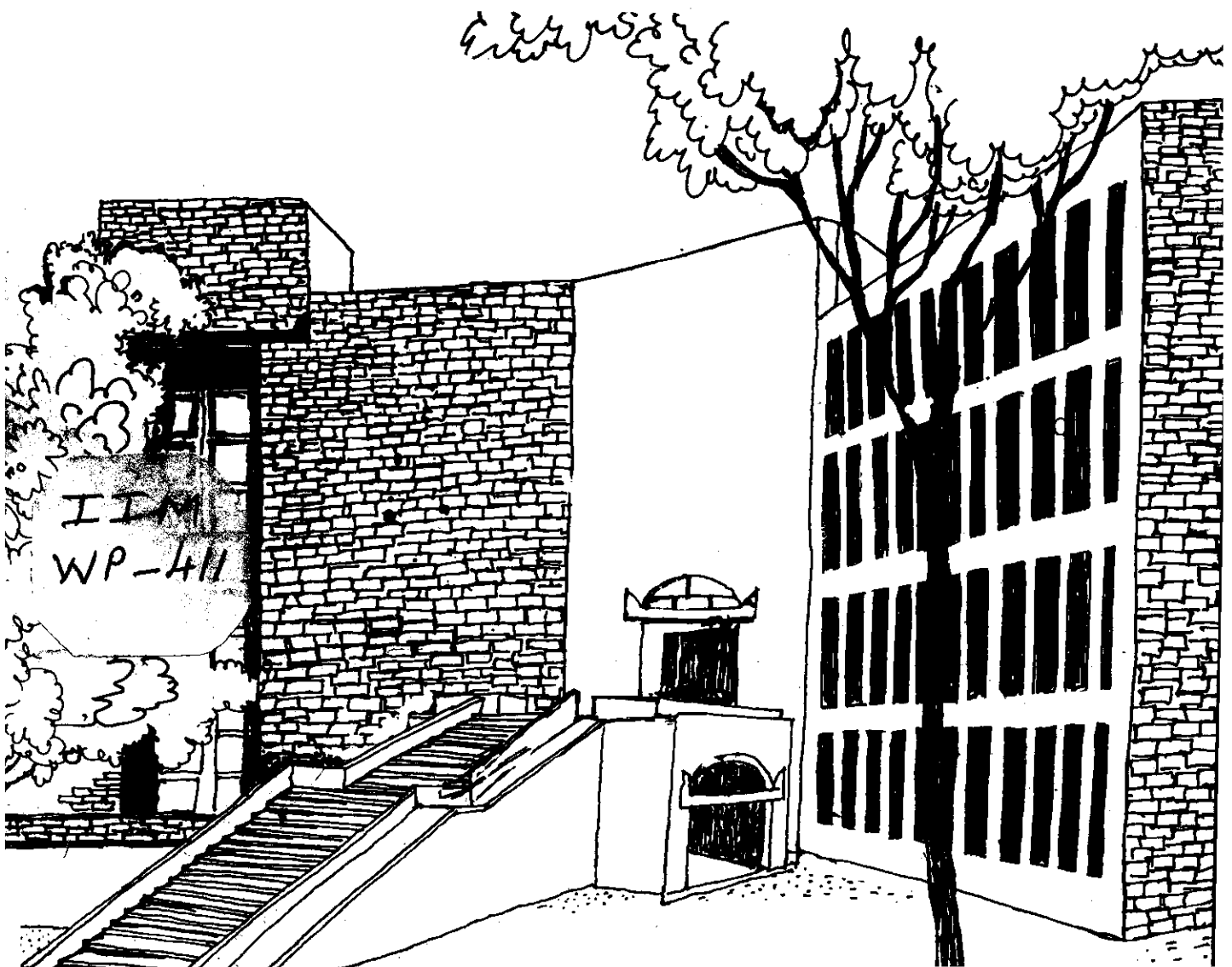


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# Working Paper



ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR RESEARCH  
ON PUBLIC ENTERPRISES

By

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## ABSTRACT

150 studies (including some case studies) done exclusively on public enterprises are comparative studies of public enterprises and enterprises in the private sector have been reviewed under five main OB dimensions (general, organizational dynamics, person in the organization, group and organizational processes, and organizational change and innovations). Analysis showed that 69 studies were on public enterprises in general, whereas other types of enterprises included manufacturing industry (36), non-manufacturing industry (7), banks (29), and service organisations (9). The trend showed that studies in four areas of OB were well distributed (32-40 studies in each area). The trends have been discussed and the needs to develop better methodology, more insightful theories, and more effective intervention strategies have been suggested.

## ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR RESEARCH ON PUBLIC ENTERPRISES\*

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Organisational behaviour is comparatively a new field. Annual Review of Psychology devoted a chapter to this topic for the first time only in 1979. However, 1982 volume of the Annual Review also contains a chapter on organisational behaviour. In India organisational behaviour was included in surveys of research in psychology, sociology, public administration, and management sponsored by ICSSR. While this was not given a separate identity in the first series of surveys, this was included under Industrial Psychology (Sinha, 1972), Industrial Sociology (Sheth, 1974), Organisation and Administration (Sharma, 1973), and Administration of Public Enterprises (Paranjape, 1975). In the second series of ICSSR surveys two chapters have been devoted in the volumes on psychology; one to individual in the organisation (Rao, 1982), and the other to organisational dynamics (Sinha, 1982). Research of management has one chapter on organisational behaviour (Ganesh, forthcoming). The updated review of industrial sociology (Sheth and Patel, 1979) contains some reviews of OB studies.

Sharma (1973) used the following main titles for surveying the literature: organisational structure (general division of labour, control, staff-line relations), organisational processes (organisational

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planning, decision making, communication, leadership, management education and training), organisation and the individual (motivation, behavioural aspects), organisational change, organisation and its environment.

Sheth (1974) devoted one section on sociology of industrial organisations and another on commitment. Paranjape (1975) surveyed the literature on administration of public enterprises.

A recent review of OB research by Cummings (1982) focuses on (1) task design, (2) feedback, (3) structure, technology, and organisational control, (4) conceptual and methodological advances, (5) emerging trends (organisational effectiveness, stress in organisation, work and nonwork satisfaction, and time).

Rao (1981) has used dimensions like preparation for work, choice of work, factors influencing work behaviour, and models of work motivation. Sinha (1982) includes organisational structure, climate, processes, leadership, groups and organisational change.

Ganesh (1982) has used three groups of themes: person themes (values, roles, leadership, and motivation), process themes (decision making, communication, intergroup relations, organisational structure), and action themes (entrepreneurial studies, organisational change and development, institution building, MbO, organisational effectiveness, organisational conflict, management training, process consultation, and organisational climate). Ganesh has reviewed a little more than 400 studies.

No review of organisational behaviour in public enterprises has been published. The present review is an attempt to survey broadly the research done on OB dimensions on public enterprises (PEs). In all 150 studies were surveyed upto the beginning of 1982. The classification used in a recent book on OB (Pareek, Rao and Pestonjee, 1981) was tested and adapted for this review.

The scope of the review was defined in two ways. Regarding the public enterprises (PEs), all organisations under public or government control, producing goods or services have been included in the review. However, health institutions, government departments, educational and scientific organisations have not been included. But banks, service organisations like dairies and transport have been included. The second dimension of the scope were the OB themes. Seperate reviews are being presented on HRD, personnel management and industrial relations, and training. These were excluded from this review. However, HRD being an important OB dimension, some studies have been included here. Some IR aspects have also been covered under conflicts. Taking the two dimensions (PEs and OB areas) we get a matrix (see the Exhibit 1) which gives details about the scope of the review. As will be seen the four main OB dimensions are fairly balanced in the literature covered in this review. Although a particular study has been entered only in one cell in the matrix, several studies are multidimensional, and these are discussed as such in the following sections.

