhat from situation to situation”.

General consensus on traits:

In one study as many as 17,953 individual traits have been identified. Again, one researcher isolated 171 surface traits but concluded that they
were superficial and lacking in descriptive power. However, Ghiselli has provided a less exhaustive and generally accepted list of traits that contribute to leader effectiveness.

Keith Davis had pulled together the following four traits that are shared by most successful leaders:

(a) Intelligence: leaders tend to have somewhat higher intelligence than their followers.

(b) Social maturity and breadth. Leaders tend to be emotionally mature and have a broad interest range. They are neither crushed by defeat nor over-elated by victory. They have high frustration tolerance.

(c) Inner motivation and achievement drive: leaders want to achieve things; when they achieve one thing, they seek out another.

(d) Human relation attitudes. Leaders develop a healthy respect for people and realize that to accomplish tasks, they must be considerate of others.

Criticism. Leaders who fail as leaders and individuals who never achieve leadership positions often possess some of the same traits as successful leaders. For example, although taller people may generally be more successful as leaders, many tall people have neither the inclination nor the capabilities to be the leaders. At the same time many short people (Napoleon, Lal Bahadur Shastri) have risen to leadership position. Trait theory is severely criticized on the following grounds.

1. The list of personality traits is painfully long and exhaustive. Although over one hundred personality attributes of successful leaders have been identified, no consistent pattern/patterns have been found.

2. Researchers often disagree over which traits are the most important for an effective leader. There is no universal list of traits for successful leaders.

3. Leaders cannot be markedly different from their followers. Extremes in personality are not usually associated with leadership.

4. It is difficult to define traits. When posed with the question of defining a trait, executives often come out with a bewildering variety of explanations, making a mockery of trait theory.
5. It is often difficult to measure traits. The measurement tools employed to quantify traits (in ways that will make them useful to executives) are open to doubt. For example, some of the psychological attributes (intelligence, initiative) cannot be observed but can only be inferred from the behaviour.

6. How much of a trait of person should have remains a puzzling question. It is not clear how high score a person must achieve on a given trait to make it effective.

7. Effective leadership is not a function of traits alone. Executives often behave in a way they think is appropriate for their job. There is a wealth of scientific evidence pointing the significance of situational factors as determinants of leadership behaviour. Trait theory fell into disfavour because it did not consider the whole leadership environment.

8. Finally, leadership skills vary according to the type of work a person performs in the organization. A leader may employ three different types of skills at different levels in the organization: technical, human and administrative skills. It is ridiculous to assume that traits are uniformly distributed at all managerial levels.

At lower managerial levels where the actual production is carried on products or services of organization are actually produced, technical skills may be very important. As a manager moves up the organization’s hierarchy, the job may demand increasing accounts of other skills and consequently the importance of technical knowledge decreases. Human skill is ability to interact effectively with people. At the top management positions, administrative skills are most important because they enable manager to deal with abstractions successfully. These skills include manager’s analytical powers, logical thinking, creativity in generation of ideas etc. the amount of each of these skills that a leader employs varies as he climbs the managerial ladder from the first-line supervisor to top manager.

Conclusion: "History" is replete with non-trained, non-academic Fords, Edisons and Carnegies who could not even claim a grammar schools education, yet managed to become leaders whose influence was felt
around the globe. As for appearance of robust health, need we mention more than the delicate Gandhi, or George Washington Carver, the frail, shrivelled, insignificant little Negro who was one of the America’s greatest scientist and so many more like them. As for high ideals, fine character act, where would Hitler, Caponevor Attila the Hun rate here? There are probably no personality traits that consistently distinguish the leader from his followers the basic problem with all the trait oriented leadership is that rarely do two lists agree on the essential characteristics of the effective leader. “The net result is that of confusion, predicted on a foundation of generalities and semantic problems” the trait approach lacks predictive value except in some narrowly defined situations. It is not surprising to see that many researchers these days vehemently disagree with the trait model and turn their attention to behavioural approaches.

Behavioural Theory: In contrast with trait theory, behavioural theory attempts to describe leadership in terms of what leaders do, while trait theory seeks to explain leadership on the basis of what leaders are. Leadership according to this approach is the result of effective role behaviour. Leadership is shown by a person’s acts more than by his traits. This is an appropriate new research strategy adopted by Michigan Researchers in the sense that the emphasis on the traits is replaced by the emphasis on leader behaviour (which could be measured).

The Michigan Studies

After studying numerous industrial situations, the Michigan researchers identified two leadership styles employee centred and production centred influencing employee performance and productivity.

They prescribed employee-oriented style of leadership to increase productivity. They contended that supervisory controls and production centred leadership style will be frustrating to the employees; affects their morale leading to unsatisfactory performance on the job.

Evaluation: the Michigan studies were more compatible with the prevailing system in ‘post-Hawthorne America” and as such became very popular. Researchers were able to identify specific behaviours that influenced employee behaviour and productivity and advised scrupulously that a people orientation should come before a work orientation. These findings
led to the widespread belief in the 1950s that the employee-oriented leadership style was always superior.

**The Ohio State University Studies:**

The Ohio State University studies identified two leadership behaviours—initiating structure and consideration—after analysing actual leadership behaviour in a wide variety of situations. Consideration refers to the ability of the leader to establish rapport, mutual respect and two-way communication with employees. The leader is friendly, approachable and listens to the problems of employees and allows them to suggest. Initiating structure(IS) refers to the extent to which the leaders structure and define the activities of subordinates so that organizational goals are accomplished.

During research, the Ohio State scholars have developed the leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire(IBDQ) that contains 15 items regarding the consideration and an equal number referring initiating structure, to describe the activities displayed by the leader. Research Staff also developed a Leader Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) that reflects the self-perceptions that the leaders have about their style of leadership.

The researchers found that IS and C were independent and distinct dimensions. A high score on one dimension does not necessitate a low score on the other (orthogonal). Leader behaviour was plotted, for the first time, on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum. Four quadrants were developed to show IS and C in varying combinations.

Evaluation: The two-dimensional model became a "best seller" overnight and made an epoch-making contribution to leadership studies afterwards. It has caught the imagination of the managers throughout the world due to its simple but powerful reasoning. The influence of the Ohio State studies has been extensive. The concepts of consideration and initiating structure have had a high intuitive appeal to the practicing managers so that many training programmes have made use of them. It is easy to understand the intricacies of the model. Nevertheless, it has been subjected to troubling criticisms from time to time. It has been criticised because of simplicity, lack of generalisability, and exclusive reliance on
controversial-paper-and-pencil-questionnaire responses to measure leadership effectiveness.

1. The issue of Style Flexibility became a bone of contention between researchers. According to Fielder, C and IS are not independent dimensions. It is extremely difficult for a given person to be both production-oriented and employee-oriented. It is not possible to wear both the hats gracefully. These two aspects can be handled properly by two individuals. On the other hand, Hills research suggests that a leader can be both task-oriented and employee oriented. In fact C and IS are distinctly different behaviours and therefore demand a great amount of flexibility in behaviour by the leader. The transition from one style to the other may not always be smooth and easy.

2. The belief that high IS and C Mix leads to better performance is also questioned. According to Korman C and Is are not such significant leader behaviours as previously assumed. There is not significant relationship between leader behaviour and such measures like productivity.

3. The Leader-Behaviour model suggested by the Ohio Scholars is an oversimplification of reality. The impact of environmental variables on specific leader behaviours is completely ignored. Steven et al. conclude that "the effects of both C and IS are situationally determined".

**Situational theories**

Both the trait and behavioural approaches proved to fall short of a comprehensive and adequate theory of leadership style. Each of the theories attempted to isolate broad dimensions of leadership behaviour and indulged profusely in oversimplification. The logic behind such fallacious reasoning appears to be that multi dimensions confound that interpretation of leadership behaviour and complicate the research designs developed to test the particular theory. These theories have tried to construct a theoretical edifice based on controversial questionnaire
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methods. There is no attempt on the part of the eminent researchers to link leadership with important performance indicators such as production, efficiency and satisfaction. Practicing managers who are primarily interested in procedures, basic guidelines and results to improve their styles were clearly disenchanted with these approaches. As pointed out by Tannenbaum and Schmidt "the successful manager often can be primarily characterized neither as a strong leader nor as a permissive one. Rather, he is one who maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behaviour at any given time should be and in actually being able to behave accordingly. In place of the "one-best-way" styles, the situational theories take the position that the variables in each situation must be analyzed before an optimum leadership style can be selected. Leadership is a complex social and interpersonal process; and to understand it fully we need to see the situation in which a leader operates. The situational theme of leadership is highly fascinating, but is certainly a challenging orientation to implement. An effective leader must be flexible enough to adapt to the differences among subordinates and situations. Leadership effectiveness depends upon the fit between personality, task, power, attitudes and perceptions. On the lines of this new and sophisticated conception, some elegant theories have been developed. Let us examine in this section, four of such theories.

Fiedler's contingency model

House's path goal model.

Life cycle theory of leadership.

Vroom's and Yetton normative model.

**Fiedler's Contingency Model:**

Fiedler's contingency model is one of the most serious and elaborate situational theories in leadership literature. Fiedler is probably the first researcher who recognized the need for a broader explanation of leadership phenomena anchored on situational variables.
The major problem with the earlier trait and behavioural approaches is that they are universalistic approaches; they search for magic key to leadership that is devoid of situational context and follower behaviour and personality. The contingency model attempts to rectify these inherent deficiencies in behavioural theories. The research undertaken by Fiedler and his associated over a considerable span of time involving dozens of studies under a wide variety of conditions, is an excellent example of needed recognized refocusing. Fiedler sought to characterize important, measurable environmental variables, those factors that were sought were features of the situation that were thought to exert a strong influence on alternative leader approaches and possible situational outcomes.

**The Situational Factors:**

Fiedler’s model is called a ‘contingency’ model because the leader’s effectiveness is partially contingent upon three major situational variables. These variables are viewed as attributes(low-high, present-absent)rather than continuous. They are (1) leader-member relations. (2) the task structure and (3) the leader’s position power.

**Leader-member relations:** It refers to the degree of confidence, trust and respect followers

Have in the leader. It indicates the degree to which group members like the leader and are willing to accept the leader’s behaviour, as an influence on them. If followers are willing to follow because of charisma, expertise, competence or mutual respect, the leader has little need to depend on task structure or position power. If, on the other hand, the leader is not trusted and is viewed negatively by followers the situation is considered less favourable.

**Task structure:** It measures the extent to which the task performed by subordinates is routine or non-routine. Task structure refers to the degree to which the task requirements are clearly defined,(clarity of goals) the correctness of a decision can be easily verified (verifiability of decision made)and there are alternative solutions to task problems(multiplicity of options to solve problems). In other words, task structure refers to how routine and predictable the work groups task is.
Leader position power:
The most obvious manner in which the leader secures power is by accepting and performing the leadership role. Position power in the contingency model refers to the power inherent in the leader's organizational position.

It refers to the degree to which the leader has at his disposal various rewards and sanctions, his authority over group's members, and the degree to which this authority is supported by the organization.

Favourableness of the situation:
Thus, depending on the 'high' and 'low' categories of these situational variables, Fiedler developed eight possible combinations ranging from highly favourable to unfavourable situations.

A favourable situation is where the leader-member relations are good, the task is highly structured and the leader has enormous power to exert influence on the subordinates. At the other extreme, an unfavourable situation is where the leader's power is weak, relations with members are poor and the task is unstructured and unpredictable. Between these two extremes lies the situation of intermediate difficulty. Fiedler arouses that a permissive, relationship-oriented style is best when the situation is moderately favourable or moderately unfavourable. When the situation is highly favourable

Or highly unfavourable atask-oriented style produces the desired performance.

Leadership Style:
The fundamental question remains as to what type of leadership style must be followed in these situations? To determine the style of leadership (to answer this question) Fiedler has introduced a scale called LPC (esteem for least preferred co-worker). LPC is a set of sixteen adjective pairs and is quite often referred to as the 'heart' of his research programme. Leaders are asked to think of a person with whom he has worked least well. They are then asked to describe this person on a series of bipolar objective scales as shown below.
In this bipolar scale '8' represents the most favourable perception of one's least preferred co-worker and '1' the reverse. The leader's responses so measured are then totalled and arranged. Fiedler interprets LPC score to be an index of motivational hierarchy or of behavioural preferences. A leader with High LPC sees good points in the least preferred co-workers and has his preference the desire to be 'related'. The leader seeks to have strong emotional and affective ties with others. According to Fiedler, a high LPC score represents that the leader has human-relations orientation and low LPC score indicates a task-orientation. What does this indicate? It means that leaders who rate their least preferred co-worker in a favourable light derives satisfaction through interpersonal relations. On the other hand, the leaders who rate their co-workers in a relatively unfavourable light are bound to get satisfaction out of successful performance. Thus, the functionality of the Fiedler's model hinges on the sociometric acceptability of the leader and the measurement of perceived psychological distance (how distant do followers feel they are from leader) between leaders and followers.

Interaction between leadership styles and situational factors determining leader effectiveness: Having identified the situation factors Fiedler proceeded to see how the situation variables interact with leadership style to determine leader effectiveness.

1. Task-oriented leaders perform the best at the extremes (where the control and influence they can exercise is very low or high).

2. People centred leaders perform best in situation that are moderate (where the leaders influence or control is neither very low or high)

Implication of the model: how to improve organizational effectiveness: what are the implications of Fiedler's model for improving organizational effectiveness?

Fiedler's and his associates maintain that there is no single successful style of leadership. The most appropriate leadership style depends upon the situation faced by the leader. The persons performing miserably in one
situation may turn out excellent performance in other situations. The situation in turn is a function of the leaders relationship with the group. To improve organizational performance, it is highly essential to identify the situation in which specific leadership style would be most appropriate.

Based on the contingency model, Fiedler, developed the 'leader match' training programme to improve leader effectiveness. Fiedler believed that it is an extremely arduous task to change leadership styles through training programme. "fitting the man to the leadership jobs by selection and training has not been successful. It is surely easier to change almost anything in the job situation than a man's personality and leadership style. For example it is likely that the high LPC leader has a high need for affiliation, whereas the low LPC leader is probably higher in power motivation. The question remains as to what is the alternative? The most feasible alternative, in Fiedler's view is to "engineer the job to fit the manager". This involves a three-step process

1. Determine whether leaders are task or relationship oriented
2. Classify the situational factors of leadership positions.
3. Select the appropriate strategy to bring about improved effectiveness

if leader can clarify a groups problem or structure the task, his leadership style will be more effective. In the leader match program leaders should be trained to change leadership situations, how to modify the jobs to fit their style of leadership.

Criticism:

Many research studies have been conducted to test the validity of Fiedler's contingencies theory. Contingency model is not a bed of roses. It is criticised basically on two accounts

1. lack of research support and
2. theoreticial perspective.

Contingencies model has been subject to numerous troubling criticisms.

1. first of all, LPC as a measuring rod of leadership style is subject to serious criticism. LPC is a confusing conflict according to Fiedler low score on LPC reflects task oriented approach and high score reflects
approach relationship oriented. Moreover the reliability of the LPC scale is also opened to question. For instance in one study it has been found that the same person may obtain LPC score on different days.

2. Fiedler's model is criticised on the ground that it is one-dimensional. He suggests that leaders can be either task-oriented or relationship-oriented, as the situation demands. Further, some researchers contend that Fiedler shapes his theory to fit known results.

3. Contingency model lacks a theoretical orientation. Since it has been developed from research data rather than from theoretical framework, it has predictive power, but lacks explanatory power. It thus becomes less of a theory and more of an empirical generalization. Fiedler could not explain why one particular leadership trait is more desirable than others in particular situation. Fiedler, furthermore, could not explain why the same style appropriate and work equally well in both favourable and unfavourable situations.

4. There are some fundamental deficiencies in the model as pointed out by some researchers, of course, including the Fiedler himself. For example, a situation of high position power in one study might be considered to be one of the low position power in another study.

5. The favourableness of a work situation is defined in terms of three variables: the quality of leader-member relations, the extent to which the task is structured, and the extent of leader's position power. Of these three factors, according to Fiedler, leader-member relations is the most important variable followed by task structure and position power. But some researchers have found that of all the three, task structure is the only important situational factor.

6. Further, Fiedler considers only some situational variables. Recently, some researchers have pointed out a number of other situational modifiers affecting the leadership style and subordinate performance. These include, subordinates expectations of leader behaviour, congruence of leadership styles among organizational levels, and the ability of the leader to influence his superior.

