

POWER PROFILE OF EFFECTIVE MANAGERS
An Exploration among the
Branch Managers of a Commercial Bank in Kerala

Thesis Submitted to
COCHIN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
for the award of
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
in
The Faculty of Social Sciences

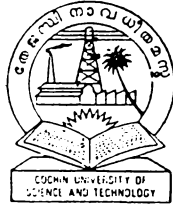
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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “ Power Profile of Effective Managers: An Exploration among the Branch Managers of a Commercial Bank in Kerala” is a record of the bona fide research work done by Mr. Sebastian Rupert Mampilly, part-time research scholar, under my supervision and guidance.

The thesis is the outcome of his original work and has not formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or any other similar title and is worth submitting for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences.

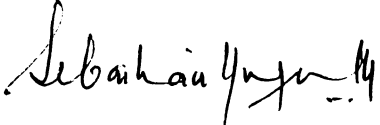

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the dissertation entitled “ Power Profile of Effective Managers : An Exploration among the Branch Managers of a Commercial Bank in Kerala” is a record of the bona fide research work done by me and that it has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or any other title of recognition.


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Acknowledgements

Now that it is all done, it's finally the time to reflect on the process. No research work ever grows full-bloom from the scholar alone. Yes, the work and the writing came from me, but I had others along my way with their hands stretched out in compassion: serious reviews by professionals, inputs and advices and, most of all, endless support of always available friends at the other end of my calls for help.

Let me start by acknowledging Prof. (Dr.) K.C. Sankaranarayanan, Director of the School of Social Sciences and Dean of the faculty, Cochin University of Science and Technology, my guide, who made room in his hectic schedule to read the chapters as they rolled out and advised me how they would fit the needs. Thanks to him for accepting me as his scholar, in the first place, and evaluating drafts of my thesis against his vast experience.

I remember with gratitude Dr. G. Antony of the School of Management Studies, CUSAT, for being my guide in the beginning and allowing me to get started. Dr. Jose T. Payyapilly and Dr. K.K. George had only encouraging words and positive attitude for me.

Many thanks to Sri. P. K. S. Menon, Sri. M. M. Antony, Mr. Jolly Antony, Mr. K.C. Joy, Mr. Thomas V. George, the 163 managers and their subordinates scattered across the length and breadth of Kerala, all of The Federal Bank Ltd., for their inputs and involvement which were cardinal and crucial. I specifically acknowledge the help rendered to me by Sri. K.S.S. Rau, DGM (Trg. & HRD), South Indian Bank Ltd., and Sri. K. Shankar, Chief Manager (Trg.), Lord Krishna Bank Ltd.

I want to single out my superiors, friends and colleagues at Rajagiri College who listened to my frustrations as I tried putting the pieces together to fit with one another. All of them, my fellow teachers, and friends at the Computer Centre, RCSS, always made me feel that I am indeed loved and supported.

I remember with gratitude Dr. Ajithkumar N. of Centre for Research and Consultancy, Ernakulam for his technical support in completing the statistical analyses.

Finally, still closer to my heart, there are my students and my family, for they always kept me humble and continually questioned me throughout the process.

Sebastian Rupert Mampilly

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

and

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Introduction

Managerial Effectiveness is in the limelight again among scholars and public. There are solid reasons for the renewed interest in the topic, some of the yore; others, the current.

There is a new recognition, especially at home, that managerial talent is a critical national resource of which the demand outruns the supply. There is also the notion that the short supply of managerial talent can be partially met, in the short-run, by upgrading the effectiveness of available managerial resources. The attention of all concerned is increasingly being focused on those who manage than the managed, in response to the changing composition of workers, the legitimate needs and expectations of investors - small and large, individual and institutional - and the investing community as a whole, as a reliable criterion to make investment decisions. Managerial Effectiveness has been a fashionable issue of all times that resulted in a great deal of deliberations.

Managers are central to any function in a complex and developed society. Their talents are reckoned to be cardinal in developed economies and a basic yearning of all developing economies.

Statements of disquiet about the performance of Indian industry and the managers are commonplace and, concerns have been expressed by senior policy makers (Boothalingam, 1993) and academics as well (Bardhan, 1984; Bhagwati, 1993). Industrial sickness, under-utilisation of installed capacity, low productivity, strikes and lockouts etc. are only some of the issues identified. Without timely and proper corrective actions, many Indian companies and groups may not survive long into the new century. The individual managers have to shore up, if they are to function effectively in the new situation (Rao, 1995).

In order to survive and produce results in a turbulent and transient environment, the task is to understand the nature of factors contributing to managerial effectiveness. This study is an attempt towards this core issue of the

present from a different perspective.

The manager, in order to be effective, clearly needs to direct the group's efforts and that of individuals toward the realisation of objectives. The primary mechanism for achieving goals is leadership and its closely related qualities of power and influence. Concepts of personal power and influence of managers do provide foundations for an extended understanding of managerial leadership. Just as the degree of delegated authority in a hierarchy determines what a manager has to do, a manager's relative power determines what he or she is able to do in formal and informal situations. Many people perceive power as being a bit dirty; but in fact, power is necessary for the effectiveness of managers and the success of organisations (Mescon et al., 1981).

Management theories have never been famous for causing action. They are usually intellectual speculations about what should be the best way of handling a manager's job. When one steps out of the ivory tower of theory into the real world, the manager's job boils down to getting someone to do something the way he or she wants it to be done. What really counts is the effective use of one's power over the other.

The appreciation for the power of superiors, though negative in connotation, predates the movement of professional management. The theme of Nicolo Machiavelli's famous work "The Prince" published in the seventeenth century is that raw power and outright manipulation are the best means to run a state. The popularity of Anthony Jay's (1967) "Management and Machiavelli" and Michael Korda's (1975) "Power!" illustrates how enduring and pervasive power is, even today, in explaining the effectiveness of managers. There are recent and compelling arguments to validate that power is a significant tool for managing effectively (Mc Clelland, 1970; Mintzberg, 1983).

This study tries to focus attention on a group of managers functioning in the field of banking, a core sector in the country's economy. The gamut of economic activities in Kerala being predominantly service-oriented, importance of commercial banking is almost indisputable. Though economists would argue that

the disproportionate development of service sector is anomalous when viewed against the hazy scenarios in the primary and secondary sectors of the state's economy, the extent and pace of growth in the banking sector has had its dole meted out by ambitious and productive managers functioning in the field. Researcher's attempt here is to thresh the grain and chaff among bank managers in terms of their effectiveness and to account for the variations in the light of their ability to affect the thoughts and actions of their subordinates.

To put it succinctly, the attempt herein is to explain the effectiveness of bank managers in the light of their 'Power Profile' taken to be comprising Power Differentials, Power Bases, their Visibility and Credibility in the organisation and, the Power Styles typically used by them for influencing subordinates.

