CONCEPTS & ISSUES IN MANAGEMENT

VINOD N.PATEL

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Concept of Management

Principles of Management

In the views of Taylor, "The fundamental principles of scientific management are applicable to all human activities from our simplest individual acts to the work of our great corporations."

According to Fayol, "Principle of management are flexible and not absolute but must be utilised in the light of changing and social conditions."

Efficient and successful management depends on well-conceived principles. These principles may not be absolute. The principle must reflex the aspirations of the Science and the purpose for which they have been originally conceived. This is possible only when the principles acquire a flexible character which in its turn will offer scope for debates and deliberations and tests.

According to G.R. Terry, "Principle is a fundamental statement or truth providing a guide to thought or action."

In the views of E.B. Flippo, "A principle is a fundamental truth and it is generally stated in form of cause and effect relationship. Management principles delve on fundamental truth of general validity which have value in predicating the result of management action."

In the words of Keith and Gubelline, "Management is the force that integrates men and physical plant into an effective operating unit."

Hienemann says, "The coordination of human efforts is as old as mankinds and, therefore it can be said that management has an equally long history."

Management is not comparable to exact sciences like Physics, Chemistry, Biology, etc. It deals with human beings and it is a social science like the science of economics. It is quite obvious that principles of management are not fundamental truths and their application may not yield the desired results always. Human-behaviour is ever-changing and most unpredictable. It is not governed by the laws of mechanics. Human being is not an inanimate machine. Hence, management dealing with complex human being is bound to be an inexact science. Even then theoretical base of knowledge is essential for developing sound practice.

Prof. Roethlisberger of Haward who was associated with the famous Hawthorne Researches is the leader of management principles. He is of the view that each business situation is unique and must be analysed on its own merits. It is this view that "led to the development of the 'Case Study Method of Instruction' at Haward."

Koontz and O'Donnell has given reasons pleading the necessity of the principles. Their reasons are as under:

(1) The principles of management offer enough scope for further researches. Advancement of Science, which has still not gone too far, is only possible through surveys and researches. Enough opportunities for researches are there within the framework of management principles itself. The science of management is still in its infancy. Its principles are constantly put to test and modified. Every manager is free to adopt his own way of management within the set objectives and principles. But certainly he is free to experiment and evolve his own thinking which may be converted into principles at a later date after proper analysis, test and further experimentation.

(2) Constant research and evolution of new thinking lead us to a safe conclusion that new generalisation may come up. Naturally new generalisations and their consequent adoption into new principles may help in increasing the efficiency and thus productivity of all the factors of production which from all account is a social gain. In fact, society is the real gainer from the management principles as ultimately, it is the society as a whole which stands benefited by the increase in productivity. Increase in productivity brings prosperity to the enterprise and the nation.

(3) On the basis of principles, the activities and processes become more systematised and definite. Moreover, they are helpful in the training of those managers who are being trained on the basis of those very principles. Whenever they are in a position to modify or improve these principle they can do if they are capable enough. Further, managerial processes and functions are clearly stated in managerial principles. On the basis of such principle, a new manager can very well learn the nature of management. Continuous thinking, regular researches and human psychology are all responsible for making the management a developing science and development is going on.

(4) Principles are important for increasing the efficiency of managers as well as of the workers. No one doubts our experiences on the best teachers. But if one is taking the advantages of others' experiences he is doubly benefited. He, in such case, is not required to bother about the generalisation which have already been acquired by him either by his own experiences or by taking a lesson from other. Not only this, but at the same time he is free to put these generalisation to test, adjustment and improve over them according to his own or others' experiences. These principles are not rigid. They are flexible and can be put to test and according to the requirement can be modified even during the process of his test and working.

(5) Principles are helpful in imparting training to managerial personnel. In fact, their training starts on the basis of these principles. They leave the principles, evolve their own thinking, put them to test and use their newly acquired knowledge for further research and development. They, after testing and acquiring experiences, try to improve over them whenever they think the need has come for improvement.

General Observations on Management

(1) A theory of management discusses the managerial functions or principles.

(2) However, Fayol has emphasised the fact that managerial ability can be acquired as any other technical ability. He not only recommended formal

teaching in management but actually started a management training school in Paris and was thus a pioneer in the field of management education.

(3) He believed that his principles of management were of universal applications. Because of his emphasis on universality of management principles, he came to be known as an 'Universalist'. He said, the code (i.e., principles of management is indispensable. Be it a case of commerce, industry, politics, religion, war or philanthropy, in every concern there is a management function to be performed, and there must be principles. These managerial functions should not be confused with organisational functions. Whereas finance, production and sales are examples of organisational functions; planning, organisating, directing and controlling are the management functions."

(4) Comparing and contrasting Taylor and Fayol, Urwick writes: "The work of Taylor and Fayol was, of course, essentially complementary. They both realised that the problems of personnel and its management at all level is the 'key' to industrial success. Both applied scientific method to this problem. That Taylor worked primarily on the operative level, from the bottom of the industrial hierarchy upwards, while Fayol concentrated on the Managing Director and worked downwards, was merely a reflection of their different careers. But Fayol's capacity to see and to acknowledge this publicly was an example of his intellectual integrity and generosity of spirit. They give France a unified management body more than twenty years before the same idea began to be realised in Great Britain."

(5) The activities to be taken by an industrial enterprise are:

(a) Technical activities pertaining to production.

(b) Commercial activities concerning buying of raw-materials and other resources and selling of products.

(c) Financial activities concerning with the maximum utilisation of capital and other funds.

(d) Security activities concerning with the protection of the property of the enterprise.

(e) Accounting activities converging with maintenance of accounts, determination of financial position and providing statistical data. Managerial activities concern with the planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling.

(6) Elements of management, according to Fayol are:

(a) "Verifying whether everything occurs in conformity with the plan adopted; the instruction issued and principles established." The object being "to point out weaknesses and errors in order to rectify them and prevent recurrence." That would mean establishing standards, comparing actual results with standards and taking correcting actions.

(b) "Commanding is to set the business going and to get the optimum return from all employees which means guiding and supervising the efforts of subordinates towards the attainment of the organisational goals. This he said was dependent on knowledge of general principles of management and depend on the personal qualities of the manager."

(c) Coordination was thought of as the harmonising activities in a business to facilitate its successful working "to accord things and actions their rightful proportions." Thus successful coordination of activities results from effectively carrying out the functions of planning, organising, commanding and controlling.

(d) Looking ahead or to foresee: "To foresee means both to assess the future and make provisions for it." This process of planning would mean identification of organisational goals and the formulation of policies, procedures and methods.

(e) Business organising: "To provide it with everything useful to its functions—raw materials, tools, capital, and personnel." This would include determination and grouping of activities and the definition of authority relationship in the organisation.

(7) Fayol has pointed out that the "most important ability on the part of the worker is technical ability. As one goes up the scalar chain the relative

importance of managerial ability increases, while that of technical ability decreases. The most important ability on the part of the manager is managerial ability and the higher the level of authority the more dominant this ability.

(8) According to Fayol, each of these essential functions required special characteristics and abilities which in turn depend on a combination of following qualities: education, special knowledge, and experience.

(9) According to Fayol, "discipline is the essence of obedience, application, energy, behaviour and outward marks of respect, shown by employees. Discipline is what the leaders make it through the observance of agreements, because agreements spell out the formalities of discipline. The requisites of discipline are:

(a) good supervisors at all levels;

(b) clear and fair agreements; and

(c) judicious application of penalties or sanctions."

(10) There is a saying in Army—"There are no bad soldiers, there are only bad officers." Bad discipline is an evil which usually comes from bad leadership.

(11) Managerial duties, according to Fayol are:

(a) seeing that the human and material organisation is in harmony with the objective, resources and needs of the undertaking;

(b) setting up a single, competent, energetic, guiding authority;

(c) harmonising activities and coordinating efforts;

(d) defining duties clearly; and

(e) paying special attention to unity of command.

(12) According to Fayol, "Staff is a group of men equipped with the strength, knowledge and time, which the general manager may lack, and is an adjunct, reinforcement, and a sort of extension of the manager's personality. There are no levels of authority in it and it takes orders only from the general manager."

Coordination and Management

(1) E. F. L. Breach: "Coordination, i.e., balancing and keeping the team together by ensuring suitable allocation of working activities to the various members and seeing that these are performed with due harmony among members themselves."

(2) MacFarland: "Coordination is the process whereby an executive develops an orderly pattern of group effort among his subordinates and secures unity of action in the pursuit of common purpose."

(3) Koontz and O'Donnell: "The best coordination occurs when individuals see how best their jobs contribute to the dominant goals of the enterprise. This implies knowledge and understanding of its objectives, not just on the part of a few at the top but by everyone through the enterprises."

(4) Henri Fayol: "To coordinate is to harmonise all the activities of a concern in order to facilitate its working and its success."

(5) Ordway Tead: "Coordination is the effort to assure a smooth interplay of the functions and force of all the different components/parts of an organisation to the end that its purposes will be realised with a minimum of friction and a minimum of collaborative effectiveness."

(6) Koontz and O'Donnell: "Coordination is the essence of management, for the achievement of harmony of individual effort towards the accomplishment of group goals.

(7) Mooney and Reilley: "Coordination is the orderly arrangement of groups efforts to provide unity of action in pursuit of a common purpose."

(8) Hienemann: "Coordination is the orderly synchronisation of efforts of the subordinates to provide the proper amount, timing and quality of execution, so that their unified efforts lead to the suited objective, namely, the common purpose of the enterprise."

(9) Koontz and O'Donnell: "Many authorities consider coordination as a separate function of manager. It seems more accurate, however, to regard it as the essence of managership, for the achievement of harmony of individual effort towards the

accomplishment of group goals is the purpose of management. Each of the managerial functions is an exercise in coordination.

(10) S.S. Chatterji: "Coordination is the integration, synchronisation or orderly pattern of group efforts in the enterprise towards the accomplishment of common objectives. The aim of coordination is to avoid conflicts working at cross purposes among the various units in an enterprise and to develop a unity of purpose to achieve the common goal."

"It has happened once that a boy in order to catch an early morning train set his watch ahead by half-an-hour before going to bed; he also retired early in order to get sufficient sleep. A few minute later his father, knowing his son's going out but not his setting the watch, went to the latter's bedroom and moved it forward half an hour so that his son may not have to hurry in the morning. Sometimes after his mother, unaware of these two advancements, made the watch faster by one hour with the idea that her son may not get enough time to prepare for the morning. The result was that the poor boy woke up two hours earlier than the scheduled time; instead of the half hour which he thought to, and lose one and half hours of sleep for want of coordination between himself and his parents."

"The other members of the human body, not liking the luxurious life of the Belly, entered into a conspiracy to cut off its supplies. The Hand refused to carry food; Mouth to swallow and Teeth to chew it. As a result all of them began to fag and fail and the entire body to fine away. The other members then realised their folly and the truth that all must cooperate."

Cooperation implies collective efforts and that is all. The collective efforts, even if put without sense of time, direction, quantum or purpose, will be known as cooperation. On the other hand, coordination needs integrated efforts and must have time, quality, direction, dimension with a commonness of purpose.

Coordination's success largely depends on unity of action. Coordination aims at the attainment of common purpose as defined by the objective of the enterprise.

Coordination is the responsibility of the top executive which is related with the qualities of his leadership. Coordination is a process the need of which is felt on all the

activities. The managers, however, have been conscious of 'the coordinating efforts'. Coordination is an orderly arrangement of group activities which is a necessity in all activities, particularly in a group activity it is most essential.

Coordination increases the productivity. It economises the various processes. It helps in economising the activities and interrelated economy. It reduces the cost of production. It reduces the cost of distribution and marketing. It results into increased profitability.

Coordination for being effective should always have unity of direction and unity of action. The aim of coordination should always be the achievement of the dominant goal of the enterprise. The approach to coordination should always be result oriented.

Coordination activities should be considered as an important function of the top level management. Coordination should always be considered as a dynamic and continuous process. Coordination should always be effected through voluntary and reciprocal cooperation of members. Coordination should always be motivating and corrective in its approach. Coordination should be of both the vertical and the horizontal type. Coordination should utilise both internal and the external type. Coordination should always be considered as a systematic integration and synchronisation of all efforts in the enterprise towards the accomplishment of the common objective.

According to Mary Parker Follett, the following are the basis of effective coordination to be kept in view:

(1) The Principle of Reciprocity: This principle states that all factors in a situation are reciprocally related. When A works with B, each influences the other and both are influenced by all the persons in the total situation. It shows the interrelationship and interdependence of different persons and departments in the enterprises.

(2) The Principle of Continuity: According to this coordination, there is a continuous activity which permeates through each managerial function. Constant efforts are made to secure coordination in the process of each management function.

(3) The Principle of Direct Contact: According to this principle, coordination must be achieved through inter-personal, vertical and horizontal relationships of people in an enterprise. Ideas, ideals, purposes and prejudices are more efficiently brought home

by direct personal communication. The understanding gained this way find means to achieve both common and personal goals.

(4) The Principle of Early Beginning: This shows the importance of achieving coordination in the early stage of planning and policy making. After the department plans are put into operation it becomes more difficult to unite and time them properly.

Good coordinating approach should be balanced and as far as possible, it should be of both the types—vertical as well as horizontal. It should be based on personal contact, mutual cooperation, mutual confidence, good human relations and above all, on the continuity principles. Good coordination should aim at morale boosting of the workers. Good coordination should not be made through orders. It should not come from the above. Instead its should come through cooperation and willingness. Coordination through cooperation and willingness ensures better results. Activities must respond to time, policies, programmes and objectives. They should always be in time.

According to Mary Parker, Coordination starts from the very first stage of managerial function, i.e., planning and goes systematically with all the functions, i.e., organisation, direction, policy implementation and motivation. Coordination is continuous process in which all factors in a situation are reciprocally related with each other. Management function, therefore, cannot remain in isolation.

According to E.F.L. Breach, "Coordination is a human effort in which the character, temperament and morale of the manager are very important." His personal examples may have a lasting effect on his subordinates who may emulate him. If this happens, the self-coordination attitude may develop among subordinates.

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2

The Fundamentals of Management

Introduction

Management problems existed in antiquity. The importance of organisation and administration in the bureaucratic states of antiquity is evident on an interpretation of the early Egyptian *papyri* - dating back as early as 1300 B.C.

The existence of the Athenian commonwealth with its courts, administrative officials, councils and board of generals is an indication of the appreciation of managerial functions.

The success of the Roman Empire lay in the ability of the Romans to organise. The long organisational life of the Roman Catholic Church is based to a large extent on the effectiveness of its techniques of organisation and management.

Socrates in his discourse with Nicomachides made the following observation on Management:

> Over whatever a man may preside, he will, if he knows that he needs and is able to provide it, be a good president, whether he has the direction of a chorus, family, a city, or an army.... Do not therefore, Nicomachides despise men skilful in managing a household; for the conduct of private affairs differs from that of public concerns only in magnitude; in other respects they are similar.

Great Pioneers of Management Thoughts

(1) Frederick W. Taylor (1856-1915): His famous work is the *Principles of Scientific*

Management. It was published in 1911. As is clear from the name of this work, the central theme was on the scientific aspect of this discipline.

This led to the concept of standardisation of the best method for a task. His was an engineering approach, the worker being viewed as an adjunct to the machine.

His ideas came from his actual work experiences. He did not develop a broad general theory of management but was pragmatically oriented. His emphasis was more mechanistic being focussed generally on increasing worker efficiency.

He listed the duties of scientific management as under:

(a) To develop a science for each element of a man's work; to select scientifically and train the worker instead of allowing him to train himself.

(b) To cooperate with the workers to ensure that the scientific principles were adopted in the work; and to divide responsibility between management and workers. Unfortunately, there was resentment from the workers who resisted time study procedures.

Taylor was more practical. Taylor is generally accepted as the founder of what is today described as Scientific Management. Some experts owe the origin of scientific management to the treatise of Charles Babbage (1792-1871, Great Britain) on *The Economy of Manufactures.* Yet Babbage's 'time observation' regarding manufacturing of pins can be traced to Perronet, the earlier French pin manufacturer.

Oliver Sheldon rightly remarks, "such contributions can always be traced back indefinitely." He says, "so finally, the torch was handed on from one generation to another, till, amid the immense structure of American industry, it passes to the hand of Frederick Taylor."

The contribution of Taylor to management theory is very significant for he says in his famous book *The Principles of Scientific Management* that he was writing this paper for three purposes:

(a) To point out through a series of simple illustrations, the great loss which the whole country is suffering through inefficiency in almost all of our daily acts.

(b) To try to convince the reader that the remedy for this inefficiency lies in

systematic management, rather than in searching for some unusual extraordinary man.

(c) To prove that the best management is a true science resting upon clearly defined laws, rules and principles, as a foundation. And further to show that the fundamental principles of scientific management are applicable to all acts of the work of our great corporations which calls for the most elaborate co-operation. And, briefly through, a series of illustrations, to convince the reader that whenever these principles are correctly applies, results must follow which are truly astounding.

(2) Henri Fayol of France (1841-1925): He is claimed by some as the real father of modern management theory. Henri Fayol was born in 1841, graduated as a mining engineer in 1860 and became in that year an engineer with a coal mining company.

His main work is *Administration Industrialet Generale* which was published in 1916. Urwick generously praises contributions of Taylor and Fayol and writes as under:

"The works of Taylor and Fayol were, of course, essentially complementary. They both realised that the problem of personnel and its management at all levels is the key to industrial success. Both applied scientific method to this problem, that Taylor worked primarily on the operative level from the bottom of the industrial hierarchy upwards, while Fayol concentrated on the Managing Director and worked downwards, was merely a reflection of their very different careers. But Fayol's capacity to see and to acknowledge this publicly was an example of his intellectual integrity and generosity of spirit. They gave France a unified management body more than twenty years before the same ideal began to be realised in Great Britain."

Fayol has divided industrial activities into six groups: namely, (a) Technical, (b) Commercial, (c) Financial, (d) Security, (e) Accounting, and (f) Managerial.

(3) Henry Robinson Towne (1844-1924, United States of America): His most significant contribution to management was the leading part he played in persuading his fellow engineers to extend the traditional scope of their professional interest to include management subjects.

(4) Harrington Emerson (1853-1931, United States of America): He was one of

the genuinely qualified persons who practiced the profession of 'efficiency engineer'. This term was originated by himself. He also popularised scientific management.

(5) Frederick Arthur Halsey (1856-1935, United States of America): He originated the first successful incentive systems of wage payments in the American industry and improved upon the ordinary piece rate system. Before this, there were three known wage payment systems. The defect of day rates systems was that it was not based on the incentive principle.

(6) Henry Laurence Gantt (1861-1919, US): He was one of the earliest pioneers in the scientific management group in the United States, his major interest being directed to the human being in industry. He considered the human element as the most important one in all problems of management. He is also described as "the forerunner on modem industrial democracy."

(7) Frank Bunker Gilbreth (1868-1925 US): His distinctive contribution was to develop 'motion study' as a primary tool for managers. He also emphasised human effort and devised methods for showing up wasteful and unproductive movements.

(8) George Elton Mayo (1880-1949, Australia): His main contribution to management was his emphasis in the human and the social factors in industrial relationship and the great difficulty in developing true scientific techniques applicable to the study of social behaviour.

(9) Mary Parker Follet (1868-1933, US): Her contribution to management was the application to industry of psychological insight, and the findings of the social sciences. She was herself a political and social philosopher. She offered a new conception of the nature of management and human relationship within industrial groups.

(10) J.D. Mooney and A.C. Riley (US): Written by Mooney and Riley in 1931 an American classic in the study of organisation principles, *Onward Industry* came out which covered the whole field of organised human endeavour and attempted to find a common pattern of principles forming a sound foundation of effective action.

(11) Peter Drucker (USA): Peter Drucker is a person who has fired the imagination of management thinkers the most and has become world-renowned as an authority on management. Peter Drucker is a controversial person having both admirers and critics.

His writings: Peter Drucker has written several books. His books in the area of management include (a) *The Concept of the Corporation* (1964), (b) *The Practice of Management* (1954), (c) *Management for Results* (1964), (d) *The Effective Executive* (1967), (e) *The Age of Discontinuity* (1969), and (f) *Management Tasks, Responsibilities and Practice* (1973). However, his book *The Practice of Management* has made the best impact.

Managing for Results

Drucker's book *Management for Results* stresses how the entrepreneurial discipline can be applied to produce better results. He has further stressed need of periodic and formal environmental analysis resulting in creativity in identifying where opportunities lie so that management action can be appropriately programmed. The book *Management – Tasks, Responsibilities and Practices* is a compendium collecting what has been learned so far and presenting the challenges to be faced by management. This is the most wanted writing.

Drucker has written several books and articles which have been translated into many foreign languages. An admirer of Peter Drucker describes him as "an economist, sociologist, journalist, historian, humanist, philosopher, thinker, author, futurist and a management expert – all in one and none in particular".

Peter Drucker is in fact a professor, a writer and a management consultant. His management books have become best sellers for years.

It is said that Whilst Frederick W. Taylor was the pioneer in scientific management, and studied quantitatively human output in a technical manner, Peter Drucker has studied the works of managers in terms of the social impact and results in qualitative terms. He has also instilled consciousness in social institutions of the importance of having effectiveness in management.

Peter Drucker has observed that "effective management requires both thinking and action" and therefore "the effective manager has to be a competent theorist and a competent practitioner made into the one man".

Peter Drucker became a legend in the management sphere.

Still further, the theory of management was developed. The contributions were of the following:

(1) public administration;

(2) business managers;

(3) behaviouralists, and

(4) systems scientists.

The development of management theory in a time perspective can be divided into four stages, namely:

(1) the scientific management stage,

(2) the organisational stage,

(3) the management process stage, and

(4) the general management theory stage.

The management thought has been continuously developing. Management has entered in the large number of spheres, even in the spheres like management of hospitals.

Management Process

Main Process

The results in any management are obtained through basic management function as under:

(1) *Process of organising,* which seeks to integrate the available factors into an optimum relationship so that the plan can be put into effect.

(2) *Process of planning,* which is aimed at achieving the desired results.

(3) *Process of staffing,* which attempts to select and develop the right type of personnel.

(4) *Process of motivating,* which concentrates on inspiring and inducing the people in the organisation to direct their activities towards implementing the plan.

(5) *Process of controlling,* which constantly evaluates to ensure that the activities are in executed terms of the plan.

Planning

"It is necessary to plan in advance of doing. This is sometimes referred to as the Primacy of Planning. All the facts relevant in a situation have to be collected so that the action taken is in accordance with what the fact dictate. The facts when analysed will often generate more than one alternative course of action."

Often the word 'optimum' is used in place of 'maximum', as the latter may not constitute the most desirable objective. This selection from alternative courses of action is sometimes refined to as the principle of Alternative Planning.

The Forecasting

The basic element of planning involves the forecasting of future problem and events and selecting courses of action to handle these foreseen or anticipated problems and events. Some view planning as decision making as planning requires decisions on:

(1) what should be done,

(2) how it should be done,

(3) who will be responsible for doing it,

(4) where action is to be taken, and

(5) why it to be done?

Significant Points

(1) Good managers endeavour to draft a plan which will make things happen in the desired way. This is also stressed by the saying; "Good managers make things happen. Things do not just happen to them." In fine planning is concerned with the fixing of objective, the determining of strategies and policies and the prescription of procedures as guidelines to future course.

(2) The increase in size of organisations has encouraged the modern tendency of attempting to preserve the values of smaller institutions through decentralisation or by delegating the power of decisions to the lowest possible level or as near as possible to the individual concerned. How far this can be done will depend on top management's philosophy and appreciation of the

benefits of delegation. Management must be clear regarding what is being delegated, to whom it is delegated and what happens after the delegation. Delegation must not amount to abdication.

(3) The process staffing is concerned with ensuring that the right type of personnel is available to man and execute the varied activities required to attain the planned objectives of the organisation. It, therefore, includes activities such as anticipating manpower needs adoption of an appropriate selection process.

(4) Motivation is essential process of management. A manager's personal philosophy and values are perhaps felt that most in field of motivating or getting things done through people. A good manager should analyse whether his leadership is that of paternalism so common in India and Japan. Happy people do not necessarily work hard. Again, if one is good to his subordinates, it does not inevitably follow that they will work hard out of gratitude.

(5) The process of controlling includes an evaluation to determine whether the planned objectives or results have been achieved. Plans must be carried out. In case they are not, there must be immediate indications as to where improvements are required. Adequate control can thus lead to innovation and improvements or modifications in previously determined objects. Here again, the manager's philosophy and personal values will come into play.

(6) "A manager cannot manage in a vacuum. He must believe in and stand for something. Thus there is a need in a manager for fundamental beliefs and values. In fact, the manager's personal philosophy of management provides him with the framework within which he even begins his thinking. His further thinking will again be directed along the path of his predetermined philosophy."

(7) "The recent trends, however, have been to give greater emphasis to the group and to consider the group in all managerial decisions and actions. These diversities in management philosophies are interesting."

(8) The Management Process approach can be equally applied to production,

marketing, finance or personnel, that is, to any other function of management. It includes the entire scope of management. It supplies an excellent framework for the study of management as a discipline.

(9) It has been observed that organising is concerned with integrating the activities towards attainment of the plans. Staffing involves manpower planning, selection, and manning the organisation. Directing involves not only guiding but motivating the subordinated through effective leadership. Communicating is an important aspect of successful direction.

(10) Again, coordination must be sought from the very first step, namely, planning, so that the plans of all the departments are integrated into a master plan, ensuring adequate coordination. Similarly, organising of people into groups and work into activities involves adequate coordination to effectuate the plan and attain the objectives. Coordination can also be secured through proper motivation of the workers towards organised effort in terms of organisational objectives.

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3

Management of Development and Growth

Introduction

Evolution is a continual process. The study of growth and development helps people to understand what life means. That is, one must study the changes that normally occur in body, thought and behaviour over the course of a life span. Right from the time of conception to death at a ripe age, the human organism runs through various stages of growth; each stage being a ladder-step taking to the final goal of life. An infant and an adult are paradoxically 'like and unlike' each other in very many ways: one is erratic, impulsive and playful and the other seasoned, reasoning and thinking and artful; one is waxing and the other waning, one is like a rising star and the other a setting star. Biologically, it takes a long span of time for a neonate to become an adult, to become big, to grow in height and acquire weight although all the physical organs are already present at birth. Growth is a natural tendency with all organisms.

Growth and Development

The Meaning

Growth and development are generally used inter-changeably though the scientists consider growth to be one aspect of development. Ordinarily the term *growth* refers to the 'increase' caused by the biological processes in which the organism becomes bigger in size, and heavier in weight. Starting his life almost from an invisible dot, the human organism grows to be more than five feet in height and more than 150 pounds in weight. Growth indicates the enlargement of cells, fibres and muscles, elongation

of the skeleton and increase in the general volume of the body-parts and organ-systems. Growth brings about perceptible changes in one's structure and form: it is quantitative in the sense that can be measured in inches, points and dynes. Marked structural changes are noticed as the organism advances in age. Day after day and year after, as the child looks different in appearance, we conclude that the child is growing.

Development is a wider term indicating advancement, more unfoldment, a progressive change—a sort of growing forward to a greater maturity; it is a process of qualitative transformation which brings about maturity and functional improvement.

Gessel stresses:

> "Development is more than a concept. It can be observed, appraised and to some extent even 'measured' in three major manifestations: (1) anatomic (2) physiologic and (3) behavioural.... Behavioural signs, however, constitute a most comprehensive index of development states and development potential."

Development is growing up characteristically. It is related to growth in as much as that it denotes more specifically the changes in the character and efficiency of the organs, organ-systems. For example, the bones as they grow, they becomes large but changes also take place in their ossification, hardness and the ability to bear weight and shocks, elasticity gives way to solidity which gives strength. Similarly the heart grows, becomes bigger and it also undergoes qualitative transformation when it becomes capable of pumping out more blood and thus stands the rigorous of vigorous exercises. Filling up the soft-parts of the brain, elongation of the axons and dendrites of the nerve cells are instances of development in which the internal physiological processes stimulated by them are integrated (or responded to) in a way which enables the individual to master further a new environmental stimulations. The better the child develops, the stronger he becomes to fight knowledge of the environment and the environmental hazards like diseases. Development is an interactive process causing the organism to acquire physiological capacities and psychological capabilities.

Many people use the terms 'growth' and 'development' interchangeably. In reality they are different, though they are inseparable. Neither takes place alone.

(1) The term 'growth' is used in purely physical sense. It generally refers to an

increase in size, length, height and weight. Changes in the quantative aspects come into the domain of growth.

(2) Growth is one of the parts of the developmental process. In strict sense development in its quantitative aspect is termed as growth.

(3) Growth may be reffered to desirable the changes which takes place in particular aspects of the body and behaviour of an organism.

(4) Growth does not continue throughout life. It stops when maturity has been attained.

(5) The changes produced by growth are the subject of measurement. They may be quantified and observable in nature.

(6) Growth may or may not bring development. A child may grow (in terms of weight) by becoming fat but growth may not bring any functional improvement (qualitative change) of development.

Development, by contrast, refers to qualitative and quantitative changes. It may be defined as a progressive series of orderly, coherent changes. The Webster's Dictionary defines 'development' as "the series of changes which an organism undergoes in passing from an embryonic state to maturity". These changes refer to physical, emotional, intellectual changes which we shall discuss under the following points:

(1) Development implies overall changes in shape, form or structure resulting in improved working of functioning. It indicates the changes in the quality or character rather than in quantative aspects.

(2) Development is a wider and comprehensive term. It refers to overall changes in the individual. Growth is one of its parts.

(3) Development describes the changes in the organism as a whole and does not list the changes in parts.

(4) Development is continuous process. It goes from womb to tomb. It does not end with the attainment of maturity. The changes, however small they may be, continue through the life span of an individual.

(5) Development, as said earlier, implies improvement in functioning and behaviour and hence brings qualitative changes which are difficult to measure directly. They are assessed through keen observation in behavioural situations.

(6) Development is also possible without growth as we see in the cases of some children where they do not gain in terms of height, weight or size but they do experience functional improvement or development in physical, social, emotional or intellectual aspects.

Hence, when observed in minute details, both growth and development show differentiation. But in a wider and practical sense both terms are used to denote any changes in the organism's physical as well as functional behaviour. These changes which cover physical, emotional, intellectual and social aspects of human life are roughly divided into four major classes by Mrs. Hurlock: (1) Changes in size, (2) Changes in proportion, (3) Disappearance of old features, (4) Acquisition of new features.

All the types of changes have qualitative as well as quantitative aspects and hence generally growth and development go hand in hand. And it is in this sense that the two terms are to be used collectively. Both, taken together explain the total changes – functional as well as constitutional changes in the body and behaviour of the individual with the lapse of time after the conception.

The Distinction

However, growth and development are so closely linked that at times it is hardly possible to clearly distinguish between the two. Nature has set limits to the extent of growth of every animal and hence no animal would grow beyond those limits. Macy and Kelly declare that "physical development does not necessarily mean increase in size. There are modifications of the body composition taking place constantly. In the body, for example, gain in weight comes partly from increase in neural, glandular and muscle tissue; in childhood the gain comes principally from bone and muscle tissue; while in adult years, the gain is from an accumulation of fat tissue". No boundaries are set for development. Normally the growth may stop by the time a boy or a girl crosses further, depending upon one's professional work and labour. Not

only does one develop physically but also socially and intellectually. Acquisition of new skills and assimilation of more knowledge constitute those qualitative changes which characterise 'development'. Quantitative measurement of the structure may reveal the pattern of growth a child is following and it is nowadays very easy to find out from the school health records whether the child is growing or not. Similarly tests have been devised to objectively measure strength, an indirect-index of the qualitative change in muscles and bones—and determine the extent of the development. In the same way, intellectual capacity and ability which are the indices of mental development, can be noticeable in the players and athletes who day after day give better performance in activities involving strength, speed, cardiovascular endurance, etc. Ordinarily when children reveal their motor skills, intellectual ability, etc., differences in their growth and development can be spotted without much difficulty. Physical development is prominent in athlete who regularly take exercise while people with sedentary habits lag behind in this sphere. Similarly voracious readers show signs of mental development. When athletes behave wonderfully well during play and do not lose mental equilibrium when defeated, we normally say that they have developed emotionally too. Social development is purely qualitative in nature because it reflects one's adjustment in the environment.

Purpose of Study

Regardless of individual background and concerns, it is desirable to examine our purposes in studying growth and development. We want to acquire the following abilities:

(1) The ability to recognise individuality. This implies the ability to recognise the uniqueness of each child's traits and view of life.

(2) An understanding of the theories and principles of growth and development so that one can understand development in terms of the varied hereditary, environment and self influences usually involved.