7. The model is highly complex and the procedures and statistical analysis that support the validity of the model are both brainstorming
and frightening. Further, some behavioural scientists criticize the use of small samples in his research. Of course, Fiedler’s colleagues in a follow-up study have made use of large samples and appropriate situational tests.

8 Fiedler points out that situational variables affect the leadership style. But he could not explain how these effect?

9 Finally, some criticism is also invited from the application of his model to actual practice of human resource management. Fiedler suggests that management would be better off to engineer positions so that the environment fits the leader instead of the traditional way of selecting the leaders to fit into the existing jobs. He contends that change in the job is preferable to change in the leadership style. But it is very difficult to change the situation to fit the leadership style.

In spite of these criticisms Fiedler’s contingency theory has proved to be important addition to the paradigm of leadership research and literature. Its success may be because of two reasons — (i) it conveniently accommodates a number of personal and situational factors in the study of leadership, and (ii) it operationalizes the model into a set of actions that can be used to improve one’s leadership effectiveness.

Contribution:

Even critics of contingency theory ungrudgingly accept that Fiedler’s theory has made a promising breakthrough in leadership research. In spite of its complexity, there can be little doubt that the contingency model has already had major impact upon the knowledge of leadership and leader effectiveness. The model is and will probably remain a rich source of new ideas, propositions, and hypothesis about leadership style and effectiveness. It has set an important precedent for the mushrooming growth of contingency models, not only for leadership but for other management concepts as well.

PATH GOAL THEORY:

The Path Goal theory, proposed by Rober J. House, is an important landmark in the development of leadership theory. Like other situational
theories, the path-goal model attempts to predict leadership effectiveness in different situations. According to this theory, leaders are effective because of the influence on followers motivation, ability to perform and their satisfaction. The term path-goal is employed because the leader smoothen the path to work goals and provides rewards for achieving them. Like expectancy theory, the path goal model proposes that individuals are satisfied with their jobs if they believe it leads to desirable outcomes, and they work hard if they believe that this effort will result in desirable outcomes. The theory focuses on how leader influences employees' perceptions of the valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Subordinates are motivated by leader style to the extent it influences expectancies (goal paths) and valences (goal attractiveness). The path goal theory in

Fact is an extension of Vroom's expectancy theory and is somewhat more elaborate than Fiedler's contingency model in that it takes into account the personality characteristics of subordinates as well as situational variables. It is based on the situation, like the contingency model, rather than on a single type of leadership.

The Main Path Goal Propositions

1. Leader behaviour is acceptable and satisfying to the extent that the subordinates perceive such behaviour as an immediate source of satisfaction, as instrumental to future satisfaction.

2. Leader behaviour is motivational if such behaviour results in the satisfaction of subordinate's needs and such behaviour complements the environment of workers by providing the guidance, clarity of direction and rewards necessary for effective performance.

According to the path goal theory leaders should motivate subordinates by clarifying the path to personal rewards that results from attaining work goals. The path is clarified by eliminating confusion or conflicting ideas that the subordinate may hold. The leader should also increase the number and kinds of rewards available to subordinates. He should provide guidance and counsel to clarify the way in which these rewards can be obtained. In other words, it is the manager's task to provide the
subordinate with a better fix on the job, to help clarify realistic expectations and reduce the barriers to the accomplishment of valued goals.

Leaders should, in a nutshell

(i) Clear Paths
(ii) Clarify goals.
(iii) Provide support
(iv) Provide rewards
(v) Analyze the situation, task and employees needs.

Leaders can perform these strategic functions, according to the path-goal model, by adopting the following styles of behaviour.

(a) Supportive: leader is friendly and approachable to the employees; shows concern for status, well-being and needs of the employees, treats them as his equals. This is similar to what Ohio state researchers labelled ‘consideration’.

(b) Directive: Leader here focuses on planning, organizing, and coordinating the activities of subordinates. He defines the standards of performance, lets subordinates know as to what is expected of them. It is similar to the Ohio State researchers ‘initiating structure’.

(c) Participative: Leader here consults the employees, solicits their suggestions, incorporates the good decisions.

(d) Achievement-Oriented: leader adopting this style sets challenging goals, expects the workers to perform at their best, he continuously seeks increments in their performance etc.

The Situational Factors

1. Characteristics of subordinates: The style selected by the leader should be compatible with the abilities, needs and personalities of the followers, if the followers are high in their ability, supportive style would suffice; if they have low ability then high structured and directive style is necessary. But subordinates wit high need for achievement will probably prefer a task oriented leader. Internally oriented employees, (internals) who believe they can control their own behaviour, prefer
leaders who demonstrate more supportive behaviour on the other hand externally oriented (externals) employees who believe that fate controls their behaviour prefers their directive leadership.

2. Work Environment: the environmental variables include factors which are not with in the control of the subordinates but which are significant to the satisfaction or to the ability to perform effectively. Any of these environmental factors can motivate or constrain the subordinate. For example the subordinate could be motivated by the work group and gain satisfaction from co-workers acceptance for sitting through the job according to the group norms. Conversely if the employees are working on structured and well defined tasks, leader directiveness is redundant and the supportive style will do. In the ultimate analysis the path goal proposes that leader behaviour will be motivational to the extent that it assists subordinates cope with environmental uncertainties. A leader who is able to reduce the uncertainties of the job is considered to be a motivator because he increases the subordinate’s expectations that their efforts will lead to desirable rewards. The degree to which the subordinate see certain jobs behaviour as leading to various rewards and the desirability of those rewards to the individual largely determine job satisfaction and performance. The path goal model compel the leader to consider the individual subordinates as well as the situation.

Evaluation:

1. Complicated: it is a complicated situational theory. Empirical testing common valuation becomes difficult because of the methodological complexities.

2. Negligible support the path goal theory is currently in the state of infancy, backed by a relatively little research. Some researchers report that workers on highly structured tasks have high job satisfaction when their leader uses a supportive style. some researchers find the entire theory to be sketchy in nature, requiring further refinement.

3. post hoc theory : another serious limitations is that the path goal is a post HOC theory in the sense that some of the research evidence supporting the theory was also used to construct it.
4. incomplete picture: the path goal theory is incomplete in the sense that it does not explain the effects of leader behaviour on factors other than subordinate's acceptance, satisfaction and expectation. Another limitation is the assumption that the leaders can change their behaviour to various leadership situations. The path goal theory is somewhat more elaborate than fielders, whose intuitive basis is not entirely clear, in that it takes into account the personality characteristics of subordinates as well as situational factors. Further the path goal theory provides a heuristic framework for the new researchers in the field.

**LIFE CYCLE THEORY:**

The life cycle theory of Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard reflects a systematic conceptualization of situational factors as related to leadership behaviour. It is based on curvilinear relationship between task and relationships and maturity of followers. This is probably due to the fact that followers in any situation are vital, not only because individually they accept or reject the leader, because as a group they actually determine whatever personal power the leader may have.

Situational leadership is based on an interplay among three variables - task behaviour, relationship behaviour and the maturity of the followers.

a. Task behaviour: it is seen in the terms of the amount of guidance and direction a leader gives.

b. Relational behaviour: it is determined by socio-emotional support provided by the leader.

c. Maturity of followers: it is reflected by the readiness level exhibited by subordinates in performing a given task.

Maturity is the crux of the life cycle theory. It is the social benchmark for choosing the appropriate style. Maturity is defined here in the terms of achievement motivation. Maturity is a relative concept and hence is a question of degree. For example a student may be very responsible while preparing for the final examination.

And some what irresponsible when dealing with class assignments.
STYLE OF LEADER VERSUS MATURITY: The life cycle theory suggests that the leader behaviour, to be effective, must change as followers mature. Accordingly, as the level of maturity of one's followers continues to increase appropriate leader behaviour not only requires less and less structure but also less and less socio-emotional support.

Life cycle theory suggests that the behaviour moves from

1. High task-low task relationships behaviour
2. High task-high relationship
3. High relationships-low task behaviour
4. Low task behaviour-low task relationship, the appropriate leadership style for a given level of maturity is portrayed by the prescriptive curve passing through the four leadership quadrants.

FOUR LEADERSHIPS STYLES:

Hersey and Blanchard explains four styles of leaderships. That match different maturities levels of subordinates.

1. Telling: where followers are both unable and unwilling to do the job, they require specific directions as to what, how, when to do various tasks. It thus emphasises directive behaviour and involves high task behaviour and low relational behaviour.

2. Selling: for members of moderate maturity who are unable but willing to do the job leader behaviour must be both supportive and directive. It is because the followers are confident but lack skills.

3. Participating: here employees are able but unwilling to do the job and they require adequate motivational force. Leader opens the door to support the followers. Leader is facilitating and communicating it involves high relationship and low task behaviour.

4. Delegating: here the employees have both the job maturity and the psychological maturity. They hardly require guidance and the direction becomes redundant.

The maturity continuum is divided into four levels- low, low-moderate, moderate to high, and high. The distinguishing empirical feature of the situational theory is that suggests that leadership style which is having high probability of success for a particular maturity level. The probability of
success of each style depends on how for the style is form the high probability style along with the prescriptive style.

FACE VALUE OF SITUATIONAL THEORY: - there is strong evidence suggesting that when situational leadership was applied correctly, subordinate job performing was judged higher, and gains in job performance were practically and statistically significant it has been a major training for about 500 companies as bank of America, Caterpillar, IBM, Mobil Oil, Union 76, and Xerox.

CRITICISM:
The life cycle theory has some limitations –

1. It has not been refined (or) properly tested through scientifically based analysis.

2. This theory assumes that the leader has the ability to perceive the actual maturity levels of subordinates accurately and the exercise the appropriate leadership style

3. Employee turn over in some organizations poses a major problem to the theory.

4. The theory also assumes that as the subordinates maturity level changes leader prescribes adequate style flexibility to move from high task to relationship oriented behaviour.

Despite these limitations, situation theory has been appreciated because it clarifies certain conceptual issues.

1. The maturity level of a group has an important bearing for leadership behaviour.

2. As the situation changes, a leader may have to adopt a different style to be effective.

Though it is lacking in empirical support there can be little doubt that the life cycle theory is intuitively insightful in leadership research and literature.
PERSONALITY

Organizations are collections of individual human beings who have united to accomplish certain goals and objectives. The basic building blocks of an organization are individuals. It becomes imperative to study the individual behaviour in studying the organization. The scientific management advocates, unfortunately ignored the human element beyond considerations of skills they possess. Human relations adherents similarly over simplified the importance and complexity of individual personality differences. The study of personality and its development provides an opportunity to consider the individual as a unique entity. Psychologists, long back, have focused on perception, judgment, motivation, learning reinforcement and imagination, personality traits and such factors that constitute the world of an individual. The objective is to describe, evaluate, and compare personalities through different theories of personality.

Any discussion of human behaviour should logically begin with the concept of ‘personality’. Personality of an individual is unique.

Basic understanding of human personality is vital to the study and analysis of organizational behaviour. Because of differences in personality, individuals differ in their manner of responding to organizational environments. In the words of D.E. James “it is better to consider the individual aspects of a person’s make-up as bricks, and personality as the whole house built of bricks, but held together with cement.” Personality is an organized whole without which an individual would have no meaning.

PERSONALITY DEFINED:

The term ‘personality’ is derived from Latin word ‘per sonar” which means to speak through”. The Latin term was used to denote the masks the actors used to wear in ancient Rome and Greece. Personality thus traditionally referred to how people influence other through their external appearances (actions), but for an academician personality included (i) external appearance and behaviour, (ii) the inner awareness of self as a permanent organizing force and (iii) the particular organisation of measurable traits, both inner and outer. Thus, a thoroughly complete definition of personality becomes a jigsaw puzzle because human being operates as a whole, not as a series of distinct parts. Though
psychologists and social scientists unanimously agree to the importance of personality, they are unable to come out with an unanimous definition. Personality has been defined by many people in different ways. Let us consider some of them:

1. Personality is a broad, amorphous designation relating to fundamental approaches of persons to others and themselves. To most psychologists and students of behaviour, this term refers to the study of the characteristic traits of an individual, relationships between these traits, and the way in which a person adjusts to other people and situations.

2. Personality is a pattern of stable states and characteristics of a person that influences his or her behaviour toward goal achievement. Each person has unique ways of protecting these states.

3. Personality is a very diverse and complex psychological concept. The word 'personality' may mean something like outgoing, invigorating interpersonal abilities.

4. But we must also recognize and explain the fact that development results in man acquiring a distinctiveness or uniqueness which gives him identity which enables him and us to recognize him as apart from others. These distinguishing characteristics are summarized by the term personality.

In using individual personality traits to enrich our understanding of personality we may land in difficulties. It is because there are so many traits and it is almost an impossible task to use them all. Allport and Odbert have found that there are three thousand to five thousand words that describe personal qualities. Gordon Allport, in fact, found more than fifty different definitions of personality and categorized these definitions into five major areas labeled as follows:

(a) Omnibus: these definitions view personality as the 'sum total' aggregate or constellation of properties or qualities.

(b) Integrative and configurational: Under this view of personality the organization of personal attributes is stressed.
(c) Hierarchical: These definitions specify the various levels of integration or organization of personality.

(d) Adjustment. This view emphasizes the adjustment (adaptation, survival, and evolution) of the person to the environment.

(e) Distinctiveness. The definitions of this category stress the uniqueness of each personality.

After analysing all these definitions, Allport has advanced an interesting and comprehensive definition where he states ‘personality is the dynamic organization with in the individual of those psychological systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment’.

The definitional problem of personality becomes staggering from the point of view of its meaning. Laymen tend to equate personality with social success, or dominant style characteristic of a person, for example height, strong, weak etc. If we go like this there may be thousands of words that represent personality. The descriptive adjective approach used by layman plays only an insignificant part in understanding human personality. Scholars and social psychologists operate from altogether different angle i.e., theoretical base. The trait names such as honesty or aggression are nothing but short-hand fictions which enable us to describe economically someone's characteristic and somewhat consistent patterns of responding to certain classes of situations. Therefore, people try to choose a small number of traits which they think are more important than the rest, or they choose some dimensions which are so broad in meaning that each subsumes a greater number of surface traits. Kluckhohn and Murray have beautifully concluded this puzzling issue of 'personality' by stating that “to some extent, a person's personality is like all other people, like some other people, like no other people”.

**DETERMINANTS OF PERSONALITY**

People are enormously complex; their abilities and interests and attitudes are diverse. The drama of life unfolds in fantastically broad intricate
patterns – from nursing infant to the lonely, senile adult; from the rebellious teens to the stable fifties; from the idealistic to realistic; from tragedy to comedy; from birth to death.

The most patient and relevant question then is, how personality originates and develop? The major determinants of personality of an individual can be studied under 4 broad headings: Biological, Cultural, Family, and Situational.

**Biological factors**

Biological factors may be studied under three heads – heredity, the brain, and the physical stature.

1. **Heredity:** The relative effects of heredity comprises an extremely old argument in personality theory. Certain characteristics, primarily physical in nature, are inherited from one parents, transmitted by genes in the chromosomes, contributed by each parent.

   It is generally more important in determining a person's temperament than values and ideas.

2. **Brain:** Another biological factor that influences personality is the role of the brain of an individual. Though some promising inroads are made by researchers, psychologists are unable to prove empirically the contribution of human brain in influencing personality. Behaviour might come from the study of the brain.

3. **Physical features:** Perhaps, the most outstanding factor that contributes to personality is the physical feature of an individual. An individual's external appearance is proved to be having a tremendous effect on his personality. For instance, the fact that a person is short or tall, fat or skinny, handsome or ugly, black or whitish will undoubtedly influence the person's effect on others and in turn, will affect the self-concept. Psychologists contend that the different rates of maturation will also influence the individual's personality.

**Cultural factors**

Culture is traditionally considered as the major determinant of an individual's personality. The culture largely determines what a person is and what a person will learn. The culture within a person is brought up, is
very important determinant of a behaviour of a person. In spite of the importance of the culture on personality, researchers were unable to establish linear relationship between these two concepts ‘personality’ and ‘culture’.

FAMILY AND SOCIAL FACTORS

Family and social factors also are important in shaping a personality of an individual. In order to understand the effect of a family on individual’s personality, we have to understand the socialization process and identification process.

1. Socialization process: The contribution of family and social group in combination with culture is known as socialization. It is the process by which an individual infant acquires, from the enormously wide range of behavioural potentials that are open to him at birth, those behaviour patterns that are customary and acceptable according to the standards of his family and social group.

