This chapter seeks to review the studies on behavioural dimensions of managerial effectiveness. It is rather strange that although several internationally reputed management institutes exist in India, practically no study has been conducted on managerial effectiveness. It is indeed surprising that an important question like "what contributes to effective managerial performance?" has not been investigated. However, there are a few studies that could be related to managerial effectiveness as they have explored dimensions like leadership style (Habibullah and Sinha, 1980; Klepinge, 1980), managerial power (Shetty, 1978), managerial style (Rangnekar, 1977), allocation of time (Lev, 1979; Levie, 1978), loyalty (Nagjanath and Raghupati, 1980), etc.

Khetan (1979) raised certain questions such as, what is managerial effectiveness? Why are some managers more effective? Is it an aspect of personality? Can effectiveness be learnt? How can one motivate managers to learn and practice effectiveness? But, answers were not easily forthcoming. Habibullah and Sinha (1980) found that persons who have weak work-values work more effectively under a condition of nurturant-task leadership. The nurturant-task leadership is characterized by strong emphasis on task accomplishment, high standard of performance, explicit role delineation blended with
affection, and care for the subordinate. Affection, personal care, and warmth for the subordinate is contingent on the leader's effective performance on the job.

Organisational Effectiveness

Before going deeper into the concept of managerial effectiveness, it may be useful to understand organisational effectiveness. This is because organisations provide the context in which managerial performance takes place. The context plays a significant role in influencing managerial performance. Effective managers contribute to organisational effectiveness and effective organisations facilitate maximising managerial contributions. Thus, there is interaction between the time determining partly the contribution of one to the other.

Rao and Ramon (1974) in their book on "Motivation and Organisational Effectiveness" stress that the organisational effectiveness does not mean only the quantum of profit or surplus generated by the activities per section, but also by the means and methods adopted in achieving the objectives. An effective organisation should, in the long run, generate economic surplus. But to make profit under favourable market conditions, or to increase the profit margin by adopting unethical means, or to make profit for a short period with an eventual death, are not the symptoms of organisational effectiveness. Rao and Ramon (1974) define organisational effectiveness as the maximization of returns to the organisation by economic, technical (efficiency) and political means.
A framework for organisational effectiveness based on the social and psychological properties of the industrial organisation has been outlined by Argyris (1964). According to him, an organisation increases in effectiveness as its obtains: (i) increasing outputs with constant or decreasing inputs, or (ii) constant outputs with decreasing inputs, and (e) ability to accomplish in such a way that it can continue to do so... As the organisational effectiveness increases, it will be able to accomplish its core activities at a constant decreasing increment of inputs of energy. Therefore, the criteria for total organisational effectiveness is an integration of three effectiveness scores, namely, the degree of energy needed to carry and the three core activities in relation to the outputs or "payoffs".

Rangaswar (1977) suggested that good and bad organisational performance is associated with various managerial styles and systems. He identified four distinctive characteristics which were generally associated with high organisational performance - (i) wide spread sense of purpose; (ii) alertness; (iii) concern for human resources; and (iv) habits of people. However, no empirical validation of this hypothesis has been carried out.

Singh (1979) studied four steel firms of India and Europe. He suggested that organisational effectiveness has three dimensions: social, economic and behavioural. An effective firm is one which balances its performance in all the three spheres. The advantages of this three dimensional framework are: (i) effectiveness is not defined from the perspective of any single interest group; (ii) it
allows an assessment of systematic performance; and (iii) it may be applied to both profit and non-profit organisations.

Different dimensions were hypothesised and then prioritised for public (social, economical, behavioural) and private (economic, behavioural, social) enterprises. The results contradicted the hypothesised priorities. According to commitment scores, all four firms had similar priorities (economic, behavioural, social). In terms of achievement scores, the Indian companies were alike (behavioural, economic, social) whereas the priorities for European firms were economic, social and behavioural.

