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**ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR RESEARCH  
IN INDIA : A REVIEW**

By

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## ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR RESEARCH IN INDIA : A REVIEW

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### ABSTRACT

The paper defines Organizational Behaviour (OB) and indicates its relevance to management. It briefly describes some global trends in OB. Next, it discusses trends in OB research in India vis-a-vis quantity of OB research, the OB product-mix, shift from academic to socially relevant research, diversity in the use of research methods, and the emergence of Indian OB models. The paper next indicates cumulation in the areas of work motivation, conflict and conflict management, and the management of organizational dynamics. Finally, after noting the achievements of OB research in India the paper identifies several gaps and suggests several directions future OB research should take. In particular, it pleads for a sharper social focus, involving studies of the organizational consequences of major Indian realities and greater priority to the study of strategic organizations and individuals. It suggests greater effort at relating macro-OB variables to micro-OB variables, at relating macro-OB variables with one another, and the examination of a number of under-investigated micro-OB variables. It pleads for much greater use of natural experiments based research, and concludes by listing the sorts of help practitioners want from OB academics.

## OB AND MANAGEMENT

Organizational Behaviour (OB) is a social science with a strongly behavioural orientation. Its ambit is the study of the behaviour of organizations - the way they function, design themselves, choose goals and strategies, and seek to be effective in their environmental context (macro-OB) - and the study of the behaviour and effectiveness of persons and groups within the organization in the context of the structure, functioning, choices, and effectiveness of the organization (micro-OB). The strong behavioural orientation implies inductive and data-based, rather than rationalistic and hypothetico-deductive theorising. In other words, OB is strongly empirical and pragmatic and OB scholars put their faith in data and the implications of research findings rather than in arm chair functional analysis or a tight sort of positivism. A priori theories are relatively rare in OB, and even when they are formulated (e.g. March and Simon, 1958; Thompson, 1967) they are intended as spurs to fresh empirical effort rather than as doctrines impervious to empirical assessment.

OB is not a functional area of management, and OB is as much concerned about the behaviour of employees and other relatively less powerful stakeholders of the organization as it is about the behaviour of its managers. Nevertheless, OB has become a major knowledge - base for management, particularly in the areas of organizational design and the effective management of human resources. Besides, OB scholars have actively contributed to the development

of a number of management tools like participative management, humane supervision, job enrichment, management by objectives, team building, organizational diagnosis, innovative problem solving, etc. (see Table 1).

(Table 1 about here)

The usefulness of OB to management far transcends, however, the particular management tools OB has developed. For, OB offers a productive way of structuring and solving real life organizational problems, a way that makes OB as relevant to the personnel managers as to the marketing, production, finance and general managers of business firms, administrators of bureaucracies and institutions, and the leaders of political parties and unions. OB specialises in raising behavioural issues ignored or assumed away by most management sciences or related disciplines, and in the process facilitates a deeper analysis of problem areas. OB also offers a wide array of research and investigative techniques (Festinger and Katz, 1953) and a rich arsenal of concepts, models, and theories for making sense of the data.

OB helps the practitioner reach beyond surface definitions of problems to interesting ways of restructuring them. Take the situation of increasing frequency of frauds in banks. The commonplace response may be tighter supervision and punitive action against the offending staff. While these actions may be alright in the short run, they may not go far enough. An OB expert is likely to view frauds as deviant behaviour by alienated staff or by staff with insufficient job involvement and

organizational identification. The use of an OB systems framework (Emery and Trist, 1960; Leavitt, 1965; Katz and Kahn, 1966) may uncover a host of structural, technical, management process-related, strategic, personalistic, and organizational culture-related causes for this deviant behaviour, and these may lead to a useful re-evaluation of the current organizational design, strategy, management practices, socialization process, personnel management, etc. In this process, an enlargement of the problem definition may well take place, so that not only a more durable solution to the fraud problem may be found but a host of related problems may be uncovered that were earlier not dramatic enough to intrude into the consciousness of the top management. The systemic behaviour analysis approach so distinctive of OB may well be indispensable if reactive, stereotyped organizational responses to a host of issues ranging from growing union militancy, managerial alienation, customer disaffection, and decreasing productivity, to resistance to innovations like computerisation, budgeting, and human resource development systems, are to give way to creative, innovative options. And, of course, OB has much to offer, through action research, brainstorming, OD, and participative management, to the effective implementation of these solutions.

Some published examples of the application of OB concepts, tools, and research methods in real life settings indicate the potential usefulness

of OB to the practitioner. In a post office in Simla, De used action research to reorganise the work stations and thereby facilitated substantial improvement in productivity as well as in service to the customers (De, 1979). In a church institution operating medical and educational facilities, Chattopadhyay and Pareek (1982b) utilised OD tools and approaches to help the members arrive at a better understanding of power dynamics in the organization and reduce their dependency on the hierarchy. With the help of OB experts a major nationalised bank undertook a structural reorganization aimed at increasing accountability and coordination and at improving customer service in the face of huge size and headlong growth (Goyal, 1982). Creativity training for senior managers in a large multinational (Khandwalla, 1984) led to major changes in business strategy and fresh initiatives by the management, which in turn not only arrested the decline in profits but paved the way for the doubling of profits in two years. Maheshwari (1980) has reported the successful application of management by objectives in a wide range of organizations. Dharni Sinha (1986-87) has documented the successful application of team building concepts and tools in training ministers and senior officials of the Government of India. Achievement motivation training (McClelland and Winter, 1969) has become an integral part of entrepreneurship training in the Centre for Entrepreneurship Development, which to-date has trained about 10000 potential entrepreneurs in Gujarat, of which 40% to 50% have set up industrial units, a rate far in excess of the national average for entrepreneurship

training institutions. An empowerment attempt by OB experts in a tribal area of Bihar led to the institutionalization of a village self-governance organization and to a successful fight by the poor against the local money lenders (Mehta, 1986-87). A questionnaire based diagnostic study of the technical and administrative staff of the Government of India uncovered much alienation and led to several suggestions for changes in the way the government works (HRD Unit, 1980).

These examples can be multiplied many fold. Not only can OB be useful in tackling real life problems of organizations, it can be useful even to the makers of public policy (Ganapathy, 1986-87). OB provides rich insights into the effective design of organizations, into the building of distinctive, mission-oriented institutions, and into organizational dynamics. Since public policies are generally implemented through organizational means, the counsel of OB experts could help the policy makers propose implementable policies. It would help the implementers of policies make wise choices of the organizational instrumentalities needed for implementation. For a nation that over-relies on bureaucracy for a host of developmental programs and missions, the potential usefulness of OB for providing creative alternatives may well be enormous.

Before turning to trends in OB research in India it may be useful to survey very briefly some of the global trends in OB as a backdrop



GLOBAL TRENDS IN OB

Historically, OB has been pragmatic and empirical rather than rationalistic and positivist. Real-life organizational data have played a decisive role in OB's multifaceted, almost dialectical evolution. OB began with the principles of management school (Fayol, 1916; Taylor, 1947) which postulated some a priori principles that could govern the operations of all organizations (such as the "principle" that the span of control should not exceed 7). In the light of the empirical work of scholars like Dale (1952) and Woodward (1958), these "principles" crumbled, and a situation-specific or a contingency theory view of organizational design emerged (Thompson, 1967; Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Pugh et al, 1969; Khandwalla, 1972). Also, the earlier ideal type of an efficiently machine-like bureaucracy (Weber, 1947) gave rise, in the face of research, to a much more complex conception of the organization in which intended rationality produces unintended dysfunctions (March and Simon, 1958; Crozier, 1964), and the relations of the organization with its environment introduces much indeterminacy in organization design and leads to dynamic changes within this design (Emery and Trist, 1960; Leavitt, 1965; Katz and Kahn, 1966). The bounded rationality school (March and Simon, 1958; Simon, 1960; Cyert and March, 1963) arose to challenge, through field studies and computer simulations, the rationalistic postulates of the principles of management, the classical economic theory of the firm, and Weberian bureaucracy. It worked out the implications of limited human rationality and "satisficing" for organizational decision making. The human relations school (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939;

Likert, 1961) arose to point out the behavioural naïveté of the scientific industrial management paradigm (Taylor, 1947), and unleashed a vast flood of research on such topics as job satisfaction, supervisory and leadership styles, organizational climate, etc. In turn the human potential school (Maslow, 1954; Argyris, 1956; McGregor, 1960) arose both as a supplement to the human relations school and also to challenge the manipulation of employees by managers many saw in it (Etzioni, 1964). A good deal of organization development work is inspired by this school. Thus, research-based paradigm shifts rather than durable orthodoxies have characterised OB.

The late sixties, seventies, and eighties have seen a whole lot of exciting new perspectives enter OB via Organization Theory. The organization has been seen as a focal point of an organization set (Evan, 1966), and as an element in an inter-organizational network (Aldrich and Whetten, 1981). Effective organization design is seen as a synergistic combination of elements of structure (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Khandwalla 1973), of management orientations (Khandwalla, 1976-77), of strategy and structure (Chandler, 1962; Ansoff, 1965; Rumelt, 1974), of technology and structure (Khandwalla, 1974). Organizations are seen as subject to "natural selection" processes in the population ecology model (Hannan and Freeman, 1977). The political economy model (Benson, 1975) views organizations as partly cooperating and partly competing within inter-organizational networks. The strategic choice perspective sees the organization as capable of enacting its environment through internal, often politically arrived at strategic choices (Weick, 1969;

Child, 1972; Miles and Snow, 1978). The Marxist perspective (Zwerman, 1970) postulates a technological imperative for organizational behaviour. The "garbage can" model disputes the very existence of rationality in organizations (Cohen, March, and Olsen, 1972). Organizations are seen as cultural entities, with organizational culture playing a major role in shaping all organizational macro and micro behaviour (Evan, 1966; Whyte, 1969; Hofstede, 1981; Peters and Waterman, 1982). The organization is seen as having to manage partly competing and partly cooperative inter-dependencies and this as having notable implications for organizational design and functioning (Khandwalla, 1981a; Pennings, 1981). Power within organizations (Pfeffer, 1981) and power of organizations (Useem, 1982) have emerged as important areas of research, as also the use of discretionary, "surplus" resources available to decision makers (J.V. Singh, 1983). Organizations have been conceptualised as markets, hierarchies, or clans, with each form representing a distinctive mode of conducting organizational transactions (Ouchi, 1981; Williamson, 1981). Managements of crisis (Smart and Stanbury, 1978), decline (Jick and Murray, 1982), and turnaround (Schendel et al, 1976) have also become interesting areas of OB research. The dynamics of "strategic" organizations, and their relevance for socio-economic transformation, has been recently highlighted (Khandwalla, 1986-87).

In micro - OB the classical human relations and human potential paradigms still rule the roost, with their concerns about participatory

leadership, personal needs-based motivation and job attitudes, group dynamics, organizational climate, and organization development philosophy and tools. Some fresher approaches have been pathologies in executive personality (Zalesnik and Kets de Vries, 1975), transformational and charismatic leadership (Burns, 1978; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; House 1972), human needs as being shaped by social information processing (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978), learned helplessness in organizations (Martinko and Gardner, 1982), early socialization induced motives (McClelland and Winter, 1969), the quality of work life (Emery and Thorstrud, 1969), attribution theory (Heider, 1958), information integration and judgement in decision making (Anderson, 1981), equity theory (Adams, 1965) and its use in predicting consequences of allocation of rewards (Dittrich and Carrell, 1979), the management by the individual of his family and work lives (Lee and Kanungo, 1984), etc.

Table 2 summarises the significant OB perspectives.

(Table 2 about here)

Matching the paradigmatic diversity in OB has been the diversity in its research methods. Although the questionnaire survey is the most commonly used method, a sizeable number of laboratory experiments (e.g. Carzo and Yanouzas, 1969), field experiments (e.g. Morse and Reimer, 1956), field studies (e.g. Crozier, 1964), simulations (e.g. Bonini, 1963), participant observation studies

(e.g. Dalton, 1959), natural experiments (e.g. Trist and Bamforth, 1952), and archival studies (e.g. Stichcombe, 1959; Miller and Friesen, 1980) have been published. In probing complex organizational phenomena there is also some tendency to use multiple research methods as a triangulation strategy.