2. Identification Process: Identification is fundamental in understanding personality. Identification starts when a person begins to identify himself with some other members of the family. He tries to emulate certain action of the parents. Normally, a child tries to behave like its father or mother.

According to Mr. Mischel identification process can be examined from three angles: a. Viewed as similarity of behaviour between child and model
b. Viewed as child’s motives or hopes to be like the model
c. Viewed as the process through which the child actually takes on the attributes of the model.

Family background apart, social class also influences a person’s perception, perception of others, of work, authority and money etc.,

Situational factors

Human personality is also influenced by situation factors. The effect on environment is quite strong. Knowledge, skill, and language are obviously acquired and represent important modifications of behaviour.
Learned modifications in behaviour are not passed on to children, they must be acquired by them through their own personal experience with the environment.

According to Milgram "situation exerts an important press on the individual. It exercises constraints and may provide push. It certainly does not completely rule out the importance of the developmental aspects of the personality.

THEORIES ON PERSONALITY

Over time researches have developed a number of personality theories and no theory, at the outset, it must be pointed out, is complete in itself. Many personality theories can be conveniently grouped under five heads:

1. Intrapsychic theory
2. Type theory
3. Trait theories
4. Social learning theory
5. Self theory

Intrapsychic theory of Sigmund Freud:

The grand-daddy of many personality theories is the one originated. According to Freud the human mind is composed of three elements

1. The preconscious
2. The conscious
3. The unconscious

The items in mind can be recognized through preconscious. The unconscious is basically concerned with ideas and wishes that cannot be learned through introspection but can be determined from hypnotism, dreams, and Friediam therapeutic techniques and ego, id, and the
superego are parts of the mind that are primarily responsible for originating human actions & reactions & modifications.

ID: it is the original and most basic system of human personality. It consists of everything psychologically that is inherited and present at the time of birth. Like a newborn baby, the id has no perception of reality. It is primitive, immortal, rash, and insistent. It is the reservoir of “psychic energy” which Freud calls “Libido”.

The methods for dealing with tension by id are noteworthy. They are

1. primary process
2. reflex actions

Ego: As an individual learns to separate the unreality from reality in childhood, the ego develops. The ego is reality-oriented part of thinking; it is largely practical and works in an executive capacity. It is rational and logical and in essence; it is the conscious mediator between the realities of world and the id’s demands. It is a rational master.

It is said to be the executive part of the body because it controls the gateway to action, selects the features of the environment to which it will respond, and decides what instincts will be satisfied.

The most important characteristic of ego is that it has the ability to distinguish between mental images and actual sources of tension release. The ego performs this task by

1. Observing accurately what exists in the outside world
2. Recording these experiences carefully
3. Modifying the external world

If the ego succeeds, the individual is content, otherwise he will be dissatisfied and have a mental stress, ambivalence and burn out.

Superego: it represents noblest thoughts, ideas, feelings, that are acquired by a person from his parents, teachers, friends, and religion etc., the primary concern of superego is to determine whether the action proposed
by "ego" is right or nor so, that the individual acts in accordance with the values and standards of the society.

It acts as a sensor on the individual and as a sensor a too strong super ego is likely to be in constant and pronounced battle with the id. Anxiety creates tension and such a person resorts to defensive mechanism in order to reduce tension.

DEFENSIVE MECHANISMS:
The id, ego and the superego will always be in conflict. Conflicts among the id, the superego and the ego results in defensive mechanisms that are necessary to reduce the tension and anxiety. These mechanisms may be – aggression, repression, rationalization, reaction, projection, and introjections.
MOTIVATION

Concepts have been briefly explained followed by detailed study beginning with a case study.

- The term motivation has been derived from the word motive. Motive is anything that initiates or sustains activity.
- It is an inner state that activates and directs behaviour towards goals.
- Motive is a psychological force within an individual that sets him in motion.
- Motivation may be defined as the work the manager performs in order to induce the subordinates to act in the desired manner by satisfying their needs and goals.
  
  Thus motivation is concerned with how behaviour gets started, energized, sustained and directed.

Features of motivation

- Motivation is a psychological phenomenon that generates within an individual.
- Motivation directs human behaviour towards certain goals.
- Motivation is a continuous process as human needs are unlimited.
- Motivation is complex as individuals differ in their motivation. Human needs and motives are varied and they change from time to time.
- Motivation can either be positive or negative. Positive motivation implies use of pay incentives etc to satisfy human needs while negative motivation emphasizes penalties.
- Motivation is a process while satisfaction is the outcome or consequence.
Importance of Motivation

- Motivated employees give greater performance than demotivated ones
- Motivation results in optimum utilization of resources.
- High motivation leads to job satisfaction and reduction in labour turnover
- Motivation leads to better industrial relations motivations will Foster team spirit among the workers.

Techniques of motivation

Carrot and stick approach to motivation: This approach is based upon the old belief that the best way to get work from a person is to put a reward before him (Carrot) or hold out a threat of punishment (STICK).

Motivation Through Job Enrichment

Job Enrichment is a non-financial technique of motivation. In order to motivate employees, the job itself must provides opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth. Job enrichment involves vertical loading of the job to make the job more challenging and interesting.

Job Enrichment is an attempt to design jobs in such a way as to build in the opportunity for achievement, recognition, responsibility and personal growth. It provides the worker greater autonomy and responsibility in carrying out a complete Task and with Timely feedback on his performance. Horizontal loading or job-enlargement does not enrich the task. Job enlargement simply extends the workers present job to include more tasks of a job.

Theories of Motivation

- Abraham Maslow's need hierarchy theory of motivation
II Herzberg's two factor theory

III McGregor's theory X and theory Y

IV David McClelland's achievement motivation model

IV Z Theory

VI Adams Equity Theory

VII Vroom's Expectancy Theory
ABRAHAM MASLOWS NEED HIERARCHY THEORY

Self Actualisation Needs
Esteem Needs
Social Needs
Safety Needs

Physiological Needs
According to Abraham Maslow, human needs have a certain hierarchy or priority. They are as follows:

Physiological needs:
They are the needs for food, clothing and shelter. They are absolutely necessary for survival "Man lives by bread alone when there is no bread" They are finite in nature and must be met repeatedly at short intervals of time.

Safety and security needs
Once the physiological needs are reasonably satisfied, man will try to fulfil his safety needs. Safety needs are of two types physical safety and economic safety. Example protection from danger, job security etc. These needs are also finite in nature.

Social needs
Man is a gregarious being Social needs refer to the need for belonging need for acceptance love and affection. They are infinite and represent needs of the mind and spirit rather than of the physical body.
Esteem needs

They are of two types, self-esteem and esteem of others. Self-esteem needs include self-respect, self-confidence, competence, achievement, knowledge and independence and recognition. These needs are also infinite in nature.

Self-Actualization needs

They are the needs for realizing one’s full potential, for continued self-development and for being creative. It is the desire of becoming what one is capable of becoming.

The Physiological and security needs are called primary or lower order needs whereas the social esteem and self-actualisation needs are called secondary or higher order needs.

The main criticism of this theory is that the hierarchy of needs is not always fixed. For some people, the self-actualisation needs may be more important than the lower order needs for example Mahatma Gandhi.

Nevertheless, Maslow’s theory is relevant because needs are important for understanding behaviour. The Theory helps to explain inter-personal and intra-personal variations in human behaviour.
Theory X and Theory Y (Douglas McGregor)

They are the two sides of the same coin. Douglas McGregor developed this theory. According to this theory there are certain assumptions about human behaviour. The assumptions influence the action of the manager when dealing with the subordinates. This Theory is also called the carrot and stick approach theory of motivation.

Theory X is based on the following assumptions:

- The average man by nature is indolent (lazy).
- Man dislikes work, avoids responsibility and prefers to be led.
- Most people do not have any ambition
- Man by nature is Resistant to change
- Man lacks creativity
- People are gullible ( Easily cheated) and are not very bright

Therefore it is the duty of management to get things done by closely watching and controlling the performance of the employees. Theory X believes in centralization of authority and autocratic leadership.

Theory Y is based on the following assumptions:

- For man work is as natural as play.
- Man will exercise self-control and self-direction for achieving his objectives.
- The average human being will not only accept responsibility but also seeks it.
- People have a high degree of imagination and creativity.
- Man is committed to his objectives because of the rewards associated with the achievement of objectives.
Conclusion: Both Theory X and Theory Y have to be practiced. In an emergency Theory X is better. Under normal circumstances, Theory Y is better because it will improve the motivation and morale of the employees example MBO.

Fredrick Herzberg’s Dual Factor Theory of Motivation

According to Herzberg maintenance factors or Hygiene factors are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction among the Employees. Their presence will not lead to Motivation but the absence of these factors will lead to dissatisfaction. Therefore these factors are called dissatisfiers. They are not intrinsic part of the job but are related to the conditions under which the job is performed. They are:

- Company policy and administration
- Technical supervision
- Good relations with peers subordinates and supervisors
- Salary and Job security
- Working conditions:

On the other hand motivational factors are intrinsic parts of the job. This presence will lead to motivation but their absence will not lead to dissatisfaction. They are:

- Achievement
- Responsibility, recognition
- Growth, advancement and the work itself
According to Herzberg both hygiene and motivational factors must be present in order to motivate the employees. The key to job satisfaction and high performance lies in job enrichment.
THEORY Z

This Theory is also known as the Japanese Style of Management. It was developed by Ouchi and is still in the developing stage.

Features

- Lifetime employment is given to all the employees in the organization. All employees who are willing to work and who are physically fit can work with the organization. This will improve the morale and sense of commitment to the organization.

- Job rotation is an important feature of Theory Z. This will enable the employees to understand the problems of the organization as a whole.

- Open communication and employee participation in decision-making are the other features of Theory Z.

- Organization control system should be made informal.

For this purpose emphasis should be on mutual trust and co-operation rather than on superior subordinates relationships.
ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION MODEL

David McClelland's theory of motivation.

According to this theory called achievement motivation theory, a major factor in willingness to perform is the intensity of the individuals need for achievement. An organization offers an opportunity to satisfy at least three needs: for achievement, for affiliation and for power:

The need for power

This is the need to dominate influence and control people. People with a high need for power look for positions of leadership. They like to set goals, make decisions and direct activities. Some seek power for personal aggrandizement and such personalized power is obtained at the expense of others. Others seek socialized power in order to survive the institution of which they are apart.

The need for affiliation

It is a social need for companionship and support for developing meaningful relationships with people. Persons who have a high need for affiliation view the organization as a chance to form new and satisfying relationships. They are motivated by jobs that demand frequent interaction with co-workers

Quite often people seek affiliation Because of their desire to have their beliefs confirmed, to avoid boredom, to avoid the mutual feelings of being beaten by the system

The need for achievement

This is the need for challenge, for personal accomplishment, and success in competitive situations. The following characteristics describe high achievers:

- They like to take personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems.
The idea of winning by chance simply does not produce the same achievement satisfaction as winning by their own personal efforts.

They like to take calculated risks and set moderate goals. High achievers want to win they will not set goals, too difficult to reach. Similarly goals that are too easy would provide inadequate satisfaction.

They want concrete feedback on their performance. They are not motivated by money per se but instead employ money as a method of keeping score of their achievements.

According to McClelland, achievement motive can be inculcated through training and stimulation. This theory however does not fully deal with the process of motivation and how it really takes place.
CASE STUDY

Hyatt Hotels Corporation had a problem. It hired bright, energetic young persons to help run its Hyatt Regency hotels. They worked for a few years as switchboard operators, assistant housekeeping managers, or in other positions while learning hotel operations. Then they would desire faster promotions into management position and, seeing the long road ahead, search for a new employer.

Part of the problem lay in the slower expansion of the company, which often slowed individual progression rates into management from the previous three years to eight years more. To prevent high turnover and capitalize on existing talent, Hyatt started giving its employees opportunities to create new ventures in related fields such as party catering and rental shops. The motivational impact of the autonomy provided by these entrepreneurial ventures enabled Hyatt to retain over 60 percent of its managers, while increasing its revenues and providing valuable experience to its work force.

The Hyatt situation provides an opportunity for us to look both backward and forward. Certainly the new program in the hotels created a different organizational culture there; the executives in charge showed how supportive they were by searching for ways to retain valuable human resources; and they began to listen carefully to what employees were telling them to discover how to respond. Motivation, then, takes place within a culture, it reflects an organizational behaviour model, and it requires communication skills.

Motivation also requires discovering and understanding employee drives and needs, since it originates within an individual. Positive acts performed for the organization—such as creating customer satisfaction through personalized service—need to be reinforced. And employees will be more motivated when they have clear goals to achieve.
A MODEL OF MOTIVATION

Although a few human activities occur without motivation, nearly all conscious behaviour is motivated, or caused. It requires no motivation to grow hair, but getting a haircut does. Eventually, anyone will fall asleep without motivation (although parents with young children may doubt this), but going to bed is a conscious act requiring motivation. A manager’s job is to identify employees’ drives and needs and to channel their behaviour toward task performance.

Internal needs and drives create tensions that are modified by one’s environment. For example, the need for food produces a tension of hunger. The hungry person then examines the surroundings to see which foods (external incentives) are available to satisfy that hunger. Since environment affects one’s appetite for particular kinds of food, a South Seas native may want roast fish, while a Colorado rancher may prefer broiled steak. Both persons are ready to achieve their goal, but they will seek different foods to satisfy their needs. This is an example of both individual differences and cultural influences in action.

Performance (P) is a product of ability (A) and motivation (M), within a context of the opportunity (such as the right training, tools, and resources) to perform. The presence of goals, and the awareness of incentives to satisfy one’s needs, are also powerful motivational factors leading to the release of effort. When an employee is productive and the organization takes note of it, rewards will be distributed. If these rewards are appropriate in nature, timing, and distribution, the employee’s original needs and drives are satisfied. At that time, new needs may emerge and the cycle will begin again.

It should be apparent, therefore, that an important starting point lies in understanding employee needs. Several traditional approaches to classifying drives and needs are presented first, followed by a discussion of a systematic way of modifying employee behaviour through the use of rewards that satisfy these needs.
MOTIVATIONAL DRIVES

Each person tends to develop certain motivational drives as a product of the cultural environment in which that person lives, and these affect the way people view their jobs and approach their lives. Much of the interest in these patterns of motivation was generated by the research of David C. McClelland of Harvard University. He developed a classification scheme highlighting three of the more dominant drives and pointed out their significance to motivation. His studies revealed that people’s motivational drives reflect elements of the culture in which they grow up—their family, school, church, and books. In most nations, one or two of the motivational patterns tend to be strong among the workers because they have grown up with similar backgrounds. In addition to McClelland’s discussion of the drives for achievement, affiliation, and power, the competence motive is an important factor in current attempts to attain high-quality products and services.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement motivation is a drive some people have to pursue and attain goals. An individual with this drives wishes to achieve objectives and advance up the ladder of success. Accomplishment is important for its own sake, not for the rewards that accompany it.

A number of characteristics define achievement-oriented employees. They work harder when they perceive that they will receive personal credit for their efforts, when there is only moderate risk of failure, and when they receive specific feedback about their past performance. As managers, they tend to expect that their employees will also be oriented toward achievement. These high expectations sometimes make it difficult for achievement-oriented managers to delegate effectively.
Some observers have suggested that achievement motivation is similar to the Japanese cultural value placed on kaizen. Much of Japan’s industrial success has been attributed to a widespread belief that everyone should constantly drive themselves to seek ways of improving everything around them. Kaizen is similar to the more individualistic American drive for achievement, in which some people take responsibility for their actions and results, control their destiny, seek regular feedback, and enjoy being part of a winning achievement through collective effort.

**AFFILIATION MOTIVATION**

*Affiliation motivation* is a drive to relate to people on a social basis. Comparison of achievement-oriented employees with affiliation-motivated employees illustrate how the two patterns influence behaviour. Achievement-oriented people work harder when their supervisor provides a detailed evaluation of their work behaviour. But persons with affiliation motives work better when they are complimented for their favourable attitudes and cooperation. Achievement-motivated people select assistants who are technically capable, with little regard for personal feelings about them; however, receive inner satisfactions from being with friends, and they want the job freedom to develop these relationships.

Managers with strong needs for affiliation may have difficulty being effective managers. Their high concern for positive social relationships usually results in a cooperative work environment where employees genuinely enjoy working together. However, managerial overemphasis on the social dimension may interfere with the usual process of getting things done by assigning tasks, monitoring work, and directing work activities.
Competence Motivation

*Competence motivation* is a drive to be good at something, allowing the individual to perform high-quality work. Competence-motivated employees seek job mastery, take pride in developing and using their problem-solving skills, and strive to be creative when confronted with obstacles to their work. Most important, they are learning individuals who profit from their experiences and continually improve their skills. In general, they tend to perform their job capably because of the inner satisfaction they feel from doing it well and the esteem they gain from others who notice it (such as co-workers, customers, and their managers).