Thus, the effectiveness of an organisation cannot be measured only by looking at the extent to which it makes profits or economic gains. It cannot be measured also simply by studying the extent to which it is achieving its stated goals. This is because it is possible for an organisation to achieve its goals fully, yet not utilising the manpower in the best possible way, having poor job-satisfaction and no growth. It may be achieving the goals because they are too simple or too easy to achieve. Therefore organisational effectiveness should be defined not merely in terms of goal accomplishments (product) but also in terms of processes utilised, and process outcomes (organisational climate, job satisfaction, morale, etc.) and potential utilisation (e.g. a difficult exercise as potential may not be easily measurable). While outcome or product variables are easily measurable, they are not comparable across organisations (as organisations differ in the business they are in and their profits etc. are determined by a number of factors including
size, line of business, political environment, market fluctuation, etc.). Process variables are measurable (although various subjective elements enter into measurement) and comparable across different organisations. Potential variables are not easily measurable. It is for this reason in most organisational effectiveness studies organisational climate, job-satisfaction, team-work, morale, and such other variables are taken as indicators of effectiveness. McClelland (1976) extended this logic even upto managerial level, where he attempted to assess managerial effectiveness by the climate generated by the manager in his department.

Managerial Effectiveness and Its Measurement

Many researches were conducted to study organisational effectiveness by taking different measures of effectiveness but very little work has been done to study managerial effectiveness. Ganesh (1961) reported in the survey of researches on organisational behaviour that there is some confusion between managerial effectiveness and organisational effectiveness. Although managerial effectiveness may lead to the organisation being more effective, there is no direct study of this link. Reddin (1970) defines managerial effectiveness as the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position. This definition is in terms of output rather than input i.e., what a manager achieves rather than what he has done. Effectiveness was best seen as something a manager produces from a situation by managing it appropriately. Many managers are held back from focusing on effectiveness because of the way their position is defined. Job descriptions and position descriptions do not usually
aid in increasing effectiveness. Many, if not all, managerial jobs are defined in terms of their input and behaviour requirements.

The criteria for evaluating managerial effectiveness must depend on informed judgement to identify those managerial job behaviours constituting successful optimization of resources. The major requirement for the measure of managerial effectiveness are that they be strongly job-centered, that they be devised rationally in accordance with long-range planning and objective setting, and that they be based on job behaviours that are observable and measurable.

The term 'efficiency' has been defined by Reddin (1970) as the ratio of output to input. The difference between these terms has been brought out by him as follows:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Efficiency versus Effectiveness</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Do things right</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Solve problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Safeguard resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Follow duties</td>
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<td>5. Lower costs</td>
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He also classified effectiveness in three categories: Apparent Effectiveness, Personal Effectiveness, and Leadership Effectiveness.

Further, Reddin (1980) emphasised that, there is only one realistic and unambiguous definition of managerial effectiveness. It is the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position. Effectiveness therefore must be defined in terms of
output rather than input - by what a manager achieves rather than by what he does. He also indicated the route to managerial effectiveness, which involves the following:

Make Decisions
Do Important Things Only
Look Outward from Job
Do Productive Things First
Exploit Opportunity
Focus on Results
Utilise All Resources

Effectiveness is best seen as a quality that a manager brings to a situation through the use of a particular management style.

Bagum and Anwar (1978) examined the effects of two independent dimensions of supervisory leadership (structure initiation and consideration) of supervisory effectiveness as determined by managers' ratings and group productivity. Rating scores showed that structure has a highly significant effect on rated effectiveness, but the influence of consideration was insignificant. Results also indicated that productivity is significantly affected by both the dimensions of supervisory leadership and subjects scoring high on both the dimensions are also producing maximum. Structure was the dominant dimension in determining leadership effectiveness.

Leviatan (1978) found that the managers' time in office was not significantly linked to perceived managerial success, nor to communication.
effectiveness. Organisations which practice internal rotation show more communication effectiveness, influence at work place; changes for advancement in organisation; psychological commitment to job and organisational goals; and initiative-taking behaviour in managers.

Klepinger (1980) studied the managerial effectiveness as rated on leadership behaviour in a social service organisation. Results shows that the executives rated highly on both leadership behaviour dimensions were also highly rated on their managerial effectiveness, but these high ratings were not significantly associated with high employee job satisfaction. High level of education showed an increased strength of association between leader behaviour and employee job satisfaction, but a decreased strength of association between leader behaviour and managerial effectiveness.

Mills and Sohmann (1980) found that the police officers with one year of police duty also follows the general personality model. Prediction of supervisory ratings was found to be superior for the equation specifically designed to predict police effectiveness as compared with more general index of leadership. Personality characteristics such as dominance, functional intelligence, and autonomous achievement help to predict their effectiveness.