There are some general studies and discussions about public enterprises. The Bureau of Public Enterprises (1978-79) published three

Exhibit 1Matrix of OB Dimensions and PEs Categories

OB Dimensions	PE Categories					
	Gene- ral	Manufa- cturing Industry	Non- manufa- cturing Industry	Banks	Service organi- sations	
1. General	6					
2. Organisational Dynamics						(3)
2.1 Organisational Structure	6	1	1	3	1	1
2.2 Organisational climate		2		3		
2.3 Organisational Roles	8	2		4		1
2.4 Organisational Effectiveness	2		1	3	1	
3. The Person in the Organisation						(3)
3.1 Personality	1	1		1	1	
3.2 Attitudes and Values	10		1	1		12
3.3 Work Satisfaction and Alie- nation	11	3	1	4	1	20
4. Group, Intergroup and Organisa- tional Processes						(30)
4.1 Communication and Feedback	7	3				10
4.2 Conflict and Collaboration	1	1	1	2	1	6
4.3 Decision Making	3	1			1	5
4.4 Leadership and Managerial Styles	4	1		4		9
5. Organisational Change and Inno- vations						(40)
5.1 Organisational Change	1	2	1		1	5
5.2 Organisation Development	4	13		3		20
5.3 Human Resource Development	5	6	1	1	2	15
Total	69	36	7	29	9	150

volumes on the basic information of public enterprises. These are valuable sources of information, and give some facts pertinent for OB. In the early seventies a number of books were published on public enterprises (Mallya, 1971; Ramaswamy, 1972; Sinha, 1973). Of these books Sinha's book is <sup>of</sup> particular significance for OB, and we shall refer to it later. In all these books and some other writings (e.g., Agarwal, 1973), the concern for the performance, efficiency and effectiveness about PEs was reflected. A more recent volume, rather sympathetic with the public sector managers (Anon, n.d.) contains four essays, rather than discussions of research findings. The first essay gives a concise background information and emphasises the vital role the management staff plays in the effectiveness of the public sector. It is argued that the "mission" of the public sector exposes the managers to undeserved criticism founded on wrong notions and inadequate knowledge of their roles. The second essay points at the unduly harsh criticism of public sector managers as the 'new maharajas'. This essay gives brief history of the various approaches so far taken up by the government to run the public sector. It also, outlines several reasons for the 'sinking morales' in the public sector. The third essay is the focus of this book. It stresses that the future of public sector depends on three factors; internal management of the units, government attitude, and role of workers. The fourth essay is on the public sector consultancy organisations.



Organisational Dynamics

There are a large number of studies on several organisational aspects of PEs. These have been classified here under four main themes

Organisational Structure

There are some comparative studies on the structure and functions of PEs and enterprises in private sector, multinationals, and business families (Chacko, 1976; Kumar, 1980; Vatsala and Kumar, 1979). These studies have compared several aspects and reported the main differences. The main differences have been reported on goals and priorities and top management style (Kumar, 1980). Meeting national priorities was the main goal of PEs. Top management style in PEs was found to be more bureaucratic, and technocratic and less paternalistic and pragmatic compared with private sector enterprises. Kumar concluded in relation to the authority enjoyed by an enterprise vis-a-vis the supersystem in which it was embedded, the ownership did not make a difference; it depended on several other factors like the properties of the supersystem, the supersystem's need to maintain parity among its constituent organisations, the heterogeneity in the input and output markets of the enterprise, the size of the enterprise, the dependence of the enterprise on the supersystem, the criticality of them are of work etc. Chacko (1976) found the size to be an important factor on the structure of an organisation, public or private.

Vastala and and Kumar (1979) have focused on the sharp contrast between public sector and private sector managers on their salaries. They found fewer managers in PEs with a salary of Rs. 3000 or more, as

compared with private sector and multinational enterprises. This disparity persisted even when the companies were stratified by type of industry, age group of managers, work experience, and years of employment.

Some attention has been given to State PEs also (Dutt, 193 ). Sampangiramaiah (1976), based on a comparative study of 148 workers and 66 supervisors from a private sector factories and 130 workers and 40 supervisors from a PE concluded that: (a) while in the private factory, workers perceived that their supervisors helped them to perform their work efficiently, in the PEs the workers thought their supervisors were not competent to perform the expected work. Conversely supervisors in the former were satisfied with the work of workers, whereas in the latter they considered them as being disobedient. (b) In the case of the private factory, the management was found to be appreciative of the work performance of workers and supervisors, the management in the PEs felt that though workers were capable, they did come up to expectations for want of proper guidance on the part of supervisors. (c) A majority of workers and supervisors in the two factories felt that their efficiency had not been recognized by the management. (d) In the private factory, the union found the management to be responsive to grievances of employees, but the management had a strong view that the union was not playing its role properly. In the PE, the union and the management were cooperating to rectify the defects in the policies. The workers in the private factory felt that there were no prospects due to extremely limited avenues for promotions, inadequate incentives and monotony of the work. The workers in the PE appeared to be optimistic that the

present problems may be overcome in course of time through the initiative of the government.

Nigam (1971) has reported on the boards of PEs. They have heavy representation of the secretariat culture; about two-third directors are drawn from the secretariat. This results in shorter tenure of directors in PEs. Many PEs have part-time chairmen; most of chairmen are either retired government officials or currently in the secretariat.

Delegation has been studied in one PE (Choudhry and Prasad, 1978). Delegation was found to depend on (i) company policy, (ii) subordinates' sense of responsibility, (iii) competence, (iv) need for authority, (v) official designation, and (vi) superiors policy. A detailed study of delegation of powers in the banks has also been reported (Kshirsagar, 1977).

Very few studies have been reported on the structure and style of non-industrial organisation. One good study on a municipal corporation (Bhatt, 1978) raises some interesting issues on structure and process in such organisations.

Comprehensive studies of the structure and strategy of PEs are lacking. A general discussion on the subject (Ray, 1971) points out some pertinent issues. Khandwalla (1981) has done a pioneering study of the PEs. He has done indepth and comprehensive case studies of four engineering PEs: Richardson and Cruddas, Bharat Heavy Plate and Vessels, Bharat Pumps and Compressors and HMT, has analysed that operating and regulatory environments of engineering PEs. He has given a brief history of each of the four PEs, has analysed their environment, management style, business strategies, operating goals, organisational structure,

administrative strategy, functional management, and performance and the determinants of performance. This study is a significant contribution to the understanding of organisational structure and dynamics, and development of organisation theory relevant for PEs.

A similar pioneering work in designing structure and systems of organisations has been done by S.K. Bhattacharyya. Some details of the reorganisation of the State Bank of India has been reported by Das (1971) Bhattacharyya, along with Iswar Dayal, were involved in this study. In the words of the then Chairman, Mr. Talwar, who initiated the change, the organisational structure of the Bank had proved inadequate in dealing with the problem of control over a large number of offices situated in the remote areas. Despite the various steps to delegate more powers to officials at various levels, the need for decentralisation of control and establishment of the control point as near the field level as possible was being increasingly felt. Das discusses the context in which the decision to reorganise the Bank was taken, the salient features of the new organisational structure and the objectives that were sought to be achieved by changing over to the new organisational design. Since then SBI has undertaken another study and exercise of organisational restructuring: Goyal (1982) has reported the details on the organisational structure and process of change.

Bhattacharyya (1977) has postulated that as commercial banks grow, their "products" have to be differentiated in terms of the distinctive market segments they wish to serve. This is necessary if they are to develop the required degree of specialization for providing effective

and efficient customer service. Bhattacharyya has suggested a framework for introducing market segmentation approach in organizational structure for which supportive management planning and control systems should be provided. He enumerates criteria for segmentation in the operational context. The requirements of systems support for administering the recommended structure and the need for simultaneously integrating the differentiated segments have been outlined, including a sequence for introduction of market segmentation.

#### Organisational Effectiveness

Increasingly emphasis is being given on the performance of PEs. Basak (1975) pleaded for more systematic research on the subject. Some performance standards have been proposed (Rajan, 1976). General reports on performance of PEs have been made (e.g. Sri Ram, Sharma and Nair, 1976). Productivity audit has been suggested as a way to measure effectiveness (Chatterjee, 1975), and a total performance measurement system has been proposed (Dholakia and Khurana, 1976). Dholakia (1978) applied the system of total-factor productivity approach and gave detailed indices of the private and public sector manufacturing enterprises.