Competence motivation differs from achievement motivation. Achievement-oriented individuals enjoy getting things done and moving on to the next objective. They are more likely to be concerned with quantifiable goals, which serve as yardsticks for measuring the amount of their success. Competence-oriented workers place greater value on the level of their own capabilities, and are more responsive to quality-oriented goals regarding products and services. Although it oversimplifies the comparison, the two orientations provide a contrast between "How much can I do?" and "How well can I do it?"

Competence-motivated people also expect high-quality work from their associates and may become impatient if those working with them or for them do poor work. In fact, their drive for good work may be so great that they tend to overlook the importance of human relationships on the job or the need to maintain reasonable levels of output.

For example, Joleen is a commercial artist who feels good about herself and receives respect from others when she creates an excellent design. However, she infuriates her supervisor when she misses her deadlines
and she antagonizes her coworkers when she fails to socialize with them. Clearly, her competence drive is stronger than her affiliation need.

**POWER MOTIVATION**

*Power motivation* is a drive to influence people and change situations. Power-motivated people wish to create an impact on their organizations and are willing to take risks to do so. Once this power is obtained, it may be used either constructively or destructively.

Power-motivated people make excellent managers if their drives are for institutional power instead of personal power. Institutional power is the need to influence others' behaviour for the good of the whole organization. In other words, these people seek power through illegitimate means, rise to leadership positions through successful performance, and therefore are accepted by others. However, if an employee's drives are toward personal power, that person tends to be an unsuccessful organizational leader.

**MANAGERIAL APPLICATION OF THE DRIVES** Knowledge of motivational drives helps managers understand the work attitudes of each employee. They can then deal with employees differently according to the strongest motivational drive in each. For example, an achievement-motivated employee can be assigned a job, accompanied by an explanation of its challenges. A competence-motivated employee could be assigned a similar job with emphasis on its requirements for high-quality work. In this way, the supervisor communicates with each employee according to that particular person's needs. As one employee said, "My supervisor talks to me in my language".
HUMAN NEEDS

When a machinemalfunctions, people recognize that it needs something. Assume that a machine will not grind a piece of metal to a close enough tolerance. Perhaps it needs oil. Or maybe a nut is loose. First the operator tries to find the trouble. Then the operator asks the supervisor for help. Finally the supervisor calls a maintenance mechanic or an engineer, and so on, until the cause of the problem is found and the machine is put back into working order.

All the people who tried to find the cause of the breakdown did so (or should have done so) in an analytical manner based upon their knowledge of the operations and needs of this machine. It would be wasteful to tighten nuts and oil gears haphazardly in the hope that the trouble could be found. Such action might aggravate the malfunction.

Suppose that the machine operator "malfunctions" by talking back to the supervisor in a way that borders on insubordination. The supervisor may want to reprimand the operator without analysing the situation, but this is no better than haphazard machine repair. Like the machine, the operator who malfunctions does so because of definite causes that may be related to needs. In order for improvement to occur, the operator requires skilled and professional care just as the machine does. If we treated (maintained) people as well as we do expensive machines, we would have more productive (and hence more satisfied) workers.

TYPES OF NEEDS

There are various ways to classify needs. A simple one is (1) basic physical needs, called primary needs, and (2) social and psychological needs, called secondary needs. The physical needs include food, water, sex, sleep, air, and a reasonable comfortable temperature. These needs
arise from the basic requirements of life and are important for survival of
the human race. They are, therefore, virtually universal among people, but
they vary in intensity from one person to another. For example, a child
needs much more sleep than an older person.

Needs also are conditioned by social practice. If it is customary to eat
three meals a day, then a person tends to become hungry for three, even
though two might be adequate. If a coffee hour is introduced in the
morning, then that becomes a habit of appetite satisfaction as well as a
social need.

Secondary needs are more vague because they represent needs of the
mind and spirit rather than of the physical body. Many of these needs are
developed as one matures. Examples are rivalry, self-esteem, sense of
duty, self-assertion, giving, belonging, and receiving affection. The
secondary needs are the ones that complicate the motivational efforts of
managers. Nearly any action that management takes will affect secondary
needs; therefore, management planning should consider the effect of any
proposed action on the secondary needs of employees.

Variations in Needs

Secondary needs vary among people much more than primary needs.
They even exist as opposites in two different persons. One person has a
need for self-assertion and is often direct with people. A second person,
on the other hand, prefers to be submissive and yields to others’ initiatives.
Needs also change according to time and circumstance.

Analysis of behaviour would be simple if a person’s actions at a given time
were the result of the need and one along, but this is seldom the case.
Needs of all types and intensities influence one another so that a worker’s
motivation at any single time is a combination of many different forces.
Furthermore, some needs are so hidden that an employee's supervisor cannot recognize them. This fact alone makes motivation difficult. For example, dissatisfied workers often say that their dissatisfaction is caused by something easy to identify, such as low wages, but their real problem is something else. Consequently, even when management pays their wage request, they remain dissatisfied.

In summary, secondary needs:

- Are strongly conditioned by experience
- Vary in type and intensity among people
- Are subject to change within any individual
- Work in groups rather than alone
- Are often hidden from conscious recognition
- Are vague feelings instead of specific physical needs
- Influence behaviour (it is said that "we are logical only to the extent that our feelings let us be.")

Whereas the four motivational drives identified earlier were not grouped in any particular pattern, three major classifications of human needs have attempted to do so. At least implicitly, Maslow, Herzberg, and Alderfer each build on the distinction between primary and secondary needs. Also, there are some similarities among the three approaches as well as important differences worth noting. All of them help create an important basis for the more advanced motivational models to be discussed later.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Human needs are not of equal strength, but may emerge in some priority pattern. In particular, as the primary needs becomes reasonable well satisfied, a person places more emphasis on the secondary needs. A hierarchy of needs by A. H. Maslow that focused attention on five levels,
received considerable attention in the past few decades. This hierarchy will be briefly presented and then interpreted.

**LOWER-ORDER NEEDS** First-level needs involve basic survival, and include physiological needs for food, air, water, and sleep. The next need level that tends to dominate is bodily safety (such as freedom from a dangerous work environment) and economic security (such as a no-layoff guarantee, or a comfortable retirement plan). These two need levels together are typically called *lower-order needs*.

**HIGHER-ORDER NEEDS** There are three levels of higher-order needs. The third level in the hierarchy concerns love, belonging, and social involvement at work (friendships and compatible associates). The needs at the fourth level include those for esteem and status. These include both the feeling of self-worth and the assurance that others think they are competent (which gives them status). The fifth-level need is self-actualisation. This means becoming all that one is capable of becoming, using one’s skills to the fullest, and stretching talents to the maximum.

Will Steger is a rugged outdoorsman who led a party of adventures on dogsleds to the north pole without being resupplied during the entire thousand-mile journey. It was dangerous; it was physically exhausting; and it was emotionally draining (because of the fear of accidents, the dwindling food, the lack of sleep, and the intense cold). When the six members of the party achieved their goal, they were exhilarated, for they knew they had used their individual and group resources to the highest degree possible.

The Steger saga illustrates an important point about higher-order needs. These needs can never be fully satisfied, for people will perpetually want more. Immediately upon his return to his home from the north pole, Will Steger began planning for an even more demanding trip—a 3000-mile journey across the bitterly cold Antarctica by dogsled (which he later
achieved). The implication for managers is this: need satisfaction is a continuous challenge for organizations. It cannot be permanently solved by satisfying a particular need today.

INTERPRETING THE HIERARCHY OF NEEDS: Maslow’s need-hierarchy model essentially says that people have needs they wish to satisfy and that gratified needs are not as strongly motivating as unmet needs. Employees are more enthusiastically motivated by what they are currently seeking than by receiving more of what they already have. A fully satisfied need will not be a strong motivator.

Interpreted in this way, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs has had a powerful impact on contemporary managers, offering some useful ideas for helping managers think about motivating their employees. As a result of widespread familiarity with the model, today’s managers should be more able to

- Identify and accept employee needs
- Recognize that needs may differ among employees
- Offer satisfaction for the particular needs currently unmet
- Realize that giving more of the same reward (especially those which satisfy lower-order needs) may have a diminishing impact on motivation.

These are significant contribution indeed.

Despite these benefits, the Maslow model has many limitations, and it has been sharply criticized. As a philosophical framework, it has been difficult to study and has not been fully verified. Research has not supported the presence of all five need levels as unique, nor has the five-step progression from lowest to highest need levels been established. There is, however, some evidence that unless the two lower-order needs (physical and security) are basically satisfied, employees will not be greatly concerned with higher-order needs. The evidence for a more limited number of need levels is consistent with each of the next two models to be discussed.
Herzberg’s Two-Factor Model

On the basis of research with engineers and accountants, Frederick Herzberg developed a two-factor model of motivation in the 1950s. He asked his subjects to think of a time when they felt especially good about their jobs and a time when they felt especially bad about their jobs. He also asked them to describe the conditions that led to those feelings. Herzberg found that employees named different types of conditions for good and bad feelings. That is, if a feeling of achievement led to a good feeling, the lack of achievement was rarely given as cause for bad feelings. Instead, some other factor such as company policy was given as a cause of bad feelings.

MAINTENANCE AND MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS: Herzberg concluded that two separate factors influenced motivation. Prior to that time people assumed that motivation and lack of motivation were merely opposites of one factor on a continuum.

Herzberg upset the traditional view by stating that certain job factors primarily dissatisfy employees when the conditions are absent. Their presence generally brings employees only to a neutral state. The factors are not strongly motivating. These potent dissatisfiers are called hygiene factors, or maintenance factors, because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of motivation in employees.

Other job conditions operate primarily to build motivation, but their absence rarely is strongly dissatisfying. These conditions are known as motivational factors, motivators, or satisfiers. For many years managers had been wondering why their fancy policies and frings benefits were not increasing employee motivation. The idea of separate motivational and maintenance factors helped answer their question, because fringe benefits and personnel policies were primarily maintenance factors according to Herzberg.
JOB CONTENT AND CONTEXT: Motivational factors such as achievement and responsibility mostly are related directly to the job itself, the employee's performance, and the recognition and growth that are secured from it. Motivators mostly are job-centered; they relate to job content.

On the other hand, maintenance factors are mainly related to job context, because they are most related to the environment surrounding the job. This difference between job content and job context is a significant one. It shows that employees primarily are motivated strongly by what they do for themselves. When they take responsibility or gain recognition through their own behaviour, they are strongly motivated.

INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATORS The difference between job content and job context is similar to the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators in psychology. Intrinsic motivators are internal rewards that a person feels when performing a job, and so there is a direct connection between work and rewards. An employee in this situation is self-motivated. Extrinsic motivators are external rewards that occur apart from the nature of work, providing no direct satisfaction at the time the work is performed. Example are retirement plans, health insurance, and vacations.

INTERPRETING THE TWO-FACTOR MODEL Herzberg's model provides a useful distinction between maintenance factors that are necessary but not sufficient, and motivational factors that have the potential for improving employee effort. The two-factor model broadened manager's perspectives by showing the potentially powerful role of intrinsic rewards that evolve from the work itself. (This ties in with a number of other important behavioural developments, such as job enrichment, empowering, self-leadership, and quality of work life, which are discussed in later chapters.)
Nevertheless, managers should now be aware that they cannot neglect a wide range of factors which create at least a neutral work environment.

The Herzberg model, like Maslow's, has been widely criticized. It is not universally applicable, as it applies best to managerial, professional, and upper-level white-collar employees. The model also appears to reduce the motivational importance of pay, status, and relations with others, since these are maintenance factors. This is counterintuitive to many managers. Since there is no absolute distinction between the two major factors, the model outlines only general tendencies; maintenance factors may be motivators to some people, and motivators may be maintenance factors to others. Finally, the model also seems to be "method-bound," meaning that only Herzberg's approach (asking for self-reports of favourable and unfavourable job experiences) produces the two-factor model. In short, there may be an appearance of two factors when in reality there is only one.

**ALDERFER'S E-R-G MODEL**

Building upon earlier need models (primarily Maslow's), and seeking to overcome some of their weaknesses, Clayton Alderfer proposed a modified need hierarchy with just three levels. He suggested that employees are initially interested in satisfying their existence needs, which combine physiological and security factors. Pay, physical working conditions, job security, and fringe benefits can all address this need. Relatedness needs are at the next level, and these involve being understood and accepted by people above, below, and around the employee at work and away from it. Growth needs are in the third category, and these involve both the desire for self-esteem and self-actualisation.

The president of a chain of clothing stores thought things were going well. The company was about to add ten new stores to its ninety outlets as part
of an ambitious corporate expansion program. One day the president’s key marketing manager walked into the office and announced that he hated his job. “What could he possibly want?” the president thought, as she invited him to sit down and talk about his needs and aspirations: “It shouldn’t be job security, or better working conditions. Perhaps he feels the need to learn new skills and develop executive capabilities.”

The impending conversation between the president and the marketing manager could be structured around Alderfer’s E-R-G model. The president may first wish to identify which level or levels seem to be satisfied. For example, a large disparity between their salaries could lead the marketing manager to be frustrated with his existence needs, despite a respectable salary-and-bonus package. Or his immersion in his work through long hours and heavy travel as the stores prepared to open could have left his relatedness needs unsatisfied. Finally, assuming he has mastered his present job assignments, he may be experiencing the need to develop his non-marketing capabilities and grow into new areas.

In addition to condensing Maslow’s five need levels into three that are more consistent with research, some other differences are apparent. For example, the E-R-G model does not assume as rigorous a progression from level to levels. Instead, it accepts the likelihood that all three levels might be active at any time. It also suggests that a person frustrated at either of the two higher levels may return to concentrate on a lower level. Finally, whereas the first two levels are somewhat limited in their requirements for satisfaction, the growth needs not only are unlimited but are actually further awakened each time satisfaction is attained.

**Comparison of the Maslow, Herzberg, and Alderfer Models**

The similarities among the three models of human needs are quite apparent, but there are important contrasts too. Maslow and Alderfer focus on the internal needs of the employee, while Herzberg differentiates the
job conditions (context or context) that could be provide for need satisfaction. Popular interpretations of the Maslow and Herzberg models suggest that in modern societies many workers have already satisfied their lower-order needs, so they are now motivated mainly by higher-order needs and motivators. Alderfer suggests that the failure to satisfy relatedness or growth needs will cause renewed interest in existence needs. Finally, all three models indicate that before a manager tries to administer a reward, it is useful to discover which need or needs dominate a particular employee at the time. In this way, all need models provide a foundation for the understanding and application of behaviour modification, to be discussed next.

BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

The models of motivation that have been discussed up to this point are known as content theories of motivation because they focus on the content of items that may motivate a person. They relate to the person's inner self and how the person's internal state of needs determines behaviour.

The major difficulty with content models of motivation is that the needs people have are not subject to observation by managers or precise measurement for monitoring purpose. It is difficult, for example, to measure an employee's esteem needs or to needs does not directly suggest to managers what they should do with what information. As a result, there has been considerable interest in a motivational model that relies more heavily on careful measurement and systematic application of incentives Organizational behaviour modification, or O.B. Mod, is the application in organizations of the principles of behaviour modification, which evolved from the work B. F. Skinner.

LAW OF EFFECT

O.B. Mod is based on the idea that behaviour depends on its consequences; therefore, it is possible for managers to control (or at least affect) a number of employee behaviours by manipulating their
consequences. O.B. Mod relies heavily on the law of effect, which states that a person tends to repeat behaviour that is accompanied by favourable consequences (reinforcement) and tend not to repeat behaviour that is accompanied by unfavourable consequences. Two conditions are required for successful application of O.B. Mod—the manager must be able to identify some powerful consequences (as perceived by the employee) and then must be able to administer them in such a way the employee will see the connection between the behaviour to be affected and the consequences.

Some professional sports have developed reward systems that appear to build on these principles. For example, on the Ladies' Professional Golf Association tour, only those players who complete all four rounds of a tournament and have the better total scores collect checks when they are done. Furthermore, the winner's check is nearly double what the second-place finisher receives. The LPGA has identified money as a favourable consequence, and tied its distribution directly to the level of short-term performance by its members. This system presumably encourage the players to participate in numerous tournaments, play all four rounds, and excel.