## TRENDS IN OB RESEARCH IN INDIA

There have been several reviews of OB work in India (Durganand Sinha, 1972; Chaturvedi, 1977; J.B.P. Sinha, 1981; Ganesh and Rangarajan, 1983; R. Padaki, 1987; Khandwalla, 1987b). These indicate some interesting trends.

### Quantity of OB Research

India has been one of the more active sites of OB research, with about a thousand publications to-date. The quantity of OB work in India has gone up substantially. In his survey of industrial psychology, Durganand Sinha (1972) surveyed 272 writings from 1919 to 1969 in the two areas that broadly cover OB, 'performance and job satisfaction' and 'management and organization'. He reported that there were only 5 studies from 1919 to 1947; the rest of the 267 studies were post-Independence. His data suggest that an average of around 6 studies were annually published in the early fifties, 12 in the late fifties, and 19 in the late sixties. J.B.P. Sinha (1981), in his survey of OB work during 1971-1976, located 317 references, an annual average of 53. Ganesh and Rangarajan (1983), in their survey of OB work during 1970 to 1979 located 456 references an average of 45 per year. While the average was 29 per year during 1970-1975, it was 69 per year during 1976-1979, with 84 references in 1976. The rate of increase may have slowed in the eighties. Khandwalla (1987b), in his somewhat eclectic survey of work on or related to organizational effectiveness, reviewed about 50 studies

for the years 1977 and 1978, and about 60 for the years 1983 and 1984. The number of references in R. Padaki (1987) for 1982 and 1983 were actually less than those for 1977 and 1978. Currently the annual output of OB Ph.D. theses, research-based books, monographs, and research papers may be around 70 in the aggregate, between 5% to 10% of the global total.

### OB Product - Mix

Although psychology - inspired studies of the individual's job attitudes, values, needs, and work related leadership styles are still important, there may have been a remarkable change in the OB product-mix. In Durganand Sinha's review (1972) of the pre-1970 work, over 50% of the studies were included in the category of performance and job satisfaction, that is, micro-OB work, while less than 50% were categorised as 'management and organization', that is, macro - OB work. In J.B.P. Sinha's review (1981) of the 1971-1976 work, only 20% were put in the category of 'job satisfaction, productivity, and quality of working life', with an additional 11% being leadership studies. On the other hand, 'organizational structure, climate, and processes', 'organization leadership', and 'external environment', mostly macro-OB concerns, accounted for 63% of the studies (the remaining 6% were inter-group and industrial relations studies). In Ganesh and Rangarajan's review (1983) of the 1970-1979 work, however, 50% of the studies were considered as having 'person themes'. The bulk was of 'motivation' studies (job and need satisfaction, job

involvement, morale, job attitudes, job motivation, etc.), being 55% of 'person themes' studies, followed by 'values' (beliefs, attitudes, styles, culture, traits), 24% of 'person themes' studies, 'leadership', 11% of 'person themes' studies, and 'roles' (stress, occupational goals), 10% of 'person themes' studies. Organization change and development, an omnibus category that included institution building, MBO, organizational effectiveness, organizational conflict, management training, process consultation, and organizational climate, accounted for 30% of the total number of studies. The remaining 20% were made up of studies of organization structure (5%), organizational communication (5%), decision making (3%), entrepreneurial studies (2%), intergroup relations (1%), and 'general' (4%).

The favourite OB themes of the fifties and sixties were production, absenteeism, incentives, motivation, job satisfaction, morale, effective leadership and supervision, and industrial and human relations at work (Durganand Sinha, 1972, pp.188-202). The focus was largely on the management of workers and the research sites were mainly factories. Relatively speaking, OB scholars, with some exceptions (Singh and Rudraswamy, 1959; Chowdhry, 1959, 1964, 1969a; Ganguli, 1964) were much less concerned with other issues of management. But from the late sixties OB scholars began to pay far greater attention to such issues as the management of change, especially through organization development tools; the management of institution building; of creativity and innovation; of growth,



diversification and internationalisation; of rehabilitation from sickness; the management of bureaucracies; of social development; of technology acquisition and development; of human resource development. They have also examined effective styles of management (rather than of individual managers), the impact of organizational goals, organizational communication, organizational structure and design, inter-organizational networks, generation gaps in organizations, tensions between social and task identities of managers, spirituality in management, stress management, etc. (see Table 3). While the scholars of the fifties and the sixties confined themselves mostly to studying behaviour within factories, later scholars have examined a much wider variety of organizations: indigenous business houses; multinationals; public enterprises; co-operatives; human service organizations; voluntary organizations; government bureaucracies; development administration agencies and programs; hospitals; employers' organizations; unions; educational institutions, etc. etc. (see Table 4).

(Tables 3 and 4 about here)

#### Shift from "Academic" to "Relevant" Research

Durganand Sinha (1972, p.176), reviewing Industrial Psychology (including OB) research upto 1970, commented, "...the psychologists who have worked in the industrial field have modelled their researches largely on those conducted in the west and have not always displayed resourcefulness, inventiveness and consciousness of unique

problems pertaining to Indian conditions. Problems which have been taken up for study are often a replication of work done abroad". J.B.P. Sinha (1981, pp.417-8), surveying the OB work from 1971 to 1976 commented, "... the demand for problem-oriented research has been increasing. There has been greater realization of a useful role that a behavioural scientist can play in industry, in government, in corporate bodies, and in voluntary organizations..... In order to meet the demand, a number of institutions which started coming up in the late fifties or early sixties have developed as viable centres of research having different than the academic and theoretically biased perspective of a university setting. The new centres are attracting younger behavioural scientists who in comparison to their senior colleagues have greater commitment to the problem oriented research.... The nature of problems rather than their discipline is likely to determine the strategy of their research." OB work in India after 1976 also reflects a continuing shift from disciplinary concerns and replication of Western studies to real life problem oriented research. The dramatic growth of OD studies, the increasing focus on institution building, effective styles of management, management of innovation, revitalization of sick organizations, management of social development, management of organizational growth and diversification, of technology acquisition, of human resource development, etc. (see Table 3) indicates much greater concern with researching socially and organizationally relevant problems.

### Diversity in the Use of Research Methods

The single most widely used method in OB research in India continues to be the questionnaire survey. But a greater diversity of research methods is being used now as compared to the sixties. There have been several action research studies (Singh, 1983; De, 1984); field experiments (Gupta, 1982; R. Padaki, 1984); natural experiments (Khandelwal and Nilakant, 1976); laboratory experiments (T. Sinha and J. Sinha, 1977; Singh, Warriar, and Das, 1979; Pandey, 1975, 1981; R. Singh, 1983), studies of archival records (Khandwalla, 1980; Hassan, 1980); field studies (Chaudhuri, 1980; Khandwalla, 1982; Paul, 1982; Pandya, 1982; Pendse, 1983; Padaki and Shanbhag, 1984); historiographical research (Tripathi and Mehta, 1981; Verma, 1981), etc. There are also accounts that approximate participant - observation or ethnographic studies (Krishnamurthy, 1977; Goyal, 1982; Dharni Sinha, 1986-87).

### Emergence of Indian OB Models

Conceptually, the OB work of the sixties and early seventies was dominated by Western models, such as of Maslow, Herzberg, Likert, Argyris, Lewin, Bennis, etc. Although the work of the seventies and eighties continues to be influenced by these, as well as by Porter, McClelland, Emery, Simon, Lawrence and Lorsch, etc., there have been significant Indian conceptualisations in micro as well as macro OB. Several motives have been identified that are likely to be particularly relevant to traditional societies embarking on modernization

and socio-economic development, such as the extension motive of Pareek (1968), the need for dependency identified by J. Sinha (1980), Chattopadhyay (1975), etc., social achievement motive by Mehta (1979), pioneering-innovating motive by Khandwalla (1985d), and work dedication motive by Naganand Kumar (1986). An Indian model of socialized commitment was proposed by Punekar and Haribabu (1978). Parikh (1978) proposed a duality in the Indian managerial identity consisting of the manager's traditional social identity and his modern work identity. R. Padaki (1987) has proposed a fairly comprehensive model of work attitudes by bringing in personality, organizational, psychological, and perceptual variables. Khandwalla (1981c) has proposed a model of turnaround management that differs strikingly from Western models. He has also proposed a number of synergy models (1976-77, 1985a), identified a distinctively Indian style of vigorous, pioneering, and innovative management (Khandwalla, 1983b), and developed a model of the organization that is strategic from the point of view of expediting socio-economic development (Khandwalla, 1986-87). A number of scholars have conceptualised the relevance of Indian cultural traits and institutions for Indian organizations (J. Sinha, 1974; Dayal, 1977; Garg and Parikh, 1986, 1986-87; Singh and Bhandarkar, 1986-87). J.B.P. Sinha (1984) has identified a distinctively Indian model of leadership called the nurturant - task or NT model, while Sudhir Kakar (1971) has identified authority patterns in Indian organizations. Chakraborty (1985) has conceptualised a model of management based on India's spiritual heritage. De (1984) has developed a model of an alternative to

bureaucracy that draws on action research and the quality of work life literature. Paul (1982) has developed a model of strategic management for development programmes that is based on the concept of synergy. Ganesh (1979) has gone well beyond Western institution building models in proposing one for academic institutions. D'Souza (1984) has proposed four alternative types of organizations for social change and also proposed the organizational design for each type. Pandya (1982) and A. Sinha (1984), based on their field studies, have proposed interesting new models of respectively technology acquisition decision process and the management of technical innovations. Based on Indian field work, Krishna Kumar (1982) has proposed a new theory of the effect of ownership relations on organizational autonomy. Pareek and Rao (1981) have developed a comprehensive model for designing and managing human resource systems based on their experiences with Indian organizations. R. Singh has been seeking to combine attribution theory, information integration theory, and equity theory (R.Singh, 1986) in his research on decision making. Thus, there has been robust, empirically grounded Indian theoretical and conceptual work in recent years. Certainly there is no justification any longer for Chaturvedi's assertion (1977) : "To-date there has been no contribution of any major significance to OB knowledge from India".

## CUMULATION IN OB

An attempt is made to examine what OB work in India "boils down" to vis-a-vis some significant areas of management concern in a developing society : work motivation; conflict and conflict management in organizations; and management of growth, change, innovation, revitalization, and institution building (organizational dynamics).

### Work Motivation

'Work motivation' encompasses the topics of staff needs, motives, and values; job satisfaction, morale, job involvement, work and organizational commitment and identification at the micro-OB level; motivating leadership at the group level; and motivating organizational climate, work ethic, etc., at the macro-OB level. Work motivation is probably the single most widely researched area in Indian OB, accounting for between 30% and 50% of all studies (Durganand Sinha, 1972; J. Sinha, 1981; Ganesh and Rangarajan, 1983). To an extent this lop-sided research involvement of OB scholars is justified because of the belief that the work ethic is weak in India (McClelland, 1961; Sinha, 1974; Weber, 1980), and so motivating people is indispensable for nation building and organizational effectiveness.