(3) An increased effectiveness in observing and interpreting the pattern of individual behaviour.

(4) The ability to differentiate and evaluate the effective-ness of varying points of view in child study.

(5) The development of a point of view and set of principles basic to guiding children more effectively in the learning and adjustment processes.

Thus, the student of child development should be involved not merely with learning a number of facts, but also with developing skills which can help him both personally and professionally throughout his life. This necessitates the containing and purposeful observation of children in action, to supplement regular class study. As time goes on, he will be able to apply his knowledge and experience to interact more effectively with children.

The Principles of Growth and Development

Development psychologist believe that an accurate picture of the principle of growth and development is essential for the teacher. They are as follows:

(1) Growth in Some Direction in Inevitable: All living organism have to grow come what may. Propensity to grow is inherent in the organism. Because of malnutrition or some other environmental factors, the functional capacity of the child may not improve. Yet he has to grow and become bigger to the extent to which his heredity has set limits. It has been found that mental development is not much affected by malnutrition in childhood, provided the child received normal diet later on and that unfavourable conditions are not allowed to continue. All persons gain normal height even if they are not subjected to any special diet and physical exercises. Only those who exercise shall have better physical functional ability. There is, in each individual, an urge to grow and become bigger. Some individuals strive to grow into athletes, others into mathematicians. The inner urge for growth will certainly take some form of direction.

(2) Mental Growth is Dependent upon the Changed Structure: Along with increase in child's physical proportions, his ability to experience things enhances because physical growth and mental activity go hand in hand. When a child is found to be poor at perception and comprehension, it is because various organs of perception are not fully developed to receive cues from the environment and he is not in a position to shift the wrong from the right. Gradually the brain also becomes capable of

accumulating experiences. A child and an adult differ from each other in physical as well as mental growth. Perception and execution of complex motor skills involving a very high degree of neuro-muscular coordination is beyond the mental limits of the child while an adult having richer experience of years, takes little time in picking up hints and behaving accordingly. Qualitative mental activity is not possible without proper growth of the nervous system.

(3) Characteristically, Children are Ego-centric and Adults Socio-centric: A child's behaviour is motivated by the intra-organismic drives which lead to the achievement of biological ends. When the needs connected with this process are not satisfied, the child revolts. As the child matures, he also learns to consider 'other things' before his self. Much of his instinctive behaviour gets modified because the society demands certain norms, standards, customs and tradition as well as etiquettes to be observed and followed in the manner of walking, talking, dressing up, eating and the like. The adult behaviour is guided more by social norms and standards. Childhood, in fact, is a state of animal-hood. The child does what pleases him and what strengthens his ego. In infancy, for example, all activities of the child, including play, are individualistic in nature. Childhood is not bound by the shackles of social norms and standards.

(4) Growth is a Creative Process: Right from the time of conception to adulthood marked differences in structure and form appear—thus resulting in behavioural variability. Transforming a infinitesimal zygote into a child, is the nature's highest form of creativity. As a child advances in age, year by year marked changes become visible in his behaviour. Instinctive behaviour which hitherto was more or less fixed, starts giving way to variability. Behaviourally what a child is at the age of one year, he would not be so at the age of five and the child at the age of fourteen is entirely different from the one at five. The process of growth creates novel, cognitive, conceptual and motor forms of behaviour as the child marches ahead in time.

(5) Heredity Sets Limits for Development in Terms of Potential: Even if environmental factors such as food, air, exercise, etc., are abundantly available, the organism would never grow beyond the limits nature has already set on various animals and their respective species. Even twins may differ on anatomical characteristics. Certain races are tall while others are short.

Similarly short children born of short parents would not gain height despite the best nutritional facilities and physical exercise. No teacher of physical education and sports should hope to increase the height/size of the individual which is already determined and demarcated by his hereditary forces. Many parents and teachers still erroneously believe that certain physical exercises can help children gain height. The teacher of physical education has to take special note of this fact. The activity programme has to be framed keeping in view these facts concerning the anatomical structure and its developments. Similarly many other hereditary traits cannot be developed beyond a certain limit. A born imbecile will never become a genius despite all efforts. Effects of certain congenital defects and deformities might be attenuated. Yet the total cure is impossible.

(6) Different Aspects of Growth Develop at Different Rates: Some children start toddling earlier than they start babbling, some start articulating sounds before they step into the phase of upright locomotion. Parents often worry when there is some delay in the appearance of a particular trait or characteristic at a particular period of time. Children characteristically speak three to five words at twelve months of age but in the next three or four months they seldom use words and often even forget the ones they know. Language growth slows down for the time being because the child's physical energy and enthusiasm for learning are thoroughly occupied with the thrills of upright locomotion. Physical growth processes rapidly during puberty. Children probably learn more new things in the first five years of life than at any comparable period during the rest of their lives. In most of the children there is no synchronisation between the physical and the mental growth. Some children become psychologically mature earlier while some excel mentally earlier than others. Ultimately all aspects of growth catch up by the time maturity is reached.

(7) Various Organs of the Body Grow at Different Rates: Each organ reaches its maximum extent or dimension at different times. But within this chaos, a definite order has been found by the researchers. They speed up first reaching their peak growth rate only after about three months after the adolescence spurt has begun. In other six months, it is the turn of the calf muscles. Four months later, the hips and chest begins to broaden at an accelerated rate followed by the shoulders. In both sexes, the length of the trunk and the depth the chest reach peak growth last of all.

(8) Growth is Characterised by Fluctuation: Many factors may be held responsible for fluctuation in growth. Generally infancy or pre-school years are periods of accelerated growth while later childhood and late adolescence are periods of slackness. They are, in fact, periods of consolidation. After adolescence the growth tapers off. Some psychologists have found certain individual still growing—though imperceptibly—even at forty. Nutrition, physical and mental stresses and strains and other environmental factors influence the rate of growth. Some time, with all other factors there is still fluctuation in growth with certain children. For this, some internal and external factors may be responsible. Fluctuation in growth is not a drawback but an internal law and can easily be spotted if periodic check-up is made and proper records are kept. A month-to-month and year-to-year study, through psycho-medical and ability tests, can reveal fluctuation.

(9) Any Breaks in the Continuity of Development will Generally be due to Environmental Factors: Given an adequate environment, development will ordinarily take place in a relatively predictable way. Infants will grow physically as do most other children in the culture. They will learn to crawl before they walk. By the age of two they will have a rough working knowledge of the language that surrounds them; and towards the end of childhood they will experience rapid physical changes culminating in sexual maturity and adulthood. Motor, or intellectual development may be impeded in cases of severe childhood diseases or as a result of certain material diseases while the child is still in embryo. In much the same way, diet, drugs, and illness can affect children directly at various stages of their development and stunt both physical and intellectual growth. And, according to a principle already stated, the effects of these conditions will be most pronounced during the period of most rapid growth.

(10) Correlation and not Compensation is the Rule in Development: It has often been assumed by grandmothers that nature makes up for deficiencies in some areas by compensating for them in others. Thus, children who develop with frail and uncoordinated bodies, will most likely be given exceptional minds to make up for it. Only rarely will mother nature give the same individual both a superior body and a superior mind.

In reality, mother nature is probably not responsible for such events. Striking

incidents of compensation that can be gleaned from personal experience or anecdotal evidence are probably most often the result of considerable direct effect on the part of the individuals concerned. Because all individuals have a need for acceptance by others. Children who are unsuited for the competitive aggressive sports of their peers because they are significantly smaller, may naturally become more interested in intellectual or other matters. The point is that the compensation is not a natural phenomenon, but results instead from the individual's activities motivated by whatever needs are predominant at that time. That correlation rather than compensation is the rule supported by evidence from a number of studies of gifted children.

(11) Development Usually Proceeds at the Rate at which it Started: Children who learn to walk and talk at an early age are likely to be advanced in all areas of development throughout their childhood. This does not mean, of course, that they are more intelligent and better developed physically than children who mature more slowly. Although their biological clocks may be faster, they are not necessarily programmed for more superior development.

(12) Development is a Life Long Process: Generally growth and development go hand in hand. When the boy or an individual child grows in structure it also develops in function. But it is not the universal truth. A time may come when he may grow but does not develop or he may develop but does, not grow. Again growth may stop at a particular period, but development continues after growth has ceased. Development thus, is a continuous process. An individual changes both physically and psychologically and encounters new adjustment problems throughout his life.

(13) Development Involves Changes: The life of an individual is dynamic in nature. It is never static. From the moment of conception to the time of death, it undergoes changes. At each stage of human development, changes take place, whether for good or bad, as a result of accumulation of experience. The aim of such developmental changes are achievement of genetic potentials or self-actualisation.

(14) Early Development is more Critical than Later Development: Milton, the world famous poet once said, "The childhood shows the man, as morning shows the day." Right from the beginning of the early childhood, one can predict the future of an individual. Freud, in his study about personality maladjustment emphasises on the significance of early years of life. Erikson also opines that "childhood is the science

of man's beginning as man". Thus, most educationists and the psychologists feel that the early development of the child is very critical. Early pattern of life is relatively unchanged as time goes on. The early impression of the child remains for all times to come. Therefore, the first five years of the child have been called 'The critical period'. From this age onwards the foundations are laid for future life. The environment in which the child lives during this period has strong impact on his hereditary patterns. Hence guidance is most needed in the early stage of life.

(15) From Infancy to Childhood Each Individual has His Own Rate of Growth: The rate of development varies from individual to individual. While some develop rapidly others develop slowly. Dull children continue to be dull and the bright children maintain their brightness. Children having mental defects stop growing at an early age in comparison to the normal children. From physical point of view, a child who is tall and heavy for his age, will continue to be tall and heavy to his age, and a child who is weak for his age, will continue to be so. Such rate of growth is a tendency and it may be influenced by environment.

(16) The Pattern of Growth is Continuous and Gradual: Behaviour of an individual does not become mature and perfect soon after birth. It is a slow continuos and gradual process. To enter into a stage or level, it takes time. Early childhood lays the foundation for later childhood and later childhood for adolescence. Therefore, it is not possible to demarcate sharply the different stages of development. It is a continuos process. Physical growth and mental and social development is also a continuous process. The process of continuity is maintained even in the development of traits.

(17) Growth is a Process of Both Differentiation and Integration: People vary in their behaviour because of differences in their genetic constitutions. From birth till the end of life man's behaviour changes at each progressive stage. This change in behaviour pattern occurs due to new discrimination and generalisation of different factors. Now we shall discuss how the child discriminates and generalises mental processes.

The complex mental processes are the combination of simple processes like sensations, feelings and images. Behaviourist also build complex behaviour patterns

from simple reflexes. At the first stage of life the child is in a state of confusion but gradually according to his age and mental ability, he is able to discriminate things properly. For example, when the child utters the words mummy, daddy, etc., he may use the same word 'mummy' for every woman. But when his intellect develops properly he uses the same world for one person only. At first the child does not know the actual relationship with different people. But gradually he learns to distinguish between them. Again another example may be stated that in early infancy emotions begin as undifferentiated generalised excitement. But day by day anger, fear, love, and delight begin to be distinguished from each other. In the social development the child also selects his friends, peer groups, and companions through the process of discrimination.

In growth and development integration and coordination of different physical parts, mental activities are more important as differentiation because the growth and development of every individual is a process of integration. Staging a drama, appearing at a competitive examination, playing cricket, giving a lecture, writing an essay, organising a social function are seen as simple unitary responses but all the activities require some mental and physical capacities in an integrated way. For example, we expect more achievement from a three or four year old child when he starts his first alphabet learning. But until the proper movement of his hand, and proper mental development he cannot write a single letter. Therefore without proper integration and coordination among different organs, no success is possible.

From the above discussion it has been found out that growth is both differentiation and integration. These two processes happen together. Both are important and fundamental aspects of growth and learning. Thus, we must keep these two in mind while framing the curriculum and selecting methods of teaching.

(18) The Effect of Training Varies with the Stage of Maturation: In the process of growth and development the role of maturation is more important. But what do we mean by maturation? It is appropriate inner growth which develops readiness for learning.

Without proper development of inner organs of the body, the child is unable to acquire new skill by guidance or training or education. Therefore training and teaching

will not be fruitful unless actual maturation has taken place. But from our day to day experience we have seen that many parents don't have any knowledge about this inner growth. They lay much emphasis on education and training and expect notable results. Now psychologists have conducted many investigations upon this factor of growth and development. The outcomes of their studies indicate that the teacher or the parent cannot put new things into the child until he is mature for that. Real matured child can learn easily. Therefore proper training or instruction should be given at the right level of maturation and that may produce right results. In the process of teaching the subject matter for curriculum, and evaluation procedure, the level of maturation of the child must be taken into consideration.

(19) There are Wide Individual Differences in Growth Pattern: Individuals differ in respect of their physical appearance, mental ability, school achievement, height, and weight, habit and skills, temperament, etc. This individual difference occurs due to genetic factors, environmental influence and many other reasons. But in the process of growth and development children vary in their rate of growth. It implies wide individual variations both in their rates and pattern of growth. From our modern research it has been found that growth is a creative force which results in new experience and ability. According to one's own intelligence and ability, and influence of his own environment he is capable of making a unique pattern of growth. Thus, this variation occurs spontaneously in growth pattern.

(20) Both Rate and Pattern of Growth can be Modified: Both rate and pattern of growth can be modified by the condition within and without the body. Although the patterns of growth are family definite for all children yet 'some' modifications can be envisaged. When environment does not offer equal opportunity to all, the natural flow of growth is modified. Amount of activity psychological challenges, learning facilities, security, affection, discipline, etc., are a few factors which determines how fast and to what extent the potentialities of the child will have opportunity to develop. Children living under abject poverty and constant mental strains when freed, will show positively modified growth patterns. Growth beings differentiation as well as integration in behaviour. The processes are closely knit. It is impossible to understand the 'physical' child without understanding, at the same time, the 'thinking', the feeling and the 'impulsive' child. Likewise it is impossible to understand a mentally 'matured'

child without evaluating his social development. There is a close relationship, for example, between his total adjustment at school and his emotional growth, his physical health and his intellectual adequacy; his intellect is related to his physical health and his intellectual adequacy; his intellect is related to his physical well being: his physical growth and health are deeply affected by his emotional development; his emotions are influenced by the school success or failure, by his physical health and by his intellectual growth. His growth—physical, intellectual and social—is a product of his family history, his personal history and his current satisfactions and strains. Differentiation is a marked sign of growth; each organ, each aspect of the child's personality reaches its fullness by the process of differentiation; integration aims at synthesising all aspects to give the individual a sort of uniqueness and 'wholeness'.

(21) Developmental Process and Education: Opportunity for good education and learning help developmental processes—being an inextricable aspects of an individual's personality. Acquisition of knowledge, experience and motor skills clearly point out the direction and the pattern of an individual's growth. Gesell claims that innate capacity for growth "is a gist of nature. It can be guided, but it cannot be transcended by an educational agency". The patterns of behaviour which develop through learning, clearly indicate the cultural influences. Generally, children studying in public and convent schools seem to be mature than children studying in ordinarily schools. Urban children seem to behave in a more mature manner in the field of sports than do the children from rural areas.

The above generalisation about growth and development serve as a sort of directive principles of programme-planning in educational setting. Generality may solve a great number of problems of education and yet 'individuality' may always pose itself as the biggest problem to the educationists and the psychologists alike.

Development Changes

The Significance

Developmental changes are continuos and gradual. The importance of these continuous changes among children has been highlighted by research in the field of child psychology and child education. Because of these developmental changes certain

characteristics emerge in the life of an individual, which put a permanent stamp on his whole life. Besides these, the ultimate success of failure of his life are determined largely by the way he happened to have spent his early infancy and childhood period. It is the real period of learning. During this period, the most significant patterns of through and behaviour are formed. Therefore, the study of early infancy and childhood in human development is the most significant.

Various Stages

Life begins at the moment of conception, when the ovum (the female reproductive cell) is fertilised by the sperm (the male reproductive cell). Not only before birth, but also after birth for many years the child is a helpless organism until and unless he is helped by the continuos process of growth and development and attains maturity. When one attains maturity he ceases to be an adolescent and labelled as an adult member of the society. He is supposed to play a responsible role in the society. Before being called as adolescent, he is named as child or infant, etc. All of these names-infant, child, adolescent and adult, etc., are linked with various stages of growth and development through which the child passes from birth to death.

There are certain common developmental or practical characteristics belonging to each stage. The human organism shows peculiar quantitative and qualitative changes in his body and behaviour with the help of which we can say at what particular age an individual belongs to which definite stage of his life.

The life span of an individual can be divided into the following stages:

Name of the Stage	Period and Approximate Age
(1) Pre-natal (pre-birth) stage	From conception to birth.
(2) Stage of infancy	From birth to five years.
(3) Childhood stage	From 6th to 12 years or in strict sense up to the onset of puberty.
(4) Adolescent	From the onset of puberty to the age of maturity (generally from 13 to 19 years).
(5) Adulthood	From 20 years and beyond or from the age of attaining maturity till death.

Psychologists studying child behaviour tend to discern distinctive phases in the development of the child, and they conceptualise the whole development processes consisting of certain identifiable stages. Though logical objections against stage concepts are strong, the concepts may be useful for practical purposes.

There is no single scheme of stage of development. Depending upon the aspects of behaviour studies, and the investigators frame of reference, there are different schemes of developmental stages. It is not possible to discuss here all the schemes of development stages.

Dr. Earnest Jones has divided human development into four phases:

(1)	Infancy	(1 to 5 years)
(2)	Late childhood	(6 to 10 years)
(3)	Adolescence	(12 to 18 years)
(4)	Maturity	(18 years onward)

James Ross deviated a bit from the above divisions. Instead of four, he says, the stages of development are five in number.

(1)	Infancy	(Birth to 3 years)
(2)	Early childhood	(3 to 6 years)
(3)	Later childhood	(6 to 12 years)
(4)	Adolescence	(12 to 18 years)
(5)	Adulthood	(18 years onward)

Dr. Earnest Jones tells us that "we grow up twice achieving a pseudo-maturity before puberty." At this age, "nature seems to undo most of her pioneer work and begin again the process of building up and consolidating." In his opinion adolescence and adulthood are recapitulations of infancy and late childhood respectively. Before adolescence, each year of growth brings rapid changes and each ears itself is a separate stage of development. Reckoning the span of each developmental stage is more a matter of convenience than a rule.

Heredity and Environment

Since we all have similar beginnings, it is interesting to ask what makes us all so

different as we grow older. Once answer is that, except in the case of identical twins, we have different heredity. Another answer is that we have different environments. There is further more a constant interplay between heredity and environmental influences and our physical and mental characteristics are the complex results of both factors.

Each of us begin life at the moment of conception. Conception is the moment when the ovum (the female reproductive cell) is fertilised by spermatozoon (the male reproductive cell). Thus a single cell smaller than the head of a pin, later multiplies and become many cells. This cell results from the fertilisation of a female's ovum by a male's sperm. Heredity is determined by complex organisation of chemical materials within the nucleus of the fertilised cell. These chemical materials are contained in nuclear structures which are known as chromosomes or coloured bodies.

Microscopic studies have shown that there are forty six chromosomes in every body cell. Within each sex cell whether male or female, there are 23 pairs of chromosomes before the maturational process takes place. Within each chromosomes there are strings of microscopically small particles, the genes. The genes are the physical substances passed on from parent to offspring. Those are the carriers of hereditary traits.

The moment of conception is regarded as one of the most important moments in the life of an individual for the following reasons:

(1) The first important reason is that at the moment of conception, when the ovum is fertilised by the sperm, is the determination of the newly born child's hereditary endowment.

(2) Whether the child will be male or female is determined once and for all at the moment of conception only. Nothing after this moment can change the sex of the child.

(3) The third important condition determined at the time of conception is whether the child will be single or multiple. Thus number of offspring's is also determined at this moment.

(4) The fourth condition determined at this moment is the ordinal position in the

family; whether the child will be first born, second born in the family has a lifelong influence on the behaviour pattern of the child and his personality development.

Since the combination of genes an individual receives from his two parents is a matter of chance, only in rare situation will two children get identical combinations and hence identical heredity. This is only possible in case of identical twins or identical triplets, identical quadruplets, and so on.

Identical twins develop from the same zygote. If a zygote divides into two cells, each separately goes to form a new individual.... Since each cell has the same genes as the zygote, the heredity of the two individuals will be identical. These are known as identical twins; they are always of the same sex and are identical in many other respects.

Not all twins, however are identical. Most twins are fraternal twins; they develop from two separate eggs of the mother and hence begin as two zygotes formed independent by the union of two different sperms with two different ova. Fraternal twins are no more alike genetically than ordinary brothers and sisters (siblings) born at different times. Fraternal twins may or may not be of the same sex.

From the forgoing, we come to know that we have different heredity. Therefore, we differ from each other. Like heredity, environments also plays an important role in growth and development of an individual. It is everything, other than heredity, that influences and individual's growth and development. It starts from the period of gestation in the mother's womb. Of course, it must be pointed out at this juncture that it is a mere superstition that everything the mother does affects the unborn foetus. Some ladies spend the months of pregnancy visiting art galleries in the belief that they are improving the child's mind. While malnutrition of the mother or disease or any such factor can affect the uterine environment of the foetus, external factor like visit to beautiful places or listening to musician not have any direct effect.

The environment influences an individual all through his life from 'womb to tomb'. Environment refers not only to the physical surrounding but even to the thoughts and attitudes of other which exert an influence on the individual. It is very difficult to

study the environment because it is also unique to each individual. Let us take case of two brothers playing in a room. Though the physical environment is the same for both, the psychological environment is not the same. One boy is older and is playing with a younger brother while the latter is playing with an older brother. Their post experiences too cannot be identical and therefore their reactions to the situation are also different. Hence psychologists are faced with many problems when studying the effect of the environment because it is impossible to keep it constant and introduce a few variables.

Heredity and environment influence human development. For example, differences in eye colour are hereditary differences in social attitudes are largely environmental, and differences in intelligence have both hereditary and environmental origins expect in the case of identical twins, where they are purely environmental.

Hereditary and environment in interaction with one another produce the wide range of individual differences observed among people. Heredity gives a predisposition for high intelligence of activity level, but the extent to which the potential becomes a reality is determined by the interaction of genetic endorsement.

The Nature

Nature and nurture are jointly responsible for the development of personality characteristics, abilities and skills of an individual. In this connection we shouldn't treat. Nature and nurture separately in determining their contribution to particular type of behaviour. Therefore, the issue in nature versus nurture should not be raised. Nurture, or the environment, seems to determine whether the potentialities will be realised. For instance, a person has the genetic potentiality to be educated, but his potentiality may fail to be expressed because of poverty or illness which comprise the environment. The potentiality always acts through the environment and the result of the joint of nature and nurture is the behaviour of the persons as seen by others. The greater the potentiality and the more favourable the environment, greater will be the result of the joint action. Thus an individual is the product of an interaction between nature and nurture.

There is always controversy between the psychologists, biologists and educationists

whether heredity or environment is a more important factor for growth and development of an individual. This controversial issue is very significant for the teachers. If we say that heredity is responsible for the growth and development of an individual, then the teacher has nothing to do. He has simply to watch how the innate potentiality of the child gets unfolded. If, on the other hand, we consider environment to be responsible, for the growth and development of the child, then the role of teacher becomes very important. When he becomes the sole moulder of the students according to his own ideals, he can shape or pattern the life of the students in the way he likes. Thus, he occupies a pivotal place in the process of growth and development. Role of heredity and environment in the process of growth and development from the external point of view is not at all desirable. Those who support heredity to be the only factor responsible for growth and development argue that nothing can be done to improve the individual beyond the limits laid down by heredity. On the other hand, those who support the role of environment to be the most important factors are guilty of exaggerated optimism that there are no limits to the growth and development of an individual.

But it is not possible to have a watertight compartment between the two factors of heredity and development to work for the growth and development of the child. It is not possible to point out the traits which are exclusive hereditary or environmental. Besides this, most of the modern psychologists are of the opinion that because of the interaction between the energies inherited by an organisms and development of an individual, it is impossible to estimate the amount of contribution made by heredity and environment for the growth and development of an individual. Nor is it possible to have watertight compartments between the two factors. From the moment the child is conceived in its mother's womb, the two factors work hand in hand and continue to play their roles throughout his life. A study of both the points of view brings us to the conclusion that heredity or environment alone cannot be sole determinants of the status of an individual. The combination of the two factors in obvious and implicit ways makes the individual what he is.

A child is purely a product of heredity at the time of conception. He receives this heredity from his father and mother, who are having different traits, qualities and

characteristics. Each of them contributes to the heredity of the child through genes. A child becomes a distinct individual with distinct characteristics of his own because of the interaction of genes. Hence the teacher cannot change the influence of heredity on the child. A child who has inherited poor intelligence cannot replace it with superior intelligence by the help of a teacher. A teacher can only help in the development of his intelligence within the given limits.

The influence of heredity of the child begins from the very beginning of life. Soon after conception, the organism comes in contact with the environment. The effect of this contact becomes apparently after birth of a child.

It becomes very easy to understand the influence of environmental factors because of the marks left by the forces operating in the environment in which the children live. Being influenced by environment they learn different attitudes, values, etc. Malnutrition for a long period and poor hygienic conditions develop certain functional deformities and diseases which leave a permanent mark in the life of an individual. The teacher plays an important role in moulding the environment of the child. In order to become a successful teacher, he needs to understand the concepts and role of heredity and environment in the life of a child.

Maturation and Learning

Maturation is considered as the chief competitor of learning as a modifier of behaviour. Maturation is regarded as those stages of growth and development which takes place from within the subject without the help of any special training, practice, experience or stimulation. For example, at a particular stage, a child starts crawling or sitting or standing or walking. At a particular stage of its development, a tadpole starts swimming and a bird starts flying. All these changes in behaviour are the result of maturation. But the ability to talk by a parrot, the ability to drive a motor cycle or to swim in a river, etc., are the products of learning.

Learning sometimes depends upon maturation. A child can learn a thing better, only when he reaches a particular maturational level. For example, during the age from 1 to 5 a child can learn the language better, stimulus response function. All our sense organs are bombarded by the stimuli of the environment and we respond to

them. The sense organs help us to understand and to interpret the environment, to discriminate between good and bad stimulus, to decide to welcome which stimulus and to avoid which one. All these are stages or processes of learning activity.

Different senses contribute differently to the learning process. This is illustrated by an interesting experiment by C.H. Hongik. A number of white races were divided into 5 groups to learn a maze. Some learnt it with all senses intact. Others learnt after being blinded by operation, some others after being blinded and deafened. Another group after being blinded and rendered anosmic (made intensive to adore). The last group was deprived of all these senses.

Learning to an extent is also a function of maturation. One cannot teach a new born baby to walk or to pick up tiny objects with his four fingers, however much one may try. Before anything is learnt by a persons, his sensory-motor and also the nervous system including brain must reach a certain level of maturity. The predetermined sequential stages of maturity of the sensory-motor and nervous systems of an individual comprise the 'critical time' for that learning. Similarly, there is critical time for other important tasks like toilet training, reading, learning socially approved behaviour, etc. If a child is taught a behaviour before the critical time, i.e., before he attains the maturational level for the task, he fails to do so. If he is taught that task after the critical time, he also fails to master it effectively as is proved from the language problems of the wolf-children.

The Implications

To be successful in the teaching-crafts, a teacher, therefore, must have through knowledge of the process of child development. A mere bookish knowledge of child life, however, will not be of much help to a school teacher. Descriptions and researches contained in the literature on child development are, of course, very enlightening for a teacher. But, unless supplemented by concrete observations of and experimentation with children, a mere bookish reading will be of little value in actual school or home situation.

A sound knowledge of various characteristic features of child development through

infancy, childhood and adolescence is indispensable for the teacher owing mainly to the following reasons:

(1) It given him to most authentic knowledge regarding the human staff that he deals with the children.

It enables him to understand the root causes of their good and bad behaviour.

(2) It helps him to match his teaching techniques and standards with the developmental level that a child has actually attained. He is thus enabled to avoid being too difficult, too easy or too common place in the classroom.

(3) By enabling him to understand his own infancy and childhood periods it facilitates him to understand his own self. This self-understanding proves immensely helpful for him in becoming a better teacher and a better person.

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4

Art of Effective Performance Appraisal

Introduction

It is certain that mere recruitment of staff including manager is not sufficient. The person should be fixed in the environmental chasis of the organisation. It is pointed that "An adequate management development programme should be constructed for this improvement so that he may fit into his job more adequately." The staffing responsibility of management extends to providing management development for such new entrants as well as for preparing existing managers for their future job responsibilities in the light of anticipated promotions.

One of the most compelling arises for the provision of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (as amended) and the regulations of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission and the Office of Federal Contract Compliance. These agencies have been highly critical of many appraisal programmes, finding them often to result in discrimination, particularly in areas of race, age, and sex. Courts have supported the federal agencies in their insistence that, to be acceptable, an appraisal programme must be reliable and valid. That these are rigorous standards is apparent.

Effective performance appraisal should also recognise the legitimate desire of employees for progress in their professions. One way to integrate organisational demands and individual needs is through career management.

Basic Problems

Managers have long been reluctant to appraise sub-ordinates. However, in an

activity as important as managing, there should be no reluctance to measure performance as accurately as we can. In almost all kinds of group enterprise, whether in work or play, performance has usually been rated in some way. Moreover, most people, and particularly people of ability, want to know how well they are doing.

It is difficult to believe that the controversy, the misgiving and even the disillusionment, still so widespread with respect to managerial performance appraisal have come from the practices of measuring and evaluating. Rather, it appears that they have arisen from the things measured, the standards used, and the way measurement is done.

Managers can understandably take exception, feel unhappy, or resist when they believe that they are evaluating, or being evaluated, inaccurately or against standards that are inapplicable, inadequate, or subjective. However, some light and hope have emerged in the past 50 years and offer promise of making evaluation effective. The interest in evaluating managers by comparing actual performance against preset verifiable objectives or goals is a development of considerable potential.

Even appraisal against verifiable objectives is not enough. It needs to be supplemented by an appraisal of managers as managers. Moreover, neither system is with difficulties and pitfalls, and neither can be operated by simply adopting the technique and doing the paperwork. We must do more. In the first place, it is essential that managing be verifiable objectives, be a way of life in an enterprise. In the second place, managers need both a clear understanding of the managerial job and the fundamental underlying it, and an ability to apply these fundamentals in practice.

Choosing the Appraisal

It hardly seems necessary to say that managerial appraisal should measure a persons performance as manager in meeting goals for which manager is responsible. Yet, obvious as this is, examination of many appraisal systems used by business, government, and other enterprises shows that many people do not understand this fact, or at least unable or unwilling to translate understanding into practice.

Appraisal should measure both performances in accomplishing goals and plans

and performance as a manager. No one wants a person in managerial role who appears to do everything right as a manager, but who cannot turn in a good record of profit making, marketing, controllership, or whatever the areas of responsibility may be. Nor should we be satisfied to have a 'performer' in a managerial position who cannot operate effectively as a manager. Some performers tend to be 'flashes in the pan,' that is, they are star performers who have succeeded through no fault of their own.

(1) Performance in Accomplishing Goals: In assessing performance, system of appraising against verifiable pre-selected goals have extraordinary value. Given consistent, integrated, and understood planning designed to reach specific objectives, probably the best criteria of managerial performance relate to the ability to set goals intelligently, to plan programmes that will accomplish those goals, and to succeed in achieving them. Those who have operated under some variation of this systems often claim that these criteria are adequate and that elements of luck or other factors beyond the manager's control are taken into account when arriving at any appraisal. But, in too many cases, managers who achieve results due to sheer luck are promoted, and others, who do not achieve expected results because of factors beyond their control, are blamed for failures. Thus, we need a supplement to appraisal against verifiable objectives.

(2) Performance as Managers: Although an impressive record of setting and accomplishing goals is persuasive evidence of any group leader's ability, it should be supplemented by an appraisal of a manager as a manager. Managers at any level undertake non-managerial duties, and these cannot be overlooked. The primary purpose of which managers are hired and against which they should be measured, however, is their performance as managers—that is, they should be appraised on the basis of how well they understand and undertake the managerial functions of planning, organising, staffing, leading, and controlling. For standards in this area we must turn to the fundamentals of management. But let us first look at some traditional appraisal programmes.

(3) Traditional Trait Appraisal: For many years, managers have been evaluated against standards of personal traits and work characteristics. Typical trait-rating evaluation systems may list ten to fifteen personal characteristics, such as ability to

get along with people, leadership, analytical competence, industry, judgement, and initiative. The list may also include such work-related characteristics as job knowledge, ability to carry through on assignment, production or cost results, or success in seeing that plans and instruction are carried out. However, at least until recent years, personal traits have far outnumbered work-related characteristics.