The law of effect comes from learning theory, which suggest that we learn best under pleasant surroundings. While content theories argue that internal needs leads to behaviour, O. B. Mod status that external consequences tend to determine behaviour. The advantage of O.B. Mod is that it places a great degree of control (and responsibility) in the hands of the manager. Several firms, including Frito-Lay, Weyerhaeuser, Emery Air Freight, and B. F. Goodrich, have used various forms of behaviour modification.

**ALTERNATIVE CONSEQUENCES**
Returning to our model of motivation O.B. Mod places great emphasis on the use of rewards and other alternative consequences to sustain
behaviour. Before using O.B. Mod, however, managers must decide whether they wish to increase the probability of a person's continued behaviour or decrease it. Once they have decided on their objective, they have two further choices to make which determine the type of consequence to be applied. First, should they use a positive or a negative consequence? Second, should they apply it or withhold it? The answers to these two questions result in four unique alternative consequences are discussed below.

Behaviour primarily is encouraged through positive reinforcement. Positive reinforcement provides a favourable consequence that encourages repetition of a behaviour. An employee, for example, may find that when high-quality work is done, the supervisor gives a reward of recognition. Since the employee like recognition, behaviour is reinforced, and the employee tends to want to do high-quality work again. The reinforced always should be contingent on the employee's correct behaviour.

An example of positive reinforcement is the experience of Emery Air Freight with its containerized shipping operations. The company's practice is to consolidates small packages into large containers in order to reduce handling and shipping costs. The standard is for 90 percent of small packages to be shipped in large containers, but an audit at various locations showed that actual use was about 45 percent. Further study showed that workers were properly trained and reasonably cooperative, but they were not motivated to meet the standard.

To improve performance, management applied a program of positive reinforcement. It trained supervisors to give daily performance feedback, recognition, and other rewards. In the first test office, performance went to 95 percent the first day. As the program was applied in other offices, their performance also went to 95 percent or better, most of them increasing to standard within a single day. The effective results continued for the four
years covered in the study. The regular feedback and recognition gave workers consequences that strongly influenced their behaviour. In this instance positive reinforcement scored a notable success.

**Shaping** is a systematic and progressive application of positive reinforcement. It occurs when frequent, or more powerful, reinforcement are successively given as one comes closer to the desired behaviour. Even though the completely correct behaviour does not yet occur, it is encouraged by giving reinforcement for behaviour in the desired direction. Shaping is especially useful for teaching complex tasks.

An illustration of shaping is the training procedure used by a supervisor in a retail store. The store was so small that it had no centralized training program for sales clerks, and so all sales training was a responsibility of the supervisor. In the beginning, when a new salesclerk did not know how to deal with customers effectively, the supervisor explained the proper sales procedure. The supervisor observed the clerk’s behaviour, and from time to time when the clerk showed improved behaviour in some part of the procedure, the supervisor expressed approval and encouraged the employee. Since this was favourable recognition for the employee, it helped shape behaviour in the correct direction.

**Negative reinforcement** occurs when behaviour is accompanied by removal of an unfavourable consequence; therefore, it is not the same as punishment, which normally adds something unfavourable. Consistent with the law of effect, behaviour responsible for the removal of something unfavourable is repeated when that unfavourable state is again encountered. An example of negative reinforcement is the experience of a jet aircraft mechanic who learned that if she wore noise suppressors over her ears, she could prevent discomfort from the jet engine noise; this reinforcement encouraged her to wear the proper noise equipment.
Punishment is the administration of an unfavourable consequence that discourages a certain behaviour. Although punishment may be necessary occasionally to discourage an undesirable behaviour, it needs to be used with caution because it has certain limitations. A major one is that punishment primarily discourages an undesirable behaviour; it does not directly encourage any kind of desirable behaviour unless the person receiving it is clearly aware of the alternative path to follow. (Punishment may, however, serve as a social cue to inform others of the value of acceptable behaviours.) Another problem is that punishers may become disliked for their disciplinary actions, which may place a strain on the work relationship and reduce the punisher's effectiveness when offering future reinforcements. Also, people who are punished may be unclear about what specific part of their behaviour is being punished, and it is possible that some desirable behaviours may be accidentally discouraged.

Extinction is the withholding of significant positive consequences that were previously provided for a desirable behaviour. Such desirable learned behaviour needs to be reinforced to encourage the person to repeat the action in the future. If no reinforcement by the manager, the employee, or anyone else occurs, the behaviour tends to diminish through lack of reinforcement. In one instance an employee who had been praised for her creativity made three suggestions or accept them or do anything else. The suggestion just disappeared in the bureaucratic maze. Needless to say, the employee's suggestion-making behaviour was extinguished by the lack of consequences. In this case the supervisor probably did not intend to cause the extinction, but in other cases extinction is used as a conscious strategy. Then alternative responses that are desired can be reinforced to change behaviour.

It would be naive to conclude that supervisors, however. There are many other sources of need satisfaction inside and outside the workplace, and many of these are beyond the supervisor's control. Managers can
generally achieve more favourable results by actively manipulating the favourable or unfavourable consequences of a behaviour.

**Schedules of Reinforcement**

Before various types of consequences can be applied, managers should monitor employee behaviour to learn how often, or how well, it is now being done. The frequency of the behaviour creates a baseline, or standard, against which improvements can be compared. Then the manager can select a reinforcement schedule, which is the frequency with which the chosen consequence accompanies a desired behaviour.

Reinforcement may be either continuous or partial. *Continuous reinforcement* occurs when a reinforcer accompanies each correct behaviour by an employee. In some instances, this level of reinforcement may be desirable to encourage quick learning, but in the typical work situation it usually is not possible to reward an employee for every correct behaviour. An example of continuous reinforcement is payment of employees for each acceptable item that they produce.

*Partial reinforcement* occurs when only some of the correct behaviours are reinforced. Learning is slower with partial reinforcement than with continuous reinforcement. However, a unique feature of partial reinforcement is that learning tends to be retained longer when it is secured under conditions of partial reinforcement.

There are four types of partial-reinforcement schedules: fixed-interval, variable-interval, fixed-ratio, and variable-ratio schedules. These offer a variety of reinforcement approaches.

**FIXED INTERVAL:** A fixed interval schedule provides reinforcement after a certain period of time. A typical example is a pay cheque that arrives
every two weeks. Except in very unusual circumstances, employees can depend on the check arriving on a certain day every two weeks.

Another example comes from the experience of a major airline. It had five telephone reservation offices with over 1500 employees, and it needed to motivated those employees to encourage callers to make actual flight reservations. The company chose a fixed-interval reinforcement along with supervisory improvements. It kept records of the percentage of callers who made flight reservations and then fed back this information daily to each employee. The results were excellent. The ratio of reservations to calls increased from only 1 in 4 to 1 in 2.

**VARIABLE INTERVAL:** Variable-interval schedules give reinforcement after a variety of time periods. Usually the variations are grouped around some target, or average, period of reinforcement. An example is on company's policy of making safety inspections of every department four times a year in order to encourage compliance with safety regulations. The inspections are made on a random basis, so the intervals between them vary.

**FIXED RATIO:** Fixed-ratio schedules occur when there is reinforcement after a certain number of correct responses. An example is payment of sales bonuses after a certain number of large items (such as automobiles) are sold. This bonus is an encouragement to sell more cars, especially when employees reach a point where they already have sold three or four and need only one or two more to earn the bonus.

**VARIABLE RATIO:** A variable-ratio schedule is a reinforcement after a variable number of correct responses, such as reinforcement after 19, 15, 12, 24, and 17 responses. This type of reinforcement schedule provokes much interest and is preferred by employees for some tasks. It tends to be the most powerful of all the reinforcement schedules. An interesting fact is that slot machines and a number of other gambling devices operate on a
variable-ratio schedule, and so gamblers experienced the power of this reinforcement schedule before it was isolated and studied by behavioural scientists.

Interpreting Behaviour Modification

The major benefit of behaviour modification is that it encourages managers to analyze employee behaviour, explore why it occurs and how often, and identify specific consequences that will help change it when they are applied systematically. Application of this process often encourages effective supervisors to devote more time to monitoring employee behaviours. Performance feedback and recognition are often parts of this strategy because they tend to be widely desired, and therefore are strong reinforcements. When specific behaviours can be identified and desired reinforcements are properly applied, behaviour modification can lead to substantial improvements in specific areas such as absences, tardiness, and error rates.

Collins Food International used behaviour modification with clerical employees in its accounting department. One of the items selected for modification was billing error rates. Management measured existing error rates and them met with employees to discuss and set goals for improvement. It also praised employees for reduction of payable department responded by reducing error rates from more than 8 percent to less than 0.2 percent.

Behaviour modification also worked well in hospital jobs such as admitting patients, keeping medical records, and billing patients. For example, average time used to admit a patient was reduced from 44 to 14 minutes, and clerical costs per admission dropped from $15.05 to $11.73.

Behaviour modification has been criticized on several grounds, including its philosophy, methods, and practicality. Because of the strong power of
desired consequences, behaviour modification may effectively force people to change their behaviour. In this way it manipulates people and is inconsistent with humanistic assumptions discussed earlier that people want to be autonomous and self-actualising. Some critics also fear that behaviour modification gives too much power to the managers, and they raise the question: Who will control the controllers?

Other critics say that behaviour modification insult people’s intelligence. At the extreme, people could be treated like rats in the training box when in fact they are intelligent, thinking, self-controlled individuals who are capable of making their own choices and perhaps motivating themselves. Another problem is that behaviour modification has limited applicability to complex jobs. For example, it is difficult to identify specific behaviours in the jobs of corporate lawyers, flight attendants, or chief executive officers and reinforce them. This challenge may become increasingly difficult as the U.S. economy becomes more and more service-based.

SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY: O.B. Mod has basically overlooked people’s cognitive (judgement and choice) skills as active participants in the performance process. It has also only minimally considered the influence of antecedents (cues) on their behaviour. These limitations have led to the emergence of social learning theory, which is a more recent adaptation of the O.B. Mod process.

Social learning theory, developed by Albert Bandura, suggests that employees gain substantial information about how to perform and act by observing and imitating role models around them (This is also called vicarious learning, or learning through the experiences of others.) Similarly, employees influence others in their work environment who are watching them. In effect, there is a continuous formal or informal exchange of information passing back and forth between employees and their surroundings even as they are interpreting management’s attempts to modify their behaviour. As a result, employees focus more on what their
managers do, rather than what they say. Managers need to serve as effective role models.

The importance of social learning theory for motivation is that it reminds managers that employees do not always react mechanically to their environment. Instead, workers carefully observe other people and the symbols and cues around them. As a result, much of employee behaviour is consciously chosen. This leads us to consider the role of goal setting in motivation, which provides important signals to employees about what is important to the organization, and therefore cues their behaviour.

**GOAL SETTING**

Goals are targets and objectives for future performance. They help focus employees' attention on items of greater importance to the organization, encourage better planning for the allocation of critical resources (time, money, and energy), and stimulate the preparation of action plans for goal attainment. Goals appear in our model of motivation before employee performance, which accents their role as a cue to acceptable behaviour. Goals are also useful after the desired behaviour, as employees compare their results to their aims and explore reasons for any differences.

**Goal setting** works as a motivational process because it creates a discrepancy between current and expected performance. This results in a feeling of tension, which the employee can diminish through future goal attainment. Meeting goals also helps to satisfy one's achievement drive, contributes to feelings of competence and self-esteem, and further stimulates one's growth needs. Individuals who successfully achieve goals tend to set even higher goals in the future.

A major factor in the success of goal setting is **self-efficacy**. This is an internal belief regarding one's job-related capabilities and competencies. (Self-efficacy is different from self-esteem, which is a broader feeling of
like or dislike for oneself.) Self-efficacy can be judged either on a specific task, or across a variety of performance duties. If employees have high self-efficacies, they will tend to set higher personal goals under the belief that they are attainable. The first key to successful goal setting is to build and reinforce employee self-efficacy and then to incorporate the essential elements of goal setting, which are discussed next.

Elements of Goal Setting

Goal setting, as a motivational tool, is most effective when four elements are present. These are goal acceptance, specificity, challenge, and performance monitoring/feedback.

**GOAL ACCEPTANCE:** Effective goals need to be not only understood but also accepted. Simply assigning goals to employees may not result in their commitment to them, especially if the goal will be difficult to accomplish. As a minimum, supervisors need to explain the purpose behind goals and the necessity for them. A more powerful method is to allow the employees to participate in the goal-setting process to obtain acceptance. A public statement of performance intentions also contributes to the commitment of employees to their achievement.

**SPECIFICITY:** Goals need to be specific, clear, and measurable as possible so that employees will know when a goal is reached. It is not very helpful to ask them to improve, to work harder, or to "do better", because that kind of goal does not give them a focused target to seek. Specific goals let them know what to reach for and allow them to measure their own progress.

In one instance goal setting was used with logging-truck drivers to encourage them to carry loads nearer the legal capacity of their truck. Under instructions to "do your best," the drivers had been carrying about
60 percent of the legal limit. After goals were more specifically set, performance increased to slightly over 90 percent of the legal limit, and this level continued for the next twelve months. Drivers were given no extra rewards other than recognition for their higher production. Nevertheless, since they seemed to feel a sense of achievement in meeting their specific goals by loading their trucks to the legal limit, their performance was better.

CHALLENGE: Perhaps surprisingly, most employees work harder when they have difficult goals to accomplish rather than easy ones. Hard goals present a challenge that appeals to the achievement drive within many employees. These goals must, however, still be achievable, given the experience of the individual and the resources available.

The motivational value of a challenge was demonstrated by a motel owner in a small city. Richard Fann was concerned about the time required by housekeepers to change the beds when they cleaned a room. The average time used was about seven minutes, including numerous trips around the bed to strip the sheets and replace the covers. Suggestions made to the housekeepers to reduce their wasted motions were only marginally successful in speeding up the process. Richard decided to stage a contest and pit the housekeepers against one another. Not only did the strategy work, but the results overwhelmed him. The winning employee was able to change a bed in less than one minute and to do this by staying on one side! “Why hadn’t they done this earlier?” Richard inquired. “Because you didn’t challenge us,” they responded.

PERFORMANCE MONITORING AND FEEDBACK: Even after employees have participated in setting well-defined and challenging goals, two other closely related steps are important to complete the process. Performance monitoring—observing behaviour, inspecting output, or studying documents of performance indicators—provides at least subtle cues to employees that their tasks are important, their effort is needed,
and their contributions are valued. This monitoring heightens their awareness of the role they play in contributing to organizational effectiveness.

Simply monitoring results, however, may not be enough. Many employees are hungry for information about how well they are performing. Without performance feedback—the timely provision of data or judgement regarding task-related results—employees will be "working in the dark" and have no true idea how successful they are. A ball team needs to know the score of the game; a trapshooter needs to see the clay pigeons break into pieces; and the woodchopper needs to see the chips fly and the pile of firewood grow. The same can be said for a team on the production line or a retail sales clerk. Performance feedback tends to encourage better job performance, and self-generated feedback is an especially powerful motivational tool.

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON MOTIVATION

Each of the motivated models discussed has both applications and limitations when applied in other lands and cultures. The need-based models may tell managers that many workers in developing nations are at a low level in their need structures. Therefore, some of the sophisticated rewards used in the more advanced countries may still be inappropriate in other nations. In other words, rewards must be designed to match workers' immediate and culture-specific needs. For example, there is some initial evidence that the need hierarchy in some Asian countries has fewer than five levels and that the needs are arranged in a different order. Belongingness needs may be preeminent in these nations, requiring managers to pay more attention to the social climate at work.

Further, workers in some countries have worked have economic systems that established little direct connection between how effectively they worked and how well they were rewarded. Even as those systems begin to
change, workers may initially lack trust in the new organizational practices. Therefore, they may be suspicious of practices like positive reinforcement, and resist opportunities to participate in goal setting. This illustrates again the necessity of adapting motivational practices to the key features of the prevailing culture.
COMMUNICATION

Communication is an indispensable element in human relations. Human beings interact with one another through communication. Communication may be defined as an exchange of facts, ideas opinions or emotions by two or more persons to create mutual understanding.

Process of Communication

- **Sender**: He is the person who sends a message or an idea.
- **Message**: Message is that which is conveyed by the sender. It is the subject matter of communication.
- **Encoding**: It is the use of appropriate verbal and non-verbal language for transmitting the message.
- **Channel**: Is the medium or route through which the message is passed from the sender to the receiver. It may be face to face talk, telephone, letter etc.
- **Receiver**: He is the person who is supposed to receive the message
- **Decoding**: The receiver interprets the message to derive it's meaning
- **Feedback**: It is the reply, which the receiver sends to acknowledge his understanding of the message
- **Noise**: Is anything that interrupts the process of communication for example. Telephone being cut off suddenly illegible writing etc.