The most significant study on the effectiveness of PEs is by Khandwala (1981). He used and validated the model of performance effectiveness of PEs. The model is reproduced in Exhibit 2.

Based on the four-indepth case studies found considerable support for his effective response hypotheses. These are given in Exhibit 3.

Exhibit 2A Model of Performance Determinants of Public Enterprises

1.	Degree of congruence between situational and strategic variables	High	-Potentially high organizational performance
2.		Low	-Potentially lower organizational performance
2.	Degree of congruence between strategic variables	High	-Potentially high organizational performance
		Low	-Potentially lower organizational performance
3.	Degree of congruence between situational and structural variables	High	-Potentially high organizational performance
		Low	-Potentially lower organizational performance
4.	Degree of congruence between strategic and structural variables	High	-Potentially high organizational performance
		Low	-Potentially lower organizational performance
5.	Degree of congruence between structural variables	High	-Potentially high organizational performance
		Low	-Potentially lower organizational performance
6.	Degree of congruence between structural and behaviour variables	High	-Potentially high organizational performance
		Low	-Potentially lower organizational performance

Exhibit 3EFFECTIVE RESPONSE MODEL OF PEs

<u>Choice Evoking Situation</u>	<u>Response Hypothesised to be Effective</u>
Strong pressure for performance from the ministry	Risk taking and organic top management with strong intelligence, planning, and control systems.
Turbulent industry environment	Risk taking and organic top management
Complex industry environment	Professional and participative top management
Multi faceted competitive pressure on PE	Decentralised authority structure, sophisticated intelligence, planning, and control systems.
Large size of PE	Bureaucratic structure (in Weber's sense) characterised by high levels of managerial specialisation, procedural standardisation, and formalisation of roles, relationships, and communication
Sophisticated capital intensive technology	Sophisticated selection and reward system
Conglomerate diversification	Divisionalised organizational structure (divisionalisation based on the profit centre concept)
A number of strongly held partially conflicting goals for the enterprise	Professional and participative top management; a sophisticated intelligence, planning, coordination, and control system; a sophisticated reward system (that responds in a sophisticated manner to a broad range of human needs)
Specialist managers, strong defence as well as growth needs in them, and intolerance of ambiguity in them	Performance based reward system for managers, job rotation, movement over time through increasingly less structured managerial jobs, participatory decision making structure, and task oriented but nurturant, fatherly supervision
Professional top management orientation	Participative top management orientation

A study of comparative effectiveness of steel manufacturing enterprises was done as a part of a doctoral thesis in USA (Singh, 1979). It was suggested that effectiveness must be defined from a societal frame of reference. An open systems approach provides such a macro-view. The processes of input acquisition and output disposal are considered to be essentially one of exchange between the focal firm and other organizations in its task environment. The quality of this relationship constitutes the social dimension of effectiveness. During the through pact stage, the firm is dependent upon economic efficiency and the cooperation of its employees. These internal aspects constitute the economic and behavioural dimensions of effectiveness. Singh used all the three dimensions - social, economic and behavioural and defined an effective organisation as one which balances its performance in all three spheres. It has been suggested that there are advantages of this three dimensional framework: (1) effectiveness is not defined from the perspective of any single interest group, (2) it allows an assessment of systematic performance; and (3) it may be applied to both profit and non-profit organizations.

Separate measures were used for evaluating effectiveness in each dimension. Economic effectiveness was assessed with two standard efficiency indicators; profitability and capacity utilization. In the social and behavioural spheres, where measures have yet to be standardized, process audits follow the guidelines of Bazere et al. and behavioural survey through a questionnaire survey of managerial and peer leadership, organizational climate, group processes and employee satisfaction.



The Indian private sector firm led in each dimension. Only one public enterprise achieved a comparable effectiveness level, the remaining two were noticeably behind.

Different dimensional priorities were hypothesized for public and private enterprises: public (social, economic behavioural); private (economic, behavioural, social). The results contradicted the hypothesized priorities. According to commitment scores all four firms had similar priorities, economic, behavioural, and social. According to achievement scores, the Indian companies were alike (behavioural, economic, social), the European firms priorities were economic, social, and behavioural.

Some studies on effectiveness of the banks have been reported. Reddy (1979) has reported a case study of Andhra Pradesh Cooperative Central Agricultural Development Bank for nine year performance.  $n$  factor was proposed as an index of effectiveness. If the cost of management to total expenditure is more than the management cost to total revenues, then 'n' factor is positive. The following results were observed that (a) 'n' was positive throughout the period under study, (b) The earning of the bank had been showing a positive trend to the increased cost of management but not proportionately.

Kalro and Bhattacharyya (1978) found the importance of systems for productivity. They concluded that true productivity potential could be achieved only if jobs were designed to have intrinsic characteristics of motivating the job holder and sustaining his motivation. The content of jobs would therefore have to be suitably modified to bring about a change in employee attitudes.

Deshpande (1978) has reported facilitating and restraining forces in relation to the new role of the banks after nationalisation.

Sayed (1970) has related behavioural variables with performance variables. His study elaborates on various attributes of the organization like internal state of health and managerial characteristics that have strong impact on productivity and effectiveness of the sub-systems of a large bank. The most outstanding feature has been the revelation of the importance of personal and interpersonal characteristics like managerial value orientation, FIRO needs and the leadership styles. These findings point to the need to maintain a non-bureaucratic style of functioning.

In another study (Komarraju, 1981) of the relationship of organizational climate and productivity of a medium-sized PE, productivity was not found to be related to (or influenced by) organisational climate.

#### Organisation Roles

Only a few studies have been reported on organisational roles. One study (Sekaran, 1981) has been reported on sex role differences. Based on a study of 1135 white-collar workers (245 women and 877 men) from 12 banks, it was concluded that eight variables significantly differentiate men and women: job involvement, job complexity, organisational climate, internal motivation to work, satisfaction with pay, security and supervision, and global satisfaction. There were no significant differences between men and women in sense of competence, self-esteem, satisfaction with social interactions and growth and self-rating of performance. There were no significant differences in the superior-related

job performance, of men and women either. In essence, at least for the sample, women were less involved than men and saw their jobs as less complex. Women also experienced greater global satisfaction and specific satisfactions with pay, security and supervision. In this sample women also had higher intrinsic motivation to work and perceived a more favourable organisational climate. Although significant sex-differences were found in respect of eight of the variables, no significant differences were found in the pattern of correlations between them and job performance for men or women.

The number of studies on role stress are growing in number. Harigopal has done a few studies of role ambiguity and what he calls 'role conflict'. Role ambiguity and role conflict were found to be positively correlated (Madhu and Harigopal, 1980). Role ambiguity was found to have positive relationship with perceived deficiency of the social need at the higher management level, self-actualization need deficiency at the middle management level, and negative relationship with job involvement at lower level. Role conflict was not found to have any significant relationships (Harigopal and Ravikumar, 1978). Ego strength was found to moderate the relationship between role ambiguity and comparing satisfaction, role ambiguity and job involvement, and role conflict and job involvement. Dominance vs. submissiveness was found to moderate the relationship between role conflict and job involvement (Harigopal, 1980). Role conflict was found to be positively correlated with age for technical people (Madhu and Harigopal, 1980).

A study of 80 officers from cooperative banks and cooperative societies has been reported (Sah, 1980). The respondents reported

that they were working under pressure and stressful conditions and were experiencing strain, dissatisfaction, tension and other psychological and behavioural disorders. The causes of such stress and strain could broadly be classified into organisational factors, individual factors, and environmental reasons. The study found that the respondents manifested the following moderate range of reactions to stress: (1) physiological changes like fatigue, exhaustion, megrain headaches, hypertension, blood pressures, loss of appetite, indigestion, sleeplessness and dizziness, (2) psychological and emotional disorders like anxiety, frustration, neurotic behaviour, absurd and erratic actions, illusion, fear, bad dreams and dogradation of mental health, and (3) other reactions like alcoholism, and other addictions.