Menjonath and Raghupati (1980) observed in a study that 87 percent of the managers believed that loyalty was important for managerial effectiveness. Turner (1980) studied the effectiveness of local directors as measured by behaviour, background and situational variables. These dimensions include: Behaviour variables such as number of conferences attended annually, concern for employees,
visibility, etc.; background variables are: position of trade experience, number of years of experience as a director, number of years of trade experience, etc.; and situational variables like number of supervisors reporting directly to the director, number of areas centers in comparison with the number of comprehensive high schools, etc. Results show that group of directors who were most frequently nominated have scored significantly higher than the group of directors who were least nominated on all the above mentioned dimensions.

Williams (1980) conducted an experiment to study the effect of assertiveness in the interpersonal communication style of women managers and perception of managerial effectiveness. Results indicated that the subjects who viewed assertive behavior by women manager rated her managerial effectiveness significantly more favorable than did those subjects who viewed a nonassertive behavior. The assertive woman was perceived to be more competent and dynamic, but less trustworthy than the nonassertive woman.

One widely used procedure consists simply of rankings from manager's superiors of their total managerial effectiveness. Such rankings have merit in that, they constitute a single index encompassing a kind of overall impression or gestalt of a manager's total success, evidence is abundant that separate rankers show good agreement in their independent estimates of a given manager's level of effectiveness. Such impressions also possess a number of additional potential advantages (Campbell, et al., 1970):
1. A manager is compared directly with his peers, who presumably are responsible for optimizing similar resource possibilities.

2. The global impression probably encompasses a broad sampling of managerial behaviours, extending over a span of time and if the ranker has known him in previous settings over managerial jobs he has held previously.

3. The impression is likely to be affected most by what the manager himself has or has done and to be relatively free of job success due to organisational or societal factors.

4. The impression probably samples reasonably well the effects a manager may have had on the full range of organisational units for which he may be either fully or partially responsible.

5. The impression is likely to be based on many behaviours rather than only a few.

It is better to consider several rather than just a few potential determiners of managerial effectiveness, grown out of the firm belief that the management of managerial talent must be individualized according to the special characteristics of each managerial job, person, and organisation.

Hammer, et al. (1974) have found that the high performers were rated as being more effective than low performers. Effectiveness
of salesman was studied by Rao and Mishra (1975) who found that individual differences underlie the success of a salesman. Emery and Triot (1965) found that the effectiveness of the given type of sales behaviour varies according to prevailing market conditions. For instance, reactive sales behaviour might be quite effective in a perfect competition market, and the proactive sales behaviour might be effective in a turbulent market. It might also be argued that effectiveness of a given style of interaction between the salesperson and the customer would be influenced by the level of need the customer has for the product. Hill (1977) have reported that managerial effectiveness depends upon certain orientations, values, attitudes, motives, and interpersonal skills. All these aspects should be included to train managers as an effective manager.

As it is clearly understood that the managerial effectiveness will lead to organisational effectiveness, and further organisational effectiveness will definitely support the national development. Senkaran (1978) assessed the managerial effectiveness in terms of the success achieved in the area of human resources development and utilisation. The human resources approach rests on three assumptions, as discussed below:

1. In developing countries human resources are the most plentiful of all resources and for most part were grossly under-utilised.

2. Skills, knowledge and capacities of the labour force are capable of almost limitless development.
3. Despite lack of liberal endowment of national resources or material capital, countries like ours (India) can prosper by maximising the productive utilisation and effective development of their labour forces.

It was further emphasised that the management education should also be suitably oriented so as to serve our needs based on our system instead of relying on foreign models, grafting and transplant.

It is important to see how effective and ineffective manager perceives his subordinate and what is the role of sex in perceiving the differences. Delatte (1979) conducted a study on similar lines in a human services organization. He classified more effective (top 25% scores) and less effective (bottom 25% scores) for male and female managers and subordinates as perceived on some personality traits. Results indicated that both male and female subordinates perceived competence, energetic, industriousness, and sincerity to be most characteristic of their more effective managers; and self-evaluative, intellectual, and objective to be the characteristic of least effective manager. Trait ratings for more effective managers were significantly higher than those for less effective managers except for the experienced. Trait groupings related to more effective managers were ranked in the sequence as (i) interpersonal relationship, (ii) work motivation/drive; (iii) intellectual competence; (iv) individual work characteristics; and (v) maturity.