Management by Objectives

Functional Evaluation

Management by objectives requires a clarification and definition of goals expected to be reached by the subordinate and a measurement of achievement of such goals by the subordinate's performance. Thus goal and performance have to be compared. The goals should be made as specific as possible. This can involve an analysis of the following elements:

(1) Planning Ability.
(2) Organising Ability.
(3) Staffing Skill.
(4) Communication Skill and Leadership Ability.
(5) Controlling Skill.

The above is a suggestive list giving an idea on what lines a manager can be appraised to ascertain the area in which he requires further development as far as performing the managerial function is concerned.

On the MBO method Dr. Dawar writes: In the method, the subordinates are required to set their own performance standard along with their superiors. Therefore, their actual performance is evaluated against such standards. This is an illustration of participation management, where the subordinate is involved in his own performance evaluation as far as the establishment of standards is concerned. This technique has become very popular in recent years and has even become a fad in certain organisations in India. Each method has its advantages and weaknesses. The method most suitable for the organisation must therefore be selected. For example, whether it is desired that a supervisor should be made more observant, the critical incidents appraisal

method would lead to this results. The MBO method helps in coaching subordinates as, like the critical incidents methods, it emphasised actual behaviour and results.

Limitation of Appraisal

(1) Often, there is tendency to rate the job as well as the employee.

(2) There is at times a tendency to rate the individual on the basis of an overall impression.

(3) Performance appraisals take up a considerable amount of the time of the superiors.

(4) There is an extreme variance in the standards used in rating by different rates, which makes, for example, in between department ratings almost impossible.

(5) There is at times lack of communication to the employee of exactly how is being rated. Apart from lack of communication, at times even communication of the rating is taken as a criticism and may demotivate the employee concerned (Dr. Dawar).

For exhaustive discussion, it is better to read a treatise on *Personnel Management* by Dr. R.S. Dawar.

Salient Features

(1) Every manager is assessed by at least two assessors. He will have an opportunity to discuss his performance with these assessors at formal appraisal interview.

(2) The appraisal is based on actual performance and behaviour on the job. An attempt is made to reduce to the minimum the subjective element.

(3) The appraisal must focus attention on "the potential and development of each manager and the drawing up of a development plan for the following years" as an integral part of each such appraisal.

(4) The system presupposes the setting of objectives and the practice of 'Management by Objectives.'

The following factors should be kept in view in appraising the performance:

(1) Decision making and reasoning.

(2) Comprehension.

(3) Use of discretion and judgement.

(4) Resourcefulness and industry.

(5) Ability to plan, delegate, control and coordinate.

(6) Knowledge of the job.

(7) Clarity about his objective.

(8) Cost consciousness and result/profit orientation.

Appraising Managers as Managers

In a suggested programme by Koontz and O'Donnell the most appropriate standards to use for appraising managers as managers are the fundamentals of management. It is not enough to appraise a manager broadly, evaluating only performance of the basic function of the manager, we should go further.

We believe that the best approach is to utilise the basic techniques and principles of management as standards. If they are basic, as they have been found to be in a wide variety of managerial positions and environments, they should serve as reasonably good standards. As crude as they may be and even though some judgement may be necessary in applying them to practice, they give the evaluator some bench marks to measure how well subordinates understand and are following the functions of managing. They are definitely more specific and more applicable than evaluations based on such broad standards as work and dress habits, cooperation, intelligence, judgement or loyalty. They at least focus attention on what may be expected of a manager as a manager. And, when used in conjunction with appraisal of the performance of plans and goals, they can help remove much of the weakness in many management appraisal systems.

To further reduce subjectivity and to increase the discrimination among performance levels, we include the requirements that (1) in the comprehensive annual appraisal, incident examples are given to support certain ratings; (2) the ratings are reviewed by the superior's superior; and (3) the raters are informed that their own

evaluation will depend in part on how well they discriminate on the ratings of performance levels when evaluating their subordinates. Obviously, objectivity is enhanced by the number (seventy-three) and the specificity of the checkpoint questions.

Advantages of the New Programme

Experience with this programme in a multinational company showed certain advantages. By focusing on the essentials of management, this method of evaluation gives operational meaning to what management really is. Also, the use of a standard reference text for interpretation of concepts and terms removes many of the semantic and communication difficulties so commonly encountered. Such things as variable budgets, verifiable objectives, staff, functional authority, and delegation take on consistent meaning. Likewise, many management techniques become uniformly understood.

> "Perhaps the major shortcoming of the proposed approach to appraising managers as managers is its subjectivity. As we mentioned earlier, some subjectivity in rating each checkpoint was found to be unavoidable. However, the programme still has a high degree of objectivity and is far more objective than appraisal of managers only on the broader areas of the managerial functions. At least, the checkpoints are specific and go to the essentials of managing."

Human Factor in Appraisal

(1) Not Much Distinction is Made Generally between 'Leadership' and Management: It may be mentioned that the managerial function of leading is defined as the process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically toward the achievement of organisational goals.

In our discussion of this function, we show that the behavioural science, here make their major contribution to managing. As we analyse the pertinent behavioural science knowledge in managing, we will focus on the human factors, motivation, leadership, and communication.

(2) The Human Factors in Managing: All organised effort is undertaken to achieve

enterprise objectives; in general, the objective is to produce and make available some kind of goods or services. This effort is by no means restricted to business activity; we have stressed that it also applies to universities, hospitals, charitable associations and governments. It is obvious that while enterprise objectives may differ somewhat in these various organisations, the individuals involved also have needs and objectives that are especially important to them. It is through the function of leading the managers help people see that they can satisfy their own needs and utilise their potential, while at the same time they contribute to the aims of the enterprise. Managers thus must have an understanding of the roles assumed by people, the individuality of people, and their personalities.

Unless managers understand the complexity and individuality of people, they may misapply generalisation about motivation, leadership, and communication, principle and concepts, although generally true, have to be adjusted to fit the specific situation. In an enterprise, not all the needs of individual can be completely satisfied, but managers do have considerable latitude in making individual arrangements. Although position requirements are usually derived from enterprises and organisation plans, this does not necessarily exclude the possibility of arranging. The job to fit the person in a specific situation in order to make better use of management talent already existing in the enterprise.

(3) Importance of Personal Dignity: Managing involves achiving enterprise objectives. Achieving results is important, but the means must never violate the dignity of people. The concept of individual dignity means that people must be treated with respect, no matter what their position in the organisation. The president, vice-president, manager, first-line supervisor, and worker all contribute to the aims of the enterprise. Each person is unique, with different abilities and aspirations, but all are human beings and deserve to be treated as such.

(4) Importance of Considering the Whole Person: We cannot talk about human nature unless we consider the whole person, not just separate and distinct characteristics, such as knowledge attitudes, skills, or personality traits. A person has them all to different degrees. Moreover, these characteristics interact with one another, and their predominance in specific situation changes quickly and unpredictably. The

human being is a total person influenced by external factors such as family, neighbour, schools, churches, union or trade associations, political associations, and fraternal groups. People cannot divest themselves of the impact of these forces when they come to work. Managers must recognise these facts and be prepared to deal with them.

In order to understand the complexity of people, writers in management have developed several models. A model is an abstraction of reality. It includes variables that are considered important, but it also levels out those factors less critical for explaining phenomena. Managers, whether they consciously know it or not, have in their mind a model of individual and organisational behaviour that is based on assumption about people. These assumption and their related theories influence managerial behaviour.

Over the years, various views of the basic nature of people have been suggested. To deal with all of them would not be practicable here. Therefore, we focus on the models of Schein and McGregor's classic assumption about people.

(i) ***Edgar H. Schein:*** He developed "Four conceptions about people. First, he noted rational economic assumptions based on the idea that people are primarily motivated by economic incentives. Since these incentives are controlled by the enterprise, people are essentially passive and are manipulated, motivated, and controlled by the organisation."

(ii) Elton Mayo's Idea: The second, concerning social assumption, is based on Elton Mayo's idea that, basically, people are motivated by social needs. Thus, social forces of the peer group are more important than controls by management. The third model, concerning self-actualising assumptions, suggests that motives fall into five classes in a hierarchy ranging from simple needs for survival to the highest needs – for self-actualisation with maximum use of a person's potential. According to this conception, people are self-motivated – they want to be, and can be, mature. The fourth model, based on complex assumptions, present Schein's own view of people. His underlying assumptions are that people are complex and variable and have many motives which combine into a complex motive pattern. In addition, people are able to learn new motives and to respond to different managerial strategies.

(iii) McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y: Another view of human nature has

been expressed in two sets of assumptions developed by Douglas McGregor and commonly known as Theory X and Theory Y. Managing, McGregor suggested, must start with the basic question of how managers see themselves in relation to others, This viewpoint requires some thought on the perception of human nature. Theory X and theory Y are two sets of assumption about human nature. McGregor chose these terms because he wanted neutral terminology without any connotation of 'good' or 'bad'.

Theory X Assumptions: The traditional assumptions about human nature, according to McGregor, are included in Theory X as follows:

(a) Average human beings have an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if they can.

(b) Because of the human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organisation objectives.

(c) Average human beings prefer to be direct, wish to avoid responsibility, have relatively little ambition, and want security above all.

Theory Y Assumptions: The assumption under Theory Y are seen by McGregor as follows:

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

(b) External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for producing effort toward organisational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objective to which they are committed.

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

(d) Average human beings learn, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.

(e) The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organisational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

(f) Under the conditions of modern individual life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilised.

(5) The Effective Manager: He will take an eclectic approach by drawing from different models that describe human nature. At the very least, he or she must recognise that people must be treated with respect and dignity, must be considered as whole persons, and must be seen in the context of their total environment, in which they assume many different roles. Different situations require a variety of managerial approaches for utilising most effectively and efficiently the most valuable resource of the enterprise, namely, people.

(6) Creativity and Innovation: An important factor in managing people is creativity. We can make a distinction between creativity and innovation. The terms creativity often refers to the ability to develop new ideas. Innovation, on the other hand, usually means the use of these ideas. In an organisation, this can mean a new product, a new service, or a new way of doing things. Although this discussion centres on the creative process, it is implied that organisations not only generate new ideas but also translate them into practical applications.

(7) The Creative Process: The creative process is seldom simple and linear. Instead it can be through of as having several overlapping and interacting phases: (a) unconscious scanning, (b) intuition, (c) insight, and (d) logical formulation.

The first phase of unconscious scanning is difficult to explain as it is beyond consciousness. This scanning usually requires an absorption in the problem. Yet, managers working under time constraints often make decisions prematurely rather than dealing thoroughly with ambiguous, ill-defined problems.

The second phase, intuition, connects the unconscious with the conscious. This stage may involve the combination of factors that may seem contradictory at first. For example, Alfred Sloan of General Motors conceived in the 1920s the idea of a decentralised division structure with centralised control. These concepts seem to contradict each other. Yet, they make sense when one recognises the underlying principles, (a) giving responsibility for the operations to the chief executive of each division, and (b) maintaining centralised control for certain functions. It took the

intuition of a great corporate leader to see these two principles interact in the managerial process.

Intuition needs time to work; the finding of new combinations and integration of diverse concepts and ideas takes time. One must think through the problem. Intuitive thinking is promoted by several techniques such as brain-storming and synecitics which will be discussed below.

(8) Implied Imagination: Insight is the third phase of the creative process. It may be likened to the exclamation 'Eureka' attributed to Archimedes on discovering the method for determining the purity of gold. Insight is mostly the result of hard work. It requires, for example, development of many ideas that result in a usable new product, service, or processes. Interestingly, insight may come at time when the thoughts are not directly focused on the problem at hand. Moreover, new insights may last for only a few minutes; effective managers may benefit from having paper and pencil ready to make notes of their creative ideas.

(9) Brainstorming: One of the best-known techniques to facilitate creativity has been developed by Alex F. Osborn, who has been called 'the father of brainstorming.' The purpose of this approach is to improve problem solving by finding new and unusual solutions. In the brainstorming session, a multiplication of ideas is sought. The rules are:

(a) No ideas are criticised.

(b) The more radical the ideas are, the better.

(c) The quantity of ideas produced is stressed.

(d) The improvement of ideas by others is encouraged.

Brainstorming which emphasises group thinking was widely accepted after its introduction. However, the enthusiasm was dampened by research which showed that individuals could develop better ideas working by themselves than when working in groups. Additional research, however, showed that in some situations the group approach may work well, specifically when the information is distributed.

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5

Planning Process and Management

Meaning of Planning Process

(1) William H. Newman and Charles E. Summer, Jr.: They say that "the process of planning covers a wide range of activities, all the way from initially sensing that something needs doing to firmly deciding who does what when.... It is more than logic or imagination of judgement. It is a combination of all these that culminates in a decision—a decision about what should be done. The decision phase of planning is so important that we shall use the expression 'decision-making' as a synonym of planning."

(2) Richard N. Farmer and Barry M. Richman: They observe that "the planning function determines organisational objectives and the policies, programmes, schedules, procedures, and methods for achieving them. Planning is essentially decision-making since it involves choosing among alternatives and it also encompasses innovation. Thus, planning is the process of making decisions on any phase of organised activity."

Here are a few more definitions given by prominent writers in the field of literature on management.

(3) M.E. Hurley: "Planning is deciding in advance what is to be done. Involves the selection of objectives, policies, producers and programmes from among alternatives."

(4) Haynes and Massie: "Planning is that function of manager in which he decides in advance what he will do. It is a decision-making process of a special kind. It is an intellectual process in which creative thinking and imagination are essential."

(5) George R. Terry: "Planning is the selection and relating of facts and the making and using of assumptions regarding the future in the visualisation and formulation of proposed activities believed necessary to achieve desired results."

(6) Henri Fayol: "Planning is deciding the best alternatives among others to perform different managerial operations in order to achieve the predetermined goals."

(7) W.H. Newman: "Generally speaking, planning is deciding in advance what is to be done."

(8) Koontz and O'Donnell: "Planning is an intellectual process. The conscious determination of courses of action, the basing of decision on purpose, facts and considered estimates."

(9) L.A. Allen: "A plan is a trap laid to capture the future."

(10) L. Urwick: "Planning is fundamentally a mental predisposition to do things in an orderly way, to think before acting and to act in the light of facts rather than of guesses."

Importance of Planning

It has been pointed out that nowadays great emphasis is placed on planning by modern management which strive for their organisations' survival, growth and healthy mode of operation. A manager desires to provide stability to his efforts by considering many complicated future variables since the future involves change and uncertainty. Moreover, planning is necessary to achieve results through the efforts of other. Hence, a manager must plan the efforts required to achieve the desired results. The main principle of planning is that adequate planning or mental effort must take place.

It makes it possible for things to occur which would not otherwise happen. Although we can seldom predict the exact future and although factors beyond our control may interfere with the best laid plans, unless we plan, we are leaving events to chance. Planning is an intellectually demanding process; it requires that we consciously determined course of action and base our decisions on purpose, knowledge, and considered estimates.

We can highlight the essential nature of planning by examining its four major aspects: (1) its contribution to purpose and objectives; (2) its primacy among the manager's tasks; (3) its persuasiveness; and (4) the efficiency of resulting plans.

The purpose of every plan and all its supporting plans is to contribute to the accomplishment of enterprise purpose and objectives. This principle derives from the nature of organised enterprise, which exists for the accomplishment of group purpose through deliberate agreement and cooperation.

Since managerial operations in organising, staffing, leading and controlling are designed to support the accomplishment of enterprise objectives, planning logically precedes the execution of all other managerial functions. Although in practice all the functions mesh as a system of action, planning is unique in that it involves establishing the objective necessary for all group effort. Besides, a manager must plan in order to know what kind of organisation relationships and personal qualifications are needed, along which course subordinates are to be led, and what kind of control is to be applied. And, of course, all the other managerial functions must be planned if they are to be effective.

Planning and control are inseparable—the Siamese twins of management. Unplanned action cannot be controlled, for control means keeping activities on course by correcting deviations from plans. Any attempt to control without plans is meaningless, since there is no way for people to tell whether they are going where they want to go (the result of the task of control) unless they first know where they want to go (part of the task of planning). Plans thus, furnish the standards of control.

Planning is a function of all managers, although the character and breadth of planning will vary with each manager's authority and with nature of places and plans outlined, by superiors it is virtually impossible to limit managers' jobs so that they can exercise no discretion, and unless they have some planning responsibility, they are not truly managers.

If we recognise the pervasiveness of planning, we can more easily understand why some people distinguish between policy making (the setting of guidelines for decision making) and administration or between the 'manager' and the 'administrator'

or 'supervisor.' One manager, because of his or her authority or position in the organisation, may do more—or more important planning than another, or the planning of one may be more basic and applicable to larger portion of the enterprise than that of another. However, all managers—from presidents to first-level supervisors—plan. Even the head of a road gang or a factory crew plans in a limited area under fairly strict rules and procedures. Interestingly, in studies of work satisfactions, a principle factor in the success of supervisors at the lowest organisation level was the extent of their ability to plan.

Although, all managers plan, the work schedule of the first-line supervisor differs from the strategic plan developed by top managers. Roger Smith, the chief executive officer at General Motors planned the grand strategy of producing small cars in Japan and Korea. Chairman Fauber of K-Mart, a retailer known for its no-frills discount stores, planned to 'upscale' the operation by offering a wider selection and higher-margin apparel. Thornton Bradshaw of the RCA Cooperation, redirected strategy, moving the company away from videodiscs and selling unrelated businesses. He focused instead on the company's strengths in communication satellites and radar display system produced for the Navy. While top executives plan the general direction of the firm, managers at all levels must prepare their plans so that they contribute to the overall aims of the organisation.

Forecasting implies the activities of detailed analysis of the future to gain a foresight of the situation that would operate at a time to come. In other words, it means a systematical analysis of past and present condition with an attempt to guess correctly the future course of events. It is basically a technique of anticipating facts related to future. L.A. Allen defines forecasting "as a systematic attempt to probe the future by inference from known facts." Obviously, it is impossible to have planning without forecasting. Fayol has rightly said, "The plan is the synthesis of the various forecasts, annual, long-term, short-term, special, etc." Although uncertainty can never be completely eliminated, yet surely forecasting reduces it to its minimum. Forecasts become the assumptions or what it is in the technical language, called the premises of the planning.

Obviously, before doing something, it is better to be clear as to what is to be done

and how it should be done. Despite the obvious importance of planning, in practice, it is often neglected and managers allow things to happen to them instead of making things happen. Sometimes excuses are made, on the ground that the time required for planning is not available and immediate action is required. In fact, many managers are more concerned with putting out fires or solving problems as they arise, rather than wanting to look forward and plan to avoid such problems of fires in the future.

"The planning function is performed by every manager. This is at times not sufficiently realised in the belief that it is mainly the concern of the top executives. Top executives are more concerned with overall planning for the company as a whole to direct its activities towards the overall objectives. However, this act of planning must be performed by every manager in respect of his own field of activities. For example, the production manager is concerned with planning of his production so that appraise products in right quantities are available in terms of the sale plan. Similarly, the advertising manager must plan his advertising activities in terms of products to be sold, consumers to be reached (or market segmentation) and the media which would best accomplish such objectives. Thus, the media selected and use of appropriate copy help implement the adverting plan. Planning is required not only for a large enterprise but also for the small ones; not only for private enterprises but equally for public sector undertaking and even for the country as a whole."

Planning Objectives

(1) *It Anticipates and Estimates the Unpredictable Contingencies of Future:* One of the important aspects of planning is to provide for the unknown emergencies of the future. Future is always uncertain and there is always speculation about it. Planning always makes provision for such uncertainties.

(2) *It Helps in Achieving the Predetermined Goals:* Planning activities would always lead towards attainment of the targets planned. Enterprise would move to achieve with confidence and achieve its aim.

(3) *It Helps to Reduce Competition:* Proper planning will always avoid and reduce competition and thus help in its activities.

(4) *It Reduces Uncertainty and Change Element:* Future is uncertain. Planning brings in a greater degree of certainty to the future activities of an enterprise.

(5) *It Brings Cooperation and Coordination among Various Departments of an Enterprise:* Planning helps to avoid inter-departmental reversal and conflicts. It also brings in inter-departmental cooperation and avoids duplication of work.

(6) *It Results in Economy in Operation:* Planning is to choose the one 'best way' of doing things. This one 'best way' will always lead to the best utilisation of the resources of the enterprise and would also be the cheapest way in achieving the objectives of the enterprise.

Cost Factors in Planning

"Many managers have followed plans whose costs were greater than the revenue that could be obtained. For example, one airline acquired certain aircraft with costs exceeding revenues. Companies have also tried to sell products that were unacceptable to the market; an example is, an auto manufacture that tried to capture a market by emphasising engineering without making competitive advances in style. Plans can even make it impossible to achieve objectives if they make enough people in an organisation dissatisfied or unhappy. The new president of a company that was losing money attempted to recognise and cut expenses quickly by wholesale and unplanned layoffs of key personal. The resulting fear, resentment, and loss of morale led to productivity so much lower as to defeat the new executive's objective of eliminating losses and making profits. And some attempts to instal management appraised and development programmes have failed because of group resentment of the methods used, regardless of the basic soundness of the programmes."

Malcolm Pennington suggests the following five guidelines, namely:

(1) involve top management only at key points in the planning process;

(2) involve line executives in developing the plans;

(3) do not look for the perfect answer;

(4) planning must provide realistic targets and alternative ways to achieve them; and

(5) planning should start on a small scale and be expanded only when the executives have learned the technique and have become convinced of their usefulness.

Frederick Taylor's concept of functional foremanship incorporated the idea of separating the planning activities from the work of the foreman and assigning these activities to other foremen specialising in the type of planning required. This principle of separating the planning work and assigning it to specialised units has resulted in the formation of staff departments. Such staff development provides specialisation but at the same time can cause confusion regarding responsibility for the final results. Besides, divorcing planning for the actual doing can result in lack of motivation and availability of excuses for not being able to attain the targets or objectives prescribed by others. However, specialised planning is beneficial in connection with problems which extend all over the company. In a large organisation, it would be advisable, for example, to have personnel development as a specialised planning unit so that uniform personnel practices may be evolved.

According to Koontz and O'Donnell it should consist of the following:

(1) Planning premises are the planning assumptions about the future or understanding of the expected situation. In other words, it is the expected environment (in figure) of plans while in operation. Planning premises supply relevant facts and information relating to future. Forecasting and analysis of the existing trends provide most of the information in planning. Planning premises will attempt to answer questions like—What kind of markets will there be? What quantity of sales? What prices? What products? What tax rates and policies? What new plants? What political or social environment? How will expansion be financed, etc., etc? It is not realistic to make assumptions about every detail of the future environment of a plan. Therefore, they are limited to those which are critical or strategic to a plan, that is, those which influence most its operation.

(2) Detailed analysis of statements and programme schedules are being prepared out of the objectives, which work as a guideline and policy for the employees of the firm and even outsiders can also be associated to help in achiving the desired objectives. These policies framed with a systematic planning coordinate the activities and maintain the unity at the different managerial level. Although, from time to time with the changing times, the policies can also be changed, however, the policy framing is the essential process of the planning. After formulating the plan and its subsidiary (derivative) plans, it is essential to decide the sequence of activities. This sequence is to be arranged carefully in order of their priorities. Some plans may receive preference over others in order to maintain a symmetry of performance and smooth flow of work. Scheduling, i.e., the starting and finishing times are fixed for excretion of each plan. Time factor is an essential consideration. Procedure marks a fixed path through the defined area of policy. Policies provide guide to thinking and action, while procedures are more definite and specified guides to action only for the fulfilment of objectives. Procedures may be durable like policies, by they are not as flexible as policies. For example, in a firm a person is entitles to avail 12 casual leaves—it is the policy, but how he will apply, to whom he will send the application, who will maintain his account of leave, who will be the sanctioning authority, are some of the examples of procedures.

(3) It is the first step of every plan to set or determine the objective of the activities they are going to perform. Since the primarily motto of the business is to earn reasonable profits, then they are to determine certain objectives in respect of production, sales, purchases, financing, etc. Objectives specifying the results expected indicate the end points of what is to be done, where the primary emphasis is to be placed and what is to be accomplished. In short, objective provides the nucleus to the planning process. Objectives have to be specific, clear and informative. They must be spelled out in all key areas rather than a single value objective of 'maximisation of profit'.

(4) The overall major plan for the enterprise cannot be excited effectively and efficiently, unless it is supported, clarified and enlarged by preparing subsidiary

(derivative) plans for each segment of the enterprise. This break-up of the main plan into unit and department plans, will give a realistic shape of course of action to be adopted.

(5) Another step in planning, therefore, is to search for and examine these alternative courses of action, especially those not immediately apparent. The problems will not be that of finding the alternatives, but reducing the number of such alternatives so that the most prominent ones may be thoroughly analysed. All such possible alternatives should be located and listed for their analytical and comparative evaluation. Having listed the various possible alternative courses of action and having examined their strong and weak points, the next step will be to evaluate them in light of the planning objective and planning premises. They are also to be evaluated with reference to cost, speed, quality consideration, risk profit and enterprises long range objectives.

(6) Policies are threadbared in the form of procedures, similarly, the procedures are further detailed out in the form of rules. Sometimes rules and procedures are used as common terms, but in practice they are different. Rules provide a specific guideline to the procedures. Rules specify the areas of activities where the procedures are to be followed. For example, acknowledgement of an order received is a procedure of sales department. But the sales department should not be left with any unlimited time to acknowledge-ment must be sent is a rule. Budgets are also plans containing statement of expected results in numerical terms, i.e., rupees, man-hours, product-units, etc. Budgets are being developed into plans for utilising them as definite standards of work performance. The examples of budgets are—income budget, cash budget, purchase budget, sales budget, production budget, capital expenditure budget, and master budget.

(7) Programmes weld together different plans for imple-menting them into a complete and orderly course of action. All individual plans in the form of policies and procedures are assembled in such a fashion so as to put them into a workable form for achieving the pre-determined goals or objectives of the enterprise. Piecemeal plans are trans formed into a master plan at this state of

programme planning. Programmes are necessary for both repetitive course of action. Programmes for repetitive action are referred to as routine planning while programmes for non-repetitive action go by the name of creative planing. There should always be prior provision for following up the proposed plan when it is put to execution. Follow-up is a central functions of management and the success of the plan lies in seeing that the events conform to the expected results.

Let us now briefly view the steps generally involved in the planning activity. The following are the major-steps in the planning process, namely:

(1) crystallising the opportunity or problem;

(2) securing and analysing necessary information;

(3) establishing planning promises and constraints;

(4) ascertaining alternative courses of action or plans;

(5) selecting the optimum plan;

(6) determining derivative plans;

(7) fixing timing of introduction; and

(8) arranging future evaluation of effectiveness of the plan.

Types of Plans

There are different ways in which plans are classified. For example, plans may be classified according to the time dimension into (1) Short-term plans extending up to one year, (2) Mediums-term plans of more than one year but less than five years, and (3) Long-term plans of five years or a longer period. Plans could also be classified in terms of functions like production planning, marketing planning and so on as against overall company planning. Another way to classify plans is to divide them into:

(1) objective or goals,

(2) strategies and tactics,

(3) standards,

(4) budgets,

(5) policies,

(6) procedures,

(7) programmes,

(8) rules, and

(9) methods.

Budget is described as both, a planning and a controlling device. It presents date of reasonable expectancies in a given period. It may be expressed in units of product, machine-hours, man-hours or in financial terms. Budgets are also used as control devices although making the budgets is a planning function. The budget formulation forces the organisation to plan ahead and make a numerical, logical compilation to give direction and control limits. Budgets are used more as a controlling device.

Policies are general statements aimed at guiding thinking whilst making decision. They constitute broad boundaries, permitting initiative of the manager to the extent of interpreting the particular policy. Policies need not necessarily be written as they may be implied from the past actions of managers. An example of a policy would be that "promotions must be from within the company or the existing staff." If such a policy is prescribed, it gives a direction or guidance for future promotions. Both objectives and policies guide the mental and physical actions of a manager.

Premises or assumptions based on factors outside the organisation or external to the firm include the following, namely:

(1) business and economic environment;

(2) political stability;

(3) cultural and market environment;

(4) industry demand;

(5) availability of resources in terms of capital and labour;

(6) sociological factors;

(7) social norms; and

(8) government controls and fiscal policies.

Monopolistic Trade Practices

The socialistic pattern of society, under the Indian five year plans, envisage the support of the greater good of the many and a frowning on profits and conspicuous consumption organisation of even voluntary associations, aimed at preventing restrictive practices, has placed greater importance on the question of concentration of economic power. Monopolies Inquiry Commission was also appointed to inquire into the extent and effect of such concentration in private hands and to suggest legislative and other measures necessary as a result of such inquiry. The report of the Commission was ultimately followed by appropriate legislation, i.e., the Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Act, 1969.

The objective of this Act is "to provide that the operation of the economic systems does not result in the concentration of economic power to the common detriment, for the control of monopolies, for the prohibition of monopolistic and restrictive trader practices and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto." The Act mainly seeks to

(1) regulate expansions, mergers and amalgamations as well as the appointment of Directors in respect of a 'dominant undertaking' having assets of Rs. 1 crore and more and of undertaking which by themselves or with inter-connected undertaking have assets of not less than Rs. 20 crores in value;

(2) regulate starting of new undertakings which would become inter-connected undertaking of such existing undertakings that reason of such new venture, such undertaking would have total assets over as Rs. 20 crores; and

(3) exercise control over and prohibit monopolistic and restrictive trade practices in respect of the entire trade and industry.

A 'Dominant Undertaking' is defined as "an undertaking which either by itself or along with inter-connected" undertakings:

(1) produces, supplies, distributes or otherwise controls not less than one-third of the total goods of any description that are produced, supplied or distributed in India or any substantial part thereof, or

(2) provides or otherwise controls not less than one-third of any services that are rendered in India or any substantial part thereof.

Where an undertaking produce, supplies ... etc., one-half (and not only one-third) of the total goods ... etc., it is called a Monopolistic Undertaking.

A Restrictive Trade Practice is defined as meaning "a trade practice which has, or may have, the effect of preventing, distorting or restricting competition in any manner and in particular:

(1) which tends to obstruct the flow of capital or resources into the stream of production, or

(2) which tends to bring about manipulation of prices, conditions of delivery or to effect the flow of supplies in the market relating to goods or services in such manner as to impose to the consumers unjustified costs or restrictions."

An organisation must operate within such social norms and the responsibilities increasingly placed on businessmen is particular regarding their obligations to society in general, the customers, the shareholders and the employees. In terms of the long-term interest of an organisation, the manager must strictly act within these norms prescribes by society. Failure to do this, might results in further government control such as price controls where monopolistic conditions are exploited to the detriment of society.

These provisions apply to:

(1) an undertaking whose own assets alone, or together with the assets of its inter-connected undertaking, is not less than Rs. 20 crores, and

(2) a dominant undertaking where, as a single under-taking, or along with its inter-connected undertaking, the value of assets is not less than Rs. 1 crore.

The Act also provides that a director of such an under-taking, who is already a director of 10 inter-connected undertaking, cannot be appointed as a director of any other undertaking without the prior approval of the central government.

Again, the Act also provides for the Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practice Commission inquiring into restrictive trade practices and monopolistic trade practices.

Except where authorised by any law or approved by the central government, registration is required by this Act of agreement relating to a restrictive trade practice falling into one or more of the following categories, namely:

(1) any agreement which restricts, or is likely to restrict, by any method the persons or classes of persons to whom goods are sold or from whom goods are bought;

(2) any agreement requiring a purchase of goods, as condition of such purchase, to purchase some other goods;

(3) any agreement restricting in any manner the purchaser in the course of his trade from acquiring or otherwise dealing in any goods other than those of the seller or any other person;

(4) any agreement to purchase or sell goods or to tender for the sale or purchase of goods only at prices or on terms or conditions agreed upon between the sellers or purchasers;

(5) any agreement to grant or allow concessions or benefits, including allowances, discount, rebates or credit in connection with or by reason of, dealing;

(6) any agreement to sell goods on condition that the prices to be charged on re-sale by the purchaser shall be the prices stipulated by the seller unless it is clearly stated that prices lower than those prices may be charged;

(7) any agreement to limit, restrict or withhold the output or supply of any goods or allocate any area or market for the disposal of the goods;

(8) any agreement not to employ or restrict the employment of any method, machinery or process in the manufacture of goods;

(9) any agreement for the exclusion from any trade association of any person carrying on or intending to carry on, in good faith the trade in relation to which the trade association is formed;

(10) any agreement to sell goods at such prices as would have the effect of eliminating competition or a competitor;

(11) any agreement not herein before referred to in this section which the central government may, by notification in the Official Gazette, specify for the time being as being one relating to a restrictive trade practice within the meaning of this sub-section pursuant to any recommendation made by the Commission in this behalf;

(12) any agreement to enforce the carrying out of any such agreement as is referred to in this sub-section.