Departing from the usual model of role stress proposed by Kahn et al. (1964) - mainly focusing on three role stresses - role ambiguity, role conflict (conflicting expectations) and role overload, Pareek (1976) proposed a different model based on the concepts of role space (defined as the constellation of various role occupied by an individual around his self) and role set (constellation of roles having expectations from a role occupant around the latter's role). Pareek (1976) suggested 4 role space conflicts or stresses and 4 role set stresses. He developed scales to measure role stresses, ORS (Organisation Role Stress) Scale, being one of them (Pareek, 1981a). The scale measures 10 organisational role stresses (self-role distance, inter-role distance, role ambiguity, role expectation conflict, role overload, role isolation, role erosion, role stagnation, resource inadoquacy (person), resource inadequacy). Retest reliability coefficients were quite high. The instrument was validated

by factor analysis. The instrument has been used in some researches. Sen (1982) has reported role stresses in bank employees at four levels. Top management had lower score on role stagnation on which the clerical level employees had the highest score. However, clerks were found to have low inter-role distance (conflict between organisation and family roles), whereas top managers had high score on this. Sen found significant positive correlation between role stress on the one hand and externality, alienation, machiavellianism, surgency, and dominance. It was negatively correlated with adventurousness, internality, role efficacy, job satisfaction, effective role behaviour, and role satisfaction. There was a positive correlation of role stress with perception of climate as that of control, and negative correlation with perception of climate as that of achievement.

Pestonjee and Singh (1981) also used Parask's ORS in a public utility enterprise, and found a significant relationship between role stress and job satisfaction. They found locus of control as a mediating variable in this relationship.

Parack (1981b) also developed an instrument to measure styles of coping with stress - called Role Pics (Project Instrument for Coping Styles). The instrument measures 8 coping styles - four dysfunctional or avoidance styles (impunitive, intro-punitive, extrapunitive, and defensive) and four functional or approach styles (impersistive, intro-persistive, extrapersistive and interpersistive). A detailed scoring manual has been developed. High reliabilities have been reported. Sen (1982) used Role Pics to study coping styles of bank employees.

Defensive styles was found to be the most frequent style, followed by intro-persistent and then impulsive. Avoidance styles were found to have significant positive correlation with two personality variables (externality and alienation). Avoidance style had significant negative correlations with 3 organisational variables (job satisfaction, role efficacy, and operating effectiveness of all the motives). Approach styles had the significant correlations with these variables in the opposite direction.

The concept of role efficacy has been proposed for potential effectiveness of an organisational role (Pareek, 1981a) and two instruments have been developed to measure role efficacy one projective and the other self-administering scale (Pareek, 1981b). The scale has been tested for its reliability and validity. Role efficacy has been found to significantly related with role stress (negative correlation) and functional or approach styles of coping (Sen, 1982). Role efficacy has been used in several PEs as the major instrument for OD; this will be discussed in the last section of this paper.

#### Organisational Climate

Several instruments of organisational climate have been developed and used in PEs. Sayood (1980) developed an instrument to measure climate in banks. Shah and Vaghul (1975) used another instrument in banks and found that the banks were strong on individual growth, clarity of organisational goals, job clarity and trust in the organisation; personnel policies, decision-making process, upward communication, innovation, and central office efficiency were the weaknesses. Prakasam (1979) found organisational climate to be an important variables influencing

employee performance and satisfaction in the banks.

As already mentioned in the above section, based on a study of a medium-sized PE. Komarraju (1981) found no relationship between organisational climate on the one hand and productivity and job tenure on the other.

The instruments developed by Chattopadhyay (Pareek, Rao and Pestonjee, 1981, pp. 496-513) and by Pareek (Pareek, Rao and Pestonjee, 1981, pp. 490-495) have been used in several PEs for diagnostic and OD work. Pareek's instrument, first named as Motivational Climate Questionnaire, and then was called MAO(C) - Motivational Analysis of Organisation (Climate) - has been extensively used in research and OD. The instrument gives data about motivational climate in terms of promoting six motives (achievement, expert power, extension, affiliation, control and dependency). Habibullah and Sinha (1980) found a state of partially balanced reciprocal influence relationship between the motivational climate and the use of leadership style.

Sen (1982) used MAO(C) in a study of bank employees and found perceived achievement climate to have significant negative relationship with 4 role stresses as well as with the total role stress score. Perceived control climate had positive correlation with all 8 role stresses and the total role stress score. Perceived extension and affiliation climate was positively related with role stagnation. Sen reported that the banks had dependency as the dominant and control as the back-up climate. Using MAO(C) in a manufacturing PE, Sarupria (1982) found a positive significant correlation between perceived control climate and managerial performance.

MAO(C) has been extensively used in several organisations, e.g. Bank of Baroda, State Bank of India, UTI, HMT, BEML, BHEL, Coal India, besides several private sector companies, and public systems.

Thakurata and Singh (1979) have developed Ruth Benedict's idea of culture as a binding force among social groups. The data from two banks found structural relationships in one Bank as more traditional because they were based more on linguistic, caste kinship and community bonds. They produced stronger cultural cohesion in the Bank, and also more harmonious and functional organisation behaviour, resulting in better organisational performance in terms of business as well as social goals.

#### The Person in the Organisation

Employees have been studied as persons - their general profiles, attitudes, values, personality and psychological needs, including work satisfaction and alienation. Saiyadain and Monappa (1977) studied the general profile of 172 managers from 14 public and private sector enterprises. About 53-60% managers were found to be 'stayers' in their organisations.

#### Attitudes and Values

Some studies have been separated on the values of Indian managers, Ganesh and Malhotra (1975) found that Indian managers preferred existential conformistic, manipulative, and socio-centric values and rejected ego-centric values. They also compared public sector managers with those in the private sector and found the former to be more tribalistic and the latter to be more manipulative. Management hierarchy had no influence on managerial values.



Using the psychological need model, Badrinathan and Rao (1976), based on a study of 70 managers including PE managers, concluded that managers in the early years are characterised by the value of career and money, the focus shifting to job satisfaction, and towards the end of the career status has high value. The authors concluded that Indian managers were blending "nature" thinking with western values of stability, dependability and predictability.

Agarwal (1982) studied executives of public and private sector organisations. It was found that executives, by and large, showed more concern for their career than their family. The spouses of executives play a very positive role in their careers. High aspirations of executives did not had any impact on their work ethics. Private sector executives showed high concern for life values as compared to public sector executives. Older executives showed high concern for life values than younger ones. Hierarchical position of executives did not have any impact on the life values.

Two studies have been reported on attitudes towards public enterprises. Roy (1974) in a study of the perceptions of the public and private sectors by ten elite groups in Delhi found that urban elites tended to consider the public sector as less efficient and its management as less competent than the private sector. The public sector management was seen as relatively deficient in performance orientation, more bureaucratic, less pioneering, and less decisive. They also believed that public sector management was more honest, patriotic, employee-oriented, etc. The employment preference for the public sector was based

largely on it providing higher compensation, job security, better working conditions, automatic promotion possibilities etc.

Laxmi Narain (1972), in a questionnaire study of 1213 managers of 47 public enterprises found that the managers of public sector enterprises tended to be neutral in their evaluation of the public sector.

A comparative study of managers' attitude towards supervisors in public and private enterprises showed similar results (Monga, 1979). Responses of 3 levels of managers from 112 enterprises from a variety of industry were analysed.