Micro-level work motivation: A number of motives relevant to a modernising society have been identified by Indian researchers. Pareek (1968) conceptualised the extension motive, or a concern for the growth and well-being of others, and linked it to the processes

by which social development can take place. Mehta (1979), building on the ideas of Pareek and McClelland (1961) conceptualised and measured social achievement as a motive. It appears to be a fusion of the achievement, extension, and social power (McClelland, 1975) motives. Social achievement seeks to measure the person's concern for collective striving for the benefit of the members of the collectivity. Such a motive would be of obvious importance for the managers and staff of organizations set up for promoting socio-economic development or for the self-reliance and economic betterment of disadvantaged groups. Sinha (1974), Chattopadhyay (1975), and others have postulated a childhood socialisation-based need for dependency, with significant implications for the effective leadership of persons having a high need for dependency. Punekar and Haribabu (1978) have developed the concept of socialized commitment. Khandwalla (1985b) identified and measured the pioneering-innovating motive, which he argued was of strategic importance for social, corporate, and institutional entrepreneurship. In a large sample of professionals the motive was found to be positively correlated with the self-development motive (akin to Maslow's self-actualization need) but negatively correlated with safety, status, conscientiousness, and effectiveness motives. Naganand Kumar (1986) identified and measured 'work dedication', a motive that may be especially critically needed in a variety of thankless but essential tasks (such as working on greenfield sites with severe infrastructural deficiencies).

Much of the other Indian work on needs and motives has been strongly Western in inspiration. Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1966) attracted voluminous research, with the attempt being mostly to validate the theory in India with different samples and alternative measurement methods (Dayal and Saiyadain, 1970; Saraveswara Rao and Rao, 1973; Dolke and Padaki, 1976; Sutaria, 1980). The findings are conflicting. In some studies the two factor theory holds up (Dayal and Saiyadain, 1970; Dolke and Sutaria, 1976); in others, it does not (Saraveswara Rao and Rao, 1973). Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954) has been another influential construct operationalised into a large number of need satisfaction studies. Maslow's need hierarchy concept itself has been tested with mixed results : Abrol (1982) reported support, Ganguli and Guha (1978) and Agarwal (1983) reported partial support, and Agrawal and Sharma (1977) reported no support.

The voluminous work on need satisfaction at work, work attitudes, job involvement and alienation (Misra, 1978), work and organizational identification (Shrivastava and Dolke, 1978), work commitment (De, 1975; Sharma and Dayal, 1975; Balaji, 1984) etc., suggests the following:

1. Work related attitudes, which encompass job satisfaction, work identification, work motivation, work involvement, work commitment, etc., seem to form a syndrome. For instance, job involvement and need satisfaction at work tend to be correlated (Misra and Kalro, 1981;



Khandelwal 1983; Misra et al, 1985). Job anxiety and job satisfaction (Srivastava and Sinha, 1975), alienation and job satisfaction (Pestonjee 1979), mental health and job attitudes (Sutaria, 1979; Gunthey and Singh, 1982), and job satisfaction and job tension or stress (Harigopal 1979; Surti, 1982; Das, 1985) tend to be negatively correlated. Thus, a basically favourable disposition towards the work or job tends to manifest itself as reported high job satisfaction, involvement, motivation, and low anxiety, alienation, job tension, etc., and a basically negative disposition towards the job or work tends to manifest itself as reported low job satisfaction, involvement, etc., and high anxiety, alienation, tension, etc. Although factor analysis may lead to the identification of several factors when items of job satisfaction, involvement, intrinsic motivation, etc., are subjected to factor analysis (Mukherjee, 1970; Dixit, 1971; Shrivastava and Dolka, 1979), for broad OB theory construction or for designing intervention strategies, it may be more productive to treat work attitudes as a syndrome than to contend with a plethora of related variables.

2. Work attitudes may have significant organizational consequences. Favourable work attitudes have been found to be related to superior worker performance (Dwivedi, 1980), job performance (Pestonjee, Singh, and Singh, 1981), and productivity (Prakasam, 1982); to turnaround of the sick organization (V. Padaki, 1984; Padaki and Padaki, 1985); and lower separation rate (Sutaria and Shah, 1977), accident rate (Pestonjee Singh, Ahmed, 1977), absenteeism (Sinha and Gupta, 1974; Narchal et al, 1984) and resistance to innovation (Pestonjee, 1972). Work motivation also seems to be linked to role enlargement, especially among professionals (Agrawal, 1978) which in turn may promote organizational effectiveness.

3. By and large, with some exceptions (Singhal and Sood, 1981), work attitudes tend to improve with the period of socialization of the individual in the organization (Sharma and Kapoor, 1978; Sharma and Sharma, 1978; Shrivastava, 1978; Pathak, 1982; Das, 1983; Narchal et al 1984). Thus, besides need satisfaction, work attitudes may well be measuring an adjustment and familiarisation factor (Dixit, 1971). For alienating organizational tasks it may be useful to deploy "old hands."

4. The power and status of the individual seems to be linked in interesting ways to his work attitudes and motivation. By and large, the higher the level occupied by the individual in the organization's power or status hierarchy, the more likely he is to have favourable work attitudes (Saiyadain, 1977; Sharma and Kapoor, 1978; Sharma and Sharma, 1978; Husain and Dhawan, 1978; Kumar, Singh, and Varma, 1981), the more likely is his work to be exciting (De, 1981; R. Padaki, 1982) and the more likely are his growth needs to be salient (Verma, 1971; Deb, 1972, 1977; Anantharaman and Ravindranath, 1982). Thus, elites of Indian organizations tend to be both more satisfied and also more concerned about personal growth, stimulating work, etc., than the organizational "proletariat" (rank-and-file), which may be dissatisfied and aspiring mainly to satisfying its security and social needs. Since work attitudes are known to have significant organizational consequences (see point 2 above), there is a strong case for increasing the aspirations of need satisfactions from work at lower levels and satisfying these aspirations via participative management (Malaviya, 1975; Akhilesh and Ganguly, 1982), participative redesign

of work (De, 1979; Sayeed and Sinha, 1981; J. Singh, 1981, 1983), job enrichment (R. Padaki, 1984b, c), etc.

5. The level of the individual's education and his work attitudes tend to be negatively correlated (Pestonjee and Singh, 1973; Sharma and Kapoor, 1978; Pathak, 1982; Saiyadain, 1983), though there are exceptions (Pathak, 1977; Agarwal, 1980). This has ominous implications for the professionalization of Indian organizations. Unless the relatively better educated young professional is given meaningful tasks, there is danger of his becoming a malcontent.

6. Personality disposition may have an important bearing on the individual's work attitudes. Generally speaking, people with high achievement motive and/or an internal locus of control tend to have better work attitudes than those with a weak achievement drive and/or an external locus of control (Dolke and Sutaria, 1980; Kulkarni, 1980, 1983; Singh and Srivastava, 1983; Srivastava, 1985). On the other hand, decisiveness and independence as traits may be negatively correlated with work attitudes (Indiresan, 1979). Thus, the ambitious and the hard working employees who, however, can adjust to organizational work environment and power realities are likely to be happy in Indian organizations; those with a weak work ethic or a high need for autonomy are likely to get frustrated. This has obvious implications for staff selection and on-job training. Another point of interest is that the high achievers tend to be "motivator" seekers and the low achievers tend to be "hygiene needs" seekers (Dolke and Sutaria, 1980). From the standpoint of organizational growth and social growth through development-oriented organizations, testing recruits for their

achievement drive and training staff members to raise their achievement drive should have significant pay-offs in terms of favourable work attitudes.

7. There is increasing recognition that work attitudes are subject to a complex set of forces. Pareek (1974) synthesised the expectancy and need satisfaction models to suggest that role satisfaction is shaped by work commitment which in turn is shaped by the person's organizational experiences which in turn are affected by the person's needs and personality. R. Padaki (1987) argues that organizational as well as personality variables shape psychological states (involvement, satisfaction, etc.). These psychological states shape behavioural outcomes (productivity, absenteeism, etc.).

There has also been work on values of organizational members. To the extent that values predispose individuals to certain kinds of choices, they may be conceived as motivators of behaviour. Some conclusions are:

1. Indian managers tend to value job challenge, autonomy, career growth, achievement, etc., more than interpersonal, socio-centric, or security related values (P. Singh, 1979; Soares et al, 1981; Maheshwari, 1983). These values differ sharply from the values ascribed to Indian culture, notably an affiliative, relationship oriented, kinship orientation (Kakar, 1971; Dayal, 1977), dependency proneness (J. Sinha, 1974; Chattopadhyay, 1975), and an "aram" or

taking-it-easy orientation (Sinha and Sinha, 1977). Thus, at least on paper, the Indian manager tends to espouse the values of the Protestant ethic and the personal growth ethic of the Maslowian variety.

2. These growth - achievement values of the Indian manager, however, do not seem to translate into congruent managerial styles (decentralization; democratic, participative decision making; investment in the growth and development of subordinates, etc.). For example, in a study by Singh and Das (1977a), the most frequently practiced managerial style appeared to be the bureaucratic style, followed by the benevolent autocratic style. In a study by Sharma (1983b) of thousands of Indian managers in 50 organizations, it was found that lower order needs for safety and security were perceived to be better looked after by management than growth needs. Other studies indicate the simultaneous salience of achievement need and manipulateness (Saiyadain and Monappa, 1977), growth as well as security needs (Agrawal and Sharma, 1977), and existential or self-actualization related as well as conformistic and manipulative values (Ganesh and Malhotra, 1975). Thus, Indian managers value growth and achievement, but not at the cost of safety, and seem to harbour apparently contradictory values.

3. The reason for the schizoid values of Indian managers may be that most Indian managers undergo two somewhat contrasting socializations (Parikh, 1978, 1979). Their early socialization is in more

or less traditional family settings in which they acquire values related to affiliation, security, dependency, and fulfilment of family and social obligations. Their later socialization in colleges, institutes of higher learning, or work organizations is in the pursuit of personal growth, efficiency, teamwork, meritocracy, rationality, etc. Thus, Indian managers may internalise both sets of values. Which values motivate behaviour may depend on which set is evoked at work. Under a paternalistic, conservative, authoritarian boss or culture or in a crisis the childhood socialization based "traditional" values may be evoked; under a dashing, professionalist boss, or in a "progressive" organizational culture, "modern" values may be evoked. This contextual sensitivity of the Indian manager should be distinguished from the emotional dependency of the Indian employee on his supervisor (J. Sinha, 1974; G. Chattopadhyay, 1975).

Leadership as a group-level motivator: The leader/supervisor, as a source of rewards, punishments, information, resources, guidance, etc., may be a notable motivator of work behaviour. There has been significant research in the area of leadership. The main points appear to be the following:

1. There is evidence that "democratic", "employee oriented" supervision is associated with favourable work attitudes of subordinates (Kakar 1971; Saraveswara Rao, 1973; Pestonjee and Singh, 1977; Prakasam et al, 1979), and more so than task oriented supervision (Pandey, 1975). Employee oriented supervision may also lead to higher productivity than task oriented leadership (Pandey, 1975; Singh and Srivastava, 1979).

2. Compared to autocratic leadership, both work attitudes and productivity may be higher under participatory and nurturant-task or benevolent-directive leadership (J. Sinha, 1984; Ansari, 1986) especially when the led are dependency prone, unskilled, or immature. The best results may be obtained by a leadership style that begins with a benevolent-directive (NT) mode and culminates in a participatory mode (J. Sinha, 1984). Among alternative leadership styles, the participatory approach generally gives best results, especially when the led are mature (Singh, Warriar and Das, 1979; P. Singh, 1982; J. Sinha, 1984).

3. Managers tend to vary their styles depending upon the situation (Lal, 1983), and whether they practice the authoritarian or the participative or some in-between mode may depend not just on their personality but also on their diagnosis of what style needs to be practiced. In a study, for example (Habibullah and Sinha, 1980), it was found that those practicing the authoritarian style tended to see the work culture as lacking in the work ethic, while those practicing the participative style tended to perceive a congenial, friendly work atmosphere.

Organizational climate as a motivator: The perception by the employee of the organization in its totality as supportive and stimulating or hostile and frustrating may significantly affect his work attitudes, values, and behaviour. Studies have shown perceived favourable organizational culture/climate to be related to reported

commitment to work (Singh and Das, 1978), job involvement (Pathak, 1982), identification with the work and with the organization (Singh and Das, 1978; Padaki and Gandhi, 1981), favourable job attitudes and motivation (R. Padaki, 1982, 1983b), need satisfaction (Sharma, 1983b), occupational commitment in a hospital setting (Singhal and Sood, 1981), "democratic" supervisory style (Indiresan, 1979, 1981), achievement and growth oriented managerial values (Singh and Das, 1977b), nurturant and participative leadership styles (M. Sinha, 1983), and classroom creativity (Goyal, 1973). In these studies organizational climate was seen as an individual-level phenomenon, that is, the attempt was to correlate the individual's perception of the climate with his work involvement, commitment, etc.