A monopolistic trade practice is deemed to be prejudicial to public interest where its effect would be:

(1) to increase unreasonably the cost relating to the production supply or distribution of goods or the performance of any service;

(2) to increase unreasonable:

(a) the prices at which goods are sold; or

(b) the profits derives from the production, supply or distribution of goods or from the performance of any service;

(3) to reduce or limit unreasonably competition in the production, supply or distribution of any goods (including their sale or purchase) or the provision of any service;

(4) to limit or prevent unreasonably, the supply of goods to consumers, or the provision of any service;

(5) to result in a deterioration in the quality of any goods or in the performance of any service.

"Thus, the most distinctive feature of a monopolistic or restrictive trade practice is its unreasonable behaviour as regards prices, production, supply and distribution."

Premises of Planning

"The most important internal premise is the sales forecasts." There are, however, other premises internal to the firm such as commitments to certain plans, wage incentive schemes and machinery. The following are some of the important internal premises, namely:

(1) Basic Policies and Programmes.

(2) Capital Commitment.

(3) Sources of Raw Materials and Parts.

(4) The Company's Sales Forecast.

Planning replaces random activity by orderly and purposeful actions based on forecasts and studies rather than on intuitions and hunches. It leads to more effective and faster achievement in any enterprise. Every enterprise has to work in ever-changing and uncertain environments. It is planning alone which enables the management to adopt the future course of action. It brings orderlines, efficiency and stability in managerial actions and decisions. It provides a rational approach to all stability in managerial actions and decisions. It provides a rational approach to all decisions and actions.

According to G.R. Terry the plan may be:

(1) short-range (SR) plans, covering a period of one year;

(2) intermediate-range (IR) plans, covering a period of over one year but less than five years, and

(3) long-range (LR) plans covering periods of over five years.

These are arbitrary definitions. The length of period will depend on many factors like, the nature of the business enterprise, the production cycle, viz., the time taken for producing finished goods, sales fluctuations, etc.

There is yet another and most popular way of classifying plans according to objectives or its use. They are (1) Standing or repeated-use plans, and (2) Master or single-use plans. Under these two broad categories fall various types of plans. They are:

Under Standing or repeated-use plans, we have

(1) Objectives;

(2) Policies;

(3) Procedures;

(4) Methods; and

(5) Rules.

Under Master or single-use plans, we have

(1) Budgets;

(2) Programmes;

(3) Projects; and

(4) Strategies.

Prof. G.R. Terry has preferred to classify them in the four types:

(1) They are normally thought of being related to a company and not an individual providing saleable goods and services may be an example. These objectives are impersonal in nature. The recognition of better quality product goes to the company and not any individual worker.

(2) They assist in attaining primary objectives and identify targets for efforts designed to increase efficient and economy in the work performance. Objectives dealing with analysis, advice and inter-operations are the examples. Their contribution is indirect in that they provide supportive efforts to those direct by the primary objectives. Like primary objectives they are also impersonal in nature.

(3) As is implied by the name, these objectives are those of the individual members of the enterprise. Of course, they are subordinate to the primary or secondary objectives. They may be either economic or psychological. For example, the objective of the top management to maintain its managerial position or achieve bigness. Such an objective is usually not publicised yet underlines most managerial actions, especially at the top level.

(4) They deal with the obligations of the enterprises towards society or community. They intend to further social and physical improvement of the community and to contribute to desirable civil activities. Price regulation, avoiding air and water pollution, labour activities, etc., are the examples.

According to the same authority the potential of managing and estir ıating of mangers by objectives is very great. The major benefits that accrue under this are:

(1) Objectives provide clear vision of goals of the enterprise.

(2) Objectives integrate enterprise planning.

(3) Objectives facilitate coordination work, efforts and resources of the enterprise.

(4) Objectives result in improved management, as they force the mangers to think of planning for results.

(5) Objectives clarify organisation roles and structure, and help decentralisation of authority for better results.

(6) Objectives elicit commitment for performance as they provide targets for managerial efforts.

(7) Objectives help in developing effective controls as they set clear and verifiable goals of performance.

There can be a better chance of the objective being fulfilled if the following guidelines as suggested by Prof. Terry are followed, while setting objectives:

(1) Objectives should be the result of participation of those responsible for carrying them out.

(2) All objectives within an enterprise should support the overall enterprise objectives.

(3) Objectives should have some 'reach'. Most people work better when there is a reasonable challenge.

(4) Objectives should be realistic. It is well to guard against trying to attain too much in too short a time, in view of both the internal and external constraints.

(5) Objectives should be contemporary as well as innovative. A constant periodical review is essential.

(6) Objectives established for each management member should be limited in number. Too many cause confusion and neglect. Too few permit waste and inefficiency. Four or five objectives per management member is maximum.

(7) Objectives should be ranked according to their relative importance.

"What all its advantages, it has a number of weaknesses and shortcomings. Some

are found in the system. Others are due to shortcomings in applying." (Koontz and O'Donnell).

Purpose or Mission and Goals

Every kind of organised operation has, or at least should have if it is to be meaningful, purposes or missions. In every social systems, enterprises have a basic function of task which is assigned to them by society. The purpose of a business generally is the production and distribution of goods and services. The purpose of a state highway department is the design, building, and operation of a system of state highways. The purpose of the courts is the interoperation of laws and their application. The purpose of a university is teaching and research. And so on.

Although, we do not do so, some writers distinguish between purposes and missions, while a business, for example, may have a social-purpose of producing and distributing goods and services, it can accomplish this by fulfilling a mission of producing certain lines of product. The missions of an oil company, like Exxon, are to search for oil and to produce, refine, and market petroleum and a wide variety of petroleum products, from diesel fuel to chemicals. The mission of the Dupont Company has been expressed as "better things through chemistry," and Kimberly-Clark (noted for its Kleenex trademark) regards its business mission as the production and sale of paper and paper products. In the 1960s, the mission of NASA was to get a person to the moon before the Russians. Hallmark, which has expanded its business beyond greeting cards, defines its mission as "the social expression business."

Koontz and O'Donnell has pointed out as under:

(1) It is true that in some business and other enterprises, the purpose or mission often becomes fuzzy. In some of the larger conglomerates, such as, Litton Industries, missions related to the product line do not appear to exist. However, many of the conglomerates have regarded their mission as synergy, which is accomplished through the combination of a variety of companies.

(2) People sometimes think that the mission of a business, as well as its objective, is to make a profit. It is true that every kind of enterprise must have, a

'surplus'—in business, a 'profit'—goal or objective if it is to survive and do the task society has entrusted to it. But this basic objective is accomplished by undertaking actives going in clearly-defined directions, achieving goals, and accomplishing a mission.

Terms we use interchangeably in this book are the ends toward which activity is aimed. They represent not only the end point of planning but the end toward which organising, staffing, leading, and controlling are aimed. While enterprise objectives are the basic plan of the firm, a department may also have its own objectives. Its goals naturally contribute to the attainment of enterprise objectives, but the two set of goals may be entirely different. For example, the objectives of a business might be, to make a certain profit by producing a given line of home entertainment equipment, while the goal of the manufacturing department might be to produce the required number of television sets of a given design and quality at a given cost. These objectives are consistent, but they differ in that the manufacturing department alone cannot ensure accomplishing the company's objective.

Strategies

For years the military used the word 'strategies' to mean grand plans made in the light of what is believed an adversary might or might not do. While the term 'strategies' still usually has a competitive implication, managers increasingly use it to reflect broad areas of an enterprise operation.

Three definitions are indicative of the most common usages of the term 'strategies': (1) general programmes of action and development of resources to attain comprehensive objectives; (2) the programme of objectives of an organisation, resources used to attain these objectives, and policies governing the acquisition, use, and disposition of these resources; and (3) the determination of the basic long-term objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action and allocation of resources necessary to achieve these goals.

Thus, a company has to decide what kind of business it is going to be in. Is it a transportation or a railroad company? Is it a contain or a paper box manufacturer? The firm also has to decide on its growth goal and its desired profitability. A strategy

might include such major policies as to market directly rather than through distributors, or to concentrate on proprietary products, or to have a full line of autos, as General Motors decided to have many years ago.

The purpose of strategies, then, is to determine and communicate, through a system of major objective and policies, a picture of what kind of enterprise is envisioned. Strategies do not attempt to outline exactly how the enterprise is to accomplish its objectives, since this is the task of countless major and minor supporting programmes. But they furnish a framework for guiding thinking and action. Their usefulness in practice and their importance in guiding planning do, however, justify the separation of strategies as a type of plan for purpose of analysis.

Strategies have become increasingly complex and internationally oriented. Take General Motors, which has been threatened by foreign competitors, especially the Japanese. For decades GM had a 'do-it-yourself' strategy. But now some GM cars are made by Asian rival companies such as Suzuki Motors Company and Isuzu Motors Ltd. of Japan. In addition, GM engaged in a joint venture with Toyota Motor Corporation to produce subcompacts in California. Equally surprising is GM's strategic move into non-automotive businesses such as information processing and robotics. To implement this strategy, GM bought Electronic Data Systems Corporation and engaged in a joint venture with the Japans Robot Maker Fanuc Ltd. But a change in strategy usually requires a reorganisation, and GM is currently in the process of changing the organisation structure that served the company well for over 60 years.

Policies

(1) G.R. Terry: "A policy is a verbal, written or implied overall guide, setting up boundaries that supply the general limits and direction in which managerial action will take place."

(2) Koontz and O'Donnell: "It is a guide to thinking and actions of those who take decision."

(3) Prof. L.J. Kazmier: "Policies are general statements or understandings which guide decision-making by subordinates in the various departments of an enterprise."

(4) Shorwin Douglas: "Policy is simply a statement of an organisation's intention to act in certain ways when specified types of circumstances arise. It represents general decision, predetermined and expressed as a principle or rule, establishing a normal pattern of conduct or dealing with given types of business events usually recurrent."

The formulation of policies take place at different levels of management. According to George R. Terry, for formulating effective policies, the following important considerations should be taken care of:

(1) The use policy should help in achiving the objective and a policy should be built from facts, not from personal reflections or opportunistic decisions.

(2) The policy should permit interpretation; it should not prescribe detailed procedure.

(3) The formulator's thoughts and ideas of the content of the policy should be conditioned by the suggestions and reactions of the those who will be affected by the policy.

(4) Wherever necessary to cover anticipated conditions, policies should be established, but care must be exercised to avoid having policies that are seldom, if ever, used.

(5) Every policy should be expressed in definite and precise wording that is fully understood by every member of the enterprise.

According to the same author:

(1) Policies also are plans in that they are general statements or understandings which guide or channel thinking and action in decision making. All policies are not 'statements.' They are often merely implied from the actions of managers. The president of a company, for example, may strictly follow – perhaps for convenience rather than as policy the practice of promoting from within; the practice may then be interpreted as policy and carefully followed by subordinates. In fact, one of the problems of managers is, to make sure that sub-ordinates do not interpret as policy minor managerial decision that are not intended to serve as patterns.

(2) Policies define an area within which a decision is to be made and ensure that the decision will be consistent with, and contribute to, an objective, policies help decide issues before they become problems, make it unnecessary to analyse the same situation every time it comes up, and unify other plans, thus permitting managers to delegate authority and still maintain control over what their subordinates do. For example, a certain railroad has the policy of acquiring industrial land to replace all company acreage sold along its right of way. This policy permits the manager of the land it replace all company acreage sold along its right of way. This policy permits the mangers of the land department to develop acquisition plans without continual reference to top management, while at the same time furnishing a standard of control.

(3) Since policies are guides to decision making, it follows that they must allow for some discretion. Otherwise, they would be rules. Too often policies are interpreted as a kind of 'ten commandments' that leave no room for discretion. Although discretion, in some instances, is quite broad, it can be exceedingly narrow. For example, a policy to buy from the lowest of three qualified bidders levels to discretion only the question of which bidders are qualified; a requirement to buy from a certain supplier, regardless of price or service, would however, be a rule.

To understand that policies are often misunderstood, let us look at examples from a company's policy manual. In each case, there is room for a person in a decision-making capacity to use discretion.

(1) *Gift from Suppliers:* Expect for token gifts of purely nominal or advertising value, no employee shall accept any gift or gratuity from any supplier at any time. (What is 'token' or 'nominal'?)

(2) *Entertainment:* No officer or employee shall accept favour or entertainment from an outside organisation or agency which are substantial enough to cause undue influence in the selection of goods or services for the company. (What is 'substantial' or 'undue'?)

(3) *Outside Employment:* It is improper for any employee to work for any

company customers, or for any competitors, or for any vendors or suppliers of goods of services to the company; outside employment is further prohibited if it (a) results in a division of loyalty to the company or a conflict of interest or (b) interferes with or adversely affects the employees, work or opportunity for advancement in the company. (What is meant by 'division of loyalty,' 'conflict of interest,' and 'adversely'?)

(4) *Pricing:* Territorial division managers may each establish such prices for the products under their individual control as they deem in the division's interest so long as (a) these prices result in gross profit margins for any line of products which are consistent with the approved profit plan; (b) price reductions will not result in detrimental effects on process of similar product of another company division in another state or country; and (c) prices meet the legal requirements of the state or country in which the prices are effective. (What are 'consistent profit margins,' 'detrimental; effects.' And 'legal requirements'?)

Koontz and O'Donnell has Opined: "Making policies consistent and integrated enough to realise enterprise's objectives is difficult for many reasons. First, policies are too seldom defined in writing and, their exact interpretations are too little known. Second, the very delegation of authority that policies are intended to implement leads, through its decentralising influence, to widespread participation in policy making and interpretation, with almost certain variations among individuals. Third, it is not always easy to control policy because actual policy may be difficult to ascertain and intended policy may not always be clear."

On procedures, they state that procedures are found in every part of an organisation. The Board of Directors follows many procedures quite different from these of the supervisor; the expense account of the vice-president may go through quite different approval procedures than that of the salesperson; the procedures for carrying out vacation and sick leave provisions may differ considerably at various levels of the organisation. But the important fact is that procedures exist throughout an organisation, even though, as we might expect, they become more exacting and more numerous at the lower levels, largely because of the necessity for more careful control, the economic advantages of spelling out actions in detail, the lower-level

managers' lesser need for leeway, and the fact that many routine jobs can be performed most efficiently when management prescribes the best way to carry them out.

Trends and Commitment

According to the same author, the long-term trends are:

(1) From industrial to information society.

(2) From forced technology to high tech/high touch which means that technology is counterbalanced by a human response, such as relating to people.

(3) From national to a world economy.

(4) From a short-term to long-term orientation.

(5) From centralisation to decentralisation (transformations in polities, business, and culture).

(6) From institutional assistance to self-help (e.g. self-care, self-education, and so on).

(7) From representation to participation (in polities and in organisations).

(8) From organisational hierarchies to networking (which means sharing of information, resources and ideas).

(9) A shift of population and activity from the North to the South and the Southwest.

(10) From simple and limited option to multiple options.

Further, the commitment principles are:

(1) Shall plans be for a short period or a long one? How shall short-range plans be coordinated with long-range plans? These questions suggest multiple horizons of planning in some case, planning a week in advance may be ample, and in others, the desirable period may be a number of years. Even within the same firm at the same time, various planning periods may exist for various matters.

(2) Some criteria must be used in selecting the time range for company planning. In general, since planning and the forecasting that underlies it are costly, a

company or any other organisation should probably not plan for a longer period. The key to choosing the right planning period seems to lie in the commitment principle. Logical planning encompasses a future period of time necessary to fulfil, through a series of actions, the commitments involved in decision made today.

(3) Perhaps the most obvious application of this principle is the setting of a planning period long enough to anticipate, as well as we can, the recovery of costs sunk into a project. But, since other things than costs can be committed for various lengths of time and because a commitment to spend often precedes an expenditure and may be as unchangeable as sunk costs, it seems inadequate to refer to recovery of costs alone. Thus, a company may commit itself for varying lengths of time to a personal policy, such as promotion from with or to other policies or programmes involving commitments of direction not immediately measurable in terms of rupees.

(4) The commitment principle implies the long-range planning is not really a planning for further decision but, rather, planning for the future impact of today's decisions. In other words, a discussion is a commitment, normally of funds, direction of action or reputation. And decision lie at the core of planning. While studies and analyses precede decision, and type of plan implies the some decision has been made. Indeed, a plan does not really exist as such until a decision has been made. Knowing this, the astute manager will recognise the validity of gearing longer-term considerations to present decision. To do otherwise, is to overlook the basic nature of both—planning and decision making.

(5) There is no uniform or arbitrary length of time for which a company should plan or for which a given programme or any of its parts should be planned. An airplane company embarking on a new commercial jet aircraft project probably plan this programme for at least 12 years ahead, with 5 or 6 years for engineering and development and at least as many more year for production and sales, in order to recoup total costs and total make a reasonable profit. An instrument manufacture with a product already developed might need to plan

revenues and expenses only 6 months ahead, since this period may represent the cycle of raw-materials purchasing, production, inventorying, and sales. But the same company might wish to see much further into the future before assuming a lease for specialised manufacturing facilities, undertaking a programme of management training, or developing and promoting a new product.

(6) Although the commitment principle indicates that various plans calls for various planning periods, those used are often compromises. The short range tends to be a number of quarters or a year because of the practical need to make plans conform to accounting periods. The somewhat arbitrary selection of 5 years or so for the long range is often based on the probably mistaken belief that the degree of uncertainty over longer period makes planning of questionable value.

Regarding the plans the author opines as under:

(1) Programmes are complexes of goals, policies, procedures, rules, task assignments, steps to be taken, resources to be employed, and other elements necessary to carry out a given course of action; they are ordinarily supported by budgets. They may be as major as an airline's programme to acquire a $400 million fleet of jets or the five-year programme embarked upon by the Ford Motor Company several years ago to improve the states and quality of its thousands of foremen. Or they may be as minor as a programme formulated by a single supervisor to improve the morale of workers in a parts-manufacturing department of a farm machinery company.

(2) A primary programme may call for many supporting programmes. To cite airline again, its programme to invest in new jets, costing many millions of dollars for the aircraft and the necessary parts, requires many supporting programmes if the investment is to be properly used. A programme for providing the maintenance and operating bases with spare parts and components must be developed in detail. Special maintenance facilities must be prepared and maintenance personnel trained. Pilots and flight engineers

must also be trained, and if the new jets mean a net addition to flying hours, flight personnel recruited. Flight schedules must be revised, and ground station personnel trained to handle the new airplanes and their schedules as service is expanded to new cities in the airline's systems. Advertising programmes must give adequate publicity to the new service. Plans to finance the aircraft and provide for insurance coverage must be developed.

(3) These and other programmes must be devised and implemented before any new aircraft are received and placed in service. Furthermore, all these programmes call for coordination and timing, since the failure of any part of this network of supporting plans means delay for the major programme as well as unnecessary costs and loss of profits. Some programmes, particularly those involving hiring and training of personnel, can be accomplished too soon as well as too late, and needless expense results from employees being available and trained before their services are required.

Management by Objectives

Management by objectives (MBO) is now practiced around the world. Yet, despite its wide application, it is not always clear what is meant by MBO. Some still think of it as an appraisal tool; others see it as a motivational technique; still others consider MBO a planning and control device. In other words, definitions and application of MBO differ widely, and it is therefore, important to highlight the evolving concepts. Before we do that, however, we will define management by objectives as:

> "A comprehensive managerial system that integrates many key managerial activities in a systematic manner, and is consciously directed toward the effective and efficient achievement of organisational and individual objectives."

Our view of MBO as a system of managing is not shared by all. Some still define MBO in very narrow, limited way.

No one person can be called the originator of an approach that emphasises objectives. Common sense has told people of many centuries that groups and

individuals expect to accomplish some end results. However, certain individuals have long placed emphasis on management by objectives and, by doing so, have speeded its development as a systematic process.

One of these is Peter F. Drucker. In 1954 he acted as a catalyst by emphasising that objectives must be set in all areas where performance affects the health of the enterprise. He laid down a philosophy that emphasises self-control and self-direction. About the same time, if not earlier, the General Electric Company was using elements of MBO in its reorganisation efforts to decentralise managerial decision making. The company implemented this philosophy of appraisal by identifying key result are as an undertaking considerable research on the measurement of performance.

In 1957 in his classic article in the *Harvard Business Review*, Douglas McGregor, a major contributor to the behavioural sciences, criticised traditional appraisal programmes that focused on personality trait criteria for evaluating subordinates. In this approach, managers are required to pass judgement on the personal worth of subordinates. Consequently, McGregor suggested a new approach to appraisal based on Drucker's concept of management by objectives. Specifically, subordinates assume the responsibility of setting short-term objectives for themselves and review them with their superior. Of course, the superior has veto power over these objectives, but in the appropriate environment it will hardly need to be used.

Performance is then evaluated against the preset objectives, primarily by subordinates themselves. In this new approach, which encourage self-appraisal and self-development, the emphasis is where it ought to be, on performance rather than on personality. The active involvement of subordinates in the appraisal process leads to commitment and creates an environment for motivation.

Researchers, consultants, and practitioners have long recognised the importance of individual goal setting. One of the early field studies on an MBO programme, as well as a follow-up study, found "a significant upward movement in the overall average level of goals." Also, an improvement in the attainment of goals and a continuing increase in productivity was noted in this firm. However, productivity had tapered off when the follow up study was made. Although goal setting is not the only factor

in motivating employee, it is an important one (other factors are incentives, participation, and autonomy). Certainly, the importance of goal setting as a motivational technique is not restricted to business but is also useful in public organisations. The general vagueness of objectives in many public organisations is a challenge for managers, but there is evidence that this challenge can be met.

In MBO programmes that emphasise performance appraisal and motivation, the focus tends to be short-term objectives. This orientation, unfortunately, may result in undesirable managerial behaviour. For example, a production manager in an effort to reduce maintenance costs, may neglect the necessary expenses for keeping the machines in good working order. The breakdown of machinery may not be evident at first, but can result in costly repairs much later. In a effort to show a good return on investment in a given years, the nurturing of good customers relations may be neglected. Similarly, a manager may not invest in new products that would take several years before contributing to profit. Recognising these shortcomings, some managers now include long-range and strategic planning in MBO programmes.

Management by objectives has undergone many changes, it has been used in performance appraisal, as an instrument for motivating individuals, and more recently in strategic planning. But there are still other managerial subsystems that can be integrated into the MBO process, they include design of organisational structures, portfolio management, management development, career development, compensation programmes, and budgeting. These various managerial activities need to be integrated into a system. For example, George Odiorne, one of the most vocal spokesperson for MBO, has considered it to be a system of managerial leadership. Other discuss the systematic relationships of MBO and many other key managerial activities in different environments.

Research Study

One of the early research studies that investigated MBO as a comprehensive system of managing indicates that most key managerial activities can and should be integrated with the MBO process. The degree of integration, however, differs for individual activities. It was found, for example, that the highest degree of integration of MBO

with managerial functions was in controlling, planning, and directing. But several key managerial activities in staffing and organising also were well integrated into the MBO process. These finding suggest that MBO, to be effective has to be viewed as a comprehensive systems. In short, it must be considered a way of managing, and not an addition to the managerial job.

The Process

We can best see the practical importance of objectives in management by summarising how successful managing by objectives works in practice. Ideally, the process starts at the top of an organisation and has the active support of the chief executive, who gives direction to the organisation. It is not essential that objective setting starts at the top, however, It can start at division level, marketing-manager level, or even lower. For example, in one company the system was first started in a division where it was carried down to the lowest level of supervision with an interlocking network of goals. Under the personal leadership and tutelage of the division general manager, it succeeded in areas of profitability, cost reduction, and improved operation. Soon, some other division managers and the chief executive became interested in, and attempted to implement, similar programmes. In another case, the head of an accounting section developed a system for his group; has success not only earned him recognition (and promotion) but served as the starting point for a company wide programme.

As in all planning, one of the critical needs in MBO is the development and dissemination of consistent planning promises. No manager can be expected to set goals or establish plans and budgets without guidelines.

Although management by objectives is now the most widely practised managerial approach, its effectiveness is sometimes questioned. Often faulty implementation is blamed, but another reasons is that MBO is applied as a mechanistic technique focusing on selected aspects of the managerial process without integrating them into a system. To provide a realistic view, we will analyse some of the benefits and weaknesses of MBO.

As pointed out earlier, there is considerable research evidence, much of it from laboratory studies, that point at the motivational aspects of clear goals. But there are other benefits.

Better Managing

We could summarise all the advantages of management by objectives by saying that it results in much-improved management. Objectives cannot be established without planning, and results-oriented planning is the only kind that makes sense. Management by objectives forces managers to think about planning for results, rather than merely planning activities or work. To ensure that objectives are realistic, it also requires managers to think of the way they will accomplish results, the organisation and personnel they will need to do so, and the resources and assistance they will require. Also, there is no better incentive for control and no better way to know the standards for control than a set of clear goals.

Clarified Organisation

Another major benefit of managing by objective is that it forces managers to clarify organisational roles and structures. To the extent possible, positions should be built around the key results expected of people occupying them. Companies that have effectively embarked on MBO programme have often discovered deficiencies in their organisations. Managers often forget that to get result, they must delegate authority according to the results they expect. As an executive of Honeywell is reported to have said: "There are two things that might also be considered fundamental creed at Honeywell: decentralised management is needed to make Honeywell work and management by objective is needed to make decentralisation work."

Personal Commitment

One of the great advantages of management by objectives is that it encourages people to commit themselves to their goals. No longer are people just doing work, following instructions, and waiting for guidance and decision; they are now individuals with clearly defined purposes. They have had a part in actually setting their objectives;

they have had an opportunity to put their ideas into planning programmes; they understand their area of discretion their authority—and they have been able to get help from their superiors to ensure that they can accomplish their goals. These are the elements that make for a feeling of commitment. People become enthusiastic when they control their own fate.

Development of Effective Control

In the same way that management by objectives sparks more effective planning, it also aids in developing effective controls. Recall that control involves measuring results and taking action to correct deviations from plans in order to ensure that goals are reached. On the systems and process of management control, one of the major problems is knowing what to watch; a clear set of verifiable goals is the best guide.

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6

Controlling Techniques for Effective Management

Definitions of Controlling

(1) George R. Terry: "Controlling is determining what is being accomplished, that is, evaluating the performance and, if necessary, applying corrective measures so that the performance takes place according to plan."

(2) Henri Fayol: "Control consists in verifying whether everything occurs in conformity with the plan adopted, the instructions issued and principles established. It has for object to point out weaknesses and errors in order to rectify them and prevent recurrence. It operates on everything—things, people, actions."

(3) The System Definition: "That function of a system which provides direction in conformance to the plan" or "The maintenance of variations from system objectives within allowable limits."

(4) E.F.L. Brech: "Control checks current performance against predetermined standard contained in the plans, with a view to ensure adequate progress and satisfactory performance, also recording the experience gained from the working of these plans as a guide to possible operations."

(5) Marry Cushing Niles: "Control thus viewed in is an aspect and projection of planning, whereas planning sets the course to the chosen courses or to an appropriately changed one."

(6) J.K. Rosen: "Control is that function of the system which provides direction in performance to the plans."

(7) Dalton E. MacFarland: "The presence in a business of that force which guides it to a predetermined objective by means of predetermined policies and decisions."

(8) R.C. Davis: He suggested that the ultimate objectives of controlling may be service to customers, but the immediate objectives of control are derived from the objective of the enterprise plan. They are to do chiefly with:

(a) assurance of correct forename, as specified by the plan;

(b) well coordinated action to accomplish the mission with a minimum of time, effort and expense; and

(c) a minimum of losses due to interference with the proper execution of plan.

(9) The Control is Always Forward Looking in Character: It has no concern with finding faults or punishment for the previous lapses. "The best control prevents deviation from occurring by anticipating that they will occur unless action is taken now."

(10) Koontz and O'Donnell: "No method can improve performance when the job has been accomplished. Control techniques should relate to future accomplishment."

Process of Controlling

The process of control involves three basic steps:

(1) the establishment of standards of measuring performance;

(2) the checking or appraising of performance against such standards; and

(3) the taking of corrective action.

The Types of Standards for Control

There are many types of standards which can be fixed for measuring performance, which include the following important ones:

(1) physical standards,

(2) cost standards,

(3) revenue standards,

(4) capital standards, and

(5) intangible standards.

The basic processes involved in an information service are as under:

(a) the collection of data;

(b) the storage of the data;

(c) the processing of such data; and

(d) the transmission of information.

Reporting for Control and Type of Reports

Many types of reports are used to give the information or data necessary for control purposes. There are different types of reports. One way is of dividing such reports into:

(1) oral reports, and

(2) written reports.

Reports can also be classified as:

(1) functional or divisional reports,

(2) investigational reports,

(3) control reports, and

(4) special reports.

The following reports are used by Kirloskar Cummins generally for control purposes:

(1) *Weekly Order Board:* This document records new orders, cancellations and shipments during the week and provides tally comparing percentage achievement of goal with percentage year out.

(2) *Weekly Financial Report:* The figures in the Order Book are then translated into financial results, i.e., gross and net sales and profits are indicated in this document.

(3) *Monthly Financial Report:* The weekly financial reports are then consolidated into the monthly financial report. Detailed explanations of the difference between the estimated results and the actual closing figures are also stated in this report.

(4) *Financial and Statistical Reports (Quarterly):* Finally, this report covers a portion of the period of the fiscal years, being in the form of a detailed report for the Board of Directors' meeting.

"In this way, a tight control is kept and the financial position is known weekly regarding sales, shipments, etc., which are compared with the budgetary estimates."

Control Data and Reports at IOC

Quarterly control data is provided to management under the Management Accounting System of IOC giving information on the following, namely:

(1) the profitability for each line of product marketed by the Corporation;

(2) the actual revenue expenditure incurred vis-à-vis the budget in respect of each function, each Department, each Stock Point and Administrative Office; and

(3) a reconciliation of the profitability with the norms prescribed under the pricing formula highlighting the various losses suffered and the income earned.

Types of Reporting

Three types of reports are generally supplied to management in the prescribed proforma. These are:

(1) the Sales Report, submitted monthly;

(2) the Operating Report, indicating function-wise cost performance, given quarterly; and

(3) the Profitable Report, supplied quarterly.

Main Features

(1) Controlling is an indispensable managerial function.

(2) It is continuing activity right from the beginning till the accomplishment of the predetermined goals.

(3) It is forward-looking and controls the future activities.

(4) It is in accordance to the enterprise plans.

(5) It is objective-based and not employee-based.

The Main Areas of Controlling

(1) policies;

(2) organisation;

(3) capital;

(4) personnel;

(5) production;

(6) wages;

(7) cost;

(8) public relations;

(9) research and development;

(10) material and tools; and

(11) overall control.

Effective Controlling

(1) *Adequate Planning:* Planning is the means by which standards of performance are established. Effective control must be preceded by adequate and complete planning of objectives, policies, procedures and methods.

(2) *Control must be Forward Looking in Character:* Control techniques are useless unless they relate to future accomplishment or at most the present one. No method can improve performance when it has been completed.

(3) *Control Devices must be Simple:* A device which is not intelligible cannot be practised.

(4) *Economy is another Factor which must be Cared for:* Expenditure on control must be worth its results in efficiency.

(5) *Control Devices must be Flexible:* Control is not an end in itself. The control systems should be able to adjust itself to changing circumstances. It should be able to modify planning and organisation, if need be.

(6) Sufficient authority should be vested in those who are to exercise effective control and take corrective measures.

According to Koontz and O'Donnell, the basic control process, wherever it is found and whatever it controls, involves three steps.

(1) establishing standards,

(2) measuring performance against these standards, and

(3) correcting deviations from standards and plans.

It has been pointed out that standards are the predeter-mined criteria for judging or measuring performance. They are laid down by planning. But establishment of the specific performance standards is the control process of translating the enterprise goals into definite measurable outcomes. These standards are usually quantifies for various facts of organisation performance. These standards may be quantity standard which attempt to determine the expected production, sales and the number of the workers, or it may be specifying the money to be spent on production called cost standard.

The standards must be appropriate to the purpose and may take various forms. They may be in physical terms such as number of units per man-hour or per operative. They may be inventory terms, such as, cost of production per unit. However, in the case of intangible items such as, training programme or an advertising campaign, it is difficult to measures performance objective.

It may be noted that William Travers Jerome has suggested the following important types of managerial control in his book *Executive Control – The Catalyst* (quoted by Satya S. Chatterjee):

(1) Control used to standardise performance for increasing efficiency and reduction costs by way of time and motion studios, inspections, written procedures or work schedules.