Nearly 55 respondents stated that superiors were the most difficult people to work with, followed by subordinates (25% and associates 20%). In manufacturing units, managers felt that subordinates too were gradually becoming difficult to deal with. A higher percentage of managers in textile and pharmaceuticals and in the area of personnel administration, felt that superiors were the most difficult persons to get along with. Sixty two per cent of the respondents considered personality traits as major constraints, while 38% were of the view that work-related aspects were primarily responsible for ineffective functioning. Nearly 21% of the respondents considered superiors to be either incompetent or indecisive and lacking in communication and other leadership skills; 90% reported that superiors did not have the indepth knowledge, required to tackle organisation problems. Defeative delegation, as indicated by about 21% respondents was also considered to be contributing to the prevailing disharmony. Deficiency of knowledge on the

part of subordinates was understandable (22%), but it could not be overlooked in superiors. About 37% of them said that self-assertion, obduracy, uncooperative attitude and unreasonableness were mainly responsible for strained relationship. The same percentage mentioned the presence of the foregoing characteristics among associates as well. Superciliousness, fault-finding nature, inability to get along, oversensitivity, vehemence, etc. were attributed to superiors by about 8 per cent. A careful look at the response pattern shows that there is a consistency in the percentage of superiors (61%), associates (64%) and subordinates (61%) who were considered difficult to work with because of personality deficiencies.

A study of attitudes of 92 trade union presidents of public and private sector industry (Monga, 1980) showed that unions were not basically interested in achieving ownership or even control over the enterprise, but were concerned with the welfare of their members and protection of the union as an institution.

Valecha (1980) found from the responses of 23 engineers and scientists in a large electrical PE that they had very high concern about changes from their own point of view, but not about changes related with organisational matters. Most felt that they had adequate control over changes to take place in the next five years. Dhingra (1972) found a higher percentage of seminar PE managers were participative in their orientation than top, middle or lower level managers. Staff managers were more participative than line managers, older than younger, and professionally trained than those without training. Some

general beliefs about banking managers have also been reported (Dayal and Sharma, 1972).

### Personality

Several instruments have been employed for research, surveys, OD work, management development programmes, etc. in a number of PEs. Some of these instruments have been reproduced in a recent book (Pareek, Rao and Pestonjee, 1981). Khandwalla's Blocks to Creativity Scale was found significant by Sen (1982) in a research of bank employees. Sarupria (1982) has reported the results of several personality instruments (e.g. locus of control, interpersonal needs, expectation from others, toughmindedness, emotional stability, extraversion, etc.) from one PE.

In an experimental study of 100 executives from private and public enterprises of Hyderabad, Asghari et al. (1976) found that those subjects who scored high on the dimension of control tended to be tough bargainers, starting a higher asking level and making a higher pay-off. Those subjects who made a few large concessions made relatively more profit than those who made many small concessions. Subjects classified as adopting tough and intermediate strategy made the highest profit. Out of the four measured dimensions of personality, conciliation, risk and control were found to be significantly related to pay-off.

In a study of 58 bank clerks Bhandarkar (1981) found an inverse relationship between rigidity and change proneness responses of the subjects. The hypotheses were not confirmed on the investigator failed to note any significant differences between union activists and non-activists in their rigidity behaviour.

Work Satisfaction

A large number of studies have been made on work satisfaction, motivation, and alienation. De (1976), examining employee motivation studies, suggests different approaches for such studies in PEs. With the main objective of establishing PEs as agents of social transformation emphasis should be given not only on psychological factors that contribute to employee motivation but to such vital issues on work system, cultural components, social context, and a new pedagogy of learning and experimenting. De examines the characteristics of a work organisation and their impact on human motivation. He presents three action research cases from India, at BHEL, Hardwar, LIC and work design in the Postal system.

Mehta (1977) found interesting motivational differences between managers and workers. While the managerial employees showed strong motivation for influence and influence-backed motivation for social achievement backed by need for personal achievement. Mehta feels that the patterns discerned in the analysis are likely to create interpersonal problems and conflicts, and would come in the way of workers' participation in management.

Some studies have been made about the expressed needs of PE managers on their jobs. Agarwal, Khandwala and Naik (1976) studied the hierarchy of various needs of middle level managers based on Maslow's classifications. The study was conducted over a period of six months on managers who had come for various executive development programmes offered by NITIE. Questionnaires were distributed to 120 managers belonging to

54 organisations. The analysis showed that middle level managers did not conform to Maslow's hierarchical classification of needs. Instead, the hierarchy established here ran as follows: security, self-actualization, self-esteem, and physiological and social needs.

More recently, Kumar, Singh and Verma (1981) studied job expectations of 117 supervisors and managers in a PE in Varanasi. Among the 11 job expectation factors studied, job security obtained the first rank followed by opportunity for advancement, pay according to merit, working conditions, etc. Among the four groups there were found high inter-factor (expectations) correlations ( $r = .61$  to  $.90$ ). Out of the 14 motivating and 14 maintenance factors studied as many as 23 were found to be associated with job satisfaction. Only two factors (promotion, and general policy and administration) were considered as maintenance factors leading to dissatisfaction. Most of the sets of correlation between satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the present job situations were statistically significant, but the reverse was true in the case of imaginary job situations. The expectations from Herzberg's theory were found to hold true for the imaginary job-situation but not for the present job situation.

Kumar (1976) got motivational and inhibiting factors ranked by PE executives. Among the various motivational factors, personal growth and development, recognition for good work done, accomplishment, and pay were perceived to be more important than promotion, job security, decision-making authority etc. The importance of pay, job security, and promotion decreased and the importance of recognition for good work, accomplishment, and decision-making authority increased as one moved in the organizational

hierarchy. Status and monthly income had bearings on motivational attitude. A general apathy was revealed towards decision-making authority. Inconsistency in policy and lack of class-definition of responsibility both hurt the executives most.

Anantharaman and Deivasan (1980) studied comparative job motivation of managers, supervisors and workers in a large PE. The results showed that managers were found to be more involved in their job than supervisors, and supervisors were found to be significantly better than workers in job involvement.

Although career satisfaction of PE managers has been studied (Sharma, 1979) a significant study by Chattopadhyay and Agrawal (1977) focused on career crisis of PE managers. They have proposed a conceptual framework to understand the psychodynamics of the middle age crises of the middle managers. The dominant theme of the framework is the process of dying. Two models to cope with this inevitable but passing phase of life are proposed and elaborated by a study of 208 middle managers from 20 industrial organizations in the public sector. They emerge as moderate but not intense, mediocre, and fairly alienated with a deep sense of inefficacy and misanthropy. The authors conclude that by confronting the mid-life crisis in cognitive, affective, and conative plans simultaneously and integrating with it the concern for self and others, managers can give new meaning and richness to their lives.

Naik and Deshpande (1978) studied alienation in 100 officers and clerks in the banks. The results indicated that the female employees

tend to be more alienated than their male counterparts. The employees specialising in the arts discipline appeared to be more alienated than others. Job-satisfaction factor showed a significant negative relationship to work alienation. The general alienation scores showed a positive and significant correlation with the external control scores as measured on the Rotter's IF scale, thus indicating that the externals experience a higher sense of general alienation than internals.

An investigation of relationship between job involvement and need fulfilment in a nationalized bank at Chandigarh (36 clerical employees) Pathak (1979) found that the employees scored high on opportunities for advancement. The need for proper feedback to the employees regarding their performance was emphasized since the maximum need gap between the present need fulfilment level and the desired level of fulfilment was for more opportunity to see concrete results of work.

Reddy and Ravikumar (1980) studied job attitudes of 294 lower management personnel of a dairy development corporation. The finding suggest (a) a high degree of cross-cultural applicability of the job attitude instruments through their internal consistency; (b) significant and positive relationships between job involvement, and the other two job attitude variables, intrinsic motivations, and company satisfaction; (c) a significant and positive relationship of job involvement with job-tenure; and (d) no significant relationships of job involvement with other personal variables, namely, age and number of dependents.

A study of job satisfaction of 100 women workers (half from a manufacturing PE) indicated that the job satisfaction among the women workers is less because they have poor working conditions.



Some studies have been focused on the determinants of job satisfaction. Analysis of responses of 85 PE managers (Singh, 1979) showed that managers attributed security to the absence of effective managers' union, increasing interference of trade unions in day-to-day working of organization, strained relationship with superiors, passing secret information of managers to their higher authority and sudden change in top management. The managers were also concerned about improper dismissal, lack of proper promotion policy, discouragement for applying for outside job and inadequate participation in decision making. The general views of managers revealed that manager's professional incompetence, lack of personal integrity and alternative job opportunities on one hand and mismanagement of organization on the other, were mentioned as the important reasons for job insecurity. Political interference and pressure has also been mentioned for job insecurity.