There are also studies of organizational climate in which the climate is seen as a systemic, aggregated phenomenon like organizational structure or strategy. In these studies (Timmappaya et al, 1971; Ansari, 1980; R. Padaki, 1983b; Sharma and Sunderrajan, 1983), organizational climate approximates the shared work culture of the organization. Timmappaya et al found that patient satisfaction was higher in hospitals with the better climate. Padaki found that the high productivity textile mills had a significantly higher score on a climate factor that could be labelled progressive paternalism than the low productivity mills. Sharma and Sunderrajan found an association between organizational climate and the quality of employer-employee relations.



The very characteristics of formal organizations - the elaborate division of labour, functional and role specialization, hierarchy of authority that differentiates the roles played at higher and lower levels of the organization - predispose organizations to extensive intra-personal, inter-personal, inter-departmental, and inter-level conflicts. These conflicts can be contained, however, by a host of mechanisms (Khandwalla, 1977, ch.14; Kumar and Srivastava, 1979; Sayeed and Mathur, 1980; Parthasarathy and Singh, 1984) ranging from careful selection of employees for compatibility with the organization's culture, their socialization through formal and informal training into core organizational values, structural mechanisms such as coordinating committees and divisionalization, to process mechanisms such as participatory planning and decision making, team building, mediation, compromise, charismatic leadership, etc. Despite the importance of the subject, the OB research on conflict and conflict management is modest. It may be summarised under intra-personal, inter-role, and inter-group conflicts

Intra-personal conflict: The socialization of Indian managers and staff into traditional norms in their childhood and their socialization into modernity in higher academic institutions and modern, technology-driven organizations constitutes a potent intra-personal conflict in values and norms : the pull of kinship relationships and dependency on boss figures, versus the pull of task logic, rational decision making, professionalism, and meritocracy (Parikh, 1978, 1979). This clash of orientations may imply schizoid behaviour by organizational members, ranging from feudal servility to proactive

professionalism by the same individual, depending upon the cues emitted by the context. Indian managers may have a tendency to espouse growth and self-actualization oriented values but practice bureaucratic and authoritarian styles (Singh and Das 1977a). Indian managers may also be riven by the conflicting pulls of idealism and pragmatism (Saiyadain and Monappa, 1977), growth and security (Agrawal and Sharma, 1977), and growth and conformity (Ganesh and Malhotra, 1975). These conflicts may be context created (a modernising society, the absence of a welfare state, relatively few job opportunities). They may also predispose managers and others to erratic behaviour or even decisional paralysis, and highlight the importance of such contextual conditions for cuing their behaviour as organizational climate and culture, leadership style, and the state of organizational performance. Some OB scholars have proposed that if some of the values of the wider social culture, such as kinship orientation and a benevolent sort of authoritarianism in boss figures are incorporated into organizational culture, there would be less conflict (J. Sinha, 1974; Dayal, 1977). Towards the same end, some others have proposed the incorporation of some of the traditional social institutions into organizations (Garg and Parikh, 1986-87; Singh and Bhandarkar, 1986-87). In other words, the suggestion is that if modern organizations could drop some of the trappings of modernity (formality, meritocracy) then organizational members may feel more "at home" and therefore experience less conflict. Allegedly, this is what the Japanese have done with success (Durlabhji, 1986-87). Professionalization through management

training (Baumgartel and Hill, 1972) and through human resource development systems (Pareek and Rao, 1981) offer the opposite alternative.

Inter-level, inter-role and inter-functional conflict: There may be substantial inter-level, inter-role and inter-functional conflict in Indian organizations, although the research evidence is more indirect than direct. For instance, scholars have reported vertical barriers to communication, especially down-up communication (Singhal, 1973; Agrawal, 1974; Prasad, 1978), notably relating to unfavourable reactions of subordinates to management policies and decisions, communication upwards of personal and family problems, information pertaining to unfavourable performance, etc. There may also be a conflict vis-a-vis the authority to be exercised at different levels, with managers generally desiring more authority than that delegated to them (Chaudhury and Prasad, 1978). The bureaucratic style increasingly practiced and the nurturant-democratic style decreasingly practiced at lower organizational levels (Singh and Das, 1977a; Singh, 1979) may also turn the lower levels against the higher, evidenced by lower job satisfaction at these levels compared to higher levels (Pestonjee, 1979), lower organizational commitment (Balaji, 1984), and greater role stress from a feeling of stagnation (Sen, 1981). Inter-level conflicts may also be accentuated by differences in priorities as to what contributes to ineffective management (FORE, 1984). For instance, higher managerial levels may rank coordination problems high, while lower managerial levels may rank union power as a major impediment but not coordination difficulties.

Indian middle level managers may be experiencing much conflict with both the workers and the top managers; the workers because of their unionization and resulting coercive power and the top managers because of their power to reward and punish the middle level managers. Indeed, top executives and union leaders may often team up at the cost of these lower level managers (J. Sinha, 1986).

Professionalising Indian organizations may be experiencing fairly severe inter-functional conflicts. For one thing, departmental values tend to differ fairly sharply (Singh and Das, 1977b). For example, operating autonomy and operating stability may be particularly highly valued by production management staff while adventure and challenge may be far more highly valued by personnel management staff (Singh and Das, 1977b). What is perceived as effective management may also differ sharply as between different functional areas (FORE, 1984). Marketing managers tend to rate customer satisfaction as a very important indicator of effective management but not production managers (FORE, 1984). Besides, managers in each functional area tend to over-value the importance of their function while under-valuing the importance of other functions.

Modernising organizations may be experiencing interesting sorts of inter-role conflicts. One is the line-staff conflict. Modernising organizations tend to set up a variety of staff departments like quality control, corporate planning, human resource development, electronic data processing, etc. The tasks in these newer jobs tend to be more interesting (R. Padaki, 1984d) and better paying because of the higher

qualifications required of those doing them. The ready access to top management may also be galling to the line managers who must approach top management through the elaborate hierarchy. Equally, of course, jobs may be particularly frustrating for staff persons in organizations that do not value professional management (Das, 1983).

Another interesting conflict in Indian organizations seems to be inter-generation conflict (Chowdhry, 1969; Agrawal, 1984). Modernization implies frequent updating of technology and the need for increasing expertise at technical and middle levels, thus necessitating increasing hiring of technocrats at these levels. The norms of the non-technocratic senior managers are likely to differ sharply from the norms of these younger technocrats, with the former accentuating stability, loyalty, seniority and conservatism, and the latter emphasising innovation, meritocracy, organizational growth, and entrepreneurship. Some indirect evidence is the correlation of job dissatisfaction with educational level (Pestonjee and Singh, 1973; Sharma and Kapoor, 1978; Pathak, 1982; Saiyadain, 1983).

A number of conflict resolution devices have been discussed. Some of these are drawn from Indian culture and social institutions, such as ingratiation (Pandey and Kakkar, 1982), mediation, respect to elders, commitment to dharma, etc. (Agrawal, 1984; Chakraborty, 1985) while others are more Western in inspiration, such as team building (Dharni Sinha, 1976), process consultation (Chattopadhyay and Pareek, 1982b), participative decision making (Malaviya, 1975; Singh, Warriar,

and Das, 1979; Akhilesh and Ganguly, 1982), participative redesign of work (J. Singh, 1983; De, 1984), OD (Ahmad et al, 1981; Giri, 1982; De, 1983), MBO (Maheshwari, 1980), etc. Conflict avoidance and compromise may generally be the two most commonly used conflict resolution mechanisms in Indian organizations (Parthasarathy and Singh, 1984). There may also be a tendency to use power and influence more coercively and coarsely at lower levels of management than at higher levels (Ansari et al, 1984).

The indigenous cultural approach to resolving the endemic conflicts in Indian organizations has been gaining momentum (Dayal, 1977; Parikh, 1978, 1979; Singh and Paul, 1985; Chakrohorty, 1985; Garg and Parikh, 1986, 1986-87; Singh and Bhandarkar, 1986-87; Durlabhji, 1986-87). The basic argument is that Indian culture has evolved a variety of mechanisms for resolving conflicts, such as personalised relationships, the karta system of benevolent and consultative paternalism, the panch, mediation by elders, gerontocracy, shared ideas of right and wrong (dharma), detached righteousness of the Gita variety, institutions of catharsis, etc. However, modern organizations are far too complex; such cultural mechanisms cannot be cure alls. Besides these mechanisms are no more value free than the Western mechanisms of participative decision making, team building, confrontation meetings, and sensitivity training. Just as an over-reliance on Western mechanisms may antagonise the traditional minded, an over-reliance on the traditional mechanisms may antagonise the younger professionals. There is also the danger of going revivalist and turning reactionary. Obviously a lot more research is needed on the effectiveness of both sorts of mechanisms in organizational settings. It is likely that an eclectic use of both types of mechanisms may turn out to be more useful than over-reliance on either.

## Management of Organizational Dynamics

Indian organizations are subjected to extraordinary pulls. There are the pulls of pioneering in an under-developed economy, of growth, and of modernization and technological change. Indian organizations have to contend with a constrictive and fickle control environment. They have also to contend with a fast-changing social culture and the incompatibilities of traditionalism and modernity. The management of turbulence, and of the organizational dynamics this turbulence gives rise to, is a significant research area for OB scholars. This section reviews Indian work on organizational change and development, on the management of creativity and innovation, on organizational growth and its management, on organizational sickness and the management of revitalization, and on institution building - what broadly may be termed as organizational dynamics.

Organizational change and development: There has been a considerable literature on organizational change and development, although a good part is anecdotal, descriptive, and conjectural (J. Sinha, 1981; Khandwalla, 1987b). The more serious work relates to studies of survey feedback, organization development, action research and participative organizational change and redesign of work, systemic change through management by objectives, introduction of planning and budgeting, human resource development systems, etc. In all of these, the attempt is to change the very character of the organization by introducing into it not only a management tool, but also th

philosophy and values that underlie the tool. In this sense these attempts are facets of institution building by the organizational leadership.

These various change efforts may be categorised into those aiming at interpersonal competence improvement, at technical and/or structural change, at increasing the organizational goal orientation of managers, at increasing the operating skills of managers, at greater management control of operations, etc. A number of case studies of interpersonal competence changing attempts have been reported. These involve team building through sensitivity training labs (G. Chattopadhyay, 1972, 1973; Sinha and Gupta, 1975; Dharni Sinha, 1976), and conflict confrontation and consensus building through process consultation (B. Srivastava, 1974; Pareek, 1975; T. Rao, 1978; Chattopadhyay and Pareek, 1982b).

There have been a number of studies of managerial training and human resource development systems in organizations. These aim at professionalising management, especially human resource management, and institutionalising into the organization a culture of staff growth and development. Chakraborty and Padma Prabha (1978) studied the perceived relevance of generic versus functional area training for managers and found the former was more suitable. Puri and Agrawal (1975) examined executive training in 60 companies and identified the deficiencies in training and training follow-up. Saiyadain (1986) studied the management of the training function in 49 organizations. In a majority, the



training function was manned by non-specialists. There have also been studies of human resource development practices in industry (Pareek and Rao, 1981; T. Rao, 1982, 1984). These studies suggest that while HRD is finding increasing acceptance, in organizations that adopt HRD systems the actual practice may at times be at odds with HRD philosophy, for example, the use of performance appraisal for control rather than for staff developmental purposes.