Theoretical Background

The essence of leadership is the influence over followers; the quintessence of managerial leadership is the influence of managers over their subordinates. The influence process between managers and subordinates, generally between leaders and followers, is not always unidirectional. In large organisations, the effectiveness of middle level and lower level managers depends on their sway over superiors, peers as well as subordinates.

Understanding what makes managers effective requires an analysis of the complex web of power relationships and the influence processes found in organisations. In the following paragraphs the conceptions of power, sources and bases of power, and properties and processes that characterise powerful managers are examined.

POWER

Social scientists have conceptualised power in different ways: as a structural potential and the ability to employ force (Bierstedt, 1950; Emerson, 1962; Wrong, 1968), as a process of behavioural or tactical influence (Michener &

Suchner, 1972; Tedeschi & Bonoma, 1972; Rubin & Brown, 1975), and as the successful outcome of influence (Dahl, 1957; Mayhew, Gray, & Richardson, 1969). Power is construed as the ability of one person or group of persons to influence the behaviour of others (Kahn & Boulding, 1964), the potential capacity of an actor to influence the behaviour of another actor in a particular situation (Tushman, 1977); simply the ability to get things done the way one wants them to be done (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Berle (1969) wrote that power is an essential ingredient at the energy level of a human organisation. Power may hence be viewed as the ability to employ sanction or force, the ability to influence the behaviour of others or the ability to influence the flows of available energy and resources towards certain goals, as opposed to some other goals.

Some theorists view a human organisation as the interaction of persons who have the expectation that the benefits to be received will be greater than the costs. Power is the crucial determinant of the nature and quality of this interaction. Power may even determine whether the interaction (the organisation) will exist at all. According to Zaleznick (1970) competition for power occurs in all political structures including business organisations. Power is required to inaugurate an association in the first place, to guarantee its continuance and to enforce its norms Bierstedt (1950). Without power there is no organisation and order. The central place of power in organisations seems indisputable; it is the force that makes organisations operate. Its importance lies in the fact that it is necessary for coordinated human activity, that is, for the effectiveness of any collective human activity.

Due to its complexity as a topic for investigation, power has no generally accepted definition. However, there is substantial agreement that power represents the capacity, ability or potential to influence the behaviour of others. It is thus reasonable to hold that the essence of power is the capacity to exert influence.

The emphasis in this study is not on whether power or any distribution of power is desirable or undesirable ethically and morally. Rather power is studied simply because it is important in organisations. However, like atomic energy,

power can be used for either good or evil; this caution is borne in mind throughout this study.

Persons, more often than not, like to be controlled by a power system. Everyone likes to be part of a winner, and if one has to submit to another's power to enjoy the pleasure of winning, it is often acceptable. The most effective managers are thus often more powerful and they use their power adroitly.

In recent years, there has been increased acceptance of the idea that power is a natural, necessary feature of organisations (Gardner 1990; Pfeffer 1992). In this view, power is seen as neither good nor bad but as essential. In his famous book 'On Aggression', Lorenz (1966) demonstrated that the exercise of power through aggression within a species is natural and necessary for the herd's effective functioning. Previously aggression had been seen as a destructive, undesirable legacy of man's primitive origins. Freud, for instance, saw aggression negatively, as an expression of the inherent, destructive 'death wish'. In other words, Freud held aggression as a manifestation of man's desire to punish or destroy himself. But some students of Freud disagreed with this interpretation; they saw the concept of 'death wish' as purely pathological. This same attitude that aggression is evil has been institutionalised in countless religious, moral, and ethical precepts. Lorenz's work is significant in that it has effectively challenged a massive, widely held notion that aggression and the exercise of power is necessarily dysfunctional.

There is no doubt that power and influence can be acquired and exercised for evil purposes. It is true that most medicines can kill if consumed in over dosages, thousands die in automobile mishaps, and nuclear power can either provide for energy or for mass destruction. Yet it is not advisable to abandon chemicals, automobiles or even atomic power because of the dangers associated with them. Power processes in organisations can be used to accomplish great things. It is interesting that when one uses power in self-interest, it is seen as good and wishes he had more. But when others use it, particularly if used to thwart goals and ambitions, it is perceived as evil. A more sophisticated and realistic view would be to appreciate it for what it is - an important resource often required to

get things accomplished in any interdependent systems (Pfeffer, 1992).

The ambivalence about power also comes from the lesson one learns in school. The lesson is that life is largely a matter of individual effort and achievement. In the classroom setting, interdependence is minimal and co-operation may even be considered cheating. Such is not the case in organisations. If a manager knows the organisation's goals and strategies, and if the colleagues or subordinates do not, he will have difficulty in accomplishing anything. The private knowledge and skill that are so useful in the classroom are insufficient in organisations. Managerial effectiveness in organisations is quite frequently a matter of working with and through others and is often a function of how successfully a manager can co-ordinate others' activities. Most situations in organisations resemble football more than golf which is why companies scan resumes to find not only for proof of individual achievement but also for indications that the person is skilled at working as part of a team. In achieving effectiveness in organisations, power transforms individual interests into co-ordinated activities that accomplish valuable ends (Zaleznick & Kets de Vries, 1975).

Power Attributes

The chief attributes or characteristics of managerial power are summarised below:

Relation

Power is relative and is generally thought of as the capacity to exert influence on others, and references to power are actually references to power relationships. This attribute of power is important because it focuses on the interaction dynamics of power relationships and the key actors in those relationships.

Dependence

Another attribute of power is dependence. If an agent exerts power on a target, the target must be to some extent dependent upon the agent. Subordinates are dependent on their bosses, and citizens are, to some degree, dependent on the law enforcement officers.

This attribute of power leads to the fact that if an employee is in no way dependent on his/her boss for receiving positively valued outcomes, the supervisor has no power over the employee. The supervisor's power over the employee therefore depends on the employee's degree of dependence on the supervisor.

One way that a manager often gains power is by feeding to others that they are dependent on the manager either for help or for not being hurt. In other words, managers try to create actual or perceived dependence. This is done by gaining access to resources or persons or by creating an impression of having access to resources or people others need - a resource they do not have, that are not available from alternative sources and have no good substitutes.

Reciprocity

Power relationships are reciprocal. In most of the situations, there is a definite inequality in the parties' degree of interdependence. In fact one distinguishing characteristic of managers is their dependence on the other party to get the job done effectively. Both dependency and reciprocity are inherent aspects of managerial job.

Specificity

Power is specific to particular issues, situations and persons. In any given situation, a powerholder is likely to exert power over only a portion of those individuals involved and that too in limited types of exchanges.

The person's domain of power is the range of issues, situations and persons subject to his influence. If a person's influence applies to a wide range of issues, he has a wide domain of power; a person who has power relevant to one issue, in one

situation, and with only a few people, has only a narrow domain of power.