In another study, ley (1979) measured managerial effectiveness in hotel industry by observing their work behaviour. Results indicated that the more effective managers allocated more time to their
role as an entrepreneur than to any other role; whereas, less effective managers allocated less time to the entrepreneurial role than to most other work roles. Secondly, the longer the time spent at work per day, the higher was the judged level of managerial effectiveness.

Mitchell (1979) studied the organisational climates of elementary schools and teachers' perceptions of principal's effectiveness. He studied the 55 principals and 572 teachers from Maryland. Results indicated that male and female teachers rated female principals as more effective in terms of emotional balance, administrative planning and accomplishments. Both male and female teachers rated inexperienced principals higher than the experienced principals in terms of being more effective in promoting human relations, emotional balance, administrative planning, and relationship with subordinates. The male teachers rated experienced principals higher on use of funds, capacity for work and accomplishment, whereas the female teachers rated inexperienced principals in the same pattern.

Monappa and Saiyadein (1979) also define an effective manager as one who is properly developed in terms of basic intellectual abilities and the predispositions necessary for carrying out the task smoothly. On the basis of researches available they listed some characteristics of the effective manager as: employee centeredness, adaptability, parity in treatment, conceptual skills, communication ability, and technical skills.
Peragoy (1979) studied a group of 46 operationally rated effective managers and another group of 41 operationally rated obsolescent managers. Results indicated that the more dissatisfied the obsolescent manager was with developing good working relationships, the lower the rating he received from his superiors on potential. The more dissatisfied the obsolescent manager was with support received on the job, authority in his position, and self-fulfilment, the lower the rating he received on performance by his superiors.

Divedi (1980) studied the employees of a medium-sized private sector organisation (printing press) of India and found that the positive and moderately high correlation between age and experience, age and pay, attitude towards co-workers and attitude towards work, and experience and pay. The coefficient of correlation between attitude towards supervisor and performance was (.28) significant (p =.05). Positive and high correlation between employees performance and attitude towards supervisor indicated that management may provide human relation training to supervisors to improve employees attitude towards them.

The review of researches, so far, indicates that managerial performance is a function of complex interaction between several variables. Studies on some of these variables are presented further in subsequent sections of this chapter.

Managerial Behaviour and Performance

Hannahey (1979) studied the effect of uncertainty on managerial behaviour in a central office of one school district. Results indicated that in the position of greater uncertainty, upper level
managers were more initiating, especially in terms of interaction, while lower level managers were more reactive. These group of managers can be divided in two distinct groups: (i) upper level managers, engaged more in non-routine work whether it was self-initiated or not, and (ii) lower level managers, engaged more in routine work. The findings also suggest that lower level managers were the more conservative ones in the organisation. The picture portrayed of upper level managers was one of individuals who were constantly having demands placed on them, who were working under conditions of considerable uncertainty, who also engaged in highly interdependent work, and who turn to each other when confronted with non-routine matters.

Keller and Szilagyi (1978) suggested that positive leader reward behaviour was causally related to higher effort-to-performance expectancy, as well as higher satisfaction with work, opportunities for promotion, and overall satisfaction. Punitive leader reward behaviour was suggested to be causally related to lower satisfaction with work, supervision, and overall satisfaction.

Muller (1970) found that upwardly mobile managers who have, what has been called, 'helicopter' quality prefer to operate in a dynamic-active, possibly stressful environment. The less successful managers feel more at home in a static environment and give high priority to friendship, social values, and security.
Rapoport (1970) classified managers in three clusters. The 
metamorphic manager is considered as creative, ambitious, and
venturesome but restless, hard-driving, and full of conflict.
The incremental manager is considered as uncritical but fulfilled
having happy personal and family life and a slow orderly progress
at work. By contrast, the tangential manager was not primarily
interested in the organization in which he worked. He was alienated
or rebellious and his major interests were usually in the wider
environment. It was found that the metamorphic type may be more
successful than the other two.