Organization Development (OD) is a broad spectrum technology yoked to a teamwork and human growth oriented ideology. A large number of OD attempts have been reported (De, 1971, 1983; Varadan, 1975; Ahmad et al. 1980; Chattopadhyay and Pareek, 1982a; Giri, 1982; Mehta, 1984). These studies provide rich descriptions of both the OD interventions and the resulting behaviours, but seldom the pre and post measurements of behaviour and attitudes that can quantify the consequences of OD interventions. Nor do they demonstrate any link between OD interventions and improvements in organizational performance.

Some survey feedback studies, too, have been reported, of gathering data from organizational members relating to their work attitudes, their organizational perceptions, etc., and feeding back these data for organizational diagnostic and change agenda setting purposes (Chakraborty, 1974; Mohanty and Ahuja, 1979; HRD Unit, 1980).

A number of studies of organizational structural, technical, and process change through participative diagnosis and decision making have been reported. Huss (1971, 1973) reported how a hospital's

structure and processes were changed through participative decision making initiated by her with the help of consultants. Akhilesh and Ganguly (1982) reported the use of participation and communication to bridge the gap between the desired and the practiced organizational systems. There have been a large number of reported attempts at improving the quality of work life through participative re-design of jobs and workflow (Nilakant and Rao, 1976; De, 1977, 1979, 1984; Joseph, 1978; Mehta and Jain, 1979; Sayeed, 1980; Sayeed and Sinha, 1981; Singh, 1981, 1983; R. Padaki, 1984c). Many of these studies reported tangible improvements in the performance of the sites where the participative re-design of work was attempted.

A few studies have been reported of attempts at changing the structure of the organization, such as the reorganization of the State Bank (Das, 1971; Goyal, 1982) and of BHEL (Krishnamurthy, 1977). A study of the introduction of budgetary control in four organizations has also been reported (Nagabrahman, 1980).

Management by objectives has become fairly popular, and some empirical studies have appeared (Maheshwari and Ganesh, 1974; Kamra and Shyam Sunder, 1974; Amrolia and Kashyap, 1975; Maheshwari, 1980). Maheshwari (1980) provided 20 case descriptions of the attempts to introduce MBO. Of these, about half were "successful", that is, MBO lasted for a while and resulted in some internalization of its philosophy and technology. In these, some improvement in management proces

from a concern with procedures to concern with goals and results, was noted, though no data were presented of any improvement in the performance of the organizations. Maheshwari noted that in India MBO seemed to be used more as a planning and control device than as a motivational and team building mechanism.

Some general comments about the work on organizational change and development are in order. Most of the reported studies were of natural or field change experiments, and in most cases the opportunity to quantify the changes that took place by taking pre-change, during change, and post-change measures of morale, collaboration, productivity, etc. was missed. A lot more organizational dynamics would have been known if these elementary precautions had been taken. Secondly, very few change efforts were demonstrated to be successful in hard performance terms, some exceptions being participative redesign experiments. Thirdly, it is not clear how durable were the changes sought to be made. The changes may have been exciting to the staff when they were made; but did any institutionalization of the underlying values take place? Very little information is available on this point. A lot more needs to be known about the congruence of the change efforts with the social culture brought into the organization by its members. There is also the scattered evidence of tools of change being put to unintended uses, such as the use of performance appraisal in HRD and the use of objectives setting exercise in MBO for control rather than developmental purposes. This needs to be probed further.

Management of creativity and innovation: Innovation is an imperative for developing societies. Innovation in the organizational context is a special kind of change, one that is more difficult to manage because of the risk and unfamiliarity factors inherent in innovation. Innovations come in a great variety : process and product innovations, strategic, structural, administrative, and leadership innovations, marketing, finance and personnel management innovations, etc. A better understanding of the management of innovation and of the ways an organization acquires a culture of innovation must be high priorities not only for competing organizations like corporations (A. Sinha, 1984), unions, and political parties, but also, even more so, for a host of organizations directly contributing to the socio-economic development effort, such as government bodies (Chaganti, 1979), cooperative and voluntary organizations, health and family planning promotion organizations (Murthy, 1986), irrigation and other command area organizations (Srivastava, 1986), research and development organizations (Morehouse, 1977; Chaudhuri, 1986), etc. Although small, the Indian work on the management of innovation and its various facets is significant.

There has been some work on the management styles and organizational cultures that may be conducive to innovation. Khandwala (1976-77) identified a top management orientation he labelled risk taking in a survey of over 100 Canadian companies, and some of the scales constituting risk taking measured the innovation, growth, and risk taking propensities of the top management. The risk taking orientation was significantly correlated with the organization's growth rate, and in

combination with an organic management orientation (Burns and Stalker, 1961) it was associated with an index of overall performance. Later, in a study of 75 Indian organizations, Khandwalla identified a top management mode labelled pioneering innovative or PI (Khandwalla, 1983b) which was an amalgam of orientations to pioneering new, sophisticated products and technologies into the country, to creativity, innovation and experimentation, to a strong concern for product quality, administrative flexibility, calculated risk taking, etc. Analysis (Khandwalla, 1987a) suggested that certain initial choices and preferences, notably attraction of creative, high quality staff to the organization through generous remuneration and their retention by giving them substantial operating autonomy, the management's commitment to have a unique organization by offering novel products or services to clients, opportunistic diversification, and a hard-nosed commitment to operating efficiency are necessary to evolve into the PI orientation. These need to be reinforced by secondary choices like greater management professionalization, greater priority to contributing to stakeholders, marketing of custom - tailored outputs, search for high potential but risky ventures, marketing of sophisticated, premium quality products, the use of peer group control, open channels of communication, meritocracy, emphasis on discipline and personal accountability, and on widespread experimentation. The PI mode was correlated strongly with the real long term growth rate of the organization. R. Padaki (1982) extracted from her measure of organizational climate in 5 mills a factor called risk, responsibility, and standards, indicative of an

entrepreneurial, venturesome organization. Maheshwari (1978) in a study of a dozen organizations, measured the entrepreneurial orientation of management which may be presumed to be supportive of innovations. This orientation, in combination with the participative orientation as measured by Maheshwari, was correlated with overall organizational performance. Bhogle's work on schools (Bhogle, 1970) indicates that schools with progressive headmasters and cosmopolitan teachers innovated more than those without these, and Baumgartel and Jeanpierre (1972) found that a receptive organizational climate was essential for managers trained in professional management to introduce managerial innovations in their organizations. Goyal (1973), too, found that a responsive and open educational culture was associated with student creativity. Thus, a dynamic, innovative sort of management culture may be essential for the organization as a whole to become innovative.

Two studies shed light on the processes by which innovations get institutionalised. Nagabrahmam (1980) studied the adoption of three organizational innovations, namely, management by objectives, budgeting, and human resource development system, in the departments of four organizations. A. Sinha (1984) studied 43 technical innovations in 24 companies, some being product innovations and the others being process innovations. Nagabrahmam found several factors differentiating the high and low adoption departments. These were processes of introduction, implementation, and stabilization of the innovation, adoption proneness at departmental level, departmental climate, and

leadership commitment to innovation. In other words, a great deal of continuing nurturance and support has to be made available to the innovation both at the site of the innovation and from the top to institutionalise an organizational innovation. Sinha found support for his hypotheses that product innovations are likelier when the manufacturing system is still not too systematized and that process innovations are likelier when the manufacturing system is moderately systematised. Technical innovations are difficult when the manufacturing system has got set, and require a high order of change agency on the part of those proposing the innovation. Sinha identified a number of organizational processes pertaining to innovation, such as recognition of innovation need or opportunity, search for innovation, identification and definition of the innovation, its technical design, internal opposition to the innovation, the approval for the innovation, internal commitment building for the innovation, organising for it, implementing it, etc. Sinha sought to identify recurring cycles of these processes and tried to link these cycles to various innovation situations such as innovating in a crisis, problem spurred technical innovation when there is a powerful sponsor and when there is no powerful sponsor, growth opportunities through innovation within the existing business and such opportunities in other businesses, etc. Sinha concluded that the technical innovation process is influenced by five interacting factors, namely, the situation (crisis, problem, or opportunity), relatedness of the innovation to existing operations and know-how, the complexity and size of the organization, the support of the top management, and the presence or absence of institutionalised R and D in the organization.

Organizational growth: Organizational growth can come about through a variety of means : expansion of the output of current products or activities, vertical integration, related or unrelated diversification, internationalization, acquisition of other businesses, mergers, joint ventures, acquisition of new technology, etc. For a society aiming at rapid economic growth, the effective management of the growth of organizations is a vital concern. Fortunately, there has been a sizeable and growing body of work on the broad theme of organizational growth.

There have been some studies of the growth strategies of business houses. Balakrishnan, Bhargava, and Jain (1980) compared the growth strategies of the Tatas and the Birlas, the two largest Indian business houses. The Birlas grew faster and diversified more broadly after the sixties, when restrictive legislation had made it difficult for large business houses to obtain licenses for growth. That is to say, the Birlas seemed to adapt more effectively to a restrictive control environment. In the eighties, however, with the liberalization of the economy, the Tatas have made up lost ground. In a study of several Western Indian business houses over a number of generations, Tripathi and Mehta (1981) noted that their growth was mostly through vertical integration and related diversification, and that this growth came about through an interaction between opportunities and their perception by the business house, and an internal assessment by the house of its strengths and areas of competence.



A comparative study of types of diversification in public and private sector enterprises over 3 five year periods (Chaudhuri et al, 1982) also suggests the predominance of related diversification in India, though related diversification is more in evidence in the public sector. In the public sector, the restrictive charters of several enterprises may have limited their diversification options. In the private sector the possibility of escaping from irksome government controls by diversifying into high priority "core" sectors may have promoted unrelated diversification. George's comparative study (1984) of 36 diversifiers and 32 non-diversifiers indicated that while the diversifiers showed a better financial performance, there was considerable performance variation within his categories of diversifiers. The worst performance was of unrelated diversifiers while the best performance was of companies having a dominant business but diversifying marginally into unrelated areas. George found that related diversifiers generally performed better than unrelated diversifiers.

Maheshwari and Malhotra (1973) examined the structural changes over a decade in seven large and growing companies. The growth and regional diversification of the banks among these led to their acquiring more corporate level staff and functions, and to the adoption of a more sophisticated budgetary control system and a regionally decentralized structure. Other organizations that had grown through diversification divisionalized their structures. In another study of 50

companies, Nagendran and Rao (1985) found a tendency for increasing, often conglomerate, diversification, and attendant divisionalization, thus confirming a global trend (Chandler, 1962; Rumelt, 1974; Channon 1982). Das (1979) examined the dynamics of diversification in a multinational and identified three phases, viz. the initiation phase, involving negotiations with the control environment for permits, etc., and the acquisition of competence for managing unfamiliar technology; the operationalization phase, involving the designing and building up of a new organization for the diversification; and the consolidation phase in which the new organization is integrated with the values and systems of the main organization. Chaudhuri and Khandwalla (1983) described case studies based alternative modes of managing growth and diversification in the public sector. They identified the "mitosis mode" of going into a new product market with an initially small market share, mastering the technological and marketing complexities at a small cost, and then expanding rapidly, often by duplicating plants, as generally the best way in the Indian conditions of relative unfamiliarity with modern industrial management in a highly complex and turbulent operating environment. Two ineffective modes were identified: the "albatross mode" of entering a new market with much too large a plant that permanently saddles the organization with an excess capacity problem, and the "drop out" mode in which the organization enters a competitive market without a dominant market share and without acquiring the professional management skills required to operate in such a

market, fares badly, drops out and repeats the mistake with other such attempts at diversification. For successful organizational growth by diversification into seemingly lucrative but unfamiliar areas, an organizational learning strategy may be indispensable. Paul's study (1982) of six successful development programs in Third World countries also makes the same point. He found that pioneering development programs were more likely to succeed if they started with one rather than many goals, diversified their goals and activities sequentially and in a phased manner, preceding expansion or diversification by pilot projects or experiments that maximized learning, etc.