Sources and Bases of Power

Where does the power come from? What is it that gives an individual or a group influence over others? The early answer to these questions was a five-category classification developed by French and Raven (1959). They suggested five bases of power, viz., coercion, rewards, expertise, legitimacy and referent powers. Raven expanded this classification in 1974 to include a sixth base of power, information. While French and Raven's classification scheme provided an extensive repertoire of possible bases of power, it was not free of ambiguity because they did not distinguish bases of power from sources of power. The understanding of the power concept can be improved by distinguishing sources and bases so as to develop clearer and more independent categories.

Sources of Power

The sources of power explain how power-holders come to control their bases of power. That is, the sources reveal where from the power-holder gets the power base.

While the important power bases are coercion, rewards, legitimacy of position, reference, expertise and such other personal abilities and organisationally derived resources, the sources of power are the hierarchical differentiations in the organisation, one's background, personality dimensions that one acquires or is endowed with, and the opportunity one gets to receive and manipulate information and other resources that help him to wield and deploy bases of power.

Formal Position

Formal position is a power source because organisational members endow the position-holder with the right to influence their behaviour in exchange for certain benefits. The idea is so embedded in a society that it is an internalised value of most organisational members. It legitimises the power of those in formal

positions and leads to what is commonly referred to as formal authority. In formal groups and organisations, probably the most frequent access to one or more of power bases is provided by one's structural position.

Personal Characteristics/Traits

Another power source is afforded by one's personal characteristics, which include personality traits, mental and verbal skills, physical size, strength and appearance besides socio-demographic attributes. Such characteristics are important means of acquiring access to the bases of power.

Members of an organisation may identify with other members not because of their formal position, but because of their personalities, the cause with which they are associated, or their ability to articulate beliefs and opinions. In fact one doesn't have to be a manager or have formal authority to have power. One can influence others by virtue of his/her personal charisma. In today's high-tech, complex world, personality traits can be effective sources of influence. Traits of visibility and credibility can turn out to be valid sources of power to get others do what one wants to be accomplished.

The ability to solve critical problems or supply scarce resources to a group clearly provides visibility to a person. The more a person has no viable substitute, the more visible he is in the work situation. In terms of trait dimensions, managers who are high self-monitors, possess an internal locus of control and have high need for power and, are likely to engage in political behaviour and thus acquire more visibility.

The high self-monitoring managers are sensitive to social cues, exhibit higher levels of conformity with higher-ups, and are skilled in political behaviour than those who are low in self-monitoring. Individuals with an internal locus of control, because they believe that they can control the environment, are more prone to take a proactive stance and attempt to manipulate situations in their favour. Visible managers, not surprisingly, because of their Machiavellian personality, characterised by a will to manipulate coupled with their desire for

power, are comfortable using politics as a means to further self-interest.

Additionally, an individual's investment in the organisation, ability to perceive alternatives and expectations of success will influence the degree to which he/she acquires visibility in the organisation.

One's non-substitutability at any given point of time, possession of scarce skills, a prominent reputation, or influential contacts within and outside the organisation can also make him/her noticeable. High expectation in the use of manipulative means is most likely to be the province of visible individuals with political skills than naive and inexperienced employees.

Consistent with these ideas on visibility, Kanter (1977) has opined that accumulation of power in a corporation is clearly tied to the person's distinguishable, extraordinary, noticeable and relevant activities. These activities empower a person by providing opportunities to create an impact and assure access to important connections, which would fetch noticeability as compared to other members in the organisation.

The second personality trait considered here is the credibility of managers. Followers want leaders who are credible and trustworthy. If people are to follow someone willingly, whether it is into battle or boardroom, they first want to assure themselves that their leader is worthy of their trust. Followers judge leaders' credibility in terms of honesty, competence and ability to inspire.

Trustworthiness, honesty and credibility are concepts so closely entangled with each other that these terms are frequently used interchangeably (Robins, 1997). For instance, authors of definitive work on the concept of Credibility hold that the check for the quality can reliably be simplified to asking whether the person is 'trustworthy' (Kouzes & Posner, 1993). When followers trust a leader, they are willing to be vulnerable to the leader's actions because they are confident that their rights and interests will not be abused or jeopardised. Consistent with the work on credibility, the evidence (Butler & Cantrell, 1984) indicates that integrity and competence are the most critical features that individuals look for in determining another's trustworthiness. Integrity seems to be important because

without a perception of other's moral character and basic honesty, other dimensions of trust are meaningless.

The recent trend towards empowering individuals and creating self-managed work teams has reduced or removed many of the traditional control mechanisms used earlier to monitor employees. If a group of employees are free to schedule their work and evaluate their performance, then trust becomes even more critical. Employees have to perceive their managers as credible and the managers have to trust workers to conscientiously fulfil their responsibilities. And the trend toward expanding nonauthority relationships within and between workgroups widens the need for interpersonal trust and credibility. The emerging situations do not allow managers to fall back on their formal position to obtain compliance. Many of the emergent relationships are fluid and fleeting that the ability of managers to develop trust and posit themselves as credible may be crucial to their success and effectiveness.

Persuasive managers are taken to be persons of good sense, good will, and good moral character. The credibility of managers refer to their perceived ability to know valid information and their perceived commitment to share their knowledge without bias. The credibility of managers depends on factors like expertise relevant to the job they supervise, their reliability as information sources, their motives and intentions as decision makers, expression of warmth and friendliness, dynamism as communicators, and the majority opinion of others concerning the expertness and trustworthiness about them (Giffin, 1967; Johnson, 1973).

There is tangible evidence to support the value of credibility for managers. Kouzes and Posner (1993) found that employees who perceived their managers as having high credibility felt significantly more positive and were attached to their work and organisation than those who perceived their managers to be low on credibility.

Opportunity

Finally, being in the right place at the right time can give one the

opportunity to exert power. For instance, one need not hold a formal position in an organisation to have access to information that is important to others. It can be achieved through informal aspects of an organisation's structure and processes. It also derives from the proximity to people whose formal positions include such knowledge. Another way in which opportunity serves as a power source is the network of social relationships within an organisation. A network may provide critical work related knowledge that an organisation member cannot obtain through formal position.

Bases of Power

The bases of power refer to what the power-holder has that gives him or her power. Bases of power are what they control, that allow them to affect the behaviour of others or enable them to influence the behaviour of others. The power bases identified have been briefly stated as follows:

Coercive Power

Power where base is the ability of a person with power to punish another, that is to give something negatively valued by the other. The target person complies in order to avoid punishments believed to be controlled by the agent. Sometimes referred to as punishment power, this power base is essentially the manager's ability to apply penalties when an employee fails to co-operate. When an employee exhibits inappropriate behaviour or violates organisation's policy or rules, he/she might be given a less than average evaluation or even passed over for promotion. Exercising this power base can also generate fear and distrust among employees so that the negative aspects of punishment can outweigh the benefits whenever it is used to alter employees' behaviours.