Based on analysis of data from 2274 clerical employees, Sharma (1979) selected for further scrutiny in terms of their influence on job satisfaction: college education, monthly emoluments, work technology and type of supervision. Both emoluments and supervision failed to show a significant relationship with job satisfaction, while work technology and education were found to be important determinants of job satisfaction.

Pestonjee and Singh (1979) identified educational level, number of dependents, age, work experience, parental occupation and marital status as the factors of morale of supervisors of a public sector steel plant.

Analysis of responses from 22 high, 91 middle and 196 lower level managers (Harigopal and Kumar, 1979) showed the managers' satisfaction with the company was influenced by his job attitudes and role perception at the middle and lower management levels. The partial correlations indicated: (a) significant positive relationships between company satisfaction, job involvement and intrinsic motivation and role overload, and significant negative relationships between company satisfaction and role conflict for the middle management level, and (b) significant positive relationship between company satisfaction and job involvement and significant negative relationships between company satisfaction and role ambiguity and role conflict for the lower management level.

A few studies have compared need patterns of public sector and private sector managers. On a sample of 36 managers from a PE and 19 managers from a private enterprise, Venkataraman and Valecha (1981), having matched the groups on age, qualifications and experience, found that corporate ownership had no influence on overall satisfaction. However, a need-wise analysis showed that there was a greater deficiency for the autonomy and self-actualization needs among the public sector managers.

Sinha (1973) found that executives in the private sector were more satisfied than their counterparts in the public sector. This has some serious implications given the magnitude of public sector investment.

Pestonjee and Basu (1972) failed to replicate Herzberg's theory. They found significant interaction effect in a sample of executive of public and private sectors. Motivators contributed to satisfaction in the public sector but to the feeling of dissatisfaction in the private sector. The main effects of motivators and hygiene factors were not

significant.

A simple model of human behaviour at work with a sense of competence concept has been proposed (Sekaran and Wagner 1980). A sample of 545 white-collar employees in service organizations in the United States and 1,123 white-collar employees of banks in India indicated that the experience of meaningfulness of jobs was the single most important contributor to a sense of competence for employees in both cultures. Because sense of competence had high correlation with job performance and the quality of work life, this finding has practical implications for organizations and for redirection of managerial efforts.

#### Group and Organisational Processes

Studies on intragroup (interpersonal), intergroup and organisational processes are reviewed here. These relate to communication, conflict and collaboration, decision making, and managerial or leadership styles.

#### Organisational Communication

Organisational communication is concerned with the flow of goal-oriented messages between sources, in a pattern, and through a medium or media. The relevant dimensions of organisational communication are the need of communication, direction of communication (up-down-horizontal), pattern, media (formal-informal, oral-written). No studies have been reported on the patterns (or communication network) in PEs.

On the basis of analysis of questionnaire and interview data from 140 managers, Prasad (1976) found that the subordinates' perception of information requirements of superiors was not the same as the actual

information requirements of the superiors. Superiors required information mainly on work performance of subordinates, problem relating to work, performance appraisal of subordinates, and new ideas and suggestions from the subordinates to enable them to control, formulate policies, and arrive at decisions.

Singh and Bhargava (1978) examined the quality of disclosure of information in PEs and concluded that there was no uniformity in the disclosure of information. While organizational pattern did not affect the quality of disclosure of information, the influence of the nature of industry was evident.

Regarding the nature of organisational communication, Agarwal (1974), based on a study of 250 managers at 3 levels in a manufacturing PE concluded that the status differential was a critical variable. The larger the status differential and the more restricted the channels of communications, the greater was the tendency of the information to flow from low to high status persons, and the greater was the distortion in the contents of communication. Prasad (1976) in another manufacturing PE found that formal channel-of communication was used by all the subordinates for communicating upwards. Along with this, 90% of the personnel at the top and 70% of the subordinates at middle and supervisory levels also used informal channels for upward communication. Informal communication supplemented the formal channel in upward communication and was more commonly adopted for communicating negative feedback to supervisors.

Prasad's (1975) study is an in-depth study of upward communication in a PE, covering 5 top-level, 45 middle-level and 140 supervisory level managers. A brief summary of the study was also published (Prasad, 1976b). The results indicated that the contents of upward communication were highly associated with all the three major variables affecting this process, viz. the subordinates' feeling about what they were required to transmit, their feeling about usefulness to superiors and their own willingness to communicate. Formal upward communication was ordinarily through immediate superiors; by-passing was noticed infrequently or in exceptional circumstances only. The large majority of subordinates also communicates through informal channel particularly their personal and family problems and negative feedbacks. The organizations and superiors discouraged such communication. Various organizational and personal barriers like lack of well defined and supportive organizational policy toward upward communication, restrictive nature of organizational rules and regulations, lack of adequate organizational facilities for communication generally impeded the upward flow of messages, superiors' unfavourable approach towards upward communication, their inconsistency on formality and communication through paper channel, non-availability, ignoring of upward communication, unfavourable reactions, negative motivation to their subordinates and lack of awareness about the usefulness of upward communication among subordinates and their own unwillingness to communicate generally blocked the flow of upward communication.

Chaudhary studied both upward communication (1980) as well as downward communication (1978) in PEs. He studied 185 managers at

3 levels (1980) and found that higher level managers communicated more to their supervisors than the middle level managers. Frequency of different types of communication travelling upwards through the managerial hierarchy varied. Some information was communicated to the supervisors less than the others. Suggestions were most commonly communicated by the subordinates in the organization, while criticism of the organizations policies were less communicated. Reports about the shortfall, failure in work performance etc. were relayed only sometimes to the supervisors. Managers at all levels sought clarification of orders, policies, procedures and plans, etc. from their superiors. Difficulties in implementing orders and performing the tasks were also communicated but such communication was not so frequent. One of the serious weaknesses of upward communication was that unfavourable information was not sent to supervisors. The quality of upward communication in terms of adequacy, timeliness and clarity was not satisfactory.

Regarding downward communication, a study of 58 managers at three levels (Choudhary, 1978) showed the following results: (a) Higher level managers communicate more to their subordinates than their counterpart at middle and the lower levels. (b) Managers at all levels communicated to their subordinate feedback. There was no significant difference among them in this respect. (c) Managers at middle and lower level communicated suggestions more than the higher level managers did. (d) There was no significant difference among managers in respect of providing unfavourable feedback to subordinates. (e) Managers at lower levels were less informed about the policies and programmes of the organisations. (f) The managers, at all levels, indicated that the information did not

reach to them in time. The quality of downward communication in terms of adequacy, timeliness and unambiguity declines as it passes down to lower level management.

### Conflict and Collaboration

All the conflict studies are in the area of industrial relations (management-union conflicts). No studies on collaboration were found in the literature.

While there are general studies, including comparative studies of industrial relations (e.g. Khurana, 1972), there have been some detailed case studies of conflicts and strikes. A detailed case study of a strike in a State PE (Misra, 1979) shows how failure of communication, unshared apprehensions, and anxiety and rumour escalate organisational conflict. A detailed study of industrial relations in shipbuilding industry of 30 years (Gupta, 1976) showed that during this period a total of 2,31,290 mandays were lost, and seven major strikes accounted for 92% of the mandays lost. However, the situation in the shipbuilding industry is much better than other PEs or private companies.

A case study of conflict in a non-industrial PE (Prabhakar, 1979) found that the main emotional problem leading to conflict was around deputation of government people to the PE. The employees of the PE did not welcome the deputed personnel. They were perceived as emotionally noninvolved in the PE, indecisive, and uncommitted. This adversely affected the organisational climate.

Management-unit conflicts have resulted in some public sector enterprises like banks in low productivity and restrictive labour practices.

Datta (1981) has suggested that such restrictive practices have developed because of the complacency and indifference of the managerial and supervisory staff of banks, on the one hand, and inter-group and inter-union rivalry resulting in competition among unions to ensure as low a workload to employees as possible, on the other. The incorporation of a joint declaration on restrictive practices in the Third Bipartite Settlement in the banking industry was a significant development in this context. However, bank managements have so far evinced little determination to make use of the joint declaration to put an end to restrictive practices.