Objectives of Communication

**Information**: One of the most important objectives of communication is passing or receiving information about a particular fact or circumstance managers need complete accurate and precise information for decision making.
Information can be of two types:

**External Information:**

- Information about competitors
- Information about government
- Rules and regulations
- Information about availability of raw materials,
- Information about the latest technology etc.

**Internal Information**

Internally information must be freely given to the employees about the policies and activities of the organization

**Sources of Information**

- Old files
- Observation
- Personal interviews
- Questionnaires mass media of communication etc

**The Information must be:**

- From a reliable source
- Accurate
- Complete
- Recent
ADVICE

Giving advice is another important objective of communication. Information is always factual and objective. But advice involves personal opinions and therefore is likely to be subjective.

Importance of advice

Commercial activities have become extremely complex. However, competent a businessman may be, he cannot have specialized knowledge in all areas. Therefore he needs expert advice quite frequently.

Effective advise

- Is both man oriented and work oriented.
- Does not make the worker feel inferior.
- Is given in the workers interest.
- Promotes understanding.
- Can become a two-way channel of communication.
- Advice is given to influence opinion or behaviour.

COUNSELLING

It is almost similar to giving advice. But it is objective and impersonal. The counsellor is a man of great skill and knowledge and he offers his counsel without any personal interest or involvement. Advice has a personal touch about it counsel is almost professional. A number of large business houses now have their counselling department, which offers the employee advice on domestic personal problems.

ORDER

It is an authoritative communication. It is a directive to somebody, always a subordinate to do or not to do something.
The Downward flow of information is dominated by orders.

Characteristics of an effective order:

- It must be clear and complete so that the person who receives the order knows exactly what to do, how to do and when to do it.
- It should be given in a friendly manner.
- The order must be capable of being executed.
- Orders can be written or oral and procedural or operational, general or specific.
- The order giver must do the necessary follow up to ensure that the order is executed correctly.

INSTRUCTION

It is a particular type of order in, which the subordinate is not only ordered to do a job, but is also given guidance on how to do it. Thus instruction is an order with guidance.

SUGGESTION

Advice comes from an expert; order comes from a higher authority. In either case the recipient of the communication is slightly conscious of his inferiority and may resent it. Accepting a suggestion is at his discretion, so suggestion is usually welcome. Many Business houses make a provision for suggestion boxes, which are placed at some convenient place in the office or factory. The employees are encouraged to drop their suggestions into these boxes.
PERSUASION

It is an effort to influence the attitudes, feelings or beliefs of others or to influence actions based on these attitudes feelings or beliefs. Persuasion is an important objective of communication for example consumers have to be persuaded to buy a particular product.

EDUCATION

The main purpose of education is to widen the knowledge as well as to improve the skills.

It is carried out at three levels:

- At the management level.
- At the level of the employees.
- At the level of the outside public.

WARNING

If the employees do not abide by the terms of the organization or violate the rules and regulations, it may become necessary to warn them. Warning can be general or specific. Specific warning should be administered in person and not in the presence of others. It should be given after through investigation. The aim of warning should be the betterment of the employee.

RAISING MORALE

Morale stands for mental health. It is the sum of several qualities like courage, fortitude, resolution and confidence. High morale and efficient performance go hand in hand.
MOTIVATION

Motivation energizes and activates a person and channelizes his behaviour towards the attainment of desired goals. A motivated employee does not need much supervision.
PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

- **Clarity**: The message must be perfectly clear and free from all ambiguity. The language used must be simple and precise which the receiver can understand easily.

- **Completeness**: The message must be adequate. Incomplete messages create misunderstanding and delays action.

- **Brevity**: Unnecessary Repetition must be avoided. Brevity should not be secured at the cost of clarity. The message must be concise and concrete.

- **Timeliness**: The message must reach the receiver at the right time. Otherwise it will be useless.

- **Compassion**: In order to communicate effectively, the Communicator must understand the intelligence level and background of the receiver. He must know what information the receiver exactly needs and in what Form

- **Integrity**: The message must be consistent with the objectives policies and programmes of the organization

- **Feedback**: Communication is a two way process. Therefore there should be follow-up action to ensure that the message is rightly understood. Feedback enables the communicator to know whether the receiver has properly understood the message. For example nodding of head may indicate that the message has been understood

- **Attention**: Careful listening is essential for effective communication empathetic listening and open mind are necessary for this purpose.

- **Strategic use of Grapevine**: The manager must make use of informal organisation to supplement the formal channels of communication.
TEN COMMANDMENTS OF GOOD COMMUNICATION

- Listen carefully
- Plan ahead. Be prepared and keep the message brief.
- Distinguish among facts, references and conclusions
- Avoid stereotyping and assign ideas to right categories.
- Say enough but leave some things unsaid.
- Distinguish between the desire to know and the need to know.
- Avoid attributing motives to others.
- Don't shun all conflicts but avoid unnecessary conflicts.
- Attend to behavioural aspects as well as language or diction.
- Withhold value judgments about context or delivery until strategically appropriate.
DIRECTION CONCEPTS IN RAMAYANA

In Valmiki's Ramayana we find various occasions, where advice is being given. Tara's advice to Vaali in the Kishkinda Kandam is an example of advice being given in the best interest of Vaali. Sugreeva was almost defeated by Vaali in his first encounter with him. Rama could not kill Vaali as he was not able to identify the two identical brothers. Sugreeva was therefore asked to wear the Gajapushpi creeper around his neck and fight immediately with Vaali. It is at this point that the wise and sagacious Tara the wife of Vaali advices him not to fight with Sugreeva but instead make friends with him. Tara advises Vaali not to fight immediately with Sugreeva Tara even advises Vaali that if need be, he could fight with Sugreeva the next day. Tara was sure that unless Sugreeva was sure of victory he would not have come back so soon despite being well punished by Vaali. Tara informs Vaali that Rama and Laxmana the sons of Dasaratha had come to the forest and had forged a friendship with Sugreeva. Sugreeva sought Rama's help and Tara advises Vaali not to antagonize Rama who is the protector of the good and is like fire at the end of yuga when he is angry. Tara advices Vaali to give up his anger and make friends with Rama and Sugreeva. Even though the advice was well given, Vaali does not care for the advice given by Tara.
MANTHARA’S ADVICE

The advice given by Manthara to Kaikeyi in the Ayodhya Kandam is very crucial in Valmiki Ramayana.

It was only by chance, which made Manthara to go up to the terrace of the palace and learns from a maid that Rama was to be made Yuvaraja.

Immediately Manthara rushed to Kaikeyi and informs her of this coronation. Kaikeyi who was good by nature feels happy at this news initially.

The advice, information, counseling and persuasion of Manthara ultimately makes Kaikeyi change her attitude towards Rama’s coronation.

Manthara reminds Kaikeyi of the two boons granted by Dasaratha to Kaikeyi when she saved Dasaratha’s life when the latter fought a war against Sambara, an asura. Kaikeyi had not asked for anything at that time and Manthara advises her to utilize the opportunity and ask for two boons namely:

☆ To make Bharatha the Yuvaraja.
☆ To send Rama to the Dandaka Forest for a duration of fourteen years.

Thus Manthara portrays effectively all the objectives and principles of communication in modern management.
MARICHA'S ADVICE

Maricha's advice to Ravana twice in the Aranya Kandam again indicates that advice is given in the best interests of the person for whom it is meant. On the instigation of Akampana Ravana visits Maricha and tells him about his intention to capture Sita, the wife of Rama and take her away to Lanka. In this venture, Ravana seeks the assistance of Maricha.

On hearing this, Maricha advises Ravana about the consequences of this action on the part of Ravana. Maricha advises Ravana that the suggestion given to Ravana to kidnap Sita was given by somebody who did not have the best interests of Ravana and Lanka in mind. Maricha advises Ravana to give up this evil idea and instead go back to Lanka and live happily with his beloved wives. Ravana was not afraid of the strength of Rama. But he valued the advice of Maricha who was a wise old person. Ravana decided to give up the thought of Sita and therefore went back to Lanka. On the instigation, of Shurpanakha Ravana was once again possessed with the desire to kidnap Sita. Ravana carefully considers how to make Maricha to listen to his words. Ravana had changed his tactics to make Maricha obey his commands.

Ravana mentions that his aim in capturing Sita was because Rama had killed Khara, Dhusana and his fourteen thousand soldiers. Besides Shurpanaka had been insulted by being disfigured. Ravana spoke to Maricha as if revenge was the only reason behind his capturing Sita. Ravana orders Maricha to assume the form of a golden Deer with silver spots and wander around the ashrama of Rama. Sita would request Rama to capture the deer for her. At this point, Maricha was to lure both Rama and Laxmana away from the ashrama and when they were away, Ravana would enter the ashrama and capture Sita.

At this stage Maricha advises Ravana the second time about the evil consequences of capturing Sita. Maricha tells Ravana that because of this plan, Sita would become the death of Ravana and cause untold suffering to Lanka. Maricha advises Ravana that he is surrounded by sycophants, who hardly give any genuine advice in the interest of their master.
Maricha tells Ravana that the spies of Ravana had not done their work properly. They should have informed Ravana about the prowess of Rama. Maricha informs Ravana that Rama was the embodiment of Dharma and once again requests Ravana to give up the wild idea and go back to Lanka and live happily with his wives.

Maricha advises Ravana by quoting instances from his own life as to how he was spared his life twice by Rama. Rama saved his life in the Bala Kandam by despatching the manava astra⁴. Which is a compassionate astra, which threw him away into the sea. Maricha advices Ravana that Shurpanaka was the cause of all the events at Janasthana and finally requests Ravana to give up his foolish ideas.

Ravana disregards the advice given by Maricha and orders him to do the job Maricha does not give up and once again and advises him of the consequences of the evil idea. Ravana does not care for the advice and finally takes Maricha along with him to help him in his venture of kidnapping Sita.
VIBISHINA’S ADVICE

Vibishina’s advice to Ravana is another important piece of advice in Valmikis Ramayana. On three occasions in the Yuddha Kandam, Vibishina advises, Ravana about the consequences of Ravana’s actions. The first occasion was when Ravana was engaged for a discussion about Hanuman who had almost ruined the city of Lanka. At this stage Ravana invites suggestions from his people as to how he should behave towards Rama. Ravana even mentions that success lies in following the advice of wise and old people.

Ministers like Prahasta and others praise Ravana and do not have the courage to advice him properly. It was only Vibishina who gave proper advice to Ravana at this Juncture. Vibishina advises Ravana that lusting after another man’s wife is the worst of all sins, which will cause untold misery and sufferings to the people of Lanka. Vibishina advises Ravana to consider the situation carefully. This was because Ravana had committed the mistake of stealing Sita and Rama had not affected Ravana in any manner. Vibishina advises Ravana never to underestimate the strength of the Enemy. Ravana just dissolves the council without even speaking a word.

The second advise was given by Vibishina to Ravana immediately on the next morning when Vibishina meets his brother in private and tries to convince him of the consequences of his actions. Vibishina advises Ravana that evil omens have been seen in Lanka. For example the animals shed tears for no reasons at all, the Havis, which was meant for worship, was often polluted by the ants.

Vibishina therefore advises Ravana to return Sita back to Rama. Though Vibishina had given his advice at the right time Ravana disregarded his advice on account of two reasons:

- Ravana’s love for Sita
- Ravana’s anger, which was second nature to him.
Vibishina advises Ravana for the third time in the Yuddha Kandam when Ravana assembles another council of war. Ravana informs the council that Rama is proceeding towards Lanka to rescue Sita along with an army of vanaras. He therefore requests the council to consider the problem very carefully and advice him on their plan of action to keep Sita and to kill Rama and Laxmana.

At this point excepting for Kumbhakharna, all other ministers give false hopes to Ravana and do not advice him properly. It is only Vibishina who has the courage to advice Ravana for the third time about the consequences of kidnapping Sita. He advises Ravana to return Sita to Rama. He cautions Ravana that Rama and his army of vanaras will defeat the entire army of Ravana. Vibishina informs Ravana that his ministers have not bothered to give proper advice to their master.

Vibishina mentions that a minister who has the welfare of his king in his mind must first consider the strength of the enemy and compare it with that of his king. After due consideration he must arrive at a decision which is Good for his country and his king.

At this point, Indrajith son of Ravana calls Vibishina a coward for giving advice to Ravana. Vibishina once again tries to convince Indrajith by pointing out that Indrajith was not aware of the path of Dharma. Vibishina finally advises Ravana to give up his foolish idea and to return Sita back to Rama. Ravana does not pay attention to the well meant advice of Vibishina and hurts Vibishina a lot by calling him a traitor and by pointing out that Ravana had no wish to look any more at Vibishina.

On account of this incident, Vibishina and his four followers leave Ravana and join hands with Rama. Thus the best advice given is being disregarded on account of lust and anger.
VAALI'S ADVICE

Vaali's advice to his son Angada, when Rama and Sugreeva kill him, is another example of advice being given in the best interests of the person for whom it is meant. Vaali advises Angada to accept happiness and sorrow as they come and tells him not to be moved by them. He advises Angada to be neither too much attached nor too different. Vaali advises Angada to adopt the middle course and to please Sugreeva in every possible manner. Vaali advises Sugreeva to take Tara's advice on any matter. Tara, the daughter of Sushena, was a very wise and sagacious woman. Tara knew how to react to any unforeseen situation and also the subtle ties of statecraft.

Tara's approach to any situation can be compared with the modern contingency approach to management. The basic theme of the contingency approach is that organizations have to cope with different situations in different ways. There is no single best way of managing applicable to all situations. Vaali also advises Sugreeva to take proper care of Angada and treat him as his own son. Vaali was confident that in the forthcoming war with Ravana, Angada would display his valour and make name to himself. Vaali finally advises Sugreeva not to fail in his duty towards Rama. Rama and Sugreeva had forged a friendship with each other and it was Sugreeva's duty to fulfil his promise to Rama.
DASARATHA'S LEADERSHIP STYLE

Various leadership styles like democratic and autocratic styles can be found in Valmiki's Ramayana. Dasaratha is an example of a monarch who practices democratic leadership. The Democratic leader follows the majority opinion, takes decision in consultation and participation with subordinates, and keeps the followers informed about matters affecting them. Dasaratha entertained paternal affection towards his subjects. It was always from sages and saints that Dasaratha Besought advice both for personal and for public concerns. There are two occasions in the epic where we see that Dasaratha practiced democratic or participative leadership.

The first occasion is in the Bala Kandam when Dasaratha decides to conduct the Ashvamedha Yaga. Though he could have conducted the yaga on his own, Dasaratha calls for a meeting of his councilors and Rishis. Dasaratha receives all of them with due honour, paying attention to their status. He then puts forward his suggestion to them about conducting a yaga. He requests all of them to consider the suggestion carefully and point out whether he had thought right. This indicates the Dasaratha is a leader who does what the group wants and follows the majority opinion. As a democratic leader Dasaratha provides freedom of thinking and expression. He listens to the suggestions and opinions of his followers and subordinates.

In the Bala Kandam just before the yaga was about to commence, Dasaratha once again practices democratic style of leadership. Dasaratha requests Sumantara to fetch his guru Vasistha followed by Vamadeva, Suyagyna and others. The King humbly seeks their permission to commence the yaga and to bless him, as he had no son to continue the line of the Ikshvakus. Dasaratha informs them that his sorrow would be at an end if he performed the yaga with the great Rishya Shringa to preside over it.

The second occasion is in the Ayodhya Kandam where Dasaratha decides to make Rama his beloved as the Yuva Raja. Here also he could have
implemented the decision without consulting his subordinates. But Dasaratha once again proves that he is a democratic ruler who always takes decision in consultation and participation with subordinates. Dasaratha wanted to make Rama the Yuvaraja as he was getting old. Besides evil omens could be seen by him which meant something disastrous for Dasaratha. Dasaratha therefore decided to make Rama the crown prince during his own lifetime. But being a democratic leader, Dasaratha decided to consult his ministers and ask them for their opinion and then proceed further in the matter. To think was to act and Dasaratha gave instructions for his subjects and all the chiefs and kings to be brought to Ayodhya. In the great council hall, Dasaratha welcomes everybody and informs them of his desire to make Rama the Yuvaraja. Dasaratha however mentions that he would make Rama, the Yuvaraja only with the approval of the members present in the council hall. He requests them to suggest an alternative, if they do not approve of Rama as Yuvaraja.
RAVANA'S LEADERSHIP STYLE

Ravana is another example in Valmiki Ramayana who practices autocratic style of leadership. An autocratic leader centralizes power in himself and takes all decision without consulting the subordinates. The leader gives the orders and the subordinates have to follow them unquestionably. Ravana's autocratic style of leadership can be seen in various places in Valmiki’s Ramayana. The first occasion where Ravana displays his autocratic style of functioning is in the Aranya Kandam when he visits Maricha for the second time at the instigation of Shurpanaka to carry away Sita to Lanka against her will. Maricha’s genuine advice and persuasion does not bother Ravana. Ravana ultimately tells Maricha that he has come to Maricha in the position of a king and that it was Maricha’s duty to obey him without asking any question in his venture to abduct Sita.