Reward Power

Power where base is the ability of a person to reward another, that is to give something valued by the other. The target person complies in order to obtain

rewards, he or she believes, are controlled by the power-holder. Reward power reflects the manager's ability to allocate organisational resources in exchange for co-operation. It is probably the most widely used form and base of power. Rewards controlled by a manager can include pay raises, promotions, and recognition.

Expert Power

Power where base is the fact that a person who has expert knowledge or expertise in doing something has the ability to influence the other due to that knowledge or expertise. The target person complies because he or she believes that the power holder has special knowledge about the best way of doing something. Expert power is based on a manager's or person's technical or expert knowledge about a particular area. Expertise may be in the form of experience, information or advanced education. Special knowledge allows a person to persuade others to do as he/she wishes. People perceived to be having expert power are sought after for their advice and problem solving abilities emanating from their experience and insightful understanding of varied situations.

Position/Legitimate Power

Power where base is the internalised values of the power receiver; that is, values stating that a person with superior position has a legitimate right to influence and the power receiver has an obligation to accept influence. The target person complies, as it is believed that the agent has the right to make the request and he has an obligation to comply. Position/legitimate power thus accompanies certain position in an organisation. Managers have legitimate power and can assign various tasks to subordinates. The use of legitimate power to direct, reward, discipline and control workers is generally called authority. It is thus the manager's formal power granted by membership and by virtue of their occupying positions in the organisation.

Referent Power

Power where base is the identification with (attraction to or feeling of oneness with) another person; that is, when one identifies with another, he gives that person power over the self. The target person complies because of the admiration and desire to gain approval. Referent power arises from an individual's personal characteristics that are esteemed by others. Referent power stimulates imitation and loyalty. Thus people whom others admire have referent power. When a manager with referent power asks the subordinates to do something, they are inclined to do it than if someone else they don't admire makes the request. People emulate the admired person's behaviour in the hope that by doing so, they would be as successful as the admired person is.

Information Power

Power where base is the possession of important information or being close to such information. The control of information flows in an organisation can provide tremendous power leverage. People and departments that control information can quickly develop a multitude of 'friends' seeking favours. The rational view suggests that organisations face only low to moderate uncertainty and that uncertainty can be overcome by searching for information. From the point of view of power, uncertainty may be extensive and not easily reduced by an information search. Sometimes it is not clear what information should be sought, and because of the power associated with information, individuals and groups may withhold or distort information in an effort to maximise self-interest.

Dichotomy of Power Bases

Ever since Machiavelli suggested fear and love as bases of power, some suggestions have been made to dichotomise power bases. Flanders (1970), in his work on classroom strategies of influence by teachers differentiated 'direct' influence from 'indirect' influence on the basis of how much freedom was given by the teacher to the students. Strategies of the teacher like scolding, criticising,

disapproval and the like were classified as direct influence as these coerced students into accepting what the teacher wanted them to do or think. Influencing strategies that gave more freedom to the students to think and experiment such as encouragement, compliment, questions with alternative answers, allowing individual and group feelings to be achieved were put in the category of indirect influence. Flanders thus seemed to use a classification of 'coercion' and 'persuasion'.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) proposed seven bases of power and accepted the dichotomy of 'position' power and 'personal' power while accepting the limitation of the dichotomous categorisation. Berlew (1986) proposed a similar categorisation while suggesting two broad influence strategies of 'push' and 'pull', the former located in the system and the latter, a part of the individual influencing others, and Pettigrew (1986) suggested the dichotomy of 'overt' and 'covert' modes of power for influencing others.

All dichotomies of power have similar logic; whether influence is used to force the other individual into accepting what the agent wants him to think or do or to help the target choose to think or do things. The first has the element of coercion and the second has that of persuasion and it seems to be useful to classify the bases of power into 'coercive' and 'persuasive' (Pareek, 1994).

It is already clear from the literature so far that position power and punishment are coercive bases. Power drawn from the organisational, structural positions coerces people to accept influence; punishment more evidently so.

Power derived out of close affectionate bonds also acts like coercion because the target does something out of emotional bond rather than by making a conscious choice. It has been put therefore in the category of coercive power (Pareek, 1994). The main rationale for including affection based influence in coercive base is that when people accept an act of influence because of fear or excessive love they are being manipulated and coerced. For the same reason, Pareek includes charisma also in the coercive category because a charismatic leader arouses strong emotions and manages to get things done. The charismatic

leader does not treat followers as matured people with competence to make their own choice.

Power of a person emanated from his close association with decision-makers in the organisation is also coercive in nature. A private secretary of the chief executive can use the association he/she has with the CEO as a source of influence. This is reflected power from another source and a kind of manipulation. Similarly, manipulation of people by withholding or depriving information or delaying action is also essentially a use of negative power. Some individuals exercise power by delaying the disclosure of decisions made by higher ups.

Thus, the bases of power categorised as coercive in nature comprise organisational position (legitimate power) punishment (coercive power) charisma (charismatic) personal relationships (emotional power), closeness to the source of power (connection or reflected power), and withholding information or resources (manipulative power).

Personal power, unlike position power, has been accepted as opposite of coercion and is categorised under persuasive power. There are three main sources of personal power namely expertise, competence and modelling. A competent manager influences because he can get results. A person who 'lives' certain values influences others into behaving the same way, or at least attempting at such behaviours because of the target's admiration for the agent's behaviour which is not at all coercive in essence. The agent models a behaviour, which is eloquent than the words, used by any other person. This is quite often called as referent power.

Reward power is also being included here as persuasive in nature because reward encourages people to experiment, provides autonomy unless it is used as an explicit tool of manipulation as in the case of operant conditioning.

Though Raven suggested information as a power base, it was subsequently dropped because his co-author French did not agree. But people are influenced by the facts given and by the logic behind such information. As the bases of this influencing ability is the rational aspect of information, Pareek (1994) calls it logical power and is included as a persuasive base.

There are thus six bases of influence included in the category of persuasive power namely, reward, expertise, competence, referent, extension and logic.

Power styles

Influence is the essence of leadership. It is necessary to sell ideas, to gain acceptance for policies and plans, and to motivate subordinates to support and implement decisions. Examination of a manager's power and the organisational qualities developed by him would not suffice in explaining the effectiveness of a manager in influencing people and motivating their commitment to the task. Leaders have power, but subordinates have counter power. Formal position provides a manager with the source of influence but the scope of authority and the way in which the legitimate power can be exercised are constrained by the organisation. A manager's expertise and knowledge are sources of personal power, but the personal power also depends on the needs and perceptions of others whom a manager seeks to influence. Explaining managerial effectiveness requires the realisation of power styles which managers typically resort to while they interact with subordinates.