#### Decision Making

A case study of Swaraj Tractors, Bhat (1978) recommends evolving of an institutional structure and deep involvement of the top management for effective and efficient choices.

A pioneering study on decision styles has been done by Maheshwari. He (1980a) used Heller's approach to participation as a continuum of influence and power sharing. Delegation and consultation along with group decision-making were included as elements of participation. A preference for participation scale of managers to explore the relationship between preference and practice on participation dimensions was also attempted. The main focus of his major study of decision styles and organisational effectiveness (1980b) was the styles of decision-making used commonly by the managers in Indian organisations, specifically, the extent to which two major decision styles - participative and entrepreneurial were used. The study covers 12 business organisations, 804 respondents to questionnaires and 120 direct interviews



with managers. The major findings of the research were: (1) Indian organisations were found neither authoritarian nor highly participative. With due allowance given to the variations, the decision-style was characterised by consultation and limited participation rather than joint decision-making or system of wide participation. There was a high degree of dependence on the higher levels of hierarchy for goal setting and decision making on important matters. (2) The need of Indian managers for participation in decision making was not high and so they do not expect much to influence organisational decisions nor were they characterised by the extreme degrees of either entrepreneurial or bureaucratic style. Golder's mean seems to be the rule. (3) PEs were more permissive and less authoritarian than the private sector organisations. They were not any more bureaucratic or less entrepreneurial than the private sector organisations. (4) The senior managers had both higher preference and greater opportunities for participation in decision-making than juniors. (5) Participation was positively related with certain dimensions of effectiveness but the relationship is neither strong nor significant. The findings found relationship between organisational effectiveness and entrepreneurial styles of decision-making.

Jain (1980) found in a study of railway employees that job involvement, and not locus of control, was a good predictor of tendency to participate in decision making. Locus of control was not related to perceived participation.

### Leadership and Managerial Styles

Based on analysis of rather sparse data, and using a western framework, Malhotra (1979) makes the following propositions about leadership in PEs: (a) The 'craftsman' CE (chief executive) is not a rarity on the Indian scene and his effectiveness tends to increase where his technical competence - ratified either by a foreign source or previous success - enables him to deal on an objective professional level with his corporate management, i.e. the minister and the secretary of the administrative ministry. (b) The 'gamesman', CE is still to emerge in the Indian public sector scene. (c) Most successful CEs adopt a subordinate-centred decision-making role, though none seem to go to the extent of complete participative management. (d) There is not enough evidence to conclude that there is no alternative to the union-management confrontationist approach towards dealing with general employee relations. The 'paternalistic' style has been successful in a number of cases, especially where the organisations were small and got started recently. (e) Successful CEs have tended to spend a great deal of their time in 'peer-interaction'. In the Indian context, the 'stroking' culture seems to be the most effective as compared to either the power-centred or professionalism approach. (f) Successful CEs have developed a collaborative relationship with their chief financial officers (g) Successful CEs all demonstrate a readiness to put their jobs on the line on issues they deem fundamental either to their organisation's longterm welfare or their own sense of values.

Three comparative studies of leadership styles in private and public sector have been reported. Das and Singh (1977) studied 100 PE managers from 180 private sector managers of steel and engineering industry, and concluded that, (a) The bureaucratic style was most predominant among Indian managers, followed by the benevolent autocratic, developer and democratic. (b) The managerial convictions and belief systems were totally absent among the Indian managers. (c) In the public sector there was a preponderance of bureaucratic style, followed by compromiser, developer and autocratic, in that order. (d) In the private sector, the benevolent autocracy was most pronounced style, followed by the bureaucratic, democratic and development. In the private sector, the non-effective managerial behaviour was low compared to the public sector. (e) The top management followed more of the benevolent autocratic style and less of others. (f) Bureaucratic style was the most pronounced in both the middle management and the lower management. (g) The percentages of the deserter was negligible in the lower management, against the high percentage in the middle management. (h) In the high age group, the benevolent autocratic style was more dominant, followed by the developer, bureaucratic and democratic. (i) In the production category, the style of benevolent was ranked as first, whereas it was third and second, in the finance and personnel. Autocratic behaviour was quite high in the production group compared to the other two groups. Orientation towards team work was lowest in the finance against personnel and production. (j) Those exposed to management programmes showed a preponderance of developer style, against those not exposed. (k) The positional hierarchy, age,

and functional roles were the significant determining factors in the choice of managerial style. Organisational ownership and exposure to management programmes, however were not associated with the managerial styles.

A comparative study of 45 supervisors from the public sector and 38 from the private sector (Joseph and Kosavan, 1977) showed that private sector supervisors were more task-oriented (emphasis on production) and public sector supervisors more superior-oriented. This was explained by the fact that in public sector, superiors had more power to promote and increase salary. Perhaps, another and a more valid explanation is the carry-over of the feudal familial culture into the public sector more than into the private sector.

Pathak and Singh (1981) did a comparative study of middle managers/supervisors from PEs, private sector and government offices with LEAD, concluded that (a) all the supervisors (except 2) had a combination of task and relationship behaviour than exclusively either of them, (b) While senior managers had flexible leadership style, most of them did not believe in delegation. The style range of officers was also extended to first three styles, suggesting a need for training for delegation. (c) Supervisors diagnostic ability to adjust their leadership behaviour appropriately to different situations. Most of them were having overall leadership effectiveness score between 0 to +12.

Pathak has initiated a number of leadership studies, along with his students in Himachal Pradesh University. Dewan (1981) found three style profile in 67% middle managers in one HMT unit. Kalia (1981)

conducted a study on self-perception of leadership style and effectiveness of 11 public sector branch managers in Simla and the perception of their 25 subordinates about their leadership style and effectiveness. It was found that (a) In terms of LEAD-Self data, 72% managers showed three style profile and 62% had effectiveness score between 0 to +12. (b) In terms of LEAD-other data, only 56% of the subordinates perceived their managers as having three style profile. Further, 76% of the managers were perceived as having effectiveness score between 0 to +12 by their subordinates. (c) From both the LEAD-self and LEAD-other data it was found that most of the managers were having style II as basic and style III as supporting leadership style. Bhanot (1981) found 19 out of 20 bank officers in a bank had three style profile. In another study, of 35 bank officers at Simla and Jullunder, Pathak (1980) found that 89% officers had two style profile.

Sayed and Mehta (1981) have examined relationship between value orientation and leadership style of managers the organizational health perceived by supervisory, non-supervisory and combined work groups in a multivariate framework. A sample of 98 branch managers and 537 employees belonging to 18 branches responded to the questionnaire used in the investigation. Much factor similarity was noticed in the Indian data when compared with the available American data. Subgroup analysis between value orientation and leadership style indicates that hierarchical status of work groups have a moderating affect on the relationship between managerial variables and perceived organisational health dimensions. In general, equalitarianism, individualism, and acceptance of authority were found to have some impact on initiation and outgoingness, innovative-

-ness and involvement dimensions.

A pioneering study on leadership style has been published by Sinha (1979, 1980). The study was done in 8 organisations, out of which 5 were PEs. A new style (task nurturant), somewhere between authoritarian and participative, has been proposed. Nurturant task (NT) leader was found effective in moving from authoritarian to participative culture. It has been proposed as a style helping the employees to attain maturity for participative culture; the leader then has to change his style to participative one. A significant relationship was found between leadership style and organisational climate. As the boss style moved from authoritarian through NT to participative style, the climate tended to be more favourable in terms of working condition, efficiency, interpersonal relations and work relationship. It was the participative style of the boss which had the main influence on organisational climate. Both organisational climate and work satisfaction very thoroughly studied.

#### Organisational Change and Interventions

Studies of organisational change and interventions in organisations are increasing. A book to come out soon. (Chattopadhyay and Pareek, 1982) contains several conceptual models and case studies of managing change in PEs.