(2) Controls used to conserve company assets through allocation of responsibilities, separation of operational, custodial and accounting activities and adoption of proper authorisation and record keeping.

(3) Control used to standardise quality by way of inspection, statistical quality control and product specifications.

(4) Control used for providing free limits to the use of delegated authority without further top management approval. Instruments for these controls include organisation and procedure manuals, policy directives and internal audits.

(5) Control need to measure on-the-job performance by way of special reports, internal audits, budgets, standard costs, and output per hour or per employee.

(6) Controls used for planning future operations through sales and production forecasts, budgets, cost standards and other standards for measurement.

(7) Controls used to permit top management for keeping various plans and programmes in balance through master budget, policy manual, organisation manual and the use of coordinating committees and management consultants.

Important Techniques

(1) Cost Control;

(2) Budgetary Control;

(3) Management Accounting;

(4) Production Control;

(5) Quality Control.

Authors of *Essentials of Management* have opined as under:

(1) Some Managers: Particularly at lower levels, forget that the primary responsibility for the exercise of control rests in every manager changed with the, execution of plans. Occasionally, because of the authority of upper-level managers and their resultant responsibility, top-and upper-level control is so emphasised that people assume that little controlling is needed at lower levels. Although the scope of

control, varies among managers, those at all levels have responsibility for the execution of plans, and control is, therefore, an essential managerial function at every level.

(2) The Basic Control Process: Control techniques system are essentially the same for cash, office procedures, morale, product quality, or anything else. The basic control process, wherever it is found and whatever is being controlled, involves three step; (i) establishing standards, (ii) measuring performance against these standards, and (iii) correcting variations from standards and plans.

(3) Establishment of Standards: Because plans are the yardsticks against which managers devise controls, the first step in the control process logically would be to establish plans. However, since plans vary in detail and complexity and since managers cannot usually watch everything, special standards are established. Standards are by definition simply criteria of performance. They are the selected points in an entire planning programme at which measures of performance are made so as to give managers singles as to how things are going without their having to watch every step in the execution of plans.

(4) Measurement of Performance: Although, such measurement is not always practicable, the measurement of performance against standards should ideally be on a forward-looking basis so that deviations may be detected in advance of their occurrence and avoided by appropriate actions. The alert, forward-looking manager can sometimes predict probable departures from standards. In the absence of such ability, however, deviations should be disclosed as early as possible.

If standards are appropriately drawn and if means are available for determining exactly what subordinates are doing, appraisal of actual or expected performance is fairly easy. But, there are many activities for which it is difficult to develop accurate standards, and there are many activities that are hard to measure. It may be quite simple to establish labour-hour standards for the production of a mass-produced item, and it may be equally simple to measure performance against these standards, but if the items is custom-made, the appraisal of performance may be a formidable task because standards are difficult to set.

(5) Correction of Deviations: If standards are drawn to reflect the various positions

in an organisation structure and if performance is measured in these terms, it is easier to correct deviations, since the manager than knows exactly where, in the assignment of individual or group duties, the corrective measures must be applied.

Correction of deviations is the point at which control can be seen as a part of the whole system of management and can be related to the other managerial functions, Managers may correct deviations by redrawing their plans or by modifying their goals. (This is an exercise of the principle of navigational change.) Or, they may correct deviations by exercising their organisating function through reassignment or classification of duties. They may correct, also by additional staffing, by better selection and training of subordinates, or by that ultimate restaffing measure – firing. Or, again, they may correct through better leading – fuller explanation of the job or more effective leadership techniques.

(6) Types of Critical-Point Standards: Every objective, every goal of the many planning programmes, every activity of these programmes, every policy, every procedure, and every budget become standards against which actual or expected performance might be measured. In practice, however, standards tend to be of the following types:

(i) ***Physical Standards:*** Physical standards are non-monetary measurements and are common at the operating level where materials are used, labour is employed, service are rendered, and goods are produced. They may reflect quantities such as, labour-hour per unit of output, pounds of fuel per horsepower produced, ton-miles of freight traffic carried units of production per machine-hour, or feet or wire per ton of copper. Physical standards may also reflect quality, such as, hardness of bearings, closeness of tolerances, rate of climb of an airplane durability of a fabric, or fastness of a colour.

(ii) ***Cost Standards:*** Cost standards are monetary measurement, and, like physical standards, are common at the operating level. They attach monetary values to the costs of operations. Illustrative of cost standards are such widely used measures as direct and indirect cost per unit produced, labour cost per unit or per hour, material cost per unit, machine hour costs, costs per plane reservations, selling costs per dollar or unit of sales, and costs per foot of oil-well drilled.

(iii) ***Capital Standards:*** There are a variety of capital standards, all arising from the application of monetary measurements to physical items. They have to do with the capital invested in the firm rather than with operating costs and are therefore, related to the balance sheet rather than to the income statement. Perhaps the most widely used standard for new investment, as well as for overall control, is return on investment. The typical balance sheet will disclose other capital standards, such as ratios of current assets to current liabilities, debt to networth, fixed investment to total investment, cash and receivables to payable, and notes or bonds to stock, and the size and turnover of inventories.

(iv) ***Revenue Standards:*** Revenue standards arise from attaching monetary values to sales. They may include such standards as revenue per bus passenger-mile, average sale per customer, or sales per capita in a given market area.

(v) ***Programme Standards:*** A manager may be assigned to instal a variable budget programme, a programme for formally following the development of new products, or a programme for improving the quality of a sales force. Although some subjective judgement may have to be applied in appraising programme performance, timing and other factors can be used as objective standards.

(vi) ***Intangible Standards:*** More difficult to set are standards not expressed in either physical or monetary measurements. What standard can managers use for determining the competence of the divisional purchasing agent or personnel director? What can one use for determining whether the advertising programme meets both short-and-long objectives? Or whether the public relation programme is successful? Are supervisors loyal to the company's objective? Is the office staff alert? Such questions show the difficulty of establishing standards for goals that cannot be given clear quantative or qualitative measurement.

(vii) ***Goals as Standards:*** With the present tendency for better-managed enterprises to establish an entire network of verifiable qualitative goals at every level of management, the use of intangible standards, while still important, is diminishing. In complex operations as well as in the performance of managers themselves, modern managers are finding that through research and thinking, it is possible to define goals

that can be used as performance standards. While the quantitative goals are likely to take the form of the standard outlined above, definition of qualitative goals represents a new development in the area of standards.

(7) **Control as a Feedback System:** Managerial control is essentially the same basic process as is found in physical, biological, and social systems. The steam engine governor is a simple mechanical feedback system; in other words, it is a system of feedback of information for control. In order to control an engine's speed under different load conditions weights (balls) are whirled. As the speed increases, centrifugal force makes these weights exercise and outward thrust, which force in tam transmits a message to cut down the input of steam and thereby reduce the speed.

(8) In the case of quality control, for example, it may take considerable time to discover, what is causing factory rejects and more time to put corrective measures into effect. In the more complex task of inventory control, particularly in a manufacturing company where there are many items—raw materials, component parts, goods in process, and finished goods—the correction time may be very long. Once it is learned that an inventory is too high the steps to get it back to the desired level may take a number of months. And so, it goes with most instances of management control problems; time lags are unavoidable.

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Power Distribution in Management

Delegation

Definitions and Meaning

(1) Prof. Theo Hainemann: "Delegation of authority merely means the granting of authority to subordinates to operate within prescribed limits."

(2) L.A. Allen: "Delegation is the dynamics of management, it is the process a manager follows in dividing the work assigned to him so that he performs that part which only he, because of his unique organisational placement, can perform and so that he can effectively get others to help him what remains."

(3) MacFarland: "Delegation is that part of the organising process by which an executive, an administrator or a manager makes it possible for others to share the work of carrying out of company's purpose. It also includes the process of assigning duties, responsibilities and authority to those to whom he expects to aid him in doing the work."

(4) Koontz and O'Donnell: "Authority is delegated when enterprise discretion is vested in subordinate by a supervisor."

(5) R.C. Davis: "The process of delegation is one whereby certain of the executive's functions, responsibilities and authorities are released to some subordinates."

On the basis of the above definitions, the following four elements of authority may be given:

(1) application of authority;

(2) work on the basis of authority;

(3) influencing the subordinates; and

(4) providing effective leadership.

The following authors have defined 'responsibility' as:

(1) George R. Terry: "Responsibility is the obligation to carry out assigned activities to the best of his abilities."

(2) Koontz and O'Donnell: "Responsibility may be defined as the obligation of a subordinate, to whom a duty has been assigned, to perform the duty."

(3) R.C. Davis: "Responsibility is the obligation of the individual to perform assigned duties to best of his ability under the direction of his executive."

Decentralisation

On the matter of Decentralisation of Authority Koontz and O'Donnell have pointed that organisation authority is merely the discretion conferred on people to use their judgement to make decision and issue instructions. Decentralisation is the tendency to disperse decision-making authority in an organised structure. It is a fundamental aspect of delegation; to the extent that authority is not delegated, it is centralised. How much should authority be concentrated or dispersed through the organisation. There could be absolute centralisation of authority in one person but that implies on subordinate managers and therefore no structured organisation. Some decentralisation exists in all organisations. On the other hand, there cannot be absolute decentralisation, for if managers should delegate all their authority, their status as managers would cease, their position would be eliminated, and there would, again, be no organisation. Centralisation and decentralisation are tendencies, they are qualities, like 'hot' and 'cold'.

The Degree of Decentralisation is Greater

(1) The greater, the number of decisions made at lower levels of an organisation.

(2) The more important, the decision made at lower levels of an organisation. For example, the greater the amount of capital expenditure that the plant manager can approve without consulting any superior, the greater the degree of decentralisation.

(3) The more functions affected by decision made at lower levels of an organisation. Thus companies that permit only manufacturing decisions to be made at separate branch plants are less decentralised than those that also permit financial and personnel decisions to be made at branch plants.

(4) The less checking of a decision with others a manager must do. Decentralisation is greater when no check at all must be made; it is less when superiors have to be informed of the decision after it has been made; and it is still, if superiors have to be consulted before the decision is made. The fewer people to be consulted, and the lower they are in the management hierarchy, the greater the degree of decentralisation.

Centralisation has been used to describe tendencies other than the dispersal of authority, such as, centralisation of performance. This is a problem of geography; a business characterised by centralised performance operates in a single location or under a single roof. Centralisation often refers, furthermore, to departmental activities, service divisions, centralise similar or specialised activities in a single department. But when centralisation is discussed as an aspect of management, it refers to the tendency of management to restrict delegation of decision making in an organisation structure, usually holding authority, at or near the top of the organisation structure.

Decentralisation Implies more than Delegation

It reflects a philosophy of organisation and management. It requires careful selection of which decision to push down into the organisation structure and which to hold near the top, specific policy making to guide the decision making, proper selection and training of people, and adequate controls. A policy of decentralisation affects all areas of management and can be looked upon as an essential element of a managerial system. In fact, without it, managers could not use their discretion to hand e the ever-changing situations they face.

Delegation of Authority

As simple as delegation of authority appears to be, studies have shown that many managers fail because of poor delegation. For anyone going into any kind of organisation, it is worthwhile to study the science and art of delegation.

The primary purpose of delegation is to make organisation possible. Just as, no one person in an enterprise can do all tasks necessary for accomplishing a group purpose, so it is impossible, as an enterprise grows, for one person to exercise all the authority for making decisions. There is a limit to the number of persons managers can effectively supervise and for whom they can make decision. Once this limit has been passed, authority must be delegated to subordinates, who will make decision within the area of their assigned duties.

How Authority is Delegated

Authority is delegated when a superior gives a subordinate discretion to make decision. Clearly, superiors cannot delegate authority they do not have, whether they are board members, presidents, vice-presidents, or supervisors. Nor can superiors delegate all their authority without, in effect, passing on their position to their subordinates.

The process of delegation involves:

(1) Determination of results expected from a position.

(2) Assignment of tasks to a position.

(3) Delegation of authority for accomplishing these tasks.

(4) The holding of people in positions responsible for accomplishment of task.

In practice, it is impossible to split this process, since expecting a person to accomplish goals without the authority to achieve them is unfair, as is the delegation of authority without knowing for what end results it will be used. Moreover, since his or her responsibility cannot be delegated, a boss has no practical alternative but to hold subordinates responsible for completing their assignments.

Delegation of authority can be specific or general, written or unwritten. If the

delegation is unclear, a manager may not understand the nature of the duties or the results expected. The job assignment of a company controller, for example, may specify such functions as accounting, credit control, cash control, financing, export-licence handling, a preparation of financial statistics, and these board functions may, even be broken down into more definite duties. Or a controller may be told merely that he or she is expected to do what controllers generally do.

Specific written delegation of authority are extremely helpful both to the manager who receives them and to the person who delegates. The latter will more easily see conflicts or overlaps with other positions and will also be better able to identify those things for which a subordinate can and should be held responsible.

One top executive claims he never delegates authority but merely tells his subordinate managers to take charge of a department or plant and then holds them responsible for doing so. This particular executive is actually making an extremely broad delegation – that of full discretion to operate as the subordinates see fit. However, in too many cases where such nonspecific delegations are made, subordinates are forced to feel their way and by testing what the superior will permit – define authority delegation by trial and error. Unless, they are very familiar with top company policies and traditions, know the personality of the boss, and exercise sound judgement, they may be placed at a disadvantage. An executive will do well to balance the costs of uncertainty against the effort to make the delegation specific.

Effective Delegations

It has been pointed out that:

(1) In case of organisational departments the delegation of authority is required by managers who are charged with their respective responsibilities. In this sense, the chief executive or the managing director would perhaps be the only management member of an organisation without delegation of authority. Even his power or authority actually in a sense emanates from the shareholders and the institutional framework. Delegation of authority helps the executive to extend his area of operations as without delegation the activity of the

executive must necessarily be confined to what he himself can do. However, delegation does not mean a surrendering or giving away of authority. Delegation does not relieve the manager of his overall accountability.

(2) The delegation of authority takes place when organisational power is given to a subordinate by a superior. A manager cannot delegate authority which he himself does not possess. The entire process of delegation of authority starts with an assigning of the tasks. This is followed by delegation of the authority required for accomplishing these tasks and demanding responsibility for their accomplishment. This delegation process cannot be divided as an assignment of a task without the authority required to accomplish it.

(3) Therefore, the delegation process consists of three facts, namely:

(a) an assignment of the task or duty creating an obligation or responsibility;

(b) a granting of the necessary authority, approval, right of power; and

(c) the creation of accountability for failure to perform the task so assigned.

Principles of Delegation

According to the authors of *Essentials of Management,* the principles of organisational delegation are as under:

(1) Principle of Delegation by Results Expected: Since authority is intended to furnish managers with a tool for managing so as to ensure that objectives are achieved, authority delegated to all individual managers should be associate to ensure their ability to accomplish results expected. Too many managers try to partition and define authority, on the basis of the right to be delegated or withheld, rather than looking first at the goals to be achieved and then determining how much discretion is necessary to achieve them. In other way, can a manager delegate authority in accordance with the responsibility exacted.

(2) Principle of Functional Definition: In order to set up departments, executives must group activities to facilitate accomplishment of goals, and managers of each subdivision must have authority to coordinate subdivision activities with those of the

organisation as a whole. These requirements give rise to the principle of functional definition. The more a position of a department has clear definitions of results expected activities to be undertaken, organisation authority delegated, and authority and informational relationships with other positions, the more adequately the responsible individuals can contribute toward accomplishing enterprise objectives. To ignore this principle is to risk confusion as to, what is expected of whom. This principle which involves both delegation and departmentation although simple, is often difficult to apply. To define a job and delegate authority to do it requires, in most cases, patience, intelligence, and clear objectives and plans. It is obviously difficult to define a job if the superior does not known what results are required.

(3) Scalar Principle: The scalar principle refers to the chain of direct authority relationships from superiors to subordinates throughout the organisation. The clearer the line of authority from the ultimate management position in an enterprise to every subordinate position, the clearer will be the responsibility for decision making and the more effective organisation communication will be.

A clear understanding of the scalar principle is necessary for proper organisation functioning because subordinates must know, who delegates authority to them and to whom matters beyond their own authority must be referred. Although, the chain of command may be safely detoured for purpose of obtaining information, departure for purposes of decision making tends to destroy the decision making systems and, by doing so, to undermine managership itself.

(4) Authority-level Principle: Functional definition plus the scalar principle gives rise to the authority level principle. Clearly, at some organisation level, authority exists for making a decision within an organisation's power. Maintenance of intended delegation requires that decisions within the authority of individuals be made by them and not be referred upward in the organisations structure. In other words, managers at each level should make whatever decisions are within their delegated authority, and only matters that they cannot decide because of limitations on their authority should be referred to superiors.

(5) Principle of Unity of Command: A basic management principle is the principle

of unity of command. The more complete an individual's reporting relationship to a single superior, the less the problems of conflicting instructions and the greater the feeling of personal responsibility for results. In discussing delegation of authority, it has been assumed that the power of exercising discretion over a particular activity will flow from a single superior to a subordinate. Although, it is possible for a subordinate to receive authority from two or more superiors and, therefore, to be held responsible by them, the practical difficulties of serving two or more masters are obvious. An obligation is essentially personal, and authority delegation by more than one person to an individual is likely to result in conflicts in both authority and responsibility.

(6) Principle of Absoluteness of Responsibility: Since responsibility being an obligation owed, cannot be delegated, no superior can escape, through delegation, responsibility for the activities, of subordinates, for it is the superior, who had delegated authority and assigned duties. The responsibility of subordinates to their superiors for performance is absolute, once they have accepted an assignment and the right to carry it out, and superiors cannot escape responsibility for the organisation activities of their subordinate. The terms 'responsibility' and 'accountability' are often used interchangeably. Strictly speaking, as the military agencies are well aware, accountability is used to denote a special kind of responsibility. In the military, an officer is said to be, 'accountable' for material and equipment but 'responsible' for the actions of troops reporting to him or her.

(7) Principle of Parity of Authority and Responsibility: Since authority is the discretionary right to carry out assignments and responsibility is the obligation to accomplish them, it logically follows that the amount of authority should correspond to the amount of responsibility. From this rather obvious logic is derived the principle that the responsibility for actions cannot be greater than that implied by authority delegated, nor should it be less. The president of a firm may, for example, assign duties, such as buying raw materials and machine tools and hiring subordinates in order to meet certain goals, to the manufacturing vice-president. The vice-president will be unable to perform these duties unless given enough discretion to meet this responsibility.

Weak Delegation

The guidelines for weak delegation are as under:

(1) *Define Assignment and Delegate Authority* in the light of results expected; or, to put it another way, grant sufficient authority to make possible the accomplish-ment of goal assignments.

(2) *Select the Person in the Light of the Job to be Done:* Although the good organiser will approach delegation primarily from the standpoint of the task to be accomplished, in the final analysis, staffing as a part of the total systems of delegation cannot be ignored.

(3) *Maintain Open Lines of Communication:* Since the superior does not deligate, all authority or adequate responsibility and since managerial independence therefore, does not exist decentralisation should not lead to insulation. There should be a free flow of information between superior and subordinate, furnishing subordinates information with which to make decisions and to interpret properly authority delegated. Delegations, then, do depend on situation.

(4) *Establish Proper Controls:* Because no manager can relinquish responsibility, delegations should be accompanied by techniques to make sure the authority is properly used. But, if controls are not to interfere with delegations, they must be relatively broad and designed to show deviations from plans rather than interfere with routine actions of subordinates.

(5) *Reward Effective Delegation and Successful Assumption of Authority:* Managers should be ever-watchful for means of rewarding both effective delegation and effective assumption of authority. Although many of these rewards will be monetary, the granting of greater discretion and prestige—both a given position and by promotion to a higher position—is often even more of an incentive.

Advantages of Decentralisation

According to a reputed Indian author, decentralisation:

(1) Relieves Higher Executives: A decentralised organisation structure requires delegation of authority which relieves the top managers of their routine work. This is an answer to the problems of expanding the size of a business. Top executives can concentrate more on important decision relating to planning for the future whilst delegating the operating decision to self-contained unit with competent managers.

(2) Facilitates Managerial Development: It encourages the development of generalists, facilitating succession in to the position of general managers. Expansion of business requires the production of the generalist type of managers who can co-ordinate the several activities and perform the managerial function of planning, organising, staffing, motivating and controlling.

(3) Facilities Control: The profit centre concept can be used for controlling divisional operations by measuring performance against the standards of profits generated by such divisions.

The divisional manager's efficiency can be evaluated in terms of the returns on investment concept. In this way, competition can be fostered among the divisions.

(4) Encourages Greater Efficiency: The competitive atmosphere, included by the profit centre concept increases the efficiency of the divisions. Besides, trouble spots can be located and remedied more easily, which also results in an increase of efficiency.

Degree of Decentralisation: Some Factors

Factors for degree of decentralisation in an organisation are as under:

(1) Costliness of the Decision: Perhaps the overriding factor determining the extent to decentralisation, is, as in other aspects of policy, costliness. As a general rule, the more costly the action to be decided on, the more probable it is that the decision will be made at the upper levels of management. Cost may be reckoned directly in rupees and paise or in such intangibles as the company's reputation, its competitive position, or employee morale. Thus, an airline decision to purchase desks may be made in the second or third echelon of an operating department quality control in drug manufacturing, where a mistake might end lives, to say nothing of the company's

reputation, would normally report at a high level. While the quality, inspection in toy manufacturing might report much lower.

(2) Desire for Uniformity of Policy: Those who value consistency above all invariably favour centralised authority, since this is the easiest road to such a goal. They may wish to ensure that customers will be treated alike with respect to quality, price, credit delivery, and service, that the same policies will be followed in dealing with suppliers, or that public relations will be standardised.

(3) Size of the Organisation: The large the organisation, the more decision to be made and the more places in which they must be made, the more difficult it is to coordinate them. These complexities of organisation may require policy questions to be passed up the line and discussed not only with many managers in the chain of command but also with many managers at each level, since horizontal agreement may be as necessary as vertical clearance.

(4) Desire of Independence: Individuals and groups often desire a degree of independence from bosses who are far away. It is not at all unusual for West Coast divisions or subsidiaries of companies headquartered in New York to feel somewhat hostile toward directives coming from headquarters managers who are believed not to know West Coast conditions. For example, the American Telephone and Telegraph Corporation, headquartered in New York, has found it difficult at times to control the actions of its subsidiary, the Pacific Telephone and Telegraph Corporation.

Individuals may become frustrated by delay in getting decision, by long lines of communciation, and by the great game of passing the buck. This frustration can lead to dangerous loss of good people, to jockeying by the office politician, and an attitude, of "not rocking the boat by the less competent seeker of security."

(5) Availability of Managers: A real shortage of managers would limit decentralisation of authority, since in order to delegate, superiors must have qualifies managers to whom to give authority. But too often the scarcity of good managers is used as a excuse for centralising authority, executives who complain that they have no one to whom they can delegate authority, are often trying to magnify their own value to the firm or are confessing a failure to develop subordinates.

(6) Control Techniques: Another factor affecting the degree of decentralisation is the state of development of control techniques. A good manager at any level of the organisation cannot delegate authority without having some way of knowing whether it will be used properly. Because some managers do not know how to control, they are unwilling to delegate authority. They may think that it take more, time to correct a mistake than to do the job themselves.

(7) Decentralised Performance: 'Decentralised performance' refers to the situation when the operators of a company or other organisation are spread over a geographic area. This is basically a technical matter depending upon such factors as the economies of division of labour, the opportunities for using machines, the nature of the work to be performed (railroad has no choice but to spread its performance), and the location or raw materials, labour supply, and consumers. This geographic decentralisation influences the centralisation of authority.

(8) Business Dynamics—The Pace of Change: 'The pace of Change' of an enterprise also affects the degree to which authority may be decentralised. If a business is growing fast and facing complex problems of expansion, its managers, particularly those responsible for top policy, may be forced to make large decisions. But, strangely enough this very dynamic condition may force these managers to delegate authority and take a calculated risk on the costs of error. Generally, this dilemma is resolved in the direction of delegation, and, in order to avoid delegation to untrained subordinates, close attention is given to rapid formation of policies and the acceleration of training in management. An alternative often adopted is to slow the rate of change.

(9) Environmental Influences: The factors determining the extent of decentralisation that we have dealt with so far are allergy factors within the enterprise. However, the economics of decentralisation of performance and the character of change include elements well beyond the control of an enterprise's managers. In addition, there are definite external forces affecting the extent of decentralisation. Among the most important of them are governmental control, national unionism, and tax policies.

Distribution of Work

(1) It encourages specialisation and increases productivity consequently (as

grouping is done according to function, proper job descriptions provided and persons selected in terms of requirements of the job, socialisation is encouraged, which is likely to result in greater efficiency of the operations).

(2) It is likely to result in increased productivity through avoidance of duplication. Duplication of activities, and consequent confusion as well as wasted effort are likely to be removed through adequate organising and pinning down of responsibilities.

(3) It fosters coordination by supplying the framework for holding together the various functions in an orderly pattern and logical arrangement.

(4) It aids expansion and growth of the enterprise. The giant organisations that we see today, are a result of ability to organise. Adequate organisational planning and development of managers can alone provide smooth expansion and avoidance of problems caused by rapid growth of an enterprise.

Organisation and Departmentation

Koontz and O'Donnell define a department as designating—"a distinct area, division, or branch of an enterprise over which a manager has authority for the performance of specified activities." These activities require money or sufficient capital or finance. Thus, for every organisation or enterprise there are three fundamental activities of functions to be performed, namely, (1) production, (2) marketing and (3) finance. Thus, functional departmentation consists of grouping of common activities to form an organisational unit. In short, units formed around common functions. The term functional departmentation is often used at the higher organisational levels. In addition to the functional departmentation on the basis of production, marketing and finance, it is possible to attempt departmentation in different ways such as by product, by territory, customers, process and by task-force. Top management is at liberty to use any means of departmentation while forming an organisation structure.

On basics of departmentation, Koontz and O'Donnell have opined thus:

(1) The limitation on the number of subordinates that can be directly managed would restrict the size of enterprise if it were for the device of departmentation.

Grouping activities and people into departments makes it possible to expand organisations to an indefinite degree. Departments, however, differ with respect to the basic patterns used to group activities. We will deal with the nature of these patterns, developed out of logic and practice, and their relative merits in the following sections.

(2) The simple-numbers method of departmentalising is achieved by telling off persons who are to perform the same duties and putting them under a manager. It is, what Moses did in organising his large group. The essential fact is not what these people do, where they work, or what they work within, but that the success of the undertaking depends only upon the number of people involved in it.

(3) Even though a quick examination may impress an investigator with the number of people departmentalised on a human resource basis, the usefulness of this organisational device has declined with each passing century. For one thing, technology has advanced, demanding more specialised and different skills. In the United States, the last stronghold of common labour was agriculture, and even here it is restricted more and more to the harvesting of fewer and fewer crops as farming operation become larger and more specialised.

(4) A second reason for the decline of departmentalising purely by number in that group compose of socialised personnel are frequently more efficient than those based on mere numbers. The recognition of the defence forces of the United States on this basis is a case in point. Many ways have been found to combine people skilled in the use of different types of weapons into single units, For example, the addition of artillery and tactical air support to the traditional infantry division makes it a much more formidable fighting unit than if each were organised separately.

(5) A third and long-standing reason for the decline of departmentation by numbers is that it is useful only at the lowest level of the organisation structure. As soon as any other factor besides pure human power becomes important, the simple-numbers basis of departmentation fails to produce good results.

(6) One of the oldest forms of departmentation, generally used at lower levels of the organisation, is to group activities on the basis of time. The use of shift is common in many enterprises where for economic, technological, or other reasons the normal workday will not suffice. Examples of this kind of departmentation can be found in hospitals where around-the-clock patient care is essential. Similarly, the fire department has to ready to respond to emergencies at any time. But there are also technological reasons for the use of shifts. A steel furnace, for example, cannot be started and turned off at will. Instead, the process of making steel is continuous and requires workers to work in three shifts.

(7) The simplest and the commonest type of departmentation is the functional type of structure which consists of grouping all similar activities of the business into major departments or division under an executive reporting to the chief executive such as the managing director. The activities are here grouped on the basis of functions to be performed like in marketing into product planning, marketing research, advertising and sales. This is the simplest and the most common type of organisation structure. Below the Managing Director, are four managers in charge of separate functions, namely, finance, marketing, production and personnel. In the marketing set-up, under the marketing manager, separate managers are delegated functions such as marketing research, product planning, sales, advertising, and sales promotion. In this way, similar activities are grouped together into major departments and placed under an executive who reports to the higher executive.

(8) The grouping of activities in accordance with the functions of an enterprise—functional departmentation—embodies what enterprises typically do. Since all enterprises undertake the creation of something useful and desired by others, the basic enterprise functions are production (creating utility or adding utility to a good or service), selling (finding customers, patients, clients, students, or members who will agree to accept the good or service at a price or for a cost), and finance raising and collecting, safeguarding, and expending the funds of the enterprise). It has been logical to group these

activities into such departments as engineering, production, sales or marketing, and finance.

Often these particular terms do not appear in the organisation chart. First, there is no generally accepted terminology: manufacturing enterprises employ the terms 'production', 'sales' and 'finance'. A wholesaler is concerned with such activities as 'buying', 'selling' and 'finance', a railroad is involved with 'operations', 'traffic' and 'finance.'

A second reason for variance of terms is that basic activities often differ in importance; hospital have no selling departments; churches, no production departments. This does not mean that these activities are not undertaken, but merely that they are unspecialised or of such minor importance that they are combined with other activities.

A third reason for the absence of sales, production, or finance departments on many organisation charts is that other methods of departmentation may have been deliberately selected. Those responsible for the enterprise may decide to organise on the basis of product, customer, territory, or marketing channel (the way foods or services reach the user). Functional departmentation is the most widely employed basis for organising activities and is present in almost every enterprise at some level in the organisation structure.

(9) It has been pointed out that departmentation or structure is quite suitable for small and medium-sized businesses where the chief executive can easily coordinate his functional specialists. A high degree of centralisation at the managing director level is thus generated by this type of structure. However, as the organisation grows, this type of structure, or departmentation will become inadequate and will have to be replaced by a more suitable one. The advantages of this type of structure are:

(a) benefits of occupational specialisation;

(b) easier inter-departmental coordination; and

(c) logical and simple, easy-to-understand structure.

The disadvantages of the functional departmentation include:

(a) excessive centralisation;

(b) unsuitability where geographical centralisation is required.

(10) Departmentation based on territory is rather common in enterprises that operate over wide geographic areas. In this case, it may be important that activities in a given area or territory should be grouped and assigned to a manager.

(11) Territorial departmentation is especially attractive to large-scale firms or other enterprises whose activities are physically or geographically spread. However, a plant may be local in its activities and still assign the personnel in its security department on a territorial basis, placing two guards, for example, at each of the south and west gates. Department stores assign floor walkers on this basis, and it is a common way to assign janitors, window washes, and the like. Business firms resort to this method when similar operations are undertaken in different geographic areas, as in automobile assembly, chain retailing and wholesaling, and oil refining. Many government agencies—the Internal Revenue Services, the Federal Reserve Board, the Federal Courts, and the Postal Service, among other—adopt this basis of organisation in their efforts to provide like services simultaneously across the nation. Territorial departmentation is most often used in sales and in production; it is not used in finance, which is usually concentrated at the headquarters.

(12) The grouping of activities on the basis of product or product lines has long been growing in importance in multilane, large-scale enterprises. It can be seen as an evolutionary process. Typically, companies and other enterprise adopting this form were organised by enterprise functions. With the growth of the firm, production managers, sales and service managers, and engineering executives encountered problems of size. The managerial job become complex and the span of management limited their ability to increase the number of immediate subordinate managers. At this point, reorganisation on *e* product division basis become necessary. This structure permits top management to

delegate to a division executive extensive authority over the manufacturing, sales, service, and engineering functions that relate to a given product or product line and to exact a considerable degree of profit responsibility from each of these managers.

Product or product line is an important basis for departmentation because it facilitates the use of specialised capital, facilitates a certain type of coordination, and permits the maximum use of personal skills and specialised knowledge. For example, the sales effort of a particular person may be most effective when confined to lubricants, or conveyors, or power plants, each of which is best sold by the expert thoroughly familiar with the product. Where the potential volume of business is high enough to fully employ such sales people, the advantages of product determination are significant.

This basis for grouping activities may help in using highly specialised machinery, equipment, or building. If production of an item, or closely-related items is sufficiently large to employ full specialised facilities, strong pressure may be felt for product departmentation in order to realise economic advantages in manufacturing, assembly, or handling.