Power is a capacity to exert influence, but the manner in which power is enacted involves influence behaviour or power styles. Research by Hinkin & Schriesheim (1990) showed that the power of a manager and his influence behaviours (styles) could be regarded as separate constructs, though they are inter-related. This study seeks to understand the recurrent influence behaviours demonstrated by managers and to identify whether power styles contribute towards the effectiveness of managers. In this sense this study is intended to examine the specific types of behaviours used to exercise influence, rather than focusing exclusively on power as a source of potential influence. A number of studies have identified types of proactive influence behaviours called 'influence tactics' or 'power styles' (Mowday, 1978; Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980; Porter, Allen & Angle, 1981; Schilit & Locke, 1982; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Research by Yukl and his associates identified certain influence tactics that are

relevant for managers in organisations and found that each form of influence tactic is appropriate in some situation, but not in other situations. Managers typically use some combination of power styles with a particular mix largely depending on the situation and the individual manager's preferences. An Indian study (Agarwal & Agrawal, 1995) has identified six power styles proposed to be used characteristically by Indian managers. Each of these styles is briefly explained below.

Integrative Power Style

This style involves an emotional appeal to subordinates rather than logical arguments thought to be natural to formal organisations. This style is an attempt to develop enthusiasm and commitment by arousing emotions and linking the manager's requirements to the subordinate's values, ideals and needs. Some bases for integration include the subordinate's desire to be important, to feel useful, to perform a duty, to be a member of a team and to participate in an exciting effort to make things better and accomplish organisational goals. No tangible rewards are promised; only the prospect that one can share in the creation of goodwill as a result of doing something worthwhile and important forms the basis of this influencing style.

Consensus Power Style

Consensus is an influence strategy in which the motivation of a person is increased by allowing him to participate in the decision making. The style implies a paradox that the manager can gain more influence by giving up some influence. This is possible because influence between two people need not be always a fixed sum. Consensus increases the total influence in the relationship rather than transferring some amount of influence from the manager to the subordinate. This style is usually used as a proactive influence technique with the important objective of gaining commitment of target persons to support and implement a change that the manager has already decided to pursue.

Transactional Power Style

The manager using transactional power style presents logical arguments and factual evidence to prove that the proposal suggested by him is the best way to attain some objective or accomplish a particular task. This is very similar to rational persuasion and is appropriate when the subordinates share the same task objective, as that of the manager, but do not recognise that the proposal made is the best way to attain the objective. In a situation where a manager and the targets have incompatible objectives, transactional power style is unlikely to be effective. Thus it is advisable to check initially for agreement on objective before using this style. A manager's technical knowledge and persuasive skill in presenting a case effectively will have the maximum possible impact while contemplating this approach. At a more mundane level, this style has within its folds, besides achieving compatibility in objectives, the exchange of some tangible benefits like prominence, latitude in behaviour, and other benefits in return to the co-operation extended by subordinates.

Pressurising Power Style

Pressurising style includes threats, warnings and assertive behaviour such as repeated demands or frequent checking to see if the subordinate has complied with a directive. Sometimes, if an instruction has been ignored, an angry word to the target can induce compliance, particularly if the target is lazy or apathetic rather than innately opposed to the required action. A difficulty involved in the use of pressurising style is that it can have serious side effects. Threats and intimidation are likely to undermine relationships and may lead to avoidance or counter aggression against the manager. For this reason, effective managers are unlikely to use the style except when all other styles have failed.

Directive Power Style

This style falls into the broader category of motivating behaviour with an implicit integrative approach as the primary purpose is to energise the target's

behaviour and consists in giving praise or rewards to reinforce desirable behaviour along with using coercive power of the manager to prevent unacceptable behaviour. It can also include managerial behaviours like guiding or facilitating, highlighting one's own work efforts intended to make others enthusiastic. The manager provides timely and sufficiently clear instructions and directives for completing the task or getting the work done, verifies the performance of subordinates and constantly evaluates their performance in order to force them finish the assigned task in time.

Coercive Power Style

Another influencing tactic used by managers is based on their ability to prevent the subordinates from obtaining some of their cherished rewards. This power style is based on formal authority system implicit in an organisation and its traditions with the use of punishment as the main inducement. A manager with extensive dependence on coercive power style is tempted to rely on punishment and reprimand excessively instead of using referent or expert power. This approach can lead to resentment and rebellion among subordinates. On the other hand, a leader lacking sufficient position power to make necessary changes and punish troublemakers will find it difficult to develop a high performing group or organisation. This approach is characteristically reactive than proactive unlike other power styles. This influencing behaviour is typically used after a target person has failed to observe the rules and regulations or to fulfil the work assigned to him.

MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS

Managerial effectiveness as a concept is difficult to be defined in precise terms though it has attracted attention at corporate levels and has been in the forefront in the debates on management. There are frequent canvassing for and comments on the need for 'managers with consequence' to meet challenges ahead. As a phenomenon, it seems, lack of managerial effectiveness is easier for

organisations to deal with than defining it. Though highly cherished in organisations, 'effectiveness' suffers from a relative lack of clarity from the perspective of management.

Management is taken to be a special kind of leadership in which the achievement of organisational goals is of critical importance (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). When a manager is essentially trying to influence the behaviour of his subordinates for the purpose of attaining organisational goals, he is attempting to be effective. All managerial behaviours in organisations need not necessarily be directed towards accomplishing organisational goals; a manager may exhibit behaviours to influence the subordinates so as to accomplish his personal ends also. Therefore, in order to study managerial effectiveness, one should be looking into the behaviours of managers with respect to organisational goals and priorities.

Managers are essentially defined by the nature of their accountability, for they are formally answerable for their own performance as well as the job behaviours of subordinates. The primary role of a manager would be to create and maintain environments in which the subordinates can accomplish organisationally relevant and valid goals efficiently and effectively.

A manager in an organisation can be successful without being effective. When a superior officer can get a satisfactory level of output with and through his subordinates only when he is physically present and if he fails to achieve the same as soon as he leaves the workspot, it is a reflection of the difference between one's success and effectiveness. Managerial success has been typically measured in terms of career advancement (Bass, 1979); alternatively, actual job performance and job outcomes complimentary to the goals of the organisation serve as the criteria of effectiveness (Ansari & Rub, 1982; Ansari, 1984). The primary responsibility of a manager being the achievement of work with and through others, the success of a manager may be measured by the output of the group he leads; success has to do with the way in which an individual subordinate or a group of subordinates behaves. The effectiveness of a manager describes an internal state, an innate ability and a persistent disposition of the manager, which is long-standing in

nature.

Literature provides varying conceptualisations and measurements of managerial effectiveness. Researchers have been concerned primarily with questions as what kind of persons are effective managers, and what are the outcomes of effective management? In the Indian context there is a dearth of research on the topic. There have been, however, some indigenous attempts to explore into the socio-personal backgrounds (Jain, 1971; Saiyadain & Monappa, 1977), and values and belief structure among Indian managers (Chakraborty, 1989). Several studies were on the leadership styles of Indian managers and some on the effectiveness of leaders (Kakar, 1974; Sinha, 1984,1988). So far as the managerial effectiveness is concerned there are indeed only a few Indian studies (AIMA, 1983; Singh et al. 1984; Balraman, 1989; Rama, 1991). Management effectiveness as reflected by the value of output was explored by Bhattacharya (1983) and performance effectiveness of bank managers as correlated with their Type A/Type B personality types and achievement orientation was ascertained by Kunnanatt (1990).