Wernimont and Kirchner (1972) conducted a study to find out
the practical problems in the revitilization of tests. They try to
 correlate personality dimension (15 dimensions measured by Edward
Personnel Preference Schedule Scale) with subsequent performance
measures for the next ten years and found varying degree of relationships. For some dimensions (aggression, achievement exhibition,
affiliation, autonomy, heterosexuality, successance, and deference)
the association increased over the years from negative to positive
and sometimes insignificant to significant, while for other dimen-
sions (change, dominance, order, endurance, nurturance, and absol-
ment) it decreased and become negative in direction.

Geismar and Wiener (1975) found that job satisfaction was
positively related to employees mental health. In case of low-skill
jobs, it may be that the greater the satisfaction, the lower the
mental health. On the other hand, among high-level, high-skill jobs,
a positive relationship can be predicted between job satisfaction
and mental health, even though the position may involve greater job tension.

England and others (1971) found that union leaders were moralistic while managers had pragmatic orientations. Employees and social welfare were important values for union leaders, but weak ones for managers. Managers valued the traditional goals of productivity, organisational growth, industrial leadership, and efficiency. They thought highly of ambition, ability, and skill. Union leaders, however, gave their high ratings to loyalty, honour and trust.

Bass and Eldridge (1974) also found similar results. Successful managers were more pragmatic and less idealistic than less successful managers.

Bass and Franks (1972) classified young managers who are earning high salaries as accelerated managers. They value wealth, pleasure, and self-realisation; whereas less successful managers valued security, service, duty, expertness, and social goals. However, these patterns were not uniform in each country.

Sutaria (1977) tried to find out the job mobility of middle level managers and its relationship with personality. She found that extraversion and neuroticism were not related to job mobility. It was found that the textile technicians change their jobs mainly for economic and social benefits like, salary, designation, status, promotional chances, opportunities for growth and skills, etc.

Levinaan (1978) studied the problem faced by top management about keeping the extraordinarily talented managers in a position
where he or she can be most effective, and at the same time not sacrifice the feelings and aspirations of the people who work with and for this person. He found that managers can cope with this dilemma by helping their abrasive subordinates to understand the negative consequences of their personalities. This method takes time and patience, but it is most likely the only way managers can save such people for the organization.

Another personality dimension of supervisors from two cotton mills was studied by Meleveya (1970) and were related with job success. Personality of these supervisors was measured by Contact Personality Factor (CPF-A) and job success by Appraisal Ratings. He found that personality was unrelated to job success. He suggests that personality should also be measured by some other tool, because there was a wide gap in the personality traits rated by psychologists and traits viewed by supervisors.

Usha Kumar (1970) found that highly successful (as classified by the management) executives exceeded the less successful executives in intelligence, achievement orientation, dominance, exhibitionistic tendencies, lack of defensiveness, relative unconventionality, optimism regarding career prospects, self-worth, and perception of various organization dimensions.

Belch (1979) studied the personality traits of successful and unsuccessful police officers. Two different types of personality instruments were administered (1) Edward Personal Preference Schedule (EPPs) and (2) Minnesota Multiphasic Personality
Inventory (MMPI). Results indicated that the veteran (experience by long practice) police officers and successful recruits were not significantly different on EPQ and MMPI. The veteran police officers and unsuccessful recruits also did not differ significantly on both the instruments.

Lusk (1980) found that the personality factor of group-dependency self-sufficiency may be used to predict effectiveness in student teaching. Teachers who exhibit higher levels of conscientiousness were perceived as being more effective in the teaching. Teachers who were perceived as venturesome (less shy) were perceived more effective in teaching by the supervisors.

In another study Wood (1983) found that the male and female administrators differ significantly (p < .05) on twelve of the twenty-four personality traits measured by the Adjective Check List (ACL). Female administrators at the central office and building level scored significantly different (p < .05) on the personality dimensions as: self-confidence, lability (state of being labile), aggression, and counseling readiness. There were no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of central office males and building level males on any of the 24 scales of the ACL.

Performance Appraisal

Performance reports are generally available for all employees through performance appraisals. Practically every organization has appraisal systems and managers are assessed by their superior officers for their performance every year. The performance appraisal
reports provide very significant data. Many organisations base their promotion, transfer and training decisions on performance appraisal reports.