(13) The grouping of activities to reflect a primary interest in customers is common in a variety of enterprises. Customer are the key to the way activities are grouped when the different things an enterprise does for them are each managed by one department head. The industrial sales department of a wholesaler who also, sells to retailers is a case in point. Business owners and managers frequently arrange activities on this basis to cater to the requirements of clearly defined customer groups, and educational institutions offer regular and extension courses to serve different groups of students.

(14) Separate groups are designated as responsible for marketing programmes for these different classes of customers such as distributors, retailers and consumers.

The following are some of the advantages:

(a) It is very suitable where the major emphasis is placed on better service to specialised types of customers using the company's products or services.

(b) It is useful where a product or service of wide appeal is offered through many marketing channels and outlets.

The disadvantages include the following:

(a) There may not be enough work in case of certain types of customers which may result in certain salesmen remaining idle.

(b) There is the problem of coordinating departments formed on the customers-type basis with those organised on another basis.

(c) It may foster an unequal development of customer groups in times of expansions and disappearance of certain customers group in times of recession.

(d) It may generate the tendency to remain rigid, with the result that it may be difficult to adjust to problems in case there is a fluctuation in the enterprise activities.

(15) Newer forms of basic departmentation involve organising an enterprise around markets served or around marketing channels used. While both these approaches to departmentation are designed to emphasise marketing and make it more effective, there are some differences between them. Organising around marketing channels required making an organisation structure reflect the ways a company reaches an ultimate customers, whether through wholesale channels direct to grocery stores to direct to supermarkets, through channels designed to serve hardware stores, or through that reach drug stores. Market-centred organisation, on the other hand, groups activities to support marketing efforts in such key markets as hospitals, aerospace companies, computer operations, and brokerage firms.

Both approaches may sound like customer departmentation, and they are similar to it. However, the essential considerations in these market-oriented forms are the marketing channel.

The Purex Corporation, for example, found some years ago, when it moved from a functional to a divisional organisation, that neither product nor territorial departmentation patterns would work. Various soaps and detergents

moved to the ultimate customers through supermarkets as well as through drug store and drug chains. On investigating these channels, the company found that the ways of doing business, the kinds of buyers, and the methods of sales and promotion were so different in grocery markets and in drug chains and drug stores that it was wise to establish a grocery products division and a drug and toiletries division. While this may sound like product departmentation, it was not. The grocery product divisions manufactured the various soap and detergent items were marked through the drug and toiletries division.

The more purely market-centred approach to organising has grown in importance as business have become more market-oriented. Data processing operations of International Business Machines Cooperation have been organised around such key markets as super markets and hospitals. The Xerox Information Systems Group has organised around various copier markets. Hewlett Packard has organised sales and service around electrical manufacturing and aerospace marts. Other companies have taken similar steps. This means, of course, that organisational patterns must change in response to specific situations since it is the task of an organisation structure to help in making possible-the kind of performance desired.

(16) An interesting and increasingly used form of organisation is variously referred to as matrix or grid organisation or project or project management, although, as we will later see, pure project management need not imply a grid or matrix. The essence of matrix organisation normally is the combination of functional and product departmentation in the same organisation structure. Matrix organisation is an engineering department, there are functional managers in charge of engineering functions with an overlay of project managers responsible for the end product. While this form has been common in engineering and in research and development it has also been widely used, although seldom drawn as a matrix, in product marketing organisation.

As companies and customers have become increasingly interested in end results, that is, in the final product or completed project, there has been pressure

to establish responsibility for ensuring such end results. Of course, this could be accomplishment by organising along traditional product department lines. This is often done, even in engineering, where a project manager is put in charge of the engineering and support personnel necessary to accomplish as entire project.

(17) Matrix or project, organisation will gain greater emphasis in the future because of the rapidly changing environment with its many uncertainties. This kind of departmentation facilitates quick response to changes in the dynamic environment. Also, with increased emphasis in end results and goal accomplishment, there can hardly be any doubt that increasing use will be made of some form of matrix organisation, especially since it is often not possible to give a manager direct line authority over all the activities necessary to accomplish major end results. This trend also results from a recognition of the fact that programmes represent interacting network and systems.

But, if modern managers are to meet the challenge involved in matrix organisation and get the results desired, they must face up better than they have to the task of clarifying authority. As we noted earlier, good people may make an unclear structure work, but they can certainly work better where their roles, are clarified.

(18) It has been pointed out that huge corporations often combine the advantages of both the functional and the product divisional types of organisation. Where such a combination is maintained, the central office product manager would exercise his authority on the decentralised staff personnel indirectly through the division executive. A clear distinction has to be made between the line and functional authority. The divisional manager will have line authority over all executives who report to him and thus has the right and responsibility to develop sales policy and method. The functional specialists reports to the chief executive having no line authority but merely functional authority.

□□□

8

The Motivation

Motives and Frustrations

In many respects, the problems that we meet in life are even more important than our motives, because it is the problems that compel us to change our behaviour—that make us learn. The psychologist often refers to these problems as frustration, and to the tense feeling that arises when problems are encountered as a feeling of frustration. Figure 8.1 shows us the three general types of frustration that can block our motives.

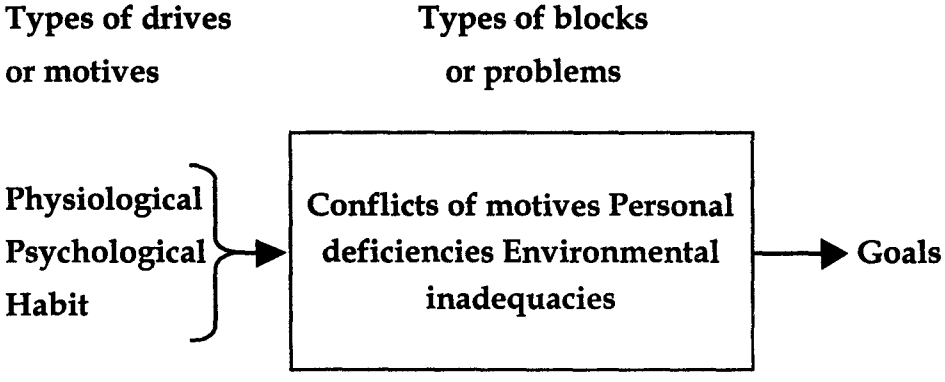

Fig. 8.1 The motivation and frustration in human behaviour

(i) Conflict between Motives: As you have often been told, "You cannot eat your cake and have it too." You have to resolve the conflict between two or more

motives. You want to save your money for future needs, but a new suit of clothes or an evening at a nightclub seems desirable too. You want to attend school during the summer to prepare yourself for a better position, but travel or a summer at a resort offers more opportunity for new experiences. The child in the classroom wants to win your approval, but he finds that in order to do so he must earn the disapproval of some of his fellow students.

(ii) Personal Deficiencies: Personal deficiencies make up a second general class of frustration. Because of insufficient size, strength, or agility, a child is unable to compete successfully with his fellows in rough-and-tumble play. Because of some lack of attractiveness, such as being too large or having a poor complexion, a girl is rejected by members of either her own or the opposite sex; because on insufficient intellectual ability, a child fails to attain success in the classroom; because he has suffered the loss of an arm or a leg, or is afflicted by muscular paralysis or some other disability, a child may lose security and self-esteem.

(iii) Environmental Inadequacies: Our third class of frustration includes those that arise from a deficiency in the environment. A sailor is unable to obtain fresh drinking water. An explorer cannot find enough game to live on. A boy cannot secure spending money or clothing that meets the standards set by his fellows. A girl is ashamed of her clothes, her home, or the neighbourhood in which she lives. Frequently the home, the school, and the peer group make social, intellectual, or emotional demands on the child that he is unable to meet. A personal defect that would be insignificant in one environment poses an insoluble problem in another. The race, nationality, and religion of the child become serious problem in one group and highly acceptable characteristic in another.

As long as we are able to satisfy our motives, we have no real need and are faced with no real problem. If we can eat when we are hungry, drink when we are thirsty, receive the praise of our fellows, feel secure in our job and family, and brush our teeth if we are in the habit of so doing, we are scarcely aware of the potential power of our motives.

But when we are unable to satisfy our motives immediately, our contentment vanishes and we become tense. Mentally or physically, we spring into motion. Motion

is typical of all animals in problem situations. We may learn to suppress physical motion by finding that mental activity is more likely to lead us to a solution of our problems, but the tendency to move remains with us. This tendency appears to arise from a heightened muscular tension that is typical of our behaviour whenever we encounter a problem that we cannot solve immediately. This type of reaction has had survival value through the long period of animal and human development. If our ancestors has felt contented ad released when they grew hungry, they would have starved and we would not have been born. If they had become sleepy when their motives were frustrated, they would have failed to avoid pain or to seek warmth. In short, the restlessness, aggression, and wakefulness that we experience when we are frustrated are natural responses, and, at least until recent times, have contributed to the preservation of the individual and the survival of the species.

As we move about in our search for a solution, our behaviour maybe based on trial and error, or it may progress through a planned series of attempts to investigate the various possibilities for solving the problem.

But we can plan and carry out an intelligent campaign only if the present obstacle resembles one that we have overcome in the past. Our physical tension mounts and our search for a solution becomes more random when we feel that we are faced with a problem that is really insurmountable. The tension may lead to digestive disturbances and to acts of aggression towards individuals or other objects in our environment. Problem-solving behaviour is a highly active process.

This pattern is typical of human behaviour. The problems that stand between us and the satisfaction of our needs compel us to search actively for solution. If a high-school girl feels that she needs a new party dress, she may be willing to take a job to earn extra money even though she has to sacrifice sleep and recreation. In the classroom, this same need for social approval may compel a child to a sacrifice play time so that he can keep up with his classmates in spelling or algebra.

Personality is shaped by the problems encountered and by the individual's solution to those problems. If the girl who felt the need for anew party dress had chosen instead to pinch money from her mothers purse, or if the schoolchild had copied from his neighbour's paper, and if these actions had resulted in general satisfaction,

each child would have taken a serious step toward developing an unsavoury personality. Thus motives are the life force, but the problems encountered shape life's course.

Fortunately, our civilisation forbids the use of physical force to compel children to learn. The teacher is not permitted to block physiological motives intentionally in order to force a child to master a mathematical problem or the parts of speech. Instead, we rely almost exclusively on psychological motives and on habit motives to encourage learning in the classroom.

And these are important motivational forces. The child needs the approval of both his teacher and his classmates. He wants to receive good marks to show to his parent and to convince himself of his own adequacy. By guiding and rewarding his curiosity, which is primarily a desire for new experiences, we can encourage him to move on from one valuable learning experience to another.

The habits of work and attention that we help the child to develop will carry him through many tasks for which he fells no immediate need. Once developed, correct habits of learning are perpetuated by two very strong forces: (1) the motivational value possessed by all habits and (2) the efficiency and ease of effort that they carry with them.

A general principle of behaviour is that the individual tends to eliminate unnecessary motion. As he practices a task, he becomes more efficient. For example, if a child attempts to find information in a book, he flounders about. But after he is taught to use the index, he goes directly to the proper place and finds what he wants. With practice, he forms the habit of using the index and, since this leads him most directly to his goal, he has an added reason for retaining his habit. We must consider this factor of efficiency when we seek to break habits that have become well established. If we have learned to operate the typewriter by the hunt-and-peck system, we are not likely to change to the more effective touch system without considerable motivation and instruction. To make a change would interfere with our existing habits would result, at least for a time, in a loss in efficiency. However, once we do make the change and grow competent under the new method, our efficiency supplements the force of our new habit to guarantee that we will maintain it. Thus, though it is difficult to

discard old habits of work and to adopt new ones, if we can once find better methods and practice them for a time, they will be retained.

Motives and Goals

In a sense, striving toward goals is nothing more than an attempt to satisfy motives that have been blocked by obstacles or problems. Once we have reached our goal, we tell ourselves, the tension created by our present failure to overcome our problems will be reduced.

The effort that we expend to achieve a given goal is determined by a number of factors, some of which are more powerful than the importance of the goal itself. We strive harder for a small satisfaction that we can attain now than for a much larger goal that we can attain only at the end of a long period of time. A dime held near to the eye appears to be larger than the sun; a small reward attainable now may loom larger, and many induce more effort, than a great reward that can be obtained only in the indefinite future. When we set out on a 20-mile hike, the thought of arriving at our destination hours later furnishes us with little immediate satisfaction. Instead, we pick out a tree or a hill a mile or so away and then watch as our footsteps make the distance dwindle.

And so the child strives far harder for a gold star or a word of praise that he can get this morning or this afternoon than he does for a Ph.D. that will not be with in his reach for twenty years. But notice that the higher his level of intellectual development, the longer he is willing to wait for rewards. The mature student is quite content to work for goals that are in the far-distant future. He is able to break his major goals down into the smaller steps of a book read, a paper completed, a few pages written, or a semester of study accomplished.

But immature students have not yet learned that the only way to reach important goals is by moving forward a step at a time. As a matter of fact, since their experience is so limited, they may not even be aware of the existence of distant goals. So one of your big jobs in working with these pupils is to break down the large but relatively unattainable goals of life into small, attainable goals. At the end of each small unit of accomplishment, you will want to provide opportunities for reward through a sense of accomplishment, through a satisfaction of curiosity, or through a felling of teacher

or group approval. The child cannot work for a mastery of arithmetic simply because he may need it when he becomes an engineer many years later. Each small step in the long-range plan must prove rewarding to his curiosity, his security, his self-esteem, his esteem in the eyes of others, or to some other motive.

Only by making sure that every unit of work will satisfy some need of every child, can we create a good learning situation. Pupils and more likely to strive toward vital goals when they themselves feel that the goals are important than when they are produced by a taskmaster.

When the school provides for the satisfaction of needs, pupil motivation soars to the same high level that exist in out-of-school, informal, child-directed learning situation. What is more, the learning is directed toward a planned end. To the values of out-of-school learning, we add adult assistance and planning, the facilitates of the library, well-lighted classrooms, and carefully chosen laboratory equipment.

But here is where our thinking about education so often goes astray. True—the tasks to be performed must fulfil a felt need of the child. But this alone is not enough. The tasks must also point toward definite and wisely chosen goals that posses social utility and that prepares the child to meet future problems of life. The school must be child-centred, but the child must be deserted by the teacher and the curriculum maker and left to chart his course unassisted. Since he cannot appreciate how great his future need will be for certain-skills and knowledge, he is entitled to the very best guidance that educational experts can offer him. It will be your duty, as a teacher, to see that the child's activity takes him in a desirable direction and at the same time fulfils needs that he feels at the moment. As you grow in experience, you will discover that goals with high social utility can be made as rewarding to the needs of the child as goals with little or not utility.

Levels of Aspiration

Different persons aspire to different levels of attainment. If we are to make an accurate estimate of how valuable a goal is to a specific child, we must think not only of how important it seems to us as adults, or of how soon the child can attain it, but also of how attractive it seems to the child. Goals that seem to us to have the same

apparent size and to be the same distance from attainment may differ greatly in attractiveness from child to child. One reason is that individual children have individual needs. Some children are most in need of security, others of self-esteem, and still others of new experiences. These needs arise from the life problems that the child is encountering at the moment and from the level of aspiration that has been determined by himself, his family, and his associates.

His race, his religion, his family, his teachers, and his friends have taught him what values to place on various goals. One family places a high value on scholarship and assumes that its children will do well in school and will enter a profession. A child from such a family will need high marks to maintain his security, self-esteem, and esteem in the eyes of others. Another family places a higher value upon material possessions and urges its children to get a good job as soon as possible. The members of a minority group who have had few educational and cultural opportunities may expect relatively little from their offspring, whereas the members of another group may expect a great deal. One religious group may place high value on conformity to moral codes; persons who do not belong to any religious group may emphasise the importance of attaining a large share of worldly goods. A child's friends may be interested in music, art, and books, or in baseball and fishing. All these and many other aspects of the child's experience and of his present environment help to determine how attractive various goals will seem to him.

If the child sets up goals that are in proportion to his abilities he will probably succeed in reaching them. But if his goals are so high and his abilities so low that his efforts are not rewarded, he will be forced either to set a lower goal for himself or to choose quite different goals—goals that may even be socially unacceptable.

You will want to help each pupil to set his levels of aspiration low enough to guarantee some measure of success as he strives toward them, yet high enough to produce enough frustration to call forth effort and to stimulate learning. The level of aspiration is one determinant or how much frustration he will encounter. Since we find little or no motivation without frustration, and since no learning occurs without both motivation and frustration, the level of aspiration must not be too low. On the other hand, if the goal seems unattainable, the child may be driven into despair,

unhappiness, random activity and aggression. Ideally, the goal should be attainable but high enough to be difficult. Such a goal fosters high motivation and stimulates the child to make logical exploratory efforts.

Each of us behaves with some degree of consistency and stability. Our individual pattern of behaviour is controlled by our habits, by our levels of aspiration, and by our past experiences in achieving success or suffering failure. This pattern is a major portion of what we call 'personality'.

Though we usually think of our personality as affecting others, its effect upon our own behaviour is no less important. One person—through habit, level of aspiration, and successful experiences in the past—places a high value on honesty; another seeks immediate successes without regard for the methods that he must employ to attain them. One child must aim for the praise of parents and teachers; another for the attention of his peer group. And still another must find his successes and excitement in a dream world. One adolescent may feel the need of having a camera, a coin collection, or the security and prestige of a good job; another needs a fast car or flashy clothes.

Thus, when you make an assignment, show a film, or give a demonstration, each pupil views this classroom experience from an entirely different vantage point from that of every other pupil each seeks different goals. In reading a story, one child's past experiences and levels of aspiration make him identify himself with the hero, another with the heroine, and still another with the villain. One child gains his greatest pleasure from the wealth or physical traits of the hero (or the villain), another from his romantic successes or power over others.

The Learning

A teacher is interested in how motivation influences the acquisition of skills and knowledge in a school situation. We shall look closely at the problem of learning in the classroom. Here we shall discuss some aspects of motivation that are not directly a part of the classroom situation.

'Plateaus' in Learning

Over a long period of time, the development of a motor skill, such as typewriting

working on an assembly lime, or sending code message, follows a fairly predictable pattern. At first, the individual shows a rather rapid increase in efficiency. This is followed by a period of slow improvement and then by a long period in which little or no improvement is made. When a secretary first learns to typewrite by means of the tough system, for example, her speed develops during the first year of practice from zero to perhaps 50 words per minute. The next year or so of practice may bring her speed up to 60 or 65 words per minute. After that, she will probably maintain the same level of skill for many years, with slight day-to-day fluctuation. This will be true even though she receives a certain set fee per page typed and it is to her advantage to type as rapidly as possible. We might decide that she has reached her physiological limit. However, psychologists discovered long ago that although individual do reach a level beyond which they do not progress as long as their need remains the same, a substantial increase in need will result in progress far beyond what originally appeared to be their limit. When sufficient additional motivation arises, further improvement takes place and the individual may continue to improve for a substantial period of time.

If our typist, for example, is promised a promotion that involves prestige and money if she can attain a level of speed well beyond her present maximum, there is a good chance that she will succeed—assuming, of course, that the goal is not actually beyond her abilities. Habits of working at a speed that satisfies the individual's present motivation will not be broken until his motivation is substantially increased. He is content with his presently performance even though it is well below his physiological limits. Each individual's level of performance is determined by a combination of his abilities, his level of aspiration, and the habits of work that have proved adequate to satisfy his current needs.

Of course, the ability to attain various levels of skill does vary from person to person. But regardless of our real physiological limit, we seldom come very near to attaining it. And the nearness with which we do approach it is determined by the extent of our needs.

Although, we have been talking here only of simple motor skills, there is evidence that other types of learning, problem-solving, and competence in doing complex tasks, such as reading with speed and understanding also depend on the amount of motivation furnished by our present needs.

The Use of Incentives

Rewards designed to influence behaviour are often called incentives. To influence behaviour significantly, however, the reward must be needed. It must serve to satisfy some motive. In the school we offer the child interesting experiences and opportunities to satisfy his curiosity and to achieve status and self-esteem. For example, a child can have numerous incentives for reading about the pioneers. His curiosity concerning what solution they will find to each problem acts as an incentive. And he identifies himself with Daniel Boone or David Crockett and obtains interesting experiences. He is able to share his experiences with his classmates and gain their attention and approval. He gains a word of praise or a sense of security from his teacher. His reading may result in a better grade and heightened self-esteem and esteem in the eyes of his parents.

In business and industry a bonus or a promotion may be offered as a reward for extra effort. In any situation, the most successful incentives are those that appeal to one or all of the psychological motives.

Positive and Negative Incentives

Educators have stated repeatedly that praise is stronger than reproof. But before we accept such a broad generalisation, we should look closely at what is known about these common incentives.

Both praise and reproof are strong drugs. If praise is administered constantly over a period of time, it loses much of its potency. In addition, how effective it is depends a good bit on the personality of the person who administers it. We expect praise from some individuals and accept it almost as we would accept silence from another. And if we hear little but praise from everyone, we grow to value it less and less.

The same is true of reproof, if a teacher constantly berates his students, they come to expect it. In fact, a student fails to receive his fair measure of reproof for the day, he may lose status with his fellows. And so it is in the home. A child who receives little but reproof from his parents comes to expect and accept it. Its sting becomes dulled. But give such a child an unexpected word of praise and he will grasp it as a jewel. He will treasure it as a rare source of satisfaction.

Both praise and blame, like certain drugs, lose their effectiveness as we become tolerant of them, but our tolerance varies in relation to the individual from whom we receive them. We strive for a word of praise from one person either because he rarely gives praise or because his good opinion is necessary for our security. A word of reproof from another person may fail to stir us either because we have come to expect it or because his good opinion is of little importance for our feeling of security. If praise or blame is to affect our behaviour, it must either satisfy or threaten our security, our self-esteem, our esteem in the eyes of others, or some other motive.

The varying effect that praise and blame have on different individuals has been well demonstrated by experiments. During one learning experiment, a group of introverted children and a group of extroverted children were praised at certain times and blamed at others. The extroverted children made more improvement when they received blame than when they were praised, but the opposite was true of the introverted group. Other studies suggest that the extrovert tends to come from an environment where praise is more common than blame and that the opposite is true for the introvert. Typically, the introvert's development has been marked by strong respiration whereas the extrovert has been encouraged to express himself and has often been the centre of favourable attention.

Other things being equal, then which has the more powerful effect on classroom learning—praise or blame? As you might expect, praise seems to be somewhat more praiseful in actual practice. However, the evidence indicates that both serve to stimulate learning, since either one seems to produce better results than no comment whatsoever.

Praise and blame are examples of positive and negative incentives. Although individuals may react somewhat differently because of different past experiences, it is more pleasant to all of us to strive for positive rewards than it is to escape from negative threats. We strive either to improve our status or to prevent loss of our present status. Which motivation will result in greater effort depends somewhat on the nature of the individual and on the nature of the promised gain or possible loss.

Quite apart from the actual effort induced by different motivating situations, we as teachers must also be interested in the mental health of each child. Striving for advancement, particularly when it leads to success, is accompanied by happy, pleasant

feeling. Striving to prevent a threat to our present status, however, even of it is eventually successful, is accompanied by an unhappy, unpleasant feeling and by worry. The maladjustment evidenced in 'nervous breakdowns' is more closely related to overworry than to overwork. Positive incentives in them selves, then, contribute more to the mental and emotional well-being of children than negative incentives do.

Interests as Motivation

Interests are a specific type of positive incentive. They are capable of arousing and sustaining concentrated effort. For this reason, we shall want to study them carefully. How much appeal the classroom material has to a child's interests determines to a considerable extent how hard and how long he will be willing to concentrate on it. For the most part, study fatigue is created by nothing more than disinterest or boredom.

(i) Why Children Differ in Interests: Since children learn new things in order to satisfy physiological and psychological motives biological factors have a strong influence on the development of their interests. If a child is large and agile, he is likely to gain selfesteem and the esteem of others from physical competition; if he is small or awkward, his security and prestige are likely to be threatened. If a child finds that experiences in the classroom nurture his security, he comes to enjoy being a worker and to spend more time and effort in his pursuits. If adolescent girl finds that boys admire her, she is likely to enjoy dancing and similar activities in which she can receive their attention; if boys do not seek her out, she will find other activities to nurture self-esteem.

Most interests are the product of past experiences. The goals that a child discovers to be approved by his concern and his community, the experiences he has had with employers and companions, and the experiments he has made in the world about him determine the direction that interests will take.

Some differences in interests are caused by differences in chronological age. If for no reason other than the desire for social acceptability, the boy of 16 must shun some activities that are quite appropriate to the boy of eight.

Other differences in interest are related to sex. The fact that parents tend to approve

one type of play activity for girls and another for boys is especially important to younger children. A girl receives favourable recognition when she spends time with dolls, plays house, or learns ballet dancing, but a boy who does the same things finds that his security and self-esteem are threatened.

Since girls, on the average, reach maturity at an earlier age than boys do, they show an earlier interest in dancing and on other in physical maturation among members of the same sex have a strong effect on interests. As we have seen, some boys of 14 are sexually mature and others are immature. For both boys and girls, the attainment of sexual maturity results in new forms of motivation and in new problems. It is reflected in their choice of reading matter, conversational topics, heroes, movies, and radio and television programmes.

Actually, the specific interests that a child develops depend directly on how clearly he has been able to identify the types of activity that satisfy his motives. His desires for security, self-esteem, the esteem of others, and new experiences, and the success of failure that he meets in attempting to satisfy these desires, play a major part in determining what his interests will be. In other words, psychological motives, as well as physiological motives are significant.

And once interests are formed, the habit motives tend to perpetuate them. A boy may retain an interest in coin-collecting, fishing, football, or photography long after they cease to satisfy the motives that they originally satisfied. Habit motives and the desire to be with friends who have the same interests may be sufficient. Or, as we trace interests throughout life, we may find that an activity remains the same but that the motives satisfied by in change greatly. For example, a boy may take up golf because it makes him feel mature and because it has social prestige; as a young man, he gains group and self-esteem from his proficiency; later he continues the game for the business contacts that come from it; and still later he follows it for reasons of health and to satisfy habit motives.

As a teacher, you will need a deep understanding of what interests are typical of both sexes at each developmental level, and of the range of interests that you can expect to find within groups of the same age and sex. Then you can translate your

information into specific, practical terms, such as the games, books, movies, and songs that will be most appealing to a particular group of children.

What techniques can we use to determine specific interests? And how can we use interests in developing an effective learning situation?

(ii) Leisure-time Activities due to Interests: When children work and play under the direct supervision of adults, they have a natural tendency to display the interests they feel are expected of them. They are more interested in winning approval than they are in following their other inclinations. But in their freely chosen, leisure-time activities, they unwillingly provide us with valuable dues to what their interests really are. So you will want to take advantage of every opportunity to observe children after school hours, to talk with them about how they spend their evenings, and to enter into their social activities whenever you can do it unobtrusively and without embarrassment to the children and to yourself.

Try to find out what books they like to read, what radio and television programmes appeal to them, what movies they go to, what friends they spend their time with, what hobbies they follow, and what they do when they are with the family group. In the classroom itself you can gain insight into children's interests by encouraging them to exercise self-direction in attacking problems or in choosing assignments.

Each time you discover a new interest, remember that it has real importance in the life of the child. It represents to him a possible way of finding satisfaction for his motives and a solution to his problems. If you can manage to accommodate classroom activities to a real interest that the child himself has shown, you will succeed in creating a stimulating, effective learning situation. The secret is to enlist children's interests in the classroom rather than to oppose and reject them.

With the information you gather by observing children's leisure-time activities, you can do more than just appeal to their current interests. You can encourage them to enlarge and extend their interests in new, more rewarding directions. Since interests are the child's way of satisfying his motives, he will welcome sincere attempts to help him develop more satisfying activities. Of course when you attempt to build up new interests, you will have to be much more careful than when you appeal to interest that

already exist. But once a child has discovered that a new activity provides him with satisfaction, he will adopt it as a new interest.

Never worry about creating motivation in children. Every child has a tremendous amount of motivation that he is eager to satisfy every hour of the day. If you can suggest desirable educational goals that appeal to the child's motives, and if you can give him frequent opportunities to succeed in his attempts to reach those goals, you will have harnessed one of the most powerful learning forces known.

Since frustrating problems are as essential to the learning situation as motives them selves, you will want to be careful not to remove every difficulty from the child's path. Problems are a necessary condition of learning. They must be great enough to call forth serious effort, but not so great that they lead to defeat and a retreat from important goals.

As you help children in their attempts to satisfy their motives always remember that individual children vary in their ability to achieve. No child will strive after an impossible goal for very long. He must find his tasks challenging but not discouraging. They must be tailored to fit his individual abilities. By providing him with opportunities to succeed in winning security, self-esteem, the esteem, of others, and new experiences, you will make the classroom the scene of significant learning.

Be careful about how you approach the needs and interests of the child. Your task is not so much to let each child do just what he wants to do, but rather to encourage him to strive for significant long-range goals by appealing to the needs and motives that he already possesses. In short, you will help the child to choose what he is to learn. You will not force him to do things that he finds objectionable, but you must guide him in the directions that the curriculum-maker and the school as a whole find desirable.

There is much for the child to learn, and only a short time in which to learn it. You can increase both the speed and the quality of his learning by appealing to the motives that he brings with him into the classroom.

The Process

Another question, how does learning take place? What are the conditions which favour learning? What external conditions result in improved performance by an

individual? These questions are of great interest to the teachers, parents, students and the educationists. Psychologists have defined learning as any relatively permanent changes in behaviour as a result of practice or experience. It modifies or changes the behaviour of the students in terms of achieving the goals. It is the process by which the student profits from past experiences. It is an inference from behaviour and must be distinguished from it, for learning can occur without behaviour being affected. We may learn that a certain petrol-station is open twenty-four hours a day without influencing our observable behaviour, unless and until we need petrol-station during the night. It is inferred that learning has occurred if in such circumstances we patronise the petrol station concerned whereas previously we would not have done so. Thus learning is a change in behaviour potential rather than in behaviour itself. Such changes can occur for many reasons, including maturation, fatigue, injury or the effects of drugs. But the term learning is applied only to those resulting from past experience. Further, it is restricted to changes of relatively permanent nature. Once having learned to ride a bicycle or drive a car, we quite soon regain former attainments in these skills after even long periods of disuse. Long term changes in behaviour potential of this sort are to be distinguished from shorter term changes which are often the result of temporary states in the learner such as variation in motivations.

The Concept

From the above discussion, it is understood that learning is the modification of behaviour potential as a function of experience. A simpler definition, most frequently found in ordinary dictionaries, is that learning involves the acquisition of information. This is often the case, but there are a number of situations in which individual learn without acquiring any new information. This is obvious in the development of certain motor skills where practice rather than information leads to gradual modifications in behaviour.

In addition, affective learning (learning involving emotional behaviour) does not necessarily involve the acquisition of information as it is ordinarily defined as a behaviour change due to experience including all affective motor and cognitive (intellectual) changes that do not result from other causes. For example, behaviour can change as a result of fatigue, drags or maturation; but these changes are of transient

nature resulting from genetic forces, or are induced artificially. They are not considered to involve learning.

Man learns new methods and skills to successfully do, think reason and adjust to any forthcoming problem. Learning is associated with acquisition of new behaviour or modification of old behaviour. Psychologists from their own viewpoints have defined learning in various ways. Let us discuss some important definitions given by eminent psychologists.

While a student wants to learn more and more new ideas, a teacher tries to make his teaching effective and fruitful. Similarly, a doctor is interested to know about new medicines, and an engineer wants to invent new ideas of construction. An industrialist puts into use new methods of production. A politician sticks to new methods of propaganda to attract people towards him. In the same way a housewife prepares new items of food, while children want to make themselves attractive by wearing dresses of new designs. Priests and prophets adopt new tricks to make their views popular. They manipulate methods to attract more and more persons and to have more and more followers. So it is clear from the above discussion that everybody is inclined to learn new methods for his way of life. Then a question arises spontaneously as to, how does learning take place? What is learning? What is nature and what are its principles? Now let us discuss the definitions and nature of learning.

Learning can be defined as any relatively permanent change in behaviour which occurs as a results of practice or experience. This definition has three important elements: (1) learning is a change in behaviour, for better or worse. (2) It is the change that takes place through practice or experience, changes due to growth, maturation, or injury are not learning. This part of the definition distinguishes learning from innately controlled, species specific behaviour of the sort. (3) Before it can be called learning, the change must be relatively permanent, it must last a fairly long time. This rules out changes in behaviour due to motivation, fatigue, adaptation, or sensitively of the organism.

According to Skinner, "Learning is not acquiring knowledge or skill by mere mechanical repetitions. It is a process in which the learner organises different elements and experiences to reach a particular goal."