Managerial effectiveness was evaluated behaviourally by Balraman (1989) using job-oriented criteria like communicating, becoming cost aware, delegation of work, relating with labour, planning and scheduling, securing interdepartmental co-operation, training subordinates and utilisation of installed capacity.

Earlier significant attempts to explain managerial effectiveness were by Reddin (1970) and Campbell et al. (1970). Reddin explained effectiveness of managers by adding a dimension for the same to the task and relationship dimensions of earlier leadership models and Campbell et al. proposed a 'person - process - product' model of managerial effectiveness.

The relevance of 'person' in explaining managerial effectiveness was specified by way of certain traits and characteristics such as initiative, intelligence, insight, task motivation, situational ability etc. Ghiselli (1971) made the most significant contribution in this line when he emphasised on supervisory ability, occupational achievement, intelligence, self-actualisation, self-assurance and

decisiveness as criteria for effectiveness of managers. Walters (1980) also approached the concept from the angle of manifested skills of managers. He offered a model comprising the contextual skills such as goal setting, practice skills such as active listening, insight skills such as group observation, and wisdom skills such as use of personal power.

The trait approach towards managerial effectiveness was criticised, as in the case of leadership analysis, for want of universal traits to be possessed by effective managers. The attack on traits approach was partially overcome by Sashkin (1987) when he attempted at converting the characteristics into behavioural indicators such as attention focusing on specific issues, taking risks on the basis of careful calculation of chances for success and failure, skilful communication, demonstrating consistency and trustworthiness in one's behaviour and manifesting active concern for people. According to Sashkin, it is the appropriate combination of individual personality factors and behaviours that predicted effective managers.

An alternative theme on managerial effectiveness, running through the literature, considers behaviours and actions. Mintzberg (1973) held that work of all managers, irrespective of the context, could be described by sets of behaviours or roles. He stated that all managerial jobs can be summed up in terms of ten roles - interpersonal (figurehead, leader, liaison); informational (monitor, disseminator, spokesperson); and decisional (entrepreneur, disturbance handler, negotiator and resource allocator). Managers are thought to be effective in different ways at different times depending on the appropriate combination of these ten roles. Mintzberg (1975) was complicating the matter further when he added a situational element by saying that managers are effective in different ways at different times.

The importance of situational elements for managerial effectiveness got additional support from Margerison (1981) when he stated that effectiveness of a manager implied the extent to which he or she behaves appropriately to the needs of the situation.

The behaviours and actions dimensions of managerial effectiveness were

also criticised on account of there being no manager who can possibly exhibit all possible exemplary behaviours required of an effective manager. However, this approach underlined that a good measure of managerial effectiveness ultimately should identify observable actions and behaviours leading to the accomplishment of desired goals.

Drucker (1961) had emphasised meeting higher standards as central to effectiveness. Others have stressed the achievement of enterprise goals as measures of managerial effectiveness (Guion, 1965; Pripariya, Ram & Dutt, 1977). Many have confused managerial effectiveness with organisational effectiveness also. Though it may be argued that the former would lead to the latter, there seems to be some opposing evidences regarding relationship between the two because many managers are not at all instructed to achieve organisational effectiveness which may not be relevant in their middle and junior level capacities. There may also be myriad external influences that can help or hinder the organisational goal achievement. Thus organisational accomplishment may not be a measure of managerial effectiveness. McGregor (1967) and Likert (1967) settled the controversy by emphasising on the importance of people and the integration of personal and organisational goals. Koontz (1971) proposed accomplishment of managerial goals as central to the concept of effectiveness while Reddin (1974) held effectiveness as the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of the position.

Rama (1991), fully aware of the lack of uniformity among the interpretations of managerial effectiveness as well as its objective measures, conducted a study among CEOs of industrial units and arrived at a set of parameters of managerial effectiveness which comprised leadership qualities, result orientation, ability with people, identification with company/organisation and its goals, understanding and discharging their own role, effective handling of problems/situations and innovativeness. The chief executives' perception of managerial effectiveness seems to be in agreement with Campbell et al. model of person - product - process elements. Ability with people, dynamic leadership,

identification with the organisation and its goals and innovativeness are all 'personal' factors whereas effective problem solving and adequate role performance which are on-the-job behaviours and activities, along with interpersonal relationship, point out the 'process' aspects. The importance attached to the desire to achieve and concern for maximising results clarify the CEOs' appreciation for the 'product' dimension in the concept of managerial effectiveness.

Management and Leadership

Management and leadership are often thought of as one and the same thing. In real sense, management is a special kind of leadership displayed in an organisational context. The factor that transforms a leader into a manager is the organisation. Leadership occurs any time one attempts to influence the behaviour of another individual or group, regardless of reason and context. It may be for one's own goals, which may or may not be congruent with the organisational goals. Achievement of organisational objectives through the exercise of leadership is at the core of managerial role and, effectiveness has been conventionally conceptualised, studied and analysed from the perspective of organisations.

Managerial leadership and effectiveness have been approached from different angles depending on the authors' conception of the topic and preferences. Nearly all researches on managerial leadership can be classified into one or the other of the following categories:

(a) Trait Approach, (b) Behavioural Approach, (c) Situational/Participative Approach and (d) Power-Influence Approach.

Trait Approach

Many of the early attempts to explain leadership up to 1950 were focused on the traits of leaders. Emphasis was to identify a set of distinct personal characteristics that could differentiate effective leaders from ineffective ones. Stogdill (1974) in his analysis of literature since 1948 identified a leadership

classification based on six categories of (a) physical characteristics, (b) social background, (c) intelligence, (d) personality, (e) task related characteristics and (f) social characteristics. In several studies that measured situational elements as contributing towards leadership, there was the indication that the relative importance of each trait depended on the situation. A leader with certain traits could be effective in one situation but ineffective in a different situation.

Managerial motivation as a predictor of effectiveness was suggested in the general review of trait studies. Miner (1978) hinted at the importance of managerial motivation in understanding their effectiveness. Research on managerial motivation was also reported by McClelland and others (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; Stahl, 1983; Cornelius & Lane, 1984) illustrating the importance of achievement, power and affiliation needs of managers in understanding their effectiveness.

Researches indicate that the dominant motive of most successful managers is the need for power (McClelland & Burnham, 1975,1995). It was also pointed out that a good manager's power motivation is not oriented toward personal aggrandisement but toward the institution that he or she serves. An important characteristic of a successful manager in a bureaucracy is his need to influence people than his need to be liked by others. Managers' need for achievement is also important for their success in a bureaucracy (McClelland, 1975).