Besides divisionalization, diversification requires many other adaptive responses by the organization (Chaudhuri and Khandwalla, 1983), such as the installation of a more sophisticated management information and control system, increased reliance on technocracy (the hiring of specialist staff for a host of corporate functions), and greater participative management and greater emphasis on human resource development. This is because diversification and the attendant divisionalization imply greater organizational differentiation (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) and this needs to be offset by more complex forms of integration such as sophisticated MIS, participative management, and human resource development system.

A problem faced by diversifying or internationalizing organizations

(Chaudhuri and Khandwalla, 1985) is one of managing multiple operating cultures within the organization. One strategy is the similar socialization of all managers (like that in the IAS cadre) so that a shared professional approach keeps the organization integrated. Another is the opposite, full scale divisionalization with each division developing its own distinctive culture. A third is keeping the organisational core free of new cultures associated with novel products or activities by concentrating the latter in satellite units, and integrating these satellites into the mainstream only after they achieve operating viability.

Technology acquisition from abroad (rather than its indigenous development) has been a major growth strategy of Indian corporate organizations. Currently, for instance, nearly a thousand technology collaboration agreements get signed every year, mostly with U.S., British, German and Japanese technology suppliers. The initial choices of technology, scale, size, etc., appear to be strategic choices that may significantly affect later performance, as evidenced by a study of 20 U.S. corporations operating in India and having Indian partners (Desai, 1979) and another study of two large public sector engineering corporations (Ramamurti, 1982). Chaudhuri's study of technology acquisition by six tractor manufacturers (1980) indicates four stages in technology acquisition management, each requiring distinctively different organizational designs and coping strategies. The first stage is the technology acquisition stage in which the key tasks are environmental scanning

for locating the right technology and the right supplier. Negotiating skills (to negotiate with the control environment and the suppliers) are critical. The needed organization is just a small team. The second stage is the adaptation stage; the key decisions are make or buy decisions, location of local suppliers, and design of work facilities and equipment. A larger team is needed for these tasks. The third is the technology utilization stage, and the key tasks are the building up of the organization, systems development, trouble shooting, and building up a distribution network. The needed organization is fairly complex, and a number of departments need to be set up. The fourth is the technology development stage in which the key tasks are enlargement of customers, the development of more sophisticated production and organizational systems, the setting up of additional organizational units, environmental analysis, cost reduction, product adaptation, etc., requiring a much more complex organization.

Pandya (1982) investigated the decision processes and decision "heuristics" (rules of thumb) of ten technology acquisition decisions of a "high tech" organization. These decisions involved complex interactions between multiple parties (the organization, its potential suppliers, the government, and the governments of the potential suppliers). Pandya's technology purchase decision process model consists of learnt heuristics and various routines or programmes constituting the different facets of this process. The decision process was conceptualised as consisting of four phases,

namely, identification (of need for acquiring technology), development (search for options, design, and negotiation routines), selection (screening, evaluation, choice and authorization), and administration (finalization and government authorization). Pandya also identified the conflict resolution, search, and uncertainly absorption / avoidance heuristics used in each phase. There was a tendency for these heuristic to get more professionalized and sophisticated with experience, reflecting organizational learning.

To sum up : diversification tends to improve the performance of the organization, especially related diversification. The management of diversification is quite complex. It not only requires structural change (decentralization, divisionalization, MIS, corporate staff departments) but also an environment and product market learning strategy and a strategy for managing the structural, staff-based, and cultural differentiation that comes about with diversification. Technology acquisition is an important means for diversification, but the process is a complex one and requires the management of its various phases and the evolution of a host of sophisticated operating heuristics and programs.

Organizational sickness and revitalization: Organizational pathology has been a significant topic in Organization Theory (March and Simon, 1958; Crozier, 1964; Starbuck, Greve, and Hedberg, 1978). Organizational sickness is also a significant social issue, with high rates of sickness in the developed economies (Bibeault, 1982; Slatter, 1984), and a high and rising rate of sickness in India (Khandwalla, 1981b;

Bidani and Mitra, 1982; Srivastava and Yadav, 1986). Currently, 100000 units in the Indian private sector are sick, with some Rs.50 billion of capital locked up in these; of the public sector corporations whose total investments exceed Rs.500 billion, a majority are either loss making or marginally profitable; and there is widespread sickness in the country's academic, governmental, and other institutions. The proliferation of organizations and organizational forms to force the pace of socio-economic development in the face of limited management skills, a bureaucratic and corrupt control environment, and shortages and economic infrastructural deficiencies may be the major systemic cause for this growing sickness. With an annual investment volume in India that in real terms is currently 15 to 20 times the volume in the early fifties, funneled through a host of organizations, many of them bureaucratic, widespread mismanagement of economic resources may be virtually inescapable.

There has been some empirical work on the causes of sickness. Reportedly, a survey of 378 sizeable sick companies conducted by the Reserve Bank of India indicated that 52% of these were sick because of management deficiencies, and a further 14% because of initial faulty planning and other technical drawbacks (also mostly because of poor management) (Bidani and Mitra, 1982, p.59). The only other significant cause was market recession, accounting for 23% of the cases. In a study of 223 industrial projects funded by banks, nearly 65% were sick due to lack of good management, poor implementation of the project, marketing problems, and technical/operating

problems, all indicative of management deficiencies (Srivastava and Yadav, 1986, p.15). Non-availability of raw materials, shortfall of working capital, and labour trouble accounted for 26% of the sickness. Ratings of 40 potential causes of sickness by a sample of the rehabilitation officers of various financial institutions indicated that of 13 causes rated as most important, ten were deficiencies in various facets of management : corrupt management, non-professional management, in-fighting within management, a weak board of directors, too much centralization, choice of wrong technology, excessively rosy assessment of investment by management, poor financial management, poor cost control and manufacturing management, and inadequate marketing, in that order of rated importance (Khandwalla, 1986a). Factor analysis of the data revealed that the major cause clusters in order of importance were : bad management; poor support of financial institutions to the organization; negative government behaviour; poor marketing capability; a hostile operating environment; and a wheeler-dealer management. Thus, a number of studies indicate that organizational sickness is most commonly likely to be caused by factors internal to the organization, and that poor management of the organization (poor top management and poor management of functional areas) is the major cause of sickness.

Besides management - induced sickness, there is also the phenomenon of industry-wide sickness (Padaki and Shanbhag, 1984; Srivastava and Yadav, 1986). Clearly, action to cure sickness would differ substantially in the two cases : improvement of the management of



the unit if the cause of sickness is bad management; industry-level action, such as amalgamations and mergers, lobbying the government for relief to industry, industry-wide rationing of scarce inputs, joint ventures, industry-level promotion of exports, industry-level R and D, etc., in case the sickness is because of recession in the industry or other industry-wide reason.

A number of studies of successful revitalizations of very sick organizations have been published (Ratnam, 1971; Prahlad and Thomas, 1977; Khandwalla, 1981b; Hanumanthrao, 1981; Hegde, 1982; Paramesvar, 1983; Bhatt, 1984). Cumulatively, these suggest that successful turnarounds proceed in three phases: typically, an outsider person or team that comes into the organization to "unfreeze" the organization from its state of paralysis in the face of crisis; a process of realignment and change towards organizational health; and a process of consolidation or "refreezing" of the changed organization in the culture of innovative professionalism (Khandwalla, 1985c). Recognition of sickness by the owners, and willingness to do something about it in the form of a dynamic new turnaround leader or team is often a crucial first step (Brown, 1984). Credibility-building by a series of successful quick pay off actions by the change agent individual or team is essential if the paralysed organization is to be unfrozen. But mobilization of the managers and staff for the turnaround, and the garnering of the support of significant stakeholders (owners, bankers, unions, suppliers, major customers, government bodies, etc.) to the turnaround are equally essential if the turnaround is to pick up steam. In successful turnarounds, these

are best achieved by sharing factual information on the extent and dimensions of the sickness with the staff and the stakeholders, request to them for assistance for the turnaround, the highlighting of significant social missions that the organization is capable of performing, and the articulation of concrete and specific immediate and intermediate period goals (such as breaking even or increasing capacity utilization by X %). Besides, the formation of managerial task forces to examine specific problem areas and to come up with recommendations for improving performance is also useful. Some form of management by objectives in which key performance areas are identified by each manager and he is held accountable for achieving quantitative targets in these, subtle competition for excellence through the mechanism of performance review meetings attended by all the department heads at which each department/division's performance is reviewed, example setting by the chief executive, insistence by the top management that as far as possible disputes between managers should be resolved directly by them rather than by seeking the arbitration or mediation of the top management, and a nurturant but task achievement oriented emphasis by the management vis-a-vis the lower staff also help in mobilizing the managers and the staff for the turnaround. During the phase of unfreezing, there is generally an avoidance of major diversifications or long range strategic shifts.

During the organizational change phase, there is a realignment of the organization's product or activity mix through some sort of an ABC analysis to identify which products/activities are most profitable/vital and which ones are discardable. Also, the management systems

of the organization (financial, planning, marketing, personnel, manufacturing, etc.) are selectively strengthened to plug the biggest loopholes in them. During the "refreezing" phase, systems are professionalised, a long range growth and business strategy is formulated, and certain core values centering around a dynamic, innovation oriented professionalism are institutionalised by example setting by top management, appropriate reward systems, periodic reassessments, etc.

The Indian work on turnaround is important because it is a more creative and less painful alternative to the surgical, hire-and-fire, divestiture oriented Western turnaround models (Schendel et al, 1976; Starbuck et al, 1978; Hofer, 1980; Hegde, 1982; Hambrick and Schecter, 1983). It is also important because of its potential for rescuing a large number of sick organizations, some of them having strategic importance for socio-economic development. Also, the improvements in performance achieved through effective turnaround management far eclipse the tangible performance improvements achieved through OB tools like organization development, human relations training, employee oriented supervision, or management by objectives (Khandwalla, 1986c). A deeper study of turnaround mechanisms may greatly enrich the armoury of the behavioural scientist.

The research on turnaround management raises some interesting issues: Why do organizations remain sick for so long? Why do

they seem so incapable of generating internal leadership that can revitalize them? Why the pathetic dependence on outside change agents? How does the external change agent quickly master the business, technology, and organization of the sick unit, how does he choose what to do in a messy situation?

Institution building: Given the high propensity for organizations to fall sick, and the need for dedicated effort at socio-economic development, the creation of value-centered viable organizations is a critical necessity in a developing society like India. The process of institution building (Selznick, 1957; Esman, 1972) provides insights into how goal oriented assemblages of persons, tasks, techniques, and structures develop a values-infused coherence and internal and external legitimacy. The Indian work on institution building is small but variegated. Several case studies of institution building have been published (Choudhry, 1968; Chowdhry and Sarabhai, 1968; Matthai, Pareek and Rao, 1977; Dayal, 1977; Ganesh, 1979b; Dubashi, 1980; Malhotra, 1984), as also of institution builders (Nandy, 1975; Tripathi and Mehta, 1981; Tripathi 1981; Lala, 1981; Ganesh and Joshi, 1985). There has also been some conceptual and empirical work (Sarabhai, 1974; Ganesh, 1976, 1979a, Pareek, 1981; 1980; Ganesh and Joshi, 1985).

Ganesh (1976) distinguished between two alternative models of institutional building. The first was termed the evolutionary or

"adaptation" model, characterised by slow, incremental changes that take place in the organization as a result of social interaction spurred by human and organizational needs. The second was termed the engineering model (Esman and Bruhns, 1966) which highlighted the need to institutionalize innovative values, structures, functions, and technologies in organizations in order to promote social change. The key elements of institution building are leadership, "doctrine", programs, resources, structure, networking with other organizations and social groups, input-output linkages, normative linkages, etc. (Esman, 1972). In later work, Ganesh identified three criteria for assessing the success of institution building in academic institutions, viz. capability development (in terms of faculty strength, funds, and facilities), innovative thrust of the institution, and market or domain penetration (Ganesh, 1980), and assessed six leading Indian management institutes on these. He also identified a number of institution building processes (Ganesh, 1979a) such as birth processes, start-up processes, development processes (culture creation, enculturation, decision making, structuring, leadership style), boundary management (identity building, boundary maintenance), boundary enlargement and shrinkage, and renewal processes (leadership change, regeneration, and exit of key actors, clients, etc.). He sought to link several of these processes to each of his performance criteria. For example, Ganesh suggested that strong enculturation, recruitment, regeneration, and redefinition processes tend to result in superior performance on capability development.