O'Leary (1972) made an effort to test the validation of psychological tests and the performance. He found that the first year performance may not be considered as valid measure of performance. Because, it takes some time to adjust with the new organisation, and new system. During this period performance of an employee may be just normal.

Motivation and Performance

Very often the word "motivation" is used synonymously with performance. In other words, individual variations in performance are attributed to motivational levels. Why are some people highly motivated than others and how low level of motivation could be improved. Vroom (1964) proposed that performance is determined by ability and motivation; and with regard to motivation he proposed that individuals would engage in behaviour which they expect will lead them to outcomes they desire. Mouton (1964) demanded a balanced approach between management's concern for production and concern for people and imply that a high combination of both can bring about a high level of performance and satisfaction among organisational members (Prakesam, 1978).

Yuki and Latham (1978) found high correlation between difficult goals and performance. Subjects with a high need for achievement and an internal control orientation set higher goals. Goal
setting led to greater overall performance improvement for subjects who had high self-esteem or who perceived goal attainment to be instrumental for getting extrinsic rewards.

Some of the community college administrators like department heads, deans, and faculty members were studied in relation to their managerial effectiveness (Appleby, 1980). Results showed that the motive states and leadership styles do not account for differences in managerial effectiveness. However, as a group, the heads and deans had a higher need for power than for affiliation and moderate need for achievement and inhibition. Vijayasree (1981) found that managers were highly achievement oriented persons, who believe more in influencing others than in establishing and maintaining friendly relations with others.

Background and Performance

There are some personal factors which influence the promotions of managers. Jackson (1979) studied these factors affecting the promotability of managers in Los Angeles. In this study 24 managers were rated by four raters (two black and two white) on various personality dimensions. Results indicated that communication skills and skin colour proved to be the two most consistent variables which affect the promotability of managers. He also found that the personal characteristics are more significant than ability or the other objective criteria used to determine promotability. Monappa and Saliyadeen (1979) studied the 172 middle level managers...
from public and private sector, and found that management continues to be a male-oriented profession. There were very few cases whose age was below 25 years or above 50 years. Most Indian managers seem to come from Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal, and Uttar Pradesh. Most of the managers were graduates, and very few were postgraduates. A large number of managers were educated from "big name" colleges and universities such as Bombay, Delhi, Allahabad and Madras. A sizeable number of them started their career as manager while some rose from the ranks, or came from other positions such as teaching and research. Not many managers had pre or post appointment management training either by way of short course or the professional training offered by management institutions and organisations. Most of the managers stuck to their jobs and had low mobility. However, private sector managers were more mobile than those in the public sector. Satisfaction with the job for the managerial class seems to depend on the degree of responsibility, trust, etc. put on them by the organisation. They were prepared to delegate, train, and be employee-oriented but find organisational climates in many cases inhibiting such orientation.

Odiyadi (1980) found a low positive correlation between the personal history data and employee performance. This indicates that the use of personal factors such as age, experience, education, marital status, and social background embodied in the application blanks were not unwarranted in the selection programmes, although no definitive inferences can be made regarding their
effectiveness as variables in the selection batteries. The significant positive relationship between level of pay and employee performance indicated the significance of money as an incentive in influencing the job behaviour of employees. Although the effectiveness of money as an incentive depends upon the employee's knowledge of their relationship.

Bigoness (1976) found that raters tended to grant higher ratings to blacks than whites when performance was poor, yet rated high performing whites and blacks similarly. Since this lack of differentiation between high and low-performing blacks can result in committing more 'errors' when hiring or promoting blacks than when making similar decisions with regard to whites, a negative consequence of this may be that it would validate already existing prejudicial attitudes toward blacks.

In another study, Schmitt and Lappin (1980) found the correlation of actual performance and rated performance for male raters was significantly higher than the same correlation for female raters. People rated members of their own race groups with more variability than they did for members of their own groups, but similar results were not obtained for sex subgroups. Black raters received significantly higher ratings primarily because black raters rated black raters higher than white raters.

Trust and Performance

Trusting behaviour is authentic and supportive in nature and enables the participants to be more themselves, grow in self-control, responsibility and other qualities to make their best
contribution towards the attainment of effective performance. By effective performance is meant simultaneous accomplishment of the highest possible level of quality of goods and services produced, reduction of restraining behaviour, such as turnover, absenteeism, indiscipline, grievances and untrust to the lowest possible levels and increase in the magnitude of participant morale to an optimal level (Dwivedi, 1990).