Although these trait-based investigations appear to be helpful in identifying certain leadership characteristics, they do not show how an individual manager performs effectively in an organisational institution. The trait approach has ignored the subordinate and the impact that the leader brings to bear upon him. Effectiveness of managerial leadership depends to a large extent on the situation created by the leader or the influence process initiated by the leader.

Behavioural Approach

The foundation of behavioural approach towards leadership is that effective leaders utilise certain styles to lead individuals and groups towards common goals,

producing high productivity and morale. The two dimensions of leadership, emphasised in the behavioural approach, was the importance the leader placed on getting the job done by such actions as assigning and organising the work, making decisions and evaluating performance, referred to as 'task - orientation', and the openness and friendliness displayed by the leader coupled with his concern for the needs of subordinates, referred to as 'employee-orientation'.

Much of the research on leadership behaviour during the decades since 1950s has followed the pattern set by the pioneering research programmes conducted by Fleishman and his associates at Ohio State University (OSU) and the Likert inspired team at the University of Michigan (UM).

The major result of the OSU studies was the development of a two-factor theory of effective leadership in terms of relatively independent dimensions of 'initiating structure' and 'consideration'. Initiating structure involves behaviour in which the leader defines and organises the relationships in the group, tends to establish well-defined patterns and channels of communication, and spells out the ways of getting the job done. The leader with a high initiating structure tendency focuses on goals and results. Initiating structure is sometimes also referred to as 'production' or 'task' orientation. Consideration involves behaviours indicating friendship, mutual trust, respect, warmth and rapport between the leader and followers. The leader with high consideration supports and ensures open communication and participation, and looks out for the welfare of subordinates. Consideration is sometimes referred to as 'employee' or 'human-relations' orientation.

Fleishman & Harris (1962) provide one of the best examples of correlational field research on consideration and initiating structure. The criteria for leadership effectiveness included the number of written grievances and the amount of voluntary turnover during an eleven-month period. It was seen that beyond certain critical levels, increased consideration or decreased initiating structure had no effect on turnover or grievance rate. Blake & Mouton, (1964) came up with a similar dictionary called as 'task and people oriented' leadership.

Assuming nine levels on each dimension, they formulated a 9*9 Managerial Grid to locate the specific configuration of 'task' and 'people' orientations in a manager.

The University of Michigan (UM) studies on leadership developed two distinct style dimensions of leadership namely, 'employee-centred' and 'task-centred' styles. The main conclusion of these studies was that the effectiveness of leadership should not be evaluated solely by productivity measures but should include other measures such as satisfaction, morale etc. (Likert, 1961, 1967).

Bowers & Seashore (1966) attempted to integrate the conclusions of OSU and U.M studies and emphasised on the need to measure subordinates' leadership behaviour because leadership functions need not be carried out solely by the designated group leader and the effectiveness of a group depends on the overall quality of leadership than on who performs the leadership functions. The criticisms against behavioural approach were as follows. First, there was no evidence to show that the style or behaviour of the leader changed depending on the situation. Second, factors such as cohesiveness of the group, nature of subordinates' characteristics or tasks were not fully accounted for. Third, it was impossible to determine whether the approach was studying leadership or authority or the power relationship as initiated and maintained by the leaders.

Situational Approach

Contingency approach to leadership effectiveness generally means that different situations warrant different traits and behaviours for a manager to be effective. Aspects of the situation that enhance or nullify the effects of a manager's trait or behaviour are called situational or moderator variables. Most of the theories under this general category were developed during 1970s and reflect the focus on task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviours that were so prevalent then. The only exception is the Vroom-Yetton model, which assumes that the basic function of a leader or a manager is to make decisions.

According to situational approach, a manager's job centres around diagnosing and evaluating the influence of such factors as individual differences,

group structure, subordinates' maturity, organisation's policies and practices. A manager needs to undertake a thorough examination of the situation before deciding to apply a particular style. The important areas to be diagnosed by the manager comprise leadership characteristics, characteristics of subordinates, group structure, nature of task and other organisational factors.

Fiedler Model

Fred E. Fiedler (1967) developed the earlier contingency model for leadership effectiveness. He proposed that leadership effectiveness with regard to the performance of the group depends on a proper match between the leader's style of interacting with subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader. Fiedler used an instrument called the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Questionnaire to measure whether a leader was task- or relationship-oriented. If the least preferred co-worker was viewed in relatively favourable terms, the leader is primarily interested in good personal relations and is generally relationship-oriented. Contrarily, if the least preferred co-worker was given only low LPC score, the person is interested primarily in performance and thus is task-oriented. Fiedler also identified three situational criteria namely, leader-member relations, task structure and position power that can be manipulated to create the power match with the behavioural orientation of the leader. The task-oriented type of leadership, according to Fiedler, is more effective in-group situations, which are either very favourable or very unfavourable for the leader. The relationship orientation is relatively effective in situations that are intermediate in favourableness. The favourableness of the situation is to be judged on the basis of the amount of position power of the leader, the extent of leader-member relations and the degree to which the task is structured. A leader's considerable position power ensures subordinates' compliance with his directions and policies. Leader with little or no legitimate power has to seek other sources of influence for ensuring the compliance of subordinates. A leader whose relations with subordinates are favourable can look forward to loyalty and enthusiastic

support of subordinates to his preferences and directions. A leader whose subordinates dislike him would find that they ignore his directions or subvert his policies. When the task is structured, leader can easily monitor and influence subordinates' task-performance; if the task is unstructured, leader cannot determine how well subordinates perform nor can he monitor their progress.

Path - Goal Theory of Leadership Effectiveness

This theory was developed to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates. After the earlier contribution that was non-situational in approach, House (1971) formulated the situational version of the theory. The theory states that the motivational function of a leader consists in increasing personal pay-off to subordinates for work-goal achievement and making the process easier by clarifying work content, reducing problems and pitfalls and, in the process, increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction. Leader behaviour is viewed as acceptable to subordinates to the extent that they see the leader's behaviour as either an immediate source of satisfaction or instrumental to future satisfaction. The effect of leader's behaviour on subordinate satisfaction need not necessarily be the same as its impact on subordinate effort. Depending on the situation, leader behaviour may affect both in the same way or variously, on only one and not the other.

The situational variables in Path-Goal theory were borrowed from the motivation theory called Expectancy Theory. If the subordinates believe that valued outcomes can be obtained only by making a serious effort and if they believe such an effort will succeed, they will make the effort. The effect of a leader's behaviour is primarily to modify these perceptions and beliefs. Path-Goal theory asserts that the effect of leader behaviour on subordinates' efforts and satisfaction depends on the situation including task characteristics and subordinate characteristics, which in turn determine both the potential for increased subordinate motivation and the manner in which the leader must act to improve motivation. Situational variables also influence subordinate preferences for a

particular pattern of leadership behaviour.