Ganesh and Joshi (1985) sketched the prodigious institution founding and nurturing activities of Vikram Sarabhai, and identified three guiding strategies he used, namely, networking (creation of overlapping internal and external clusters of visionaries), trusting (creation of a climate of trust by emphasising the autonomy of the individual and the primacy of peer group control), and caring (nurturance by the leader, open channels to him, the supportive role of administration). The main lesson seems to be that great institutions are built around dedicated professionals rather than by slotting individuals in a pre-conceived organizational design.

## RESEARCH GAPS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

OB work in India has been sizeable, to-date there being nearly a thousand publications in this young social science. Besides factories and private sector corporations, an impressive variety of organizations have been studied (see Table 4), including government bureaucracies, public sector corporations, development programs, unions, academic institutions, cooperatives, voluntary organizations, etc. (notable exceptions have been political parties and institutions of leisure and culture). Besides work motivation and leadership, an impressive range of issues and topics have been explored, including organizational conflicts, staff values, managerial and management styles, organizational change, development, growth, innovation, sickness and revitalization, institution building, technology acquisition and management, organizational structure and strategy, organizational adaptation to contextual factors (contingency theory), culture and organizational behaviour, boundary spanning, interorganizational rivalry and collaboration, etc. (see Table 3). Besides organization development (OD), empirical studies of the use of a number of OB techniques have been published, such as of participative decision making, action research, sensitivity training, survey feedback, creative problem solving, achievement motivation training, human resource development system, management by objectives, job enrichment, participative redesign of work; confrontation meetings, search conference, etc. Besides questionnaire - based surveys, OB researchers in India have also utilised such other

research methods as laboratory, field, and natural experiments, field studies and case studies, study of archival records, historiographic reconstruction, etc. (however, two methods have yet to be used, namely, research-oriented management game and computer simulation).

Within reason, OB research in a developing society should have a social focus. It should address itself to the priority issues of society. This can take several forms. One is the investigation of the organizational consequences of such pervasive social realities as scarcity (Moudgill, 1975; H. Das, 1981), poverty (Durganand Sinha, 1975; Pareek, 1970; Moulik, 1981), inequality (Chattopadhyay, 1981), democratisation and politicalisation (Mehta, 1981), black money and corruption, modernization (Parikh, 1978), comprehensive economic planning, pervasive state regulation through legislation and bureaucracy of social and economic activities (Dayal, 1967), competition (Khandwalla, 1981a), technological change (Mascarenhas, 1978), social institutions such as the joint family (Verma, 1981), nepotism and kinship orientation (Dayal, 1977), the spiritual heritage of India (Chakraborty, 1985), etc. There has been little empirical research of the organizational consequences of these Indian realities. Such research would provide a much deeper understanding of the foundational forces shaping the design, functioning, and performance of Indian organizations, and the aspirations and behaviour of people working in these organizations.

The social relevance of OB can be enhanced if there is a sharper research focus on those strategic organizations and individuals that



directly impact socio-economic development (Khandwalla, 1986-87). Strategic organizations may be defined as organizations that assume responsibility for society's development or the development and growth of the sectors in which they operate. For example, the Union Cabinet and the Planning Commission are strategic organizations because they have assumed responsibility for India's socio-economic development; various ministries such as of industry, education, energy, etc., various specialised organizations like the Industrial Development Bank of India, the IIMs, the IITs, ATIRA, BHEL, NTPC, ONGC, IFFCO, NODD, etc., are strategic because they have taken responsibility for sectoral growth and development. Strategic individuals are individuals that shape the growth and development of organizations, especially of strategic organizations, such as the chief and top level executives of organizations, the heads of their planning, R and D, market development, human resource development, etc., functions. Strategic individuals are also those that are directly involved in actualising the missions of developmental organizations, such as extension workers and village level workers (VLWs) of health and family planning programmes, block development officials, R and D personnel, etc. Strategic organizations are difficult to manage because of their frequent resource dependency on the government (which exerts a pull towards bureaucratisation), their pioneering missions and unfamiliar tasks, and large size. Research on the functioning and performance of strategic organizations is small, but the little that is there, especially on public enterprises (Sri Ram et al, 1976; Khandwalla, 1982; Ramu, 1984, 1985), development programs (Subramanian, 1981, 1984; Paul, 1982;

Murthy, 1986), and development administration (Mathur, 1973; Pai Panandikar and Kshirsagar, 1978) indicates pervasive management ineptitude and staggering operating problems. Any help that OB can provide could yield excellent dividends in terms of greater effectiveness in discharging social developmental missions. Similarly, the extant research on strategic individuals and teams is small; but what there is indicates a depressing picture of poor work attitudes or inappropriate task orientation. Work attitudes were poor of such strategic individuals as university teachers (Deb and Singh, 1986), village level workers (Rai, 1978; Dasgupta, 1979), block development officers (Agrawal, 1979), extension supervisors (Veerabhadraiah and Jalihal, 1983), health and family planning workers (Narayana and Reddy, 1980), and scientific personnel (Karunes, 1985; Muthayya and Vijaykumar, 1985). Among four orientations judged crucial for the administrators of developmental agencies of the government, social change and citizen participation orientations were the weakest (Pai Panandikar and Kshirsagar, 1978). Any help that OB can provide, through research, training strategies, etc., could strengthen the capacity of these strategic individuals to discharge their developmental functions more effectively.

Besides the social relevance angle, even from a narrower academic perspective, notwithstanding the buoyancy in OB work in India, major gaps remain:

1. There is a glaring gap in the links between macro - OB variables

and micro-OB variables. There are virtually no empirical studies on how the organization's growth, diversification, and competitive strategies affect work attitudes, conflict, and leadership at lower levels of the organization and vice versa. There is only one study of how top management goals affect lower management work attitudes (Khandwalla and Jain, 1985), or of the way the style of top management affects motivational climate at lower levels (Khandwalla, 1983b). A lot more work is surely needed. There is no point promoting the NT leadership style or participative decision making or job enrichment or employee oriented supervision at middle or lower levels of the organization if they are not congruent with the goals, strategies, policies, and management ideologies of the top management because they would have virtually no chance of getting institutionalised. Equally, it would be interesting to learn how the cultural norms and operating practices at lower levels affect the strategy, structure, management style, etc., of the top management. There is an urgent need for OB researchers, especially those in micro-OB, to keep broader models of organizational functioning in mind. Such models (Padaki, 1987; Khandwalla, 1987b) specify links between macro and micro organizational variables, so that leadership or managerial value or work motivation and attitude studies are not conducted without a due consideration of organizational goals, operating environment, strategy, top management style, organizational structure, etc.

2. The linkages between macro-organizational variables (organizational goals, growth and competitive strategy, management ideology,

style, and policies, organizational structure, organizational performance, etc.) are still much too obscure. A much more vigorous effort to uncover these linkages is surely needed to provide sounder bases for identifying options in organizational design. It is equally important to examine how these goals, strategies, policies, ideologies, structures, etc., evolve. To-date the literature on organizational evolution is growing but still modest (Maheshwari and Malhotra, 1973; Ganesh, 1979a; Tripathi and Mehta, 1981; Verma, 1981; Chaudhuri et al, 1982; Khandwalla, 1986d).

3. Despite the relative abundance of micro-OB research, there still are large areas of darkness : political behaviour within the organization, inter-group and intra-group conflict and cooperation, decision making, the processes by which group norms, cultures, and motivational climates evolve, the precise causal linkages between leadership, organizational climate, and work attitudes, creative and resourceful behaviour at lower levels, crisis management, etc. Such interesting Western paradigms as personality pathology, learned helplessness, equity theory, transformational leadership, social information processing, etc., need to be utilised in Indian micro-OB research. Equally, there is need to explore the determinants and organizational consequences of Indian conceptualisations like the extension, work dedication, social achievement, socialized commitment, and pioneering-innovating motives, dual socializations into traditional values and modern work attitudes, the psychology of poverty and inequality, etc.

4. There is still an over-reliance on questionnaire surveys as a research tool. Fortunately, the range of research methods being used is getting broader. However, a research tool that has vast potential but has been neglected is the so-called natural experiment. In a modernising society organizations frequently undertake a wide range of changes, of structure, technology, management techniques and systems, strategy, mission and goals, policies, etc. These provide a very great opportunity to the organizational researcher for exciting studies of organizational dynamics. The researcher needs to contact the management before the change takes place to negotiate a research agreement to make measurements before, during, and after the change, and to feed back the findings to the management. The opportunities for this in governmental and public enterprises are particularly rich. This sort of research could not only provide deep insights into the organizational dynamics associated with a variety of changes, it would also lead to the utilization of the research by the organization. It would also be useful if consultancy agreements incorporate a provision for before, during, and after measurements of organizational phenomena. Over time, such a provision would improve consultancy practice. Organizational researchers also need to use multiple methods in research, a sort of a triangulation strategy, so as to improve the validity of their findings.

Finally, it is useful to bear in mind what practitioners want from OB, so that OB research becomes responsive to client needs and a .

healthy collaboration develops between the generators of knowledge and its users. Several distinguished practitioners from the government, industry, and voluntary organizations spelled out their expectations from OB at the recent international conference at IIMA on Organizational and Behavioural Perspectives for Social Development. These are summarised below:

Voluntary organizations: 1. Highly motivated persons are essential for voluntary organizations that adopt developmental missions. OB researchers can help in the identification of such motivated persons.

2. While small groups of motivated individuals are very effective, strong group identity can get at cross-purposes with organizational identity once the organization grows bigger. How can a voluntary organization permit groups to retain their sense of identity and at the same time build up organizational identity?

3. While participative decision process is very necessary, how does an organization use the participative process without raising the expectation that all decisions will be taken participatively?

4. How can OB facilitate inter-institutional coordination?

Government organizations: 1. How can the development oriented government organization acquire greater autonomy from the government?

2. How can greater inter-departmental and inter-organizational coordination be increased?
3. How do we introduce and stabilise in government organizations needed innovations like management by objectives?
4. How do we recruit motivated persons into government organizations? How do we motivate people already working in these organizations? How come some people are more motivated than others in the same organization and why is it that motivational levels are higher in some government organizations than others?
5. How can training be made need-based and job-related, and how can training be prevented from becoming a mere ritual?

Enterprises: 1. How is human resource development really different from the personnel function?

2. Selection of staff, especially of key people.
3. Motivating staff and developing their creativity.
4. Helping senior executives develop their juniors.
5. Improving the performance of the large mass of "average" employees.

6. Identification of the factors affecting the success or failure of chief executives.
7. Helping family - run businesses to professionalise their managements.
8. Helping organizations to cope with such environmental changes as the consumer movement, pollution control, etc.
9. Helping organizations to determine appropriate structures for themselves, especially the level of centralization and decentralization, differentiation, integration, etc. Helping them to get to these appropriate levels.
10. Motivating staff to go to backward areas where green field sites are coming up, helping organizations putting up plants in backward areas to understand local cultures.
11. Management of trade unions and industrial relations.
12. Management of innovation.
13. Helping students to make proper career choices in industry.
14. Proper handling of power in the organization.
15. Productivity improvement.



16. Helping managers to play multiple roles effectively.
17. Collaboration between OB experts and industry practitioners.

OB in India has passed many milestones; it has yet many miles to go!

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TABLE 1OB TOOLS FOR MANAGEMENT

- A. Diagnostic tools: action research, survey-feedback, search conference.
- B. Individual level tools: Leadership and supervisory training, achievement motivation training, creativity training, stress management training, entrepreneurship training, change agency training, job enrichment and task design.
- C. Group effectiveness tools: Participative decision making, team building, process consultation, confrontation meetings, conscientisation.
- D. Structure-related tools: Role clarification, decentralization, differentiation and integration, design of organizational chart.
- E. System tools: Management by objectives system, human resource development system.