Trust can be used to assimilate conflict and integrate goals at individual, group and organisational levels. Assimilation of conflict involves both, the resolution of destructive conflicts and the reinforcement of constructive ones while integration relates to participants' perception of satisfying their own needs along with the attainment of group and organisational goals.

Hall and Donnell (1979) found that high achievers behave in ways essentially consistent with the normative trust of the model, while average and low achievers violated critical tenets of this model. High, average and low achieving (measured by Management of Motives Index and Personal Relations Survey) managers differed significantly, in terms of both self-reports and subordinate appraisals.

Locus of Control and Managerial Effectiveness

The individual who is labeled as internal believer can control his own outcomes or fate; the external individual feels that much of what happen to him is controlled by external forces. Investigations suggested that individuals who are external in their orientation
tend to be more alienated from the work setting.

Internals were significantly more satisfied with a participative management style than the externals. On the other hand, externals were significantly more satisfied with directive supervision than the internals (Mitchell, 1975). In another study by Laub (1975) found that the external sons more frequently had highly directive parents who intruded into the task. Internal sons, on the other hand, had much less directive parents. Internals show greater work involvement than do externals. Internals believe that their behavior is more likely to lead to reward payoffs than the externals. Tendancy to forget failure was associated with internality. Externals recall more of the negative psychological interpretation of their personalities than the internals (Efran, 1963).

Some studies were conducted for children's and found that in a classroom setting externals blamed the instructor more than did internals after receiving a low grade (Page and Hoy, 1975). In another study by Phares (1975) observed, the better apparent adjustment of internals is in part a function of their denial tendencies. Prociuk and Green (1975) found that internals were academically superior to both defensive and congruent externals and that defensive externals achieve higher grade point average than congruent externals. Taub and Dollinger (1975) observed that the internal children seem to require less motivational manipulation to elicit achievement behavior than do similar externals.
Kahle (1980) studied the college students and found externals as more likely to select a test of chance, whereas internals and middles were more likely to select a test of skill and the difference between them was also significant ($p < .05$). Rotter (1966) observed that internals were more achievement oriented, and less anxious (Feather, 1967) less dogmatic (Joe, 1971) more trusting and less suspicious of others. Phares and Lewiell (1975) studied the case history of several people and found that the internals sanctioned significantly less in the way of help than did externals.

In a cross-cultural study, Garment (1974) found that the Indian students (at the University level) were more internal than the Canadians on the overall score. But when subdivided according to Personal Control, Control Ideology, and System Control components, it was found that the Canadian students were more internal than the Indian students in terms of Personal Control and both Canadian students and Canadian workers were more external than the Indian counterparts in terms of Control Ideology and System Control.

Hersch and Schaeble (1967) found that internals were more likely to describe themselves as active, striving, achieving, powerful, independent and effective. Ferguson and Kennedy (1974) observed that internals, more than the externals, perceive authority. Generally, internals perceived authority figures in a more
positive light. This is an important finding as managers are authority figures to their subordinates and at the same time are subordinates in the organisational hierarchy.

Mitchell and others (1975) found that the internals had significantly higher overall job satisfaction than did externals. Managers were more internally controlled than were the rest of the employees. Internals believe that working hard is more likely to lead to good performance, that good performance is more likely to lead to other rewards, and that they have more control over how they spend their time on the job. Internally controlled supervisors would use persuasive power bases and externals would use coercive ones. Internals tend to use rewards, respect and expertise as the most effective ways to influence their subordinates. Externals see coercion and their formal position as most effective. Internal managers would use considerate behaviours and external managers would use structuring ones.

Reichard (1975) found that high internality of managers were related to low reported job strain, high reported job satisfaction and higher reported positional mobility. Anderson and Schniefer (1978) found that the leaders were more likely to be internals. Superior performance was achieved by internal leaders and groups led by internals. Internals exhibited behaviour characteristics of an instrumentally task-oriented style, and externals exhibited behaviour pointing to a social emotional style. Lester (1978)
reported that the internal locus of control was related to job satisfaction among municipal police officers.