In the view of Hilgard, "Learning refers to the change in a subject's behaviour to a

given situation brought about by his repeated experiences in that situation, provided that the behaviour change cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, maturation or temporary states of the subject (e.g., fatigue, drugs, etc)."

In the opinion of King Ley and Gray, "Learning is the process by which an organism in satisfying its motivation adopts and adjusts its behaviour in order to overcome obstacles or barriers."

According to Eason, "Learning includes changes in behaviour that are determined primarily by the individual's interaction with his environment."

H.J. Klausmeireir writes, "Learning is a process whereby a change in behaviour results from some form of experience, activity, training, observation and the like changes in some behaviour which results from such forces as bodily injury, disease, fatigue or use of drugs is not considered learning."

According to Cornerback, "Learning is shown by a change in behaviour as a result of experience."

Blair, Jones and Simpson are of the view that "any change of behaviour which is a result of experience, and which causes people to face later situations differently may be called learning".

According to W.C. Morse and G.M. Wingo, "Learning can be defined as changing one's potential for seeing, feeling and doing through experiences partly perceptual, partly intellectual, partly emotional and partly motor".

According to Morris L. Bigge, "Learning is a change in a living individual which is not heralded by genetic inheritance, it may be a change in insights, behaviour, perception or motivation or a combination of them."

Guthrie in *Psychology of Learning* says, "Learning is the ability to learn, that is, to respond differently to a situation because of past response to the situation."

Hall opines, "the essential nature of learning process may, however, be stated quite simply. Just as the inherited equipment of reaction tendencies consists of receptor effector corrections, so the process of learning consists in the strengthening of certain of these connections as contrasted with others or in the setting up of quite new connections."

One of the shortest definitions was given by J.P. Guilford. It reads, "Learning is change in behaviour resulting from behaviour."

According to Garret, "Learning is an organisation of behaviour. It is the activity by virtue of which we organise our responses with new habits."

Murphy states that "Learning is a modification of both behaviour and the way of perceiving."

The Nature

Man not only learns but also trains the lower animals. For example in a circus, wild animals like tiger, elephant, and bear perform many tricks. So also a pigeon can be trained to carry letters from one place to another, and a trained dog can identify a thief. Psychologist Hays brought up a chimpanzee from his babyhood just like a human child. By providing him with special learning experience certain changes in his behaviour were marked. As a result of his learning his latter days he preferred more to live among human beings than among other chimpanzees. He was able to clean the dishes, polish and colour the furniture, clean the room and sharpen the pencil, etc. He was even able to attend psychological non-verbal tests with human children of his age. But in spite of all the attempts of the researchers, he could not develop his skill in language. It is because, the vocal center of animals lacks something, which human begins possess. While human beings are able to read, play, dance and gather knowledge, about various things, the animals fail to do these. The mind of human beings is a developed on and that is why they are able to master the knowledge of higher level. What learning does for a human child and how it affects his lifestyle is clear from the following discussions:

(i) Learning is Modification of Behaviour: Learning produces change in behaviour. Learning is often described as the modification of behaviour. The child learns ideas, rules, customs, etc., from his surroundings in order to adjust himself with his environment and different required behaviour and predicted activities though no one teaches him to do so. Gradually this modification of behaviour becomes permanent and goes on developing and changing day by day.

(ii) Learning Helps to Reach the Goal: Learning not only brings change in

behaviour but also helps one in meeting the desires of one's life. Again, goals and ambitions can be achieved only with appropriate and positive learning in a particular direction. It directly or indirectly helps the individual to reach his goal. Learning of speech, learning to laugh, cry in the case of a child, is organised deliberately. They are not accidental. Hence learning is accepted by all as an internalising process.

(iii) Learning Creates Interest to Know New Things: A deep desire or thirst for knowledge is often marked in some individuals. Even in case of children, it is observed that they show interest and are anxious to do new works to find out new facts and engage themselves in small and simple researches. This helps them to learn more and more.

(iv) Environmental Influence Brings Difference in Learning: All children are not reared up in similar environments. A particular child is brought up in different environments during his lifetime. Hence learning process and its effects on one child may be different from that of another on the basis of their difference in environment in which their learning experience takes place. Children coming from adverse environments such as poverty, sometimes show amazing results in learning. So also the ones coming from a proper environment sometimes show the same originality in learning. Children coming from villages and undeveloped localities. In spite of their intelligence, fail to become successful in learning due to their undeveloped environment. On the other hand, children in urban area, in spite of their low I.Q., are successful in better learning performance. It is because their environment helps them learn better. Hence it can be said that a proper and adequate environment is very much necessary for a fruitful learning of the child. Especially the house and the school should provide the necessary stimulus for learning experience.

(v) Learning is a Problem-solving Activity: Society is dynamic. An individual has to adjust himself with every change and he has to face many novel and unexpected situations. There are some problems that cannot be solved by means of age old customary methods. The novel situations should be met with new ideas, and at this point learning helps him. Changing problems in changing circumstances can only be solved with new forms of learning.

(vi) Learning is Matter of Habit: From this proposition one may conclude that

doing a work habitually is learning. Learning is the display of mastered personal reaction to a given situation. Man has to react in the right way to his stimulus. By habit formation, he can do away with incorrect ways of reaction formation. Secondly, learning makes habit not only to be formed in the correct way but also be organised.

(vii) Learning is an Automatic Process: Learning takes place when the child becomes active. He has to indulge himself in the process of learning. In course of performing daily activities he automatically gathers experience. And that is the process of learning. When he himself becomes aware of his requirements—mental, physical, social and emotional, etc.—he becomes active. Its requirements stimulate his will and produces response. If he is easily motivated by some other factors, then learning can also take place even without a teacher. The child learns when he feels the requirement for it. So this process is always directed to a particular goal.

(viii) Learning is not Knowledge about Subjects: Learning is not confined to the four walls of an educational institution. Reading and remembering books is also not learning. All round development of a person is learning and by learning only, one's personality matures. Studying different branches of knowledge in schools and colleges is generally termed as learning. But apart from this there are so many things such as knowledge about God, language, literature, philosophy, art, sculpture, social values, personal traits, which are also learned by human beings. So it should not be misunderstood that learning implies only traducing books.

(ix) Learning may be Correct or Incorrect: Though learning is defined as modification of behaviour, the modification itself may be correct or incorrect. It may be socially acceptable or unacceptable. We learn both good behaviour and bad behaviour in our day to day experiences. But true learning warns us against bad behaviour and this is right learning.

(x) Learning Occurs Both in Formal and Informal Situations: Process of learning starts from the birth of a child. He learns many things through social interaction with other in his environment. New habits are formed and skills mastered. Many novel ideals also occur in his own mind. New choices, new beliefs and new interests are aroused in him. Then he comes to school and learns what he is taught. He is aware of what he is learning. So all the above learning processes can be termed as formal learning.

Apart from these, he also learns informally from his various other experiences. Various institution such as family, club, gymnasium, religious place, playground, excursion, etc, render informal learning to him.

(xi) Higher Learning Depends upon Capacity of Individual and Complexity of Learning Material: For successful and effective learning, so many personal factors are responsible. They are our individual capabilities. They include our memory, interest, understanding, emotion, controlling capacity, etc. Make learning effective, the child takes the help of two processes. One is that he tries to solve some of his problems with already acquired knowledge and skills and the second is that he discovers new methods and skills to face some personal problems. In order to solve some complex problems, he needs higher and more learning.

(xii) Learning is a Function of Maturation: Learning to an extent is also a function of maturation. One cannot teach a new born baby to walk or to pick up any object with his fingers however much one may try. Before anything is learnt by a person, his sensory, motor and also the nervous system including brain must reach a certain level of maturity.

The predetermined sequential stage of maturity of the sensory motor and nervous system of an animal is called maturation. Individuals of different species undergo different sequential patterns of development and maturation. It has been observed that unless an individual attains a particular level of maturation, he cannot learn a particular skill of learning. Different learning require different levels of maturation. Acquisition of simple motor skills is possible in early infancy. But complex activities like reading and writing, etc., which require a developed brain has to be postponed for pre-school and early-school period.

Important in this content is the concept of 'critical periods' for learning. If it has not been learnt at a particular stage of child's maturational development, it becomes difficult for him to master it at a later period. Harlow made an experiment in 1962 on monkeys regarding this. He raised some monkeys in isolation, without letting them to mix or play with other monkeys. He found that if the isolation is up to 90 days the resultant abnormal social and sexual behaviour is short lived, but if isolation is more than that period, the abnormally persist throughout life. This made him conclude that

the first 90 days is the circle period for learning of social and sexual behaviour in monkeys.

(xiii) Learning is Dependent on Nervous System: Learning is also dependent on the nervous systems which includes the brain. It has been found that the animals with more complex nervous systems learn faster and acquire more complex skills than those with simpler nervous systems. An experimenter reared a chimpanzee just like a human baby soon after its birth. He also gave it special training wherever necessary. As a result of this she learnt to perform simple acts like dusting, washing dishes and painting furnitures, etc. But she could not talk because of the deficiency in the language or speech centre of her brain. Thus, limitations of the brain is an important factor in the learning ability of a child or an animal.

As to human learning, the growth of cerebral cortex plays a very important role. Growth of learning ability during childhood and adolescence is directly related to maturation of the cerebral cortex. The decline of learning ability in old age is probably due to the decay of the tissues of this part of the brain.

Lashley conducted an experiment on white rats. His three important finding about learning and the brain are that learning is related to the amount of cortical tissue, available inside the brain of the subject. The greater the amount of cortical tissue, the quicker will be his learning. He proved this by taking away various percentages of cortical tissue from the brains of rats and then making them learn the maze. The second conclusion is that learning is related to the location of specific cortical tissues in the brain of the subject. He proved that removal of specified cortical tissues led to the loss of sensitivity to visual details, removing another, to the loss of sensitivity to different odours, and so on. Thus, there are functional specialsatiation inside the brain. A brain has different centres for different abilities. If the subject's brain lacks a particular centre, say speech centre, he cannot learn that ability. Lashley also came to another conclusion. He found that if a particular centre in the brain of the subject, relating to some particular ability is destroyed, then it results only in temporary loss of the ability. Gradually other parts of the cerebral cortex take up the function of the destroyed centre. Hence the lost ability of the subject reappears from this. He propounded his theory of mass action, which means that cerebrum function as mass.

(xiv) Learning is a Self-acting Process: Learning is also a self-active process. Learning involves the subjects. If a child has to learn, he has to be involved in the process of learning. He has to participate in his experiences and has to learn from them. There cannot be any learning without the involvement of his self. To learn, a child or a subject has not only to involve his senses but he has also to use the higher centre of his brain, which will import pattern, meaning and significance to his sensory inputs.

The Characteristics

We can conclude that learning is a process that provides impetus for new behaviour or through interaction with the environment brings change in the already existing behaviour. Learning brings a permanent change in behaviour, hence the changes in behaviour caused by regular exercise, games, habitual walks, are permanent change. The intensity of emotion may also bring change in behaviour. So it is right to conclude that human behaviour is the central point of learning process. Here behaviour does not mean physiological activities only, but inner process like thinking, memory, power, causality and emotional reaction.

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9

Progressive Change in Management

Progressive Change through Learning

Learning in case of human beings, is a matter of progressive change in behaviour. It is result of a felt from within the organism. Unless there is a strong urge in the body to adopt a particular response and to modify its pattern, learning would not take place. Heredity and environment affect learning and the capability of the learner in a very big way. Some animals are more educable than others and similarly some individuals get more opportunities of learning than others. Learning and process of maturation are strongly related. It is the level of maturity in the individual that determines whether he would be able to make a particular response or not. More complex responses and more intricate activities cannot be acquitted unless one has matured to do so. Thinking stabilises as the level of maturity goes up. Higher intellectual activities are not possible without greater maturity. The native behaviour is less refined in comparison to the acquired one. In fact the acquired behaviour gives definite shape to the inherited behaviour, it is a sort of mere ornamental process which refines and brightens the inherited raw response. Learnt behaviour is an embellishment to the personality. Throughout one's life, not only does one learn to sit, to stand or to turn or to speak but also to dress well, to think deeply and to acquire knowledge. The home, the school, the club, etc., are the temples of learning. The child learns by himself; he also has to learn a number of response patterns in the company of his friends, parents and teachers.

Permanent Change

Learning may be defined as relatively permanent change in behaviour potential occurring as the result of past experience. It is an inference from behaviour and must be distinguished from it for learning can occur without behaviour being affected. We may learn that a certain petrol-station is open twenty four hours a day without this influencing our observable behaviour, unless and until we need petrol during the night. It is inferred that learning has occurred if in such circumstances, we patronise the petrol-station concerned whereas previously we would not have done so. Thus learning is a chance in behaviour potential rather that in behaviour itself. Such changes can occur for many reasons, including maturation, fatigue, injury or the effects of drugs, but the term learning is applied only to those resulting from past experience. Further, it is restricted to changes of a relatively permanent nature. Once having learned to ride a bicycle or drive a car, we quite soon regain former attainments in these skills after even long periods of disuse. Long-term change in behaviour potential of this sort are to be distinguished from short-term changes which are often the result of temporary states in the learner such as variation in motivation. A convenient four fold classification of learning is outlined in the remainder of this chapter.

Cooperative Process

Learning is not an individualistic process; it is a cooperative process too. The child learns by impulse and he learns by compulsion; he learns by imitation and he learns by initiation, and he learns by adoption and he learns by assimilation. Philosophy, religion, science, architecture, etc., are the results of human learning and the capability of the human child to retain experiences. Man has developed media through which experiences are stored and transmitted from one to the other generation. Ability to retain experiences, is the key note of learning. Learning is an institutionalised and formalised affair in modern education. The child does not go to school to learn, reading and writing but he has to learn to adjust to the environment.

Creative Act

It is a way of acting, as all true learning tasks take into account some selective

responses, it is not merely the summing up to of all previous knowledge and experience; it is creative synthesis of all knowledge and the experience of the learner. Hence lies the difference between animal learning and human learning. In human learning the following mental processes are involved as cited by Crow and Crow (1954).

(1) Interest and attention are directed towards a goal direction.

(2) Perception of relation and interpretation.

(3) Selection and recall of relevant experiences.

(4) Recognition of relationships among the component experiences insight.

(5) Formation of new mental pattern creation.

(6) Evaluation of workability of solution-criticism.

True human learning should aim at the higher level of thinking, i.e., creative and critical thinking.

Learning is not only individual but in a sense also social, because learning takes place in response to the social environment of the individual. A child's social interaction is of great significance to his favourable or unfavourable learning. An intelligent teacher takes note of the social climate in the classroom, the influence of peer group on a child, and so on.

Transfer to a new task becomes more meaningful and advantageous to the learner when he has already discovered relationship between things and has learned to apply the principles within a given number of tasks. Learning is transferable in this way but the amount of transfer may vary. There is no wholesale transfer from one subject to another as had been supposed earlier by the theory of formal discipline. Transfer is possible between two situations, if there is identity of context, identity of procedures and identity of attitudes and ideals. In this way, transfer takes place from one field of study to another and from the classroom situation to life situations. This transfer is also essential, as it leads to economy in learning.

Each leaner is a unique person who has his individual needs and problems, interests and attitudes, purposes and aspirations. In some, learning may be quick and fast; in others the reactions may be slow, and still in others, it may be steady and deliberate.

Human beings learn to achieve something, sometimes the teachers may not be aware of it at all. When the goal is more definite and explicit, the learning becomes more meaningful and effective to the learner.

Active Process

Learning is a form of activity and it largely depends on the learner. It is said that no learning can take place where there is no self-activity. That is why one psychologist has said: "No one can teach you but you may learn, your teacher can direct your learning, can show you how materials are derived or related and stimulate you to study. Whether or not you learn and what you learn depends upon what you yourself do, for learning an activity.

Response of Individual

Learning is unitary as man learns as a whole being. An individual reacts as a whole person to the total learning situation rather than to one single stimulus. Since each learner responds as a whole (physically, socially and emotionally) the various motivation factors within him which effect the learner must be taken into account for effective teaching. Again, as the learner responds to the total situation, all external or environmental factors which influence his responses must also be taken note of for favourable learning. Therefore, setting the environment for learning is very important.

The Maturation

Learning and maturation are interrelated. But they are distinguishable. Maturation signifies the process of growth and development. It occurs in the absence of any sort of habit, training or stimulus. On the other hand, learning is the modification of behaviour, which is the result of experience and training.

At a particular age, every child starts to sit, crawl, stand and walk. This is the result of maturation. But when the child dances, sings, plays football, drives scooter or a car and swims in the river, it is called learning. Learning is dependent on maturation to a great extent. Unless a particular stage in the process of maturation is reached, leaning of any sort cannot be taken into hand. A two months old baby cannot

learn dressing himself and a two year old child is not capable of typing. So maturation plays as important role in learning new skills. It prepares one physically and mentally to learn. So the relation between the two is so intimate that one is often misunderstood as the other. But they are two separate concepts and maturation fuels the organism with capability to learn.

Meaning of maturation is not the same in every sphere. Social and emotional maturation refers to ideal and low bound behaviour. It depends fully on learning. Sexual maturation presupposes physical ability and learned skills. Physical maturation denotes a stage of physical growth. Sexual maturation is generally reached in between the age 13 to 16 and physical maturation may be reached at a later stage in life. In the context of learning, maturation implies physical growth and development.

Maturation does not mean only the natural organic growth of human beings, because before and after birth the organism is affected by environmental factors. Malnutrition and infectious disease during pregnancy leaves a negative effect on the new born baby. Again afterbirth, if the child is not provided with opportunities to mix with others in society, his all round growth and development is affected. From various experiments, it is proved that children confined to the four walls of home show abnormal development of personality. Growth and development of children differ due to divergent environments, in which they are brought up.

Significant Conditions for Progressive Change

The process of progressive change through learning is affected by certain conditions. A knowledge of these conditions is essential for every teacher and parent, because by manipulating these conditions they can bring a required change in the behaviour of the child. Some of the important conditions are discussed below:

(i) Readiness of Learning: When the child is not ready to learn, whatever method may be applied, he will not learn. It is applicable both for school and home. A number of students reading in the same class may be of a particular age level, but differ in readiness to learn, their readiness of experience, social and emotional stability, etc. The teacher should have a thorough knowledge about readiness in order to make his teaching effective. This helps the teacher in three ways. They are:

(1) Firstly he can develop the skill of his teaching and become aware of the change in the readiness of students.

(2) He can try to intensify the readiness of the students and reinforce them for it.

(3) Students who do not show interest in study can be tackled and interest in them can be aroused by the teacher.

(ii) Motivation of Learning: Motivation is one of the most important factors in learning process. Every man should set a goal in his life. After a goals is set he is motivated to learn, because by learning only he can realise the goal. A poor student wants to earn his livelihood. So he is motivated for learning. A businessman wants to expand his business; so he is motivated to learn skills in business. But a student coming from a rich and affluent family is not so strongly motivate to learn as a student family is not so strongly motivated to learn as a student coming from a poor family. It is because he knows that without learning he can achieve his goal either by manpower or by money power. Without motivation the quality and pace of learning is hampered

(iii) Interest and Learning: Interest is another important factor that accelerates the learning process. Different students are interested in different branches of study. So a teacher can make use of their interests and bring out the best result. During pre-childhood days, interest of the child is limited and does not last for a longer time. If now he is interested in one thing, the next moment his interest shifts to another thing. But as he grows up, his interest becomes stable and permanent. The teacher can evoke interest in students by making his teaching permanent and simulative. This also decreases boredom, negligence and slowness of the student in his study. So he should adopt such methods as to increase the interest in the students. Only a learning with interest will enable a student to reach the goal and makes the student have interest in learning more and more.

(iv) Attention of Learning: Learning is impossible without attention. Qualitative and quantitative development of learning depends upon the quality and quantity of attention. When attention is diverted, learning is affected adversely.

(v) Place of Drill and Practice in Learning: A simple matter is remembered

easily. It needs no drilling. But in order to master complex matters, one needs drill or practice. So the teacher should bear in mind that practice makes learning perfect and act accordingly in the classroom. He should develop the proactive of reading, writing, etc., in students and drill them the different materials, that they come across during learning. But drilling should not be mechanical. In mechanical drilling the students lack understanding of the object. This promotes fruitless learning.

(vi) Fatigue and Boredom: Physical and mental tiredness is known as fatigue. Disinterest in doing a work is known as boredom. Learning does not cause fatigue. If the method of teaching is faulty, the students are bored. The environment and surrounding of school also bore the students. So these factors should be taken into consideration by the teacher.

(vii) Role of Intelligence in Learning: Intelligence brings qualitative increase in leaning. Difference in intelligence is clearly marked among the students in a classroom. They can be broadly divided into three categories. Some are bright, some are average and others are dull. The teacher should adopt intelligence measurement test to evaluate the level of intelligence of each and every student and group them into categories. Then his teaching should take into consideration every category of students. He should see that every teaching material reaches the least intelligent student. Generally, in our educational institutions teaching is rendered for average student and so the feeble-minded students are not profited from it. Again the feeble-minded students are divided into three categories. They are idiot, imbecile and moron.

(viii) Aptitude and Learning: Aptitude is a natural reinforcer of learning. When interest in aroused spontaneously, it is called aptitude. Remembering is long-lasting if the learning material is backed by aptitude. On the other hand, in the absence of aptitude, the student fails to remember his learning material. So the teacher should be aware of this factor also.

(ix) Attitude and Learning: Learning is also affected by the attitude of the learner. Interest, aptitude and readiness correspond to one another. They make the learner prepared and fill him with potentialities to tackle the learning material. Attitude makes the students meet the problems with understanding, interest and smartness. If he is pressurised with much more material, he develops a negative attitude.

(x) Effect of Emotional States: The last but not the least factor that affects the process of learning is the emotional state of the learner. If he is undergoing a pleasurable emotion, his learning is bound to be qualitatively better. On the other hand, if emotional states pressurise him and create tension in him, he develops frustration and lacks interest and readiness to learn. Emotional provocations are:

(1) Unfulfilled requirements.

(2) Wrong attitude of parents in home.

(3) Quarrel, lack of security, convinance, plentitude at home.

(4) Frustration or inferiority caused by real or imaginary physical defects.

(5) Previous experience of failure in school.

(6) Neglecting behaviour by teachers and friends and avoidance by them.

(xi) Role of Family and Culture in Learning: Family and culture of the learner affects his learning to a great extent. Even his life process is affected by these two. Parent's hopes and desires count much in his life. Sometimes the parents set goals for their children. Hopes and desires of parents differ with the difference in culture and place.

There are cultural demands, which affect the learning process. Social and educational environment reflect one's culture. So learning should be complementary to the learner's cultural demands and requirements. All such demands should be met with. For example, in a culture where democracy is a way of life, the learner should be imparted learning in consonance with democratic values.

When learning is associated with playing or merry making, it becomes more effective. It arouses interest in the learner. Teaching should not be only giving lectures to the student. They become bored by that. Secondly if while learning a skill, the learner does the work with his own hands he masters it without much effort. So now the modern methods of teaching lay stress on play-way method and discard the conventional reciting-in-classroom methods. Now the classroom have turned into playgrounds.

Influencing Factors

Learning is a process. This process depends upon a number of factors. If we

categorise the factors upon which this process is based, we will find three main direction. They are:

(1) The internal condition of the learner - (such as capacity motivation, age, sex, difference, experience, etc.)

(2) Nature of the subject to be learnt - (i.e., span or range of learning, complexity or simplicity of learning materials, etc.).

(3) Method of learning - (i.e., memorisation, analysis, drilling, recitation, etc.).

Let us discuss these conditions of learning in detail.

(i) Role of Age in Learning: Children fare well and better with adults. It is a general belief that learning ability decreases with increase in age. From various studies it has been proved that there is a fixed and definite age when learning ability of the child is maximum. Apart from this there is also a fixed age for better learning of literature, mathematics and science. Studies have been conducted by psychologists on the relationship between age factor and learning process. The results show that learning ability of new subjects goes on increasing till the age of 10 years. Then it remains constant till age of 20 years and after that it goes on diminishing and again become stable at the age of 50.

(ii) Role of Sex in Learning: Psychologist have been in the process of finding out whether there is any relationship between learning ability and sex. In some societies it has been found that children of a particular sex show more proficiency in learning than the other sex. Whether this difference is due to difference in sex or due to better facilities enjoyed by one sex over the other one, the findings are as follows:

(1) Difference in sex does not cause any difference in their intelligence.

(2) While girls show more proficiency in literature, debates, songs, etc., the boys show more ability in social science, science, mathematics, etc.

(3) Girls are more emotional, sociable and jealous. Boys are more influential, high minded, independent-minded and self-confident.

(4) Girls have greater pronouncing ability, better memory and sounder sensitiveness. On the other hand, boys show good result in numerology.

(5) Girls are interested in service, home science and literature, whereas boys show interest in scientific, technological and ideological fields.

(iii) Role of Mental Stability in Learning: Effective learning and teaching depends fully upon a factor that is known as attention. Unless the learner is attentive to the process of learning, he can learn nothing. The learner should come in contact with the learning situation practically. That is he should attend by himself. Indirect participation yields no results. If the students are told that they will be examined after three days of the learning, it is natural that a greater attention will be paid towards learning but if they are told that they will be tested after 6 months, they may not be serious on the subject. When the students point all their potentialities on a particular subject, learning becomes more effective and memorisation is accelerated.

(iv) Role of Past Experience in Learning: New learning depends upon previous learning. Learning of one material, backs the learning of another material. When a student fails in reading, writing or doing sums in classroom it should be noted that he had a defective learning before hand. Past learning enfueles present learning and present learning enfuels the future learning process.

(v) Role of Family Background and Socio-economic Status in Learning: Village and town atmosphere influences difference in learning efficiency remarkably. Studies have been conducted and results show that town students are more fluent orally and in verbal expressions, their way of talking is developed and disciplined.

The difference marked between the town and village students in the field of learning depends upon their easily available level of stimulation. There are facilities of libraries, magazines and periodicals, book, schools, museums, T.V. and social works. These stimulants tend to increase learning ability in children. Another case of difference in learning ability in children is their socioeconomic status. A child reared up in a luxurious environment is bound to be different from a child brought up in a poverty stricken family. There are some other social causes also, which include social customs and traditions, casteism, feeling of success and failure and its financial consequence.

(vi) Role of Experience of Success and Failure in Learning: A felling of inferiority and hopelessness is marked in case of students who fail in examination. Generally children having high hopes become successful in all walks of life. So success and failure have their respective impacts on the learning process.

(vii) Role of Knowledge of Promotion in Learning: Knowledge of promotion stimulates the learner and heightens his attentions. From group experiments it has been found that the experimental group, which had the knowledge of promotion showed better result than the other groups which had no knowledge of promotion. From another experiment it has been established that future learning is impossible unless the leaner knows the result of this last learning. So knowledge or result bring success in new learning. So the teacher should feel the importance of this factor.

(viii) Role of Meaningfulness of Subject Matter in Learning: It has been proved from experiments as well as observations that meaningful materials are remembered better than the meaningless materials. Meaningful material denotes those materials about which we have some previous experience. So the teacher must bear this in mind. The student should not be compelled to master unknown materials. The method of teaching should be from known to unknown.

(ix) Role of Complexity of Material in Learning: Before starting teaching, the teacher should consider whether the subject matter is simple or complex for the learner. At first a student should learn simple and easy subjects. He shows better results in this learning. Thus, when a complex subject is given to him level of mastery decreases, but it surely adds to the development of his learning. So the teaching should be from simple to complex. On the other hand, if he fails to show proficiency and his interest is hampered, he feels bored and neglects his studies. Fear complex is aroused and he displays escapist temperament.

(x) Spread of Learning Materials: A question is often asked whether a long passage is remembered sooner or a short passage. Ebbinghaus has proved by experimenting that a long list of words takes a longer time to memorise than a short list. But it has also been proved that a bigger topic is remembered better and sooner than the shorter topic. This has been proved by psychologist Woodworth in 1988.

Hence the range of learning materials has a special role to play in the process of learning. If a longer subject is tried to be mastered as a whole from start to end., it needs much more time to remember. But if the teacher adopts the method of dividing the long subject into small divisions and learned in parts, learning is effective and quick.

(xi) Role of Re-memorisation in Learning: Re-memorisation has a strong effect on learning and memorisation. Re-memorisation is often described as mental evaluation of learnt materials. Learning the material again is known in psychology a learning by closing the book. From the discussion below we can know how re-memorising helps memorisation process.

(1) When re-memorisation is a conscious effort and not merely a bird's eye-view, it becomes fruitful.

(2) The learner can measure his memorisation by this processes. So he can be aware of his limitations and weakness in learning. He knows that he failed to remember and invents methods of remembering them again.

(3) Rememorisation creates self-confidence in the learner. In this context drilling of a particular learned topic by the teacher is of prime importance. By drilling rememorisation takes place along with self-evaluation. But it should not be stereotyped or mechanical. The same topic should be presented in various forms. By giving different tasks to students such as filling in the blanks, writing the summary, etc., rememorisation can be done and its effect realised.

(xii) Role of Over-learning: Over-learning sometimes brings good results. The topic which is remembered after the repetition of five times can be remembered better after the recitation of two more times. This helps the learner to produce the material more perfectly. Over-learning is something different from mere recitation or simple re-learning it again and again. Re-learning is required to memorise but over-learning makes the goals of learning felt. Drilling brings out the correct response out of the leaner but over-learning confirms it.

(xiii) Role of Time Gap between Learning Situations: Considering from a narrow point of view we see that the process of learning is limited to a particular period of time. A topic can be read for 7 hours at length and it can also be read by dividing it into 7 parts and each part in one hour. Which of the two methods is fruitful is a question to be answered. In school curriculum the entire syllabus is divided into parts and taught day-wise, week-wise and month-wise. Experiments prove that by giving sufficient gap between two learning situations, efficiency is increased.

(xiv) Difference between the Whole-method and Part-method: In past the part method was popular and learning was based on it. But later the whole method proved to be more effective and as such this was adopted by teachers. In part method, a longer topic is learnt in parts which makes the learning mechanical and the learner goes far from the root or basic point of the subject. Correlation could not be established among the various points of discussion. They were regarded by the learner as different topics and not as the points of view of only on topic. On the other hand, efficiency increases in whole learning and learning was still more effective. And if at all a vast subject is to be divided, it should be done in such a manner so that the division are interrelated and interdependent. In whole-method of learning stress is laid upon the totality of the viewpoint. The success of whole-method depends upon the past experience of the learner, his temperament and complexity of material. If the subject matter is understandably interdependent and smooth, it is learnt effectively. It is observed that intelligent students prefer whole method whereas students of lower intelligence adopt part method to memorise a material.

(xv) Recitation in Learning: It has been proved that recitation at the time of reading a material makes learning more effective. It is still more helpful in the learning of spelling, vocabulary and mathematics. Learning and recitation should go hand in hand.

(xvi) Use of Audio-visual Aids in Learning: It is a belief of most of the people that by merely using audio-visual aids we can bring about development in learning efficiency. But it is not correct. Only showing these aids to students does not help them to learn better. There should be a complete plan as to the use of these aids. The teacher should make appropriate preparations for that. It has been proved from experiments that T.V. sets and cinema, can teach students better than disqualified teachers, who do not make proper plans before using the aids. The teacher must create a suitable and stimulating environment in the classroom before using the audio-visual aids.

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10

Management Ethics

Introduction

In the UK the first report of the Nolan Committee (1995) resulted from the concerns of the then Prime Minister John Major, that 'sleaze' in government would not be tolerated. In a statement to the House of Commons on 25 October 1994 in response to 'public disquiet' about standards in public life, John Major argued for a committee:

> To examine current concerns about standards of conduct of all holders of public office, including arrangements relating to financial and commercial activities, and make recommend-ations as to any changes which might be required to ensure the highest standards of propriety in public life (*Hansard*, 25 October 1994).

The wide-ranging terms of reference for the committee included the activities of ministers, civil servants, government advisers, MPs and Euro MPs, members of non-departmental bodies and the National Health Service (NHS), elected politicians and senior managers in local government, and members of quasi-governmental agencies. According to the Prime Minister John Major:

> This country has an international reputation for the integrity and honour of its public institutions. The reputation must be maintained and be seen to be maintained (*Hansard*, 25 October 1994).

Such a concern is not unique to the UK. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation

and Development (OECD) (1996) examined the role of public officials in eight countries and argued that there is a growing convergence in what is seen as 'good and proper' behaviour.

More recently, in response to the Nolan Committee's report on local government, the Labour Government has sought to develop a new ethical framework for local government:

> Accordingly, the Prime Minister committed the government, working in partnership with local government, to establish a new ethical framework for the conduct of the more than 20,000 councillors and 2 million council staff in Great Britain. It is the government's agenda to make the radical changes needed to put in place a new conduct regime which will build and secure the people's trust in those who serve them in their local councils (*DETR*, 1998).