An autocratic leader never cares for well given advice. He loves power and does not take into consideration the advice and counsel given by his sincere well wishers and followers. Vibishana, the brother of Ravana was very much interested in the welfare of Ravana and advises him thrice to return Sita to Rama. But being an autocratic leader with over confidence in his power Ravana does not take into consideration the well-meant advice of Vibishina ultimately Ravana loses his own brother Vibishina to Rama because of his autocratic style of leadership.

When Kumbhkarna⁷ is woken up in the Yuddha Kandam to fight with Rama, Ravana once again displays his autocratic behaviour. Kumbhkarna finally advises Ravana that a king should have wise and good men as his counsellors. Sama, Dana, Bhedha and Danda should be used at the proper time. The distinction between right and wrong must be thoroughly considered and then only the king should decide upon his course of action. Kumbhkarna finally requests Ravana to consider the situation carefully.

Ravana, because of his arrogance and love for power, does not bother about the advice given by Kumbhkarna. Instead he orders Kumbhkarna to rectify the situation and help him.
SUGREEVA’S LEADERSHIP STYLE

Free-rein leadership involves complete delegation of authority so that the subordinates themselves take decisions. The free-rein leader avoids power and relinquishes the leadership position. Though Sugreeva was basically an autocratic leader who always gave orders to his subordinates and expected them to obey him blindly, in the Kishkinda Kandam immediately after regaining his wife Ruma and the kingdom from Vaali for a period of time Sugreeva practices free-rein leadership.

Even though the rainy season had come to an end, Sugreeva was busying enjoying himself and had forgotten the duty he owed to Rama. When Hanuman gently reminds him about this Sugreeva asks Neela to assemble the entire army in Kishkinda within fifteen days if anybody disobeyed this command, they would be executed. After giving these orders Sugreeva goes back to his harem. Thus for a brief period of time, Sugreeva follows the Laissez-Faire leadership. He delegates authority to Neela to assemble the army within 15 days.

Persuasion is one of the important objectives of communication. It is an effort to influence the attitudes, feelings or beliefs of others or to influence actions based on those attitudes, feelings or beliefs.

- You can persuade others if you are yourself convinced.
- You do not impose.
- You are not rigid or prepared to meet halfway.
- You can look at the situation from the other person’s angle also.
RAMA'S PERSUASIVE SKILLS

Rama is the best example in Valmiki's Ramayana who possesses the art of persuasion. In the Ayodhya Kandam when Rama is ordered to go to Dandaka Forest for fourteen years both his mother Kausalya and Laxmana do not agree to the proposal and request him not to go to the forest. But the manner in which Rama is able to persuade them shows that Rama was an expert in the art of persuasion.

Kausalya tells Rama to obey her just as Rama has to obey his father and commands Rama not to go to Dandaka. Rama patiently allows Kausalya to give vent to her feelings. Thereafter Rama persuades her to understand his position and ultimately Kausalya agrees to the exile of Rama.

Rama convinces Kausalya that the words of the father are not to be disobeyed Rama explains to Kausalya that the rules of Dharma can never be violated Thus Rama was able to persuade Kausalya because Rama himself was fully convinced of the correctness of his action. Rama does not impose himself upon Kausalya. He is flexible and gives a patient hearing but ultimately succeeds in convincing Kausalya of his going to Dandaka Forest.

Rama also persuades Laxmana of the correctness of his action. Rama mentions to Laxmana that the observance of Dharma alone will grant the other three Purusharthas viz, Artha, Kama and Moksha. Initially Laxmana was not convinced. Laxmana suggests that Rama be crowned as Yuvaraja and if anybody intervened, he would destroy them. But Rama was absolutely convinced of the righteousness of his action and persuades Laxmana that fate is responsible for everyone fortunes. He convinces Laxmana that men cannot escape fate.

Rama points out to Laxmana that obeying the father's commands is the highest Dharma for him and that there was no need for Rama to probe into the reasons, which made Dasaratha issue such commands. Rama requests Laxmana to give up his anger and accept and face the truth calmly. These Incidents in the Ayodhya Kandam indicates that Rama was
skilled in the art of persuasion. Rama could analyse the situation properly. He could prepare the receiver viz Kausalya and Laxmana to change their views or behaviour. Finally, Rama was an expert in delivering the message with the help of forceful arguments beginning with those parts of the message which are easier to accept and delaying the unpleasant parts as much as possible.
NEED HIERARCHY THEORY IN RAMAYANA

One of the most important theories in management is the need hierarchy theory of motivation. According to this theory, human beings strive to fulfill a wide range of needs according to a certain hierarchy. The priority is as follows:

- Physiological needs
- Security needs
- Social/love needs
- Esteem needs.
- Self-actualisation needs: Various characters in Valmiki's Ramayana can be identified with the need hierarchy theory of Maslow.

SUGREEVA

For Sugreeva physiological needs were predominant for a short period of time. Immediately after Sugreeva regained his kingdom and his wife Ruma, Sugreeva had for a brief moment forgotten the duty he owed to Rama and was busy enjoying himself with wine and women. Sugreeva had left the affairs of the kingdom in the hands of the ministers and was always in the harem.

For the very same Sugreeva, security needs were predominant when Vaali had driven him out of his kingdom and Sugreeva along with his four trusted monkeys was always living in fear on the mount Rishya Mooka. Because of a curse, Vaali could not come near the precincts of the mountain, which granted security to Sugreeva.

RAVANA

For Ravana, esteem needs were very important. Esteem needs consists of self-confidence, competence, achievement, knowledge, status and
independence. Ravana was absolutely confident that he could kill Rama, a mere human being. Ravana had performed severe penance and obtained from Brahma the boon of invincibility. Even Hanuman was amazed at the glory and personality of Ravana when he met Ravana for the first time in the court of Ravana in the Sundara Kandam. Ravana had defeated Kubera his half-brother and took away the Vimana\(^9\) by name Pushpaka from him. Ravana defeated even Yama, the god of death. Ravana was well versed with the vedas and fine arts.

**VISWAMITRA**

For sage Viswamitra, who plays an important role in the Bala Kandam, self-actualisation needs were more important and all other needs were absolutely insignificant. Self-actualisation need is the need to become what one is capable of becoming. It is the need to maximise one's potential. The way in which sage Viswamitra became a Brahma Rishi and satisfied his self-actualisation needs is told by Sadananda, the son of sage Gautama and Ahalya in the Bala Kandam.

Viswamitra started his career as a model king (known by name king Kaushika) His relationship with his subjects was sound. But his encounter with sage Vasishta was disastrous. Finding that there was a divine milk cow Shabale in the ashrama of Vasishta King Kausika ordered Vasishta to hand over the cow to him on the ground that a cow like Surabhi\(^10\) should be in the possession of the king of the country. But sage Vasishta could not agree to his proposal. This led to a fight in which the king was put to humiliation and defeat.

Viswamitra discovered that spiritual power was more superior to human power. He therefore resorted to austerity to acquire that supra-mundane power. A prolonged self-discipline helped him become a Rajarishi Kaushika. But he was not satisfied with this achievement and felt that he had not maximized his potential. After another period of prolonged self-discipline, he became a Rishi. But Kaushika was once again not satisfied. He was determined to achieve the status of Brahma Rishi and with this
situation, he went to the north and pursued his tapasya. Despite severe obstacles, he became a Maharishi, the greatest of Rishi. Kaushika was once again not satisfied with his achievement and the most difficult part of his tapasya was performed for the next few years, only air was his food. He overcame all obstacles and his penance became even fiercer. Because of his indomitable perseverance, he became a Brahmarishi. The last word on human perfection Kaushika was known as Viswamitra the friend of the Universe.

The story of Viswamitra in the Bala Kandam indicates the manner in which he fulfilled his self-actualisation needs. However very few persons are capable of satisfying the self actualisation needs i.e. The need for continued self-development the need for realising one's potential and for being creative.
SRI RAMA

Sri Rama, the pivot on whom the whole fabric of Valmiki's Ramayana is woven, is another character for whom self-actualisation needs are more important than any other needs. Rama is the model to the young and old, to the man of the world and to the recluse absorbed in the glory of the self. For Rama, obeying the commands of his parents was the greatest duty. The kingdom and its wealth are of no concern to him. Rama mentions this fact to Kaikeyi in the Ayodhya Kandam that he is neither interested in riches nor in luxury. All that Rama is keen on is to follow the path of Dharma. According to Rama service to ones parents is the only way in which all other Purusharthas can be attained. Rama tells Kaikeyi that he would have gone to Dandaka Forest, even if Kaikeyi had asked him directly without approaching king Dasaratha.

Another incident in the Ayodhya Kandam indicate that for Rama self-actualisation is more important than any other need. When Bharatha comes to meet Rama in the forest along with the army and people of Ayodhya, Laxmana initially suspects that Bharatha has come to kill them. He therefore tells Rama that he will kill Bharatha and Kaikeyi and make Rama the rightful ruler. Rama was greatly upset by this anger of Laxmana. He point out to Laxmana that at any cost, he would not become the king of Kosala by killing his own brother.

Rama Even reminds Laxmana that when Rama was to be made Yuvaraja he had mentioned to Laxmana that he was accepting the kingdom only to share it with his brother. When Bharatha actually meets Rama in the forest and requests Rama to come back and rule Ayodhya, Rama once again proves that for him, the self-actualisation needs were more important than the other needs. The earnest appeal made by Bharatha, Vasishta and the citizens of Ayodhya had no effect on Rama.
Rama advises Bharatha that he has been commanded to rule the kingdom and that Rama has been commanded to live in the Dandaka Forest for fourteen years therefore it was the foremost duty of the sons to obey the commands given by their father. Rama clearly states that his only aim in life is to obey the instructions given by his father and even if the three worlds were offered to him, he would not be interested.

Rama tells Bharatha that responsibility cannot be escaped or avoided. This is similar to the modern management principle that though authority can be delegated responsibility cannot be delegated. When Bharatha suggests that he would stay in the forest and Rama should go back and rule Ayodhya, Rama clearly refuses the suggestion and convinces Bharatha that he would complete his exile successfully and then come back and rule Ayodhya.
JATAYU

Jatayu is another character in the Ramayana who proves that self-actualisation needs are more predominant than other needs. When Jatayu first meets Rama in the Aranya Kandam, he informs Rama that he is a great friend of Rama’s father Dasaratha. Jatayu mentions in detail how he became a great friend of Rama’s father Dasaratha. Jatayu tells Rama that if Rama so desires, he would live with them and be their constant companion. Whenever, Rama had to go out with Laxmana, Jatayu would guard Sita, as the forest was very fierce and dangerous.

The concept of self-actualisation is what a man can be. He must be Jatayu proved this ultimately by giving up his life to save Sita from the clutches of Ravana. When Ravana was carrying away Sita by force, Sita saw Jatayu and called out to him in desperation, Jatayu who had gone to sleep woke up and requested Ravana not to commit the sinful act of stealing another man’s wife. He tells Ravana that if he was keen on this act Ravana should first fight with him. The encounter between Ravana and the bird Jatayu was a glorious fight to witness. Though Jatayu was a mere bird, he fought bravely with the help of his beak, wings and claws. But ultimately Ravana was successful in killing Jatayu. Finally when Rama and Laxmana met Jatayu, who was almost dead, the latter informs them that Ravana has carried Sita away. He even convinces them that the time when Ravana carried Sita away was Vinda or Vijaya.

It was a fact that a lost thing will be found if it is lost or stolen during that time. Thus we see that Jatayu had fulfilled his self-actualization need at the cost of his life. Jatayu had promised Rama that he would guard Sita when Rama and Laxmana were away and ultimately Jatayu did what he promised to do.
SABHARI

Sabhari is another example in Valmiki's Ramayana for whom self-actualisation needs were very important. Though she was very old and was asked to go to the heaven many times, Sabhari had heard that the lord in the form of Rama had come to the Dandaka Forest and was waiting to serve him before leaving for heaven. This fact was mentioned by Kabandha to Rama in the Aranya Kandam.

Rama meets Sabhari in the Maatanga Ashrama. Sabhari's goal had been achieved the moment her eyes lighted on Rama. Sabhari tells Rama that she has been purified and will certainly attain salvation since he had accepted the fruits, which she had carefully picked for him. Rama tells Sabhari that because of her tapasya she had attained the Brahmi state. Even though by birth she was only a huntress, Rama tells her about his desire to spend sometime in the surroundings of the ashrama. Sabhari informs Rama about the special features of Maatanga Vana, Rama partook of the fruits, which Sabhari had collected for him.

Ultimately Sabhari informs Rama that her mission in life was fulfilled and requests Rama's permission to depart to the other world. Rama gives his assent and Sabhari who was a Brahma Gnani meditated on the God of Fire She was consumed by the fire, which she created. Out of the flames she arose and ascended to heavens in the presence of Rama and Laxmana.

Motivation is an inspirational process which impels the members of the team, to pull their weight effectively, to give their loyalty to the group to carry out properly the tasks they have accepted and generally to play an effective part in the job that the group has undertaken. It is the process of indoctrinating employees with unity of purpose and the need to maintain harmonious relationships among people. Managers cannot change people. They can only change behaviour. A Manager must stimulate people to act and accomplish the desired goals. He must fuse the varied individual human capacities and powers of the varied people employed into a smoothly working team with high productivity. How do we get people
to perform at a higher than normal percent of their physical and mental capacities and also maintain satisfaction? This is the challenge of motivation.
MOTIVATION IN RAMAYANA

JAMBAVAN

Various instances of motivation can be found in Valmiki's Ramayana. The inspiration given by Jambavan to Hanuman in the Kishkinda Kandam is an excellent incident to illustrate the concept of motivation. When the south bound vanaras led by Angada were informed by Sampati, the elder brother of Jatayu, that Sita was being carried away by Ravana and held as captive in Lanka, which was a hundred yojanas away, there arose the problem of crossing the sea. This dampened the spirits of the monkeys for a brief moment of time. Angada suggests each one of them to announce their capabilities, as this would revive the enthusiasm among the team. Gaja said that he could lead a distance of ten yojanas. Gavaksha said that he could cover twenty and Dvvidha said seventy. Jambavan said that being old he could do only ninety yojanas. Angada was sure of leaping a distance of hundred yojanas but was doubtful of making the return journey.

At this point of crisis Jambavan turns to Hanuman and inspires him and stimulates him reminding him of his prowess and capabilities. Jambavan motivates Hanuman by pointing out that he was as valiant as Rama, Laxmana or Sugreeva. Jambavan reminds Hanuman that Vayu promised Hanuman's mother Anjana that her son would be very Vaalliant and equal to Vayu himself in the power to travel or in leaping across any obstacle. Jambavan reminds Hanuman of his childhood days.

Hanuman mistook the sun for a fruit and leaped up and rushed towards the sun. Indra became angry at this act of Hanuman and he slung his Vajra at Hanuman. The left cheek of Hanuman was slightly hurt which gave him the name Hanuman. Vayu decided to punish Indra and stopped blowing air as a result of which all the worlds suffered. Finally the gods pacified Vayu, Brahma granted Hanuman the boon that no weapon would hurt him. Indra pleased with Hanuman granted Hanuman the boon that he could summon death as and when he wanted.
Jambavan inspires and stimulates Hanuman to save the entire team from the brink of despair, as Hanuman was the only person who was capable of achieving this impossible task. Thus Jambavan stimulates Hanuman to action to achieve their goal of finding Sita. Hanuman feels extremely motivated and happy by the inspiration of Jambavan. The motivation of Jambavan makes Hanuman grow larger and larger in size. The praises showered on him by Jambavan made Hanuman extremely happy and confident of his abilities and prowess. The entire army, which was sent by Sugreeva to find Sita, was thrilled at this sight. Hanuman who was by now fully motivated informs them that he would be successful in his mission. Hanuman’s assurance makes the entire team happy and their spirits were roused up as if they had already found Sita.