Source: Khandwalla (1986-87), Table 1.

TABLE 2SIGNIFICANT OB PERSPECTIVESClassical OB Paradigms

1. Principles of management : search for universal principles of management of organizations and factory settings.
2. Organization as a bureaucratic machine : The elements of bureaucracy as an ideal organizational type, and their unintended consequences.
3. Human relations in management : Primacy of employee-oriented supervision, communication, need satisfaction and job involvement of employees, participative decision making, etc.
4. Human potential orientation : Search for ways of integrating the growth and self-actualization needs of organizational members with the requirements of the organization.
5. Contingency theory : Search for context-appropriate or situation-specific organizational designs.
6. "Open systems" orientation : Organization as a socio-technical system interacting with its operating environment.
7. Decision process theory : Organizational decision-making under conditions of bounded rationality, imperfect information, "satisficing", and intra-organizational conflict.

Notable Newer Perspectives in OB from Organization Theory

1. Effective organizational design as a synergy between elements of organizational design.
2. Organization as enacting its environment through strategic choices.
3. Organization as part of a network of organizations with partly competitive and partly cooperative relations with the other members of the network. The network itself as an emergent system.
4. Organization as a cultural entity, with its distinctive value systems and norms, including norms for making transactions.
5. Power dynamics within organizations and power behaviour of organizations.
6. Management of crises, decline, sickness, and disasters.
7. Organization forms as population ecologies subject to "natural selection" forces.
8. The Marxist perspective of technological imperative, employee alienation, and class struggle behaviour.
9. The "garbage can" model of non-rational organizational behaviour
10. Behaviour of organizations under conditions of "organizational slack".
11. Organizations as strategic instrumentalities of socio-economic development.

Interesting Newer Perspectives and Approaches in Micro-OB

1. Quality of work life.
2. Early socialization induced durable motives.
3. Determination of human needs by social information processing.
4. Transformational and charismatic leadership.
5. Pathological behaviour of executives.
6. Attribution theory and judgement in decision making.
7. Equity theory and allocation of rewards.
8. Personal and family life and work in organization.
9. Learned helplessness in organizations.

TABLE 3NEWER CONCERNS OF OB RESEARCH IN INDIA

## Notable Researches

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Management of organizational change (through OD, action research, participative management, MBO, etc.)                                     | Das, 1971; Huss, 1971; Pestonjee, 1971; Chattopadhyay, 1972, 1973; Varadan and Kutty, 1972; Dharni Sinha 1976; Rao, 1978; Pareek, 1979; De, 1979, 1983; Maheshwari, 1980; Ahmad et al, 1980; J. Singh, 1981, 1983; Giri, 1982; Akhilesh and Ganguly, 1982; Chattopadhyay and Pareek, 1982b; Mehta, 1984. |
| 2. Institution building (the processes by which the organization acquires a distinctive internal and external identity and value orientation) | Hill, Haynes, and Baumgartel, 1973; Sarabhai, 1974; Nandy, 1975; Chowdhry, 1977; Matthai, Pareek, and Rao, 1977; Dayal, 1977; Dubashi, 1980; Ganesh, 1980; Pareek, 1981; Ganesh and Joshi, 1985.   |
| 3. Effective styles of organization's management (as distinct from styles of managers)  | Khandwalla, 1976-77, 1983a, 1983b; Ganguly, 1977; Jaggi, 1978; Maheshwari, 1978; Anand Ram, 1980.  |
| 4. Management of human resource development; management development; training   | Puri and Agrawal, 1975; Chakraborty, 1976; Rudrabasavaraj, 1977; Chakraborty and Padma Prabha, 1978; Pareek and Rao, 1981; Rao, 1982, 1984; Saiyadain, 1986.   |

- 5. Management of the quality of work life

Nilakant and Rao, 1976; De, 1977; 1984; Joseph, 1978; Mehta and Jain, 1979; Sinha and Sayeed, 1980; Sayeed and Sinha, 1981; Singh, 1981, 1983.
- 6. Organizational performance (superior performance of the organization as a whole)

Timmappaya et al, 1971; K. Agrawal, 1975; Khandwalla, 1973, 1976-77, 1981b, 1982; Maheshwari, 1978; Ganesh, 1980; Anand Ram, 1980; Chaudhuri, 1980; R. Padaki, 1982; Paul, 1982; Padaki and Shanbhag, 1984; George, 1984; Sharma, 1985a; Singh, Verma, Yadav, 1985.
- 7. Management of creativity and innovation

Choudhry, 1969a; Bhogle, 1970; Dayal, 1970; Baumgartel and Jeanpierre, 1972; Goyal, 1973; Chaganti, 1979; Nagabrahman, 1980; Khandwalla, 1984, 1987a; A.P.Sinha, 1984; Karunes, 1985; Chaudhuri, 1986; Bhatnagar, 1986.
- 8. Management of turnaround (revitalization of sick organizations)

Ratnam, 1971; Prahlad and Thomas, 1977; Khandwalla, 1981b; Hegde, 1982; V. Padaki, 1984; Bhatt, 1984.
- 9. Management of growth, diversification, and internationalisation

Maheshwari and Malhotra, 1973; Das, 1979; Balkrishna et al, 1980; Chaudhuri et al, 1982; Chaudhuri and Khandwalla, 1983, 1985; George, 1984; Nagendran and Rao, 1985.
- 10. Management of technology and technology acquisition and transfer

Khandwalla, 1974; V. Bhatt, 1978; Mascarenhas, 1978; Gangjee, 1978; Chaudhuri, 1980; Pandya, 1982.



11. Management of social development and developmental programs  
Mathur, 1973; Dayal, 1974; Subramanian, 1981, 1984; Khanna and Subramanian, 1982; Paul, 1982; Mehta, 1983; D'Souza, 1984; Khandwalla, 1986-87; Murthy, 1986; Srivastava, 1986.
12. Management of bureaucracy  
Mathur, 1973; Sethi, 1974; Jain 1974; Bhattacharya, 1974; Mathur and Bhattacharya 1975; Maheshwari and Chaturvedi, 1976; Pai Panandikar and Kshirsagar, 1978; Mohanty and Ahuja, 1979; HRD Unit, 1980; Mehta, 1986.
13. Contingency organization theory (explanation of organizational differences in terms of contextual differences)  
Dayal, 1967; Negandhi and Reimann, 1972; Khandwalla, 1972, 1976, 1976-77, 1978, 1985a, 1986b; Dharni Sinha, 1977; Murdia, 1978, 1979; Agarwal, 1979; Anand Ram, 1980; Krishna Kumar, 1982; Reddy, 1984; Bhatnagar, 1984.
14. Organizational climate  
Bayti, 1970; J. Sinha, 1973; Chattopadhyay, 1974; Singh and Das, 1977, 1980; Kumar, 1978; Zahir and Nayan, 1978; Ansari, 1980; Habibullah and Sinha, 1980; R. Padaki, 1982, 1983a, 1983b; Sharma, 1983a, 1983b.
15. OB and social culture  
Kakar, 1971, 1974; Dayal, 1972, 1977; J. Sinha, 1974; De, 1974; Chattopadhyay, 1975; Pareek, 1977; Parikh, 1978; Reddy, 1984; Chakraborty, 1985; Singh and Paul, 1985; Singh and Bhandarkar, 1986-87; Garg and Parikh, 1986, 1986-87.

16. Indigenous organizational cultures, management styles, etc. Singer, 1972; Dhingra and Pathak, 1973; Khandwalla, 1980, 1983a; Tripathi and Mehta, 1981; Verma, 1981; Pendse, 1983.
17. Inter-organizational interaction (competition, conflict, cooperation, networks) Thakur, 1968; V. Bhatt, 1978; Khandwalla, 1981a; Naik, 1984.
18. Management of intra-organizational conflict and modes of effective coordination, collaboration etc. Chowdhry 1969; B. Srivastava, 1974; Pareek, 1975; Rao, 1978; Kumar and Srivastava, 1979; Sayeed and Mathur, 1980; Pandey and Kakkar, 1982; Agrawal, 1984; Ansari et al, 1984; Parthasarthy and Singh, 1984; J. Sinha, 1986.
19. Boundary management (environmental scanning and evaluation, planning, interfacing with the government, with unions, banks, etc.) Sundaram and Firebaugh, 1978; Orpen, 1984; Sharma, 1985b; Dixit, 1985; Bhatt, 1985.
20. Organizational goals and management by objectives Shetty, 1974; Orpen, 1978; Maheshwari, 1980; Mishra, 1982; Khandwalla and Jain, 1984.
21. Attribution theory, equity theory, and information integration Gupta and Singh, 1981; R. Singh, 1983, 1985, 1986; Singh and Upadhyaya, 1986.

TABLE 4TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONS STUDIED IN THE LAST TWO DECADESNotable Researches

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1. Indigenously managed corporations and business houses   | Singer, 1972; Khandwalla, 1980; Tripathi and Mehta, 1981; Verma, 1981; Pandse, 1983; Sharma, 1985a.   |
| 2. Public enterprises  | Das, 1975; Bhatt, 1978; Anand Ram, 1980; Khandwalla, 1982; Ramamurti, 1982; Pathak, 1982; I. Sharma, 1982; Chaudhuri and Khandwalla, 1983, 1985; Kulkarni et al, 1983; Ramu, 1984, 1985; Bhatt, 1985.   |
| 3. Comparative corporate studies (public vs. private sector, indigenous vs MNC management, etc.) | Shetty, 1970; Negandhi and Prasad, 1971; Negandhi and Reimann, 1972; Dhingra and Pathak, 1973; J. Sinha, 1973; Roy, 1974; Joseph and Kesavan, 1977; Ganguly, 1977; Jaggi, 1978; Maheshwari, 1978; P. Singh, 1979; Parikh, 1979; Krishna Kumar, 1982; B. Sharma, 1983b; R. Padaki, 1983; O. Paul, 1983; Satyanand, 1984; FORE, 1984. |
| 4. Public administration, government bureaucracy, and development programs                       | Mathew, 1972; Das Gupta, 1973; Dayal, 1974; Sethi, 1974; Bhattacharya, 1974; Mathur and Bhattacharya, 1975; Pai Panandikar and Kshirsagar, 1978; Mohanty and Ahuja, 1979; Moulik, 1980; HRD Unit, 1980; Khanna and Subramanian, 1982; Paul, 1982; Murthy, 1986; Srivastava, 1986.   |

5. Educational and re-  
search institutions  
(schools, colleges,  
universities, profes-  
sional institutes,  
research institutes,  
etc.) Bayti, 1970; Pareek and Rao, 1970,  
1977; Bhogle, 1972; Chowdhry et al, 1972;  
M. Sharma, 1972; Quraishi, 1973; Mathur  
and Rao, 1974; Kumar et al, 1976;  
Pareek, 1981;  
Ganesh, 1980; Devadoss and Muth, 1984.
6. Cooperatives Baviskar, 1980; Ganesh, Rao, and  
Seetharaman, 1984; Balaji, 1984;  
Phansalkar and Srinivasan, 1985;  
Singh, Verma, Yadav, 1985.
7. Voluntary organiza-  
tions Natarajan, 1977; Subramanian, 1984.
8. Organizations for  
empowering the poor De, 1979, Tandon and Brown, 1981;  
Roy, 1986-87; Mehta, 1986-87.
9. Employers' organiza-  
tions Alexander, 1973.
10. Trade Unions Sheth and Jain, 1968; Baviskar, 1968;  
Thakur, 1968; Dowson, 1971.
11. Hospitals Timmappaya et al, 1971; Timmappaya and  
Agrawal, 1973; Agrawal, 1975; Huss,  
1973.
12. Police, defense, etc.  
organizations Valecha and Venkataraman, 1986.

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