Steele and Silverstein (1980) observed that the internals attributed their success more to ability and less to luck, fate and powerful others than did externals. Phares, Wilson and Klyver (1971) stated that the internals show more self-blaming behaviour than externals. Lefcourt, Hagg and Sardoni (1975) noted that objective self-awareness was a more disruptive state for internals than for externals. Holmes and Jackson (1975) observed that internals were more attracted (and less angry) to the experimenter than were externals in conditions involving rewards and punishments.

Austrian and Aubuchon (1979) found that internality was positively related to trust in others, and also significantly greater trust in fathers than in mother. Sonoma (1979) found the relationship between locus of control, trust and decision-making. Results indicated that higher in the external control orientation did not differ from internals on overall scores, but external males were more risk-averse under certain choice conditions. Low trust males generate maximally risk-averse choice solutions under the choice condition of feminine role problem appropriateness and probability estimation. In general female subjects made choices that were more consistent with subjective expected utility (SEU) predicted solution than males.
Vijayaaras (1981) found that the managers with 11-15 years of experience were more internals than the managers with an experience of 3 years or below. Managers were high on internal locus of control than the teachers and the social workers.

**Autonomy**

Price (1972) defines autonomy as the degree to which a social system has power with respect to its environment.

Fehl (1979) found that managers of private sector were significantly high on need for dominance and autonomy. Also managers of large organisation have significantly greater need for autonomy and dominance than do those in small organisations. Managers at the upper level were found to have significantly greater needs for autonomy and achievement, than those at the lower level.

**Women Manager**

Very few studies were conducted on women managers. Menappa and Saiyadeen (1979) pointed out that management continues to be a male oriented profession. In fact this profession was not very much preferred by women. But now the pattern is changing. In fact, recently a training programme was organised by the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad exclusively for women managers. Because of less number of women managers, this area has not been studied much by researchers.
Frid (1979) studied the outstanding creative craftwomen and found that the women in crafts differ significantly from women in general on nine factors of the 16 PF. Women in crafts were more aloof, intelligent, aggressive, practical, mistrusting, imaginative, unpretentious, radical and independent than women in general. Women in crafts were more unpretentious and tough-minded than women artists.

Williams (1989) found that the subjects who viewed assertive behaviour by a woman manager rated her managerial effectiveness significantly more favourably than did those subjects who viewed nonassertive behaviour. The assertive woman was perceived to be more competent and dynamic, but less trustworthy than the nonassertive woman.

Moulliet (1981) compared the personality patterns of women managers and women employed in clerical occupation. Results revealed that managerial women reported significantly higher level of (a) self-determination in their relationship with their supervisor, (b) career-commitment, and (c) self-esteem. Women in managerial occupations were more likely to be classified as masculine (support the Monappa and Saiyedain, 1979's findings); women in clerical occupations were more likely to be classified as feminine. Having a mentor relationship was intercorrelated with sex-role orientation on the variables of job satisfaction, intrinsic job aspect, and self-esteem.
From this review on correlates on managerial performance and effectiveness following observations may be drawn:

1. Managerial effectiveness is a much talked about variable but very little empirical research has been done on this dimension. This proved by the fact that there are by far few conceptualisations and very few research studies delineating the dimensions of managerial effectiveness.

2. Most of the researches are in the field setting and have used performance appraisal records as indicators of managerial effectiveness. Despite of the problems involved in using such measures.

3. There are very few studies investigating the personality factors contributing to managerial effectiveness or performance.

4. There are practically no studies in India which have attempted to find out the psychological variables determining managerial effectiveness.

5. The following dimensions of managerial personality and style may be hypothesised as having some impact on performance or effectiveness:
   
   (a) Locus of control
   (b) Psychological needs of the managers
   (c) Attitudes of managers towards their colleagues, supervisors and subordinates
   (d) Attitude towards their job
   (e) Other personality traits
On account of the paucity of researches, the present investigator had difficulty in identifying a definite set of psychological variables for the present investigation. The various personality variables used in this study were identified. On the basis of interviews with practicing managers and management teachers. It is noteworthy that in a recent article on managerial effectiveness, Rao (1981) has hypothesized that managerial effectiveness is determined by a number of variables. Most of these variables were the ones included in this study.