Hanuman by himself is very competent and resourceful but the motivation given by Jambavan was very effective in making him realise his potential and going to Lanka with renewed vigour and self-confidence.

In modern management, motivation is an effective instrument to maximize the efficiency of operations. An employee may be very competent but no activity can take place until the individual is willing to perform that activity. What employees do largely depends on how much and why they want to do. Motivated employees give better performance than de-motivated ones.
RAMA AND SUGRIVA

Another incident of motivation in the Valmiki Ramayana is the motivation given by the Rama and Sugreeva to Hanuman, when Sugreeva sends his army in different directions in the Kishkinda Kandam, in search of Sita, the monkey chief by name Vinata was asked to go eastwards. Sushena¹⁵, the father of Tara was sent in the westerly direction in search of Sita.

Shathabali another eminent chief went towards the north. Finally Sugreeva decided to send Hanuman towards the south and the leader of the deputation was Angada. Sugreeva specially asks Hanuman to listen to his special instructions. Sugreeva was confident that Hanuman would be the one who will be successful in this venture and therefore motivates Hanuman by pointing out his greatness.

Sugreeva inspires Hanuman by telling him that he is highly capable of achieving anything and that nothing could stop his progress. He tells that Hanuman that the latter knows all the important places on the earth and other worlds and discovering Sita will not be a difficult task for him. Listening to the words of Sugreeva, Rama also becomes confident and certain that Hanuman would be successful in his mission. Rama was greatly impressed by the wisdom, humility and valour of Hanuman.

Rama in turn motivates Hanuman by telling him that he would be the one to find Sita. Rama removes his Signet ring and gives it to Hanuman so that Sita would be convinced that Rama sent Hanuman Rama ultimately stimulates Hanuman by pointing out that Rama was depending solely on Hanuman in finding Sita. Rama also advises Hanuman to make every possible attempt until Hanuman succeeds in locating the hiding place of Sita.

Another instance of motivation can be seen in the beginning of Yuddha Kandam where Rama motivates Hanuman on his success in finding Sita. Rama inspires Hanuman by pointing out that Hanuman achieved a task, which cannot be achieved by anyone else in the world. Rama praises Hanuman by stating that there is no one equal to Hanuman in courage and
valour. Hanuman achieved a Task that was beyond anybody's imagination. Because of his courage and valour Hanuman crossed the ocean, entered the city of Lanka, found Sita and came back alive. Rama points tout that Hanuman is a real servant (subordinate) who always carries out his masters (superior) orders successfully.

Rama finally mentions that he is unable to reward Hanuman in a manner equal to the greatness of Hanumans achievement. Rama could only embrace Hanuman and express his gratitude to him. This incident illustrates the modern management concept that non-financial incentives play an important role in motivating the employees in an organization.

**SUGREEVA**

Sugreeva's stimulation to Rama in the Yuddha Kandam is another example of motivation in Valmiki's Ramayana. Even though Hanuman had successfully discovered Sita and returned back to Rama with the good news, Rama was suddenly depressed. Rama was worried as to how the entire army was going to cross the sea. At this point Sugreeva inspires and motivates Rama.

Sugreeva indicates that Rama should not worry about these things like an ordinary mortal. Rama was a scholar and well versed with the shastras. Sugreeva points out that Rama was an expert in solving any problem and in studying any matter deeply and thoroughly before taking any decision. On account of those great qualities, Sugreeva tells Rama that he should not give in to these small worries, which ultimately rob one's piece of mind. Sugreeva inspires Rama by pointing out that a man who loses his enthusiasm will become frustrated and will ultimately meet with failure.

Sugreeva tells Rama that his entire army was at the service of Rama and it is upto Rama to command Sugreeva and his army. Sugreeva suggests that Rama should think of building a bridge across the ocean to reach Lanka. If the bridge were built, the entire vanara army would succeed in defeating Ravana. Sugreeva ultimately requests Rama to give up his depression, which is the cause of ruining a task even before the task is
begun. Sugreeva reminds Rama of his strength and prowess by pointing out that there was no one in all the three worlds who could think of opposing Rama. Sugreeva motivates Rama to rouse everybody into action and to start thinking of building the bridge.

RAMA

Another incident in Valmiki's Ramayana where motivation is present is in the Ayodhya Kandam where Rama motivates Bharatha to take up the kingdom until he return from exile. Bharatha requests Rama to accept the kingdom and to absolve him of the sin, which Kailkeyi had committed. Rama advises and stimulates Bharatha that obeying the father's commands was the highest Dharma, which alone would lead to the other Purusharthas namely Artha, Kama and Moksha. Rama points out that Bharatha has been commanded to rule and that he has been commanded to live in the Dandaka Forest for fourteen years. Rama requests Bharatha to give up his agitation and with a calm mind to go back and rule Ayodhya.

Though Bharatha suggests that all the articles necessary for the coronation were with him together with the Ritviks to crown Rama. Rama is firm about his decision and advises Bharatha that both of them must save their father Dasaratha from the sin of Adharma by fulfilling their father commands.

Having persuaded the citizens of Ayodhya and Bharatha to accept the task Rama counsels Bharatha on how to administer. The basic aim is to honour many deserving categories of people such as the Gods, ancestors and predecessors, employees, teachers, elders, physicians and learned scholars. This is equal to the modern management concept that a business organization/firm owes responsibility towards various parties like

☆ The owners/share holders

☆ The Employees

☆ The Customers
☆ The Suppliers

☆ The Government

☆ The society in general

A firm must earn reasonable profits for the owners with opportunities for long-term growth of the organization. The firm must be a model employer by providing good pay and working conditions to its employees and by practicing good human relations with its employees.

☆ A firm must provide good quality products and services at fair prices to its customers. It should not exploit or cheat the customers.

☆ A firm must be prompt in making payments to its suppliers.

☆ A firm must pay taxes to the government in time and should not resort to tax evasion.

☆ A firm must discharge its Responsibilities toward society. It can do so by properly observing various environmental and pollution control Acts, Starting industries in backward areas and providing employment to physically handicapped and weaker sections of society etc.
SUMITRA

Another Instance of motivation can be found in the Ayodhya Kandam where Sumitra\textsuperscript{15}, the mother of Laxmana, motivates him into accompanying Rama to the Dandaka Forest for a period of fourteen years. Sumithra advises Laxmana that Rama is his father and Sita his mother in the forest. Sumitra inspires Laxmana by stating that being devoted to Rama, it was correct for Laxmana to accompany Rama to the forest. Sumitra advises Laxmana to be devoted to Rama and reminds Laxmana that service to elders is the surest path to heaven.
TRIJATA

Another instance of Motivation can be seen in the Yuddha Kandam when Sita sees Rama on the field along with the good Rakshashi Trijata and considers him to be dead. At this point Trijata motivates Sita even though she is a Rakshashi Trijata is one of the good Rakshashi's in Ramayana who is noble in character. When Sita was lamenting over the death of Rama, Trijata informs Sita that Rama was not dead. Trijata convinces Sita that if Rama had been killed in the battlefield, the divine Vimana by name Pushpaka would not have carried Sita and flown in the sky. The Pushpaka Vimana had carried Sita to the battlefield only because Sita was a Sumangali.

Trijata motivates Sita by stating that Rama and Laxmana cannot be killed at the hands of an ordinary person like Indrajith. Trijata inspires Sita by pointing out that Rama and Laxmana were only in a deep trance and that the entire army was waiting for them to recover from their deep trance. Trijata advises Sita to have a proper look at Rama. The faces of Rama and Laxmana had a glow which would have been absent if they had been dead. Trijata requests Sita to consider her advice by pointing out that she had never told a lie in her life and would not do so in the future also. Trijata advises Sita to give up her grief and sorrow and Sita is ultimately convinced and both of them return back to Ashoka Vana.
JAMBAVAN

Jambavan motivates Hanuman for the second time in the Yuddha Kandam. The Kosala brothers were suffering from the rain of Indrajith’s arrows. The vanara army was lying on the ground in a faint like death. Vibishina searches for Jambavan, who was also suffering from pain and torture. Jambavan enquires Vibishina whether Hanuman is alive as he alone is capable of saving the entire army from the clutches of death. Jambavan calls Hanuman and once again inspires him to give his very best for saving the entire vanara army from death. Jambavan reminds Hanuman that there is no one else as powerful as him. He requests Hanuman to save the Kosala brothers and the entire vanara army from the hands of death. Jambavan even mentions that Hanuman is the only succour.

Jambavan requests Hanuman to go to the mountain by name Himavan, where there will be a peak by name Oshadi Parvatha. This peak is full of healing herbs, which glow in the dark and illuminate the surroundings. Jambavan instructs Hanuman to bring the most important herbs like Mritasanjivi, Vishalyakarani, Savarnayakarani and Santanakarani.

Hanuman becomes highly motivated at this stimulation of Jambavan. Hanuman grew in size and very quickly reached the Oshadhi Parvatha but the herbs realized that some one had come to take them, concealed themselves and Hanuman could not find them. Being highly motivated and being interested in the welfare of Rama, Hanuman lifted the entire mountain and was back in Lanka very soon. Hanuman placed the mountain in the midst of the army of vanaras. Soon the entire vanaras army was awake and once again Hanuman took the mountain back to the Himalayas.
SUGREEVA

Another instance of motivation can be seen in the Sundara Kandam when Sugreeva allows the south bound vanaras to make merry in his garden Madhuvana\textsuperscript{18}. The south bound vanaras led by Angada were successful in their mission of discovering Sita. Hanuman had accomplished the impossible task of leaping across the sea to Lanka, meeting Sita and return back successfully to his team.

As the team was returning back to Kishkinda they wanted to enjoy the honeyed wines which were in plenty in the Madhuvana the favourite garden of king Sugreeva. The king’s uncle Dadhimuka was in charge of Madhuvana. Angada after consulting Jambavan and Hanuman allows the vanara team to enjoy the madhu in the favourite garden of king Sugreeva. The monkeys enjoyed themselves to their hearts content. Very soon there was a fight between the guards led by Dadhimuka and the drunken monkeys. But the guards could not control the monkeys. Even Hanuman joined in the fight. Finally Dadhimukha decided to report the matter to King Sugreeva who was very wise and immediately understood the situation. He decides not to punish the whole team for having destroyed the Madhuvana but to welcome them with open arms. Sugreeva feels that the team would have been successful in their venture of discovering Sita otherwise, they would not have dared to enter Madhuvana, the favourite garden of king Sugreeva, which was zealously guarded by his uncle Dadhimukha.

As the team had been bold enough to enter Madhuvana and destroy it Sugreeva is sure that Hanuman must have met devi Sita. Sugreeva mentions that Hanuman has never failed in any task undertaken by him. Besides this Jambavan and Angada were very good in organizing and they knew what ought to be done and when. Jambavan was an expert in planning.
Sugreeva tells Laxmana that though the team was aware of the fact that no one else ought not enter Madhuvana, they still dared to do so only because of their success in discovering Sita. Sugreeva tells Dadhimukha that he was pleased with the information that the vanara team led by Angada had destroyed the Madhuvana. Because of their success in their mission of discovering Sita, Sugreeva grants them the privilege of using his garden. Sugreeva informs Dadhimukha that he was eager to meet the entire team led by Angada, Jambavan and Hanuman.
LAXMANA

Laxmana motivates Rama at Prasravana\(^9\) during the rainy season in the Kishkinda Kandam. Laxmana stimulates Rama to be brave and not give way to despair. Laxmana motivates Rama that soon after the rainy season, they would successful in locating Sita and killing Ravana.

Laxmana reminds Rama of his prowess just as fire, which is covered with ashes, needs an ahuti\(^{20}\) of ghee to make it glow again. Laxmana reminds Rama that it was Rama himself who once mentioned that a man who loses his mental poise would cause all his actions to go waste. Laxmana comforts Rama by stating that soon after the rainy season, Sugreeva would take the necessary steps as promised and organize the search for Sita.
HANUMAN

Hanuman is a perfect example in Valmiki Ramayana of a very good communicator. All the principles of effective communication can be noticed in Hanuman's interpersonal communication.

During the very first encounter in the Kishkinda Kandam, Rama is pleased with the communication skills of Hanuman. Hanuman comes to meet Rama and Laxmana at the orders of his master Sugreeva to find out who they were. The principles of effective communication require the message to be perfectly clear and free from all ambiguity, complete, brief and timely. The message should reach the receiver at the right time. In order to communicate effectively the communicator must understand the intelligence level and background of the receiver. Rama was highly impressed with the way in which Hanuman introduced himself to Rama and Laxmana. Hanuman clearly and precisely tells them that he was sent by his master Sugreeva to make friends with them. Hanuman informs them that his master Sugreeva had been driven out of his kingdom by his (Sugreeva's) brother Vaali.

And therefore Sugreeva was living in fear in the slope of Rishyamooka, which Vaali could not enter because of a curse. Rama tells Laxmana that Hanuman was an excellent communicator. Rama could not find a single mistake in the formation of sentences spoken by Hanuman. Hanuman's manner of talking was convincing, precise and spontaneous. Rama informs Laxmana that Hanuman's message was genuine and there was no deception in his style of communication. Rama praises Hanuman by telling Laxmana that Hanuman's voice was very pleasing and attractive pitched in the Madhyama, his voice was musical to the ears.

Besides Rama and Laxmana were very happy as they were looking for Sugreeva and Hanuman would be able to take them to Sugreeva. Another incident where Hanuman displays his communication skills is when the rainy season was over in the Kishkinda Kandam21. As promised Rama had killed Vaali and made Sugreeva the king. In turn Sugreeva owed a duty to Rama, which was the search for Sita. But Hanuman had found that
Sugreeva after many years of exile had come back to luxury and had forgotten himself and the duty he owed to Rama. Sugreeva was enjoying himself with wine and women.

Hanuman knew that the time had come for him to remind the king of his duty to Rama. Hanuman speaks very humbly to Sugreeva. His words are carefully chosen and full of wisdom. Hanuman reminds Sugreeva that the rainy season is long past and the time has come when Sugreeva should go about his duty of organizing the search for Sita.

Hanuman clearly tells Sugreeva that the promise given to a friend must be honoured in time. Hanuman gently advises Sugreeva to give up his other interests and devote himself entirely to the task of searching for Sita. He informs Sugreeva that Rama is very much upset by the delay and is waiting for some kind of communication to assure him that Sugreeva has not forgotten his promise. Hanuman finally tells Sugreeva to make arrangements for the search of Sita by ordering the vanara army to assemble in Kishkinda as early as possible.

The message delivered by Hanuman had the desired effect on Sugreeva, who sends for Neela and orders him to assemble the army in Kishkinda within fifteen days. Thus all the principles of effective communication like timeliness, clarity, completeness, integrity, feedback, attention and compassion are noticed in the message delivered by Hanuman to Sugreeva.22.
**Notes and References**

1. Management and Organization – C.B.Gupta, Part V, Chapter 1, Page 5.3
3. Shurpanakha – The half-sister of Ravana. She is said to be responsible for the destruction of the entire Rakshasa Clan.
4. Maanava Astra – The astra used by Rama to take on Maricha and to fling him into the ocean, a hundred yojanas away.
5. Ashwamedha Yaga- a horse sacrifice. This is a ceremony, the antiquity of which dates back to the Vedic period.
6. Sumantara – The charioteer of King Dasaratha.
8. Ruma – The wife Sugreeva whom Vaali had taken away.
9. Pushpaka Vimana – A chariot, which originally belonged to Kubera, but was taken by Ravana. It could fly in the sky.
11. Vinda – This is another name for Vijaya, which is an auspicious hour.
12. Kabandha – The name of a mighty demon. He was a heavenly being by name Danu and had been cursed to assume the form of a headless Trunk till Rama and Laxmana killed him and granted him release.
14. Kaikeyi – The daughter of Ashvapathi. The princess of Kekaya and the favoured queen of Dasaratha. She was the mother of Bharatha.
15. Sumitra – The wife of Dasaratha and the mother of Laxmana.
16. Trijata – One of the good rakshasi's, who recounted the dream she had to the other rakshasis, who were torturing Sita.
17. Mritasanjivi – One of the herbs found in the hill by the name Sanjivini, which was to be brought to the battlefield by Hanuman.
19. Prasravana – The hill where Rama spent four months during the rainy season. The hill was very close to Kishkinda.
22. Canto XXIX, Kishkinda Kandam, Valmiki Ramayana