Ethical management in the public services is firmly on the agenda. The notion of 'the manager' in public services is not always clear-cut and we take it to include different categories of public service employees. Thus, teachers, nurses, doctors and a whole host of professionals in the public services are carrying out managerial responsibilities, particularly in terms of managing people or budgets. Our concern is therefore with:

(1) the impact on managers of managing in an increasingly complex and ambiguous environment where the management task is no longer a given and involves managing across organisational boundaries;

(2) the increasing demands for managers to take more responsibility but without necessarily having the appropriate authority;

(3) reconciling individual values with organisational values;

(4) the nature of the public service ethos;

(5) issues concerning the implementation of public policy so that it does not affect in an adverse way those that are charged with implementation and those that are the recipients or users of such services;

(6) the changing organisational context and the resulting pressures on staff;

(7) the relationship between politicians and managers and the location of accountability and responsibility;

(8) the motivation of those working in the public services and their perceptions of their duty to citizens as a whole;

(9) the ascription of responsibility to public services managers when it is often difficult to isolate the performance of individual managers; and

(10) the pressures that brought to bear on managers including peer pressure - "This is the way we do things around here;" pressure from the law; organisational pressures to meet targets; rules and codes of conduct; pressure from an ever-demanding citizenry that is increasingly vocal in pursuit of its rights.

Ethical Issues

Our first concern is to identify ethical issues. There are certain issues which appear to be universal and enduring, whether the matter with which we are concerned relates to police corruption, fraud, bribing officials, the acceptance of gifts, the outside employment of officials, the misuse of contracts and so on. Whether such matters are becoming more widespread is a moot point. If they are on the increase is it because individual managers are becoming more corrupt or is it because organisational monitoring processes are breaking down or not being enforced? In its report on probity in the NHS, for example, the Audit Commission (1996) found instances of fraud, particularly in the area of prescription charges, but argued that:

> NHS trust and HA boards and senior managers must remain vigilant and ensure that a strong framework of effective internal controls is in place to prevent and detect fraud and corruption. The majority of fraud cases occur in areas of tax controls, poor, segregation of duties and lack of regular monitoring. This fact reinforces the need for management to review constantly the effectiveness of their control mechanisms.

The eighth report of the Committee of Public Accounts (1994) came to similar

conclusions in its investigations, finding that most problems arise because of the inadequacy of financial controls, failure to comply with existing rules, inadequate stewardship of public money and failure to provide value for money. The report concludes that it is not so much the immoral behaviour of individual managers that is of concern but the failure of existing procedures and rules. Nevertheless, individuals in organisations do act unethically and we cannot shift all the responsibility on to failure of processes.

What counts as unethical behaviour is, however, difficult to decide. Try to complete the questionnaire presented in Exhibit 10.1

Exhibit 10.1

Ethics at Work

Please tick the appropriate column	*Never*	*Sometimes*	*Often*
Have you taken stationery or other items home from your workplace for personal use?	☐	☐	☐
Have you used the office telephone for personal calls without permission?	☐	☐	☐
Have you asked a colleague to cover for you when you are out?	☐	☐	☐
Have you told 'white lies' to customers or clients such as 'the cheque is in the post' when it is not?	☐	☐	☐
Have you blamed and criticised colleagues?	☐	☐	☐
Have you exaggerated your achievements?	☐	☐	☐
Have you revealed confidential information when not authorised to do so?	☐	☐	☐

Have you done what you believed to be wrong because everybody else does it?	☐	☐	☐
Have you tempered advice to politicians and senior managers to give them what they want to hear?	☐	☐	☐
Have you taken free lunches from clients or customers?	☐	☐	☐
Have you shifted blame to elsewhere in the organisation, *e.g.*, "It is the computer's fault?"	☐	☐	☐
Have you bent the rules to get things done?	☐	☐	☐
Have you carried out a task that you fundamentally disagreed with?	☐	☐	☐
Have you covered up for a colleague?	☐	☐	☐
Have you acted in favour of a contractor or client because of a bride?	☐	☐	☐
Have you acted in favour of a client or contractor out of friendship?	☐	☐	☐
Have you presented misleading information?	☐	☐	☐
Have you manipulated performance indicators so as to reach targets?	☐	☐	☐
Have you kept information back from clients concerning entitlements because of resources constraints?	☐	☐	☐

Did you answer 'Never' to all of the questions in Exhibit 10.1? The point of the

exercise is not to demonstrate how 'squeaky clean' you are but to show the range of issues that we face in our organisational lives. All of the above questions seem to involve:

(1) our relationship with others, both inside and outside organisations;

(2) our relationship with the organisation as a whole;

(3) values;

(4) our personal behaviour;

(5) the relationship between means and ends;

(6) stealing;

(7) fraud;

(8) loyalty; and

(9) impartiality.

How you respond will demonstrate how you perceive organisational behaviour? We are not here interested in indicating 'right' and 'wrong' behaviour but in illustrating where ethical considerations might come into play.

Should we be concerned just with the 'big' issues? In their research, Steinberg and Austen (1990) presented 1,000 American government officials with a set of 14 ethical dilemmas. The following reasons were given to justify unethical behaviour:

(1) *Good intentions*—managers expressed frustration with red type and took short cuts to achieve what they believed to be desirable ends.

(2) *Ego power trip*—where individuals saw opportunities to demonstrate their control.

(3) Plain greed.

(4) Ignorance of rules, laws, codes, policies and procedures.

(5) Peer pressure which condones unethical behaviour.

(6) Friendship.

(7) Ideology and political values.

(8) Personal or family gain.

(9) Offering favours in order to secure future employment on leaving public service.

(10) Financial problems and pressures.

(11) Stupidity.

(12) Exploiting the exploiters - a feeling of being hard done by.

(13) Survival at all costs.

(14) Following orders.

Sometimes people do immoral things for good reasons. However, commenting upon business ethics, MacLagan (1995) makes the point that:

> The emphasis on decision-making in 'dramatic' cases which is so often assumed to be the essence of business ethics, deflects attention from the point that, since many ethical issues are much more pervasive than that, these may be overlooked. The everyday things—matters of discourse and conduct towards others . . . or the insidious way in which systemic factors such as culture, control mechanisms and 'taken-for-granted' culture in the organisation . . . can have ethical implications—need to be brought to peoples' attention.

This quotation encapsulates the position taken in this chapter: that ethics is as much concerned with the way we treat each other as individuals as with the 'dramatic' cases involving fraud, corruption, bribery and so on. Managers interact with a range of stakeholders both internal and external and hold positions of trust, power and privilege. How that trust is discharged in terms of fulfilling obligations, protecting the rights of others and so on is at the heart of ethics. Many of the issues are enduring, and organisational pressures to meet targets, manage with scarce resources or respond to a range of different stakeholders are not unique to the nation, nor are they unique to managers working in the public services.

Theory and Principles

We are concerned with ethics as a practical guide rather than simply as a set of

theories about human action. However, we do need a theoretical background. Ethics can be defined as a set of principles, often defined as a code or system that acts as a guide to conduct. These guides to conduct will be concerned with how individuals act, what are their intentions in so acting and a set of values defining what is to count as right or wrong action. These values will be morally significant; respect for human life is a value that is morally significant; preference for a particular type of car may be a value but it may not be morally significant. The relationship between values and ethics is not always clear-cut, particularly if we accept that different cultures and societies have different values. For example, managers may feel it unethical to hire staff on the basis of neopotism. The concept of appointment by merit is highly valued. In other parts of the world, however, family loyalty is of profound importance and it is expected to be of relevance in the appointment or promotion of staff.

The notions of good or bad are an essential part of the language of ethics although their meaning is sometimes obscure. Is the good manager the same as the good person? We can construct a list of qualities that we would expect the good manager to possess and these might include loyalty to the organisation, enthusiasm, commitment, efficiency, resourcefulness, having certain competences in people and financial management and so on. The notion of the good person might include notions of generosity, unselfishness, being loyal to family and friends, respecting the rights of others and so on. There is also the possibility that being a good manager may come into conflict with being a good person.

We can distinguish morals and ethics. We take morals to be concerned with action and ethics with setting the boundaries or providing a framework for appropriate action. An individual may have a firm grasp of the principles at stake in a particular situation and still decide to act immorally. Morals defines how a persons lives up to the demands of what is perceived to be correct behaviour. Ethics defines the effort to systemise and define the reasons for our moral assessments. We do pass judgements on others from an ethical point of view. What are the kinds of decisions that can be made? Is making a moral decision similar to making any other kind of decision where we add up the pros and cons and proceed if the pros outweigh the cons? Why do people act the way that they do? Criteria might include:

(1) act in accordance with rules;

(2) act out of a sense of justice;

(3) act to secure the most beneficial consequences for most people;

(4) act out of a sense of duty;

(5) act in a way that satisfies conscience;

(6) act our of guilt;

(7) act in such a way because everybody else does; and

(8) act in such a way because told to do so by friends, family, senior managers, etc.

All of these criteria can be located within ethical traditions and we examine briefly the main tenets of these traditions.

Ethical Theories

Deontological Theories

Deontological theories maintain that the right action to pursue is independent of the consequences of that action. The ends are less important than the means. The right action is to keep promises, repay debts, abide by contracts irrespective of what the consequences are. This view is most commonly associated with the work of the German philosopher Immanuel Kant, whose famous categorical imperative argued that "I ought never to act in such a way except that I can also will that my maxim should become a universal law." In other words, do unto others as you would have them do to you. It is about treating people fairly and with respect. We can think of many relationship within the public services that are of this kind. The doctor has a duty of care towards the patient, the teacher towards the student. This is a characteristic of professional roles within the public services. However, it is often difficult to always keep promises or to always tell the truth irrespective of the consequences. Should the doctor always tell the patient that he or she has a terminal illness? We do consider the consequences.

Teleological Theories

Teleological theories provide the second major guide to moral decisions, where actions are evaluated in terms of their consequences. Public policy goals, in terms of a better educated or healthier citizenry, might be examples of such consequences. Utilitarianism is the best known teleological theory. Utilitarianism holds that an action is morally justifiable if it leads to the greatest happiness of the greatest number. The concept of measurement is a key features of utilitarianism and a variation of utilitarianism can be found in cost-benefit analysis. For example, in the planning of a new airport, the costs and benefits of noise pollution, road congestion, threats to life and wildlife, threats to the quality of life, the benefits of different forms of transport and so on would be calculated in as comprehensive a manner as possible. Utilitarianism is concerned with the maximisation of good and the minimisation of harm. However, it may be difficult to put a figure on, for example, the quality of life, even though it has become common-place when allocating medical resources to be required to do so. However, the problems with this approach are numerous:

(1) In practice it is impossible to weigh up all the available options before acting.

(2) We may never be able to account for all the consequences of an action.

(3) Over what timescale are we to calculate costs and benefits?

(4) It presupposes that we can put a numerical value on everything.

The Virtues Approach

A virtues approach looks to the qualities of individuals which allow them to be moral. This approach has a long history going back to Confucius and Aristotle and its modern equivalent can be found in those virtues that are said to characterise public officials. It is thus argued that public policies will be ethical because those managers involved in the formulation and implementation of policy possess integrity and probity, are impartial and honest and so on. This view is one that is shared by professionals in the public services, who see their professional ethos as virtuous.

The Justice Approach

Justice is concerned with issues of fairness, entitlement and desert. The formal

principle of justice can be stated in terms of treating like cases alike and unlike cases differently. Justice can take two forms, distribute justice and procedural justice. The first is concerned with how goods and services are distributed in society. It is argued that the market is unjust since it discriminates against those who are poor, uneducated and unemployed. Within organisations, criteria for distributive justice might be applied, for example, when allocating an annual bonus and may take the form of:

(1) to each person an equal share, irrespective of individual contribution;

(2) to each person according to need, an approach which recognises individual needs;

(3) to each person according to individual rights, possibly as stipulated in a contract;

(4) to each according to individual merit, an approach which recognises the quality of individual contributions;

(5) to each according to effort.

Procedural justice is concerned to make sure that processes and procedures are fair and non-discriminatory. Arguments in favour of bureaucracy are often made from the point of view of procedural justice.

The Rights-based Approach

Individuals have rights. These include legal, political, employee and human rights. Rights are often seen as correlatives of duties. That is, employees may have certain rights such as the right to a healthy and safe working environment but at the same time they may have a duty to give "a fair day's work for a fair day's pay." For example, the Labour Government sought to rewrite the Patient's Charter for the NHS which takes account of the fact that patients do have rights but also have duties, such as keeping appointment times and not abusing staff.

We have indicated the flavour of some of the best-known ethical theories which can inform the actions of public services managers. At the same time we need to recognise that:

> Making moral decisions usually involves finding a balance among different values that conflict. This kind of 'moral pluralism' is highly pragmatic and well suited to the type of value diversity that characterises modern democratic societies. In terms of consequences, a realistic public administrator cannot ignore any basic moral principle that is 'out there' and likely to influence the effectiveness of the agency's mission. Tolerance thus lies at the heart of the ethical responsibility of the administrator in a democratic society (Pops, 1994).

This will particularly be the case if we see the task of the public services manager as reconciling the interests of a multitude of different stakeholders.

In reality it is likely that managers will act as a result of group norms and values, sets of principles and traditional practices rather than consciously follow a consistent adoption of an ethical theory. There appears to be, at least, some agreement on what those principles might be. The Nolan Report, which we introduced at the beginning of this chapter identified seven principles of public life:

(1) *Selflessness* – which is consistent with a wider concern with the public interest.

(2) *Integrity* – which focuses on obligations and duties.

(3) *Objectivity* – which is concerned with merit and principles of justice.

(4) *Accountability* – which involves procedural justice.

(5) *Openness* – which is linked to the wider public interest.

(6) *Honesty* – which involves duties and conflicts of interests.

(7) *Leadership* – which extols the virtues required by public services managers.

However, both ethical theorists and practitioners indicate that a range of principles should be taken together rather than rely on one principle, and that these principles reflect an ethical framework. Public services managers are as much concerned with *how* services are delivered as with *what* is delivered, with means as well as ends. Looking after client interests means treating them with care, attention and sensitivity, and indeed with respect.

Both the OECD and the UK Government have recently identified key principles for public services (*see* Table 10.1).

Table 10.1 Principles of Public Service

OECD Principles 1998	UK Local Government Principles 1998
Ethical standards for public service should be clear	Community leadership, preserving public confidence in the council
Ethical standards should be reflected in the legal framework	Duty to uphold the law
Ethical guidance should be available to public servants	Constituency; recognising that there are general interests as well as constituents' interest
Public servants should know their rights and obligations when exposing wrongdoing	Selflessness, acting in the public interest
Political commitment to ethics should reinforce the ethical conduct of public servants	Integrity and propriety
The decision-making process should be transparent and open to scrutiny	Hospitality; refusing hospitality which might be intended to buy influence
There should be clear guidelines for inter-action between the public and private sectors	Decisions should be the responsibility of the individual, but the influence of, for example, party groups should be recognised
Managers should demonstrate and promote ethical conduct	Objectivity in decision taking, decisions taken on merit
Management policies, procedures and practices should promote ethical conduct	Accountability
Public service conditions and management of human resources should promote ethical conduct	Openness
Adequate accountability mechanisms should be in place in the public service	Confidentiality is handled in accordance with law
Appropriate procedures and sanctions should exist to deal with misconduct	Stewardship of council resources. Participation in council decisions. Declarations of private interests. Relations with officers, respecting the roles of officers.

Sources: PUMA (1998); DETR (1998).

The local government principles presented in Table 10.1 are written as guidelines for politicians but they can, for the most part, be applied to managers.

The Public Service Ethos

We have certain expectations of our public managers, and see the relationship between the citizens and their officials as a cornerstone of government:

> Effective democratic government – be it at central or local level – requires a bond of trust between the people and those in public life who serve them. To restore and maintain that trust at local level is at the heart of our agenda to modernise local government (DETR, 1998).

Many of the principles described in the above quotation are said to be part of the public service ethos and that those working in the public services are bound by, and subscribe to, this ethos. It is generally considered to be a 'good thing' and is said to consist of honesty, impartiality, integrity, probity, accountability, promotion on merit and so on. Public service managers bring all of these qualities to bear in promoting the public interest.

The public service ethos is said to consist of a set of values held in common by public services managers and expressed through the virtues described above. Pratchett and Wingfield (1994) in their work on local government describe a generic public service ethos comprising accountability, bureaucratic behaviour, a sense of community, motivation and loyalty. However, two main assumptions are made concerning this ethos:

(1) There is something distinctive about managing in the public services. This view is contested, as we have argued early.

(2) There is a common ethos that binds those who work in the public services.

Let us examine the second assumption. The concept of a unified and uniform public service may have little meaning given the differences between managing in local government, the civil service, health and any number of other bodies. If we

examine the civil service alone, we find civil servants engaged in a number of different tasks which include the analysis of policy issues, the formation of policy under political direction, the implementation of policy, the delivery of services to the public, the management of resources, the regulation of outside bodies and so on. In the UK civil service, policy work is carried out by some 10 per cent of the local and yet the concerns of those who work in the 'Whitehall Village' have, to all intents and purposes, dominated the agenda.

In local government and in health services, the agenda has been dominated by a different set of stakeholders, notably professionals. Pratchett and Wingfield (1994) question the assumption of a generic public service ethos in local government:

> The public service ethos is a confused and ambiguous concept which is only given meaning by its organisational and functional situation, and may be subject to very different interpretations over both time and location.

They identify differences on the basis of :

(1) the role that the local authority plays - the minimalist local authority which seeks to encourage the delivery of services through other organisations, questions the importance of the public service ethos, in contrast to those who see them-selves more readily engaging with the wider community;

(2) the diversity of professionals, with individuals tending to look to their own profession rather than to the organisation as a whole.

Increasingly it is also believed that the public service ethos is coming under threat from the management reforms that have taken place in recent years in many OECD countries (Lawton, 1998). There are fears that the new world of public services management, made up of risk-taking, innovative and entrepreneurial managers who engage in a range of relationships with the private sector, is in some way being corrupted. There is little evidence for this widespread belief and little evidence that managers in private sector organisations are in general any more corrupt. However, the fragmentation of service delivery may erode a sense of collegiality, but it is difficult to ascertain how strong that sense was in the first place. Not only that, but group

norms can act negatively as well as positively and 'don't inform on your mates' becomes an operating credo even though 'your mates' might be corrupt ! It may be the case, as we discussed above, that some of the traditional controls of bureaucracy are being undermined by allowing managers 'the freedom to manage,' with the result that accountability is being bypassed.

However, there appears to be little evidence that the public ethos service is being undermined, notwithstanding its elusiveness in the first place. Indeed, those who support management reforms and the introduction of more market-like conditions for the provision of public services argue that greater competition and transparency actually leads to less corrupt government.

There is also an assumption that the public services ethos is necessarily a good thing. One former senior civil servant has argued that the values of senior officials are a complex blend of, on the one hand, all the traditional virtues such as honesty, integrity, loyalty to colleagues and an enormous capacity for hard work. However, they also include traditional vices such as conservatism, caution, scepticism, elitism, a touch of arrogance and too often a deeply held belief that "the business of government can be fully understood only by government professionals" (Plowden, 1994). Pratchett and Wingfield (1994) found that a quarter of their local authority survey believed in the existence of the public service ethos and characterised it as a negative concept which stifled initiative, was bound by red tape, providing little challenge or stimulation and occasionally corrupt.

There are those who look back to a 'golden age' of the public service ethos and regret its passing; we have questioned its existence in the first place and challenged the assumption that it is necessarily a good thing. However, a range of organisational and peer group pressures will have an impact on the individual manager, perhaps more readily than societal pressures.

The Organisational Dimension

Individuals work in organisations and we should also be interested in the organisational pressure that individuals are placed under by their organisations. It is

part of the rhetoric of Human Resource Development (HRD) that people are an organisation's greatest asset. Organisations are places where people interact with each other for a good deal of their lives and we are as much concerned with the way in which public service organisations treat their staff as with the impact of their policies in the wider community. Means are as important as ends. As Reiser (1994) argues:

> Yet organisations declare what really counts by their treatment of staff, the institutional goals they set, and how they handle controversy and conflicts. What they do tells us what they value.

How organisations treat their staff will be mediated through the structures that they adopt. You will recall the discussion of bureaucratic structures. Hummel (1987), for example, argues that bureaucracies require that individuals follow rules and conform to certain role expectations and that their activities are depersonalised. Bureaucrats are treated as means to an end and bureaucracy is oppressive to employees. The evidence for this tends to be rather weak, although strong on rhetoric. Indeed, Goodsell (1994) has argued that bureaucrats are pretty much like everybody else and that individuals do not become petty tyrants when they enter organisations. We may wonder at the extent to which the 'bureaucratic mentality' exists in individuals before they enter organisations. If it does not exist does it result from the bureaucratic culture? We have already considered the argument that the public service ethos is deemed to be a good thing which may be challenged by the confines of a bureaucratic ethos. However, as we have already indicated, the public services are characterised by diversity rather than homogeneity. There is a real diversity in the activities of public officials working in agencies and departments which perform a range of functions including regulation, delivery, policy advice, collecting taxation trading and so on.

The relationship between the organisation and the individual is a complex one involving reciprocal rights and duties, as we discussed earlier. The nature of the individual's commitment will depend upon:

(1) the extent to which the individual has internalised the views of the organisation which, in turn, will depend upon how congruent individual and organisational values are;

(2) the extent to which organisational objective reflect individual objective;

(3) the extent of the involvement and psychological immersion in work; and

(4) the extent to which individuals value the organisation as a place where they spend a large chunk of their waking lives.

Occasionally, the relationship is called into question when individual employees 'blow the whistle' and reveal information about an organisation and its activities that the organisation does not wish to have revealed. One well-known example of whistle-blowing was the case of Clive Ponting, a senior civil servant in the Ministry of Defence, who leaked information to an Opposition MP concerning the sinking of the Argentine ship *Belgrano* during the Falklands War. Ponting argues that government ministers had lied to Parliament and that it was in the public interest that this information should be made public. Ponting contended that he had a duty to Parliament and the public interest over and above that of the government of the day. Ponting was put on trial and acquitted.

A key issue here is the loyalty of public servants. An early study in this book examined this in the context of accountability. Critics argue that the act of whistleblowing may be justified in extreme circumstances and where the individual is not acting in bad faith; has reasonable grounds for believing the information to be accurate; is not making the disclosure primarily in order to make financial gain and has raised the matter internally first. Increasingly, whistleblowing is being sanctioned as a legitimate act (DETR, 1998).

How an organisation treats its staff is crucial to a discussion of ethics for managing the public services. Our view is that it is no good focusing on lofty discussions of the public interest when employees are being pushed to work longer hours, take on more responsibility or have their contracts renegotiated. It is at the level of relationship between individuals that ethics is played out. Claims that an organisation is promoting the common welfare or the local community do not stand up if it treats its own staff appallingly. Not only would it be unethical but it would not, ultimately, be credible.

The Individual : Roles and Relationships

The heart of ethics is about individuals acting and making decisions about a range of issues concerning other individuals and themselves. The public services manager engages in a range of relationship which will take different forms:

(1) with customers, which might involve an economic exchange dominated by purchasing power;

(2) with citizens generally, where rights and duties will be involved;

(3) with the client, which might be dominated by a professional exchange and depend upon power;

(4) with politicians, which will be hierarchical in nature and be determined by authority and accountability; and

(5) with colleagues, which might be open-ended exchanges where equal status is shared.

Much of the evidence involving managerial work seems to indicate that managers spend much of their time engaged in establishing and maintaining relationship (Hales, 1986 and Conway, 1993). The principles of public service, as described in the previous section, are expressed through individuals engaged in these relationships in terms of obligation, trust, loyalty and duty. It is in seemingly small acts that the public service ethos is revealed. The manager is at the centre of a web of relationships and with a network of loyalties. The manager gives expression to the ethos through dealing with people in terms of care, diligence, courtesy and integrity. It is the quality of these face-to-face relationships that is important.

Thus, the civil servant may be subject to a range of competing duties and obligations; to ministers, to the Crown as an employer, to colleagues, to a professional body, to citizens and to others in his or her capacity as a private individual. The location of duties and obligations will depend on the functions performed. For example, senior officials in policy areas are concerned with traditional accountability to the minister and with offering impartial advice; chief executives in agencies with a more commercial role might be concerned with 'more bang for the buck' to ensure that public money is not wasted.

However, officials may have extra responsibilities because of their public roles, but they do not leave aside their consciences at the office door. In requiring public officials to treat their clients with respect, integrity and courtesy, we are demanding more than we would demand of them as private citizens. As Jos and Hines (1993) argue:

> The public service presents employees with moral issues that require attributes often associated with private lives – sensitivity, compassion, trustworthiness – as well as those generally regarded as appropriate to our public and professional lives – impartiality and effective attainment of externally imposed goals. That is, the administrative domain is not solely public or private.

The importance of trust between parties is a key factor in sustaining relationships. It takes different forms, for example, between ministers and their officials, between professionals and their clients. Trust is thus at the heart of any of the relationships that abound in the public services. We now examine these in turn.

Minister–Civil Servant Relations

Minister–civil servant relationships are, in theory, characterised by officials offering impartial advice to ministers in return for ministerial protection in front of, for example, Parliamentary committees. This trust appeared to break down in the 1980s as the civil service was blamed for problems suffered by the economy in the early 1980s. The then UK Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, disapproved of their lack of commitment and the tradition of neutrality sits uneasily alongside that. Evidence of the decline in the relationship can be found in civil servants leaking information, the attack on pay and conditions, the reduction in the number of civil servants, increased use of outsiders for advice and civil service strikes.

That the relationship between civil servants and ministers is in need of clarification is evident from our discussion of accountability where we saw that the creation of arm's-length agencies has created problems concerning the locus of accountability and responsibility. Trust appears to have declined, unspoken agreements appear to have been broken, hence the call for codes of conduct to clarify the relationship.

Professional-Client Relations

A second dimension involves professional-client relationships where we have to trust the professional because we do not have the expertise or the information possessed by him or her. In return, for the relationships are always two-way, the professional gains a high degree of control over the work he or she does, and high status. Discretion is exercised at all levels within the public services whether it be in terms of policing, social work or whatever. We have to trust professionals to do their job and not abuse their power.

There is a danger, as critics of professionalism argue that they may have too much power and act in their own interest rather than that of their clients. Hence , the need for codes of conduct, and for the increased use of contracts to specify performance.

Guidelines for Conduct : Rules and Regulations

Individuals working in groups operate within systems of rules, both formal and informal, which perform a number of different functions.

(1) Formal rules can ensure consistency, continuity, control and accountability.

(2) Informal rules will aid in developing an organisational culture, in establishing customs and norms and in helping to develop harmonious relationships.

Sometimes, however, compliance with rules becomes of overriding importance, so that the existence of a rule becomes an excuse for suspending critical judgement. Employees can get worn down by too many rules which appear to erect barriers to achieving objectives. Staff may take short cuts.

One way of regulating behaviour in organisations is through codes of conduct. A code can function as a public statement of ethical principles and it informs others of what to expect. Codes can take various forms. Kernaghan (1975) identifies codes as lying on a continuum, at one end of which is a 'Ten Commandment' approach which includes a general statement of broad ethical principles but which makes no provision for monitoring or enforcement. At the other extreme is what Kernaghan called the Justinian code, which represents a comprehensive and detailed coverage of both principles and administrative arrangements.

Codes can perform a number of general functions, which include:

(1) acting as a guide to conduct, promoting ethical behaviour;

(2) regulating behaviour, and deterring unethical behaviour;

(3) providing a set of standards of behaviour, a written benchmark;

(4) identifying a set of principles and values;

(5) providing clear guidelines, thus minimising ambiguity;

(6) providing a means to resolve disputes and dilemmas; and

(7) providing sanctions in the case of unethical conduct.

Most codes that are applied to managing in the public services seem to include:

(1) specifying the legal environment;

(2) disclosure of information;

(3) relations between politicians, managers and the wider public;

(4) employment matters;

(5) outside commitments and conflicts or interest; and

(6) hospitality and relations with outside contractors.

There are, however, a number of powerful criticisms of codes:

(1) They can provide a false sense of security - "We have a code, therefore we must be an ethical organisation."

(2) They cannot be comprehensive enough to cover all eventualities.

(3) They may reflect the interests of those who draw them up. For example, in further and higher education there are key issues to be resolved between managers and lecturers in terms of new contracts, teaching hours, quality and so on and yet managers are keen to develop a code of conduct that focuses on the staff-student relationship.

(4) They are often vague and generalised and do not offer enough specific advice for the hard-pressed manager.

(5) They can act as a shield to hide behind and may protect the professions.

(6) They may be ineffective in dealing with systemic corruption.

Written codes are an important but insufficient means of promoting public service ethics. How ethical issues are internalised is crucial. Professional socialisation can play an important role when it becomes second nature to put the interest of the client first. High-profile issues such as those involved in corruption are only a small part of the field.

Conclusions

A focus on ethics can take place at different levels; the individual, the organisational and the social. We might ask the following questions:

(1) How can we make public services managers more ethical, assuming that we feel that they should be ?

(2) What are the pressures that organisations place individuals under and how can the ethical organisation become a reality ?

(3) Does society want its public services to be ethical and how does it define those ethics ?

In response to the first question, we might have to accept that there will always be individuals in any organisation who are willing to act corruptly or in ways that are generally considered to be immoral. Dittenhofer (1995) identifies a number of syndromes that motivate people to act in undesirable ways:

(1) the injustice syndrome, which drives people to fraud because they believe that their remuneration is unfair;

(2) the rejection of control syndrome, where people fight against perceived control through perpetrating minor irregularities;

(3) the challenge syndrome, for whom beating the system is a challenge;

(4) the 'due me' syndrome, where individuals do not feel that they have received their due reward;

(5) the 'Robin Hood' syndrome, redistributing what are deemed by the perpetrators to be 'social assets';

(6) the borrowing syndrome, where the individual borrows small amoun·s which become increasingly difficult to pay back;

(7) the 'it will never be missed' syndrome, where stepping over the line is seen as no big deal;

(8) the need/temptation syndrome, which is the most frequent reason for fraud and embezzlement;

(9) the ego syndrome, which may lead a persons to falsify targets or accounts to make performance appear better than it is; and

(10) the dissatisfaction syndrome, where the individual believes that he or she has been victimised and wishes to take revenge.

There may be psychological explanation for corrupt behaviour. Research on the moral development of individuals is relevant here. Kohlberg (1976) offers the best known approach and he argues that individuals pass through three basic levels in terms of their capacity to engage in independent moral reasoning, which takes place in six stages:

Level 1: Pre-conventional

(1) **Stage 1**, where individuals adopt reward-seeking and punishment avoiding behaviour in an almost stimulus-response manner, and where rules are followed without question.

(2) **Stage 2**, where individuals seek to maximise personal gain and take an instrumental view of human relations. Obligations will be met, unless one can get away with not doing so.

Level 2: Conventional

(1) **Stage 3**, where individuals will seek to get along with peers and win approval from them.

(2) **Stage 4**, which is characterised by classical role conformity and where the importance of rules is paramount. It conforms to the classical depiction of the bureaucrat.

Level 3: Post-conventional

(1) **Stage 5**, which recognises a wider commitment to the public interest and to a rational view of social utility.

(2) **Stage 6,** which is concerned with principles or auto-nomous reasoning by individuals, committed to moral principles.

It is interesting to speculate where a whistle-blower might fit into this !

A second focus on ethics relates to the role played by the organisation. We have already discussed codes of conduct and suggested that these may be necessary but not sufficient. Organisations may go a stage further and introduce ethical training as part of their HRD programmes. Such programmes could cover a range of topics including knowledge of ethical principles and use of case studies to explore their application; understanding of the role of public services in the wider community; understanding of traditional administrative principles of accountability, loyalty, integrity, probity etc.; recognising the location of power in organisations. Increasingly, organisational theorists are advocating the development of the learning organisation as the most appropriate vehicle for such training.

Finally, such an approach may also need a societal dimension. This is the argument developed by Ranson and Stewart (1994), who argue for a public services as part of a learning society. Chapman (1995) takes this view and argues that there two considerations to be taken into account to ensure that ethical standards are maintained. The first is concerned with education and training both for holders of public office and for the public at large. The other is:

> Continuing public discussion and emphasis of the high standards that are expected. A society which fails to demand high standards in public life and which sneers and denigrates those who are doing their best in difficult circumstances, cannot expect that high standards will be achieved or maintained. This is not just the responsibility of a relatively few people in public life, but a social responsibility for everyone (1995).

Many of the issues raised in this chapter are explored more fully by Lawton (1998).

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