Two significant papers by Prahlad (1977) and Khandwala (1982) discuss an important dimension of organisational change, i.e. turnaround strategies. Krishnamurthy (1977) has narrated the experience of BHEL

during the change in their organisation. He emphasise the need of encouraging creativity and the importance of academic institutions in bringing about changes in organisations involving problem solving by creative methods.

Bhattacharyya (1980) emphasises several dimensions of organizational design interventions to make them effective. Corporate management at the time of initiating the study, must clearly identify the distinctive nature of the roles and responsibilities of the four groups - possibly through an initial briefing meeting, followed by a memorandum explaining the need for reorganization, the manner and mode for carrying it out, and roles of corporate management, the outside designer, the inhouse team, and other managers. If the intervention is non participative it is almost certain to be less effective in generating the required organizational changes. The organization must have open communication and firmness of purpose. These must be backed up by the perceived fairness and reasonableness of corporate management's attitude in introducing change. Another important consideration is whether the in-house groups and the designers are willing to innovate and create solution for resolving problems encountered during the study and whether they are able to evoke the help and support of other managers in the organization in evolving the solutions. The designers must indicate that although implementation of the recommendations is an organizational task, they would be available to resolve jointly with the client organization that any problems they encountered during the time of implementation.

Organisation Development

In India work on organisation development (OD) is going on in several PEs, but very little is being recorded and published. Amongst those actively involved in OD as outside facilitators are Abad Ahmed, Gourang Chattopadhyay, Somnath Chattopadhyay, Nitish De, Prayag Mehta, Udai Parock, T.V. Rao, Dharni Sinha, Gopal Valocha. Several competent internal OD facilitators have been active. Some reports giving organisational diagnosis and results of OD interventions have been written. HMT has done good work in this regard, and have published a number of reports (e.g. Anon, n.d., 1977, 1978, 1979; Rao, 1976, 1978, 1979, 1980, 1981). Vardan (1975), the main internal OD facilitator in HMT until sometime back, narrated the OD experience of HMT, and the evolution of OD through structural reorganisation and team building/management development/process consultation/sensitivity training with some attempts made to marry the two.

Datta (1980) reported the ongoing effort of organization development, undertaken in Bhopal unit of the Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL). One of the salient features of the effort has been development of feedback mechanism and the culture of the organisation.

Some attempts have been made to bring about changes in the banks. Eden (1978) describes the research processes that led to a meaningful participation of bank employees in studying and changing the organisation. Compared with other projects it had a different beginning in using participation in technological changes as a springboard to democratic work. The details are given regarding group discussion,



identification of major research areas, general problems, presenting report, introduction of change and review of change process. This study clearly demonstrated that participation in technological change could be a take-off point for participation in organisation, self study and change.

Chattopadhyay (1972, 1973) has narrated his experience in the use of group dynamics laboratory in process consultation in a bank. This is a major contributor and provides useful insights over the years.

Sayed (1980) has reported on the criteria of organisational health of bank branches. Global judgement about organizational health of the bank branches were primarily formed by two criteria viz. perception of bureaucratic structure (flexible vs. rigid) and employee involvement (involvement vs. indifference).

Bhatia (1980) studied the problem of absenteeism amongst the four units of SHEL, and found it to be the lonest in the Trichy unit. Several factors were identified having implications for action. Ho (1979) described an action learning programme (ALP) experiment in Trichy plant of SHEL to reduce absenteeism. The basic approach of ALP was that managers developed through dealing systematically with the real problems. The author has described the process and results achieved.

#### Human Resource Development

Work on human resource development (HRD) has gained great importance. Pareek and Rao (1981) have given some details about HRD, including a long case study of HRD in a PE. A large number of documents, investigations and case studies on HRD are being generated in the State

Bank of India. Paroek (forthcoming) has given some analysis of HRD dimensions in some PEs and has discussed the role of HRD managers and line managers in implementing HRD in PEs. Rao (1981, a,b,c) has discussed HRD in several contexts. Paroek (1980) has discussed briefly action research studies in introducing HRD.

Amongst the components of HRD, performance information on appraisal systems in PEs has been summarised by Chatterjee (1978). Comparing 62 PEs and private sector enterprises on training, Agarwal and Anantha-krishna (1980) conclude that public undertaking lay more emphasis on the effective use of management and technical training than the others. Non-projected aids constituted the bulk of the aids commonly available with and extensively used by all organisations and more facilities for software audio-visuals are available in public sector than private sector.

Srinivasan (1980) has described an action-oriented training programmes held at the Postal Staff College, New Delhi. Action initiated through training is broadly classified into three types: (a) innovation or a creative action, (b) use of better methods to improve performance and (c) creation of capacities for better and effective analysis of data to improve quality of decision making. The major gain of these programmes is the realisation of the importance of training organisation.

Khandelwal (1979) has narrated the experience of BHEL in adopting human resource accounting.

A good study on militancy of workers has been reported (Arya, 1980). A sample of 375 workers, 35 trade union leaders and 33 managers from two PEs taken in the study. One of the plants had a high incidence of disputes while the other had a low incidence of disputes. The study found that the economic variables exercised comparatively less influence on militancy than the psychological variables such as satisfaction with supervisory behaviour and institutional variables such as union participation. Contrary to the common belief, personal variables such as age and education were not found to explain significantly the militancy of workers.

A small number but quite important studies are being conducted in manufacturing and service PEs on worker participation, industrial democracy or work redesigning. Nitish De pioneered work in this area at NLI and PECCE, and instituted projects in several PEs. Worker participation experiments in BHEL have been reported by Datta (1978) and Raghavan (1978). Premraj and Venkatesan (1976) reported one experiment in employee participation in BHEL. Five employees representing five sections were exposed to weekly planning and review meetings. They discussed production problems and brought out schemes for high utilization of resources. Weekly schedules were mutually agreed upon in these meetings, resulting in an achievement of 90-95% of the planned consistently. The employees experienced a greater sense of job satisfaction, enhanced to some extent by the achievement of a 100 per cent increase in production with a very marginal increase in resources.

Mehta (1977) has suggested some organized interventions designed to educate managers and workers' representatives for effective implementation and promotion of participation in a public sector organization. A continuing interface has been observed between managerial employees and workers. The data suggest that these two groups have a differential pattern of motivation with different patterns of work satisfaction and personality styles. The action plan suggests that joint problem solving can be possible by joint discussions and action at the shop-floor level. This may result in positive pressures for bringing about desirable changes in the organization. Flowover of such pressures likely to be met with counter-pressures from various sources. This means that the role of top management and trade union leaders cannot be over-emphasized. The author concludes that the structure of the organization and trade unions should be kept in mind when endeavouring to bring about joint problem-solving.

Sharma, Singh and Dinesh (1978) have described in details the process of work redesign and participative management in a post office, resulting in higher productivity and customer satisfaction. This is an excellent write up, giving details of the experiment.

### Conclusions

This review of OB research on PEs has revealed some weaknesses. There have been some outstanding studies. However, most of the studies have been done without meticulous planning. It is certainly encouraging to find growing number of studies on PE.

In order to get better insight into various dimensions of PEs, and to be able to compare these at various points in time, it may be useful to form a research group who may prepare a comprehensive design and support and coordinate studies with a common approach and a well prepared sampling design. Some baseline data may be collected; then it may be possible to compare the various dimensions in several points of time in the future. Such studies need to be comprehensive, and multivariate techniques may be employed to get the maximum out of them.

While a well designed cooperative survey research may serve one useful purpose, qualitative indepth researches are also needed. Good case studies may help in getting more insight into various OB aspects of PEs.

The most neglected, and yet a very important aspect, is building of theories of organisational structure and processes of PEs. Researches need to develop new paradigms to explain significant experiences and research findings from PEs.

More intervention researches or action researches are needed. These need to be more rigorous, and should contribute both to the development of new theories and to evolving of more effective action

strategies. Researches on the process of action research or OD may help to develop insight into the dynamics of changing.

With the growing size, scope and impact of the public sector, organisation behaviour scientists and practitioners have a great opportunity to learn and contribute to new theories and practices. These opportunities are unique in India, and need not be missed by us.

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