Research conducted to test Path-Goal theory has yielded mixed results. Yukl (1981) finds that the validation researches had tested only a few aspects of the theory while ignoring others. Therefore the theory has to be adequately tested.

Path-Goal theory has already made some contributions to the study of leadership by providing a conceptual framework in identifying potentially relevant situational/moderator variables. An important limitation of the theory is that it is intended to be only a tentative explanation of the motivational effects of leader behaviour and does not attempt to include all of the variables that may be relevant.

Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) developed a leadership theory originally called the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership that was renamed as Situational Leadership Theory. The theory attempts to explain leadership effectiveness subject to the moderating effects of one situational variable and two broadly defined leader behaviours viz., 'task behaviour' and 'relationship behaviour' which are similar to the initiating structure and consideration dimensions in the Ohio State University studies.

The situational moderator variable of 'follower maturity' is measured in relation to a particular task performed by a subordinate. Follower maturity comprises two related components: (1) job maturity - extent of subordinate's task relevance skills and technical knowledge, and (2) psychological maturity - a subordinate's self-confidence and self-respect. According to situational leadership theory, the level of subordinate maturity determines the optimal level of leader behaviour. As subordinates' maturity increases from the minimum amount up to a moderate level, the leader should use more relations behaviour and less task behaviour. As subordinate maturity increases beyond a moderate level, the leader should decrease the amount of relations behaviour while continuing to decrease the amount of task behaviour.

The most important contribution of situational leadership theory is that it

reminds us to treat different subordinates differently and to treat the same subordinate differently as situation changes. The theory also recommends building up skills and confidence of subordinates and not assuming that a particular subordinate with deficiencies is a problem employee forever.

Participative Approach to Leadership Effectiveness

After supportive and task oriented behaviours, the largest amount of behavioural research has been on the participative leadership which involves the use of decision procedures intended to allow the subordinates to have some influence over the leaders' decisions. Other terms used to refer to the participative approach include consultation, joint decision-making, power sharing, decentralisation and democratic management. The participation process may be carried out with subordinates, peers, superiors, or even outsiders. Participative leadership is a category of behaviour distinct from task and relationship oriented behaviours even though the three categories overlap to some extent.

Leadership theories have proposed different taxonomies of decision procedures and there has been no agreement about the optimal number or the best way to define them. Decision procedures can be ordered along a continuum ranging from 'no influence' to 'high influence' by others. Researchers differentiate between sub-varieties of decision procedures. Tannenbaum and Schimdt (1958) presented a model known as the autocratic - democratic continuum suggesting a relationship between the degree of authority used by the manager and the amount of freedom available to subordinates in reaching decisions. The labels 'autocratic' and 'democratic' suggest analogies between dictatorial and democratic regiments. As a result many managers are reluctant to admit that they operate in an autocratic manner; even though 'democratic' may not be the appropriate description for the behaviour of a leader of a group striving to achieve goals (Gray & Smeltzer, 1989).

A more appropriate term than 'democratic' suggested with an equally positive connotation, seems to be 'participation'. This term's appeal partly

emanates from the participative form of governments existing in democratic nations world over and also from the human relations model of motivation.

Vroom & Yetton (1973) have developed a model that attempts to specify in a practical manner when and to what extent participation should be allowed in decision making process. The theory relates managerial leadership behaviour and participation to decision making recognising that task structures have varying needs for routine or non-routine activities; the model states that leaders must adjust to reflect the task structure.

Vroom & Yetton present a sequential set of eight rules that should be followed when managers choose the form and level of participation to be allowed in decision making. Of the eight rules, four are designed to protect decision quality and four to ensure decision acceptance. These rules help in identifying the inappropriateness of a chosen decision procedure (alternate leadership styles) in a given situation. The theory also identifies five decision procedures for making decisions involving multiple subordinates including two varieties of autocratic decision (AI, AII), two varieties of consultation (CI, CII), and one variety of joint decision by leader and subordinates as a group (GII). The model, thus essentially, is a decision tree incorporating eight contingencies and five alternative leadership styles. This model indicates the tremendous advances that have been made in understanding leadership and the researches with the model as a basis indicate that managers need to look at the total situation rather than in terms of autocratic and participative styles (Margerison & Glube, 1979).

What does it all mean?

The subject of leadership does not lack theories. Because of the complexity, the contingency leadership concepts are more difficult to apply than behavioural or trait concepts.

The basic ingredient in successfully implementing the contingency approaches requires the managers to be able to choose among different leadership styles in different situations. That is, the key ingredient is flexibility. If, on the other

hand, managers are relatively inflexible, then they will operate effectively only in those situations that best match their styles or that can be adjusted to match their styles. Fiedler (1973) believes that managers are quite inflexible; he is very pessimistic about the possibility of training individuals to use different styles. He suggests that managers are matched to the situation or the situation is changed to suit a manager.

Vroom & Yetton take the opposite view. They suggest that managers can be flexible and can adopt several styles, from deciding solely on their own to deciding with various degrees of group participation. The essential question now being posed are, can leaders diagnose the situation, and are they flexible enough to adapt leadership styles?

Research has made some significant contribution to the understanding and application of managerial leadership roles. As with many managerial topics much remains to be explored if managerial effectiveness is to be achieved. This leads us to the point where we must examine some of the contemporary perspectives on managerial leadership.

Can a manager be effective in changing an entire group or an entire organisation? It is reported that 'transformational' or 'inspirational' leaders attempt to change the whole group or organisation from one 'state' or 'culture' to another (Robins, 1997). The change is highly related to the charisma with which a leader develops strong feelings of trust and affection toward himself or herself and in the process the leader can facilitate many transformations within the group. Many people maintain that transformational leaders are the need of the hour to move India to a competitive industrial and information society.

Extensive attention has also been given to employee self-management in recent years. Attention is being increasingly focused on an interaction view of leadership (Greene, 1979). This view states that subordinate behaviour can influence leader behaviour, just as leader behaviour can influence subordinate behaviour. Another emerging perspective is that a substitute for leadership makes the leader relatively unnecessary or redundant. A group of highly professional

subordinates who know how to do their tasks and are self-disciplined do not need a leader who initiates structure for them and tells them what is to be done.

After a review of the trait, behavioural, and contingency approaches to managerial leadership and after a scanning of several contemporary perspectives, one feels like asking, isn't managerial leadership really a matter of one's power and influence? As with most managerial questions, the answer is not clear-cut; however, it seems that power is highly related to managerial leadership and effectiveness. This proposition can be better appreciated when viewed from the perspectives of 'social exchange theory' and 'vertical dyad linkages' that are latent in leader-follower relationships.

The Social Exchange Theory explains the reciprocal process of influence between leaders and followers. The theory used 'social interaction process' as the basis for explaining complex behaviour in groups. Varied forms of social exchanges can occur including material benefits and psychological exchanges such as approval, respect, esteem, fear and affection. Individuals begin to engage in meaningful social exchanges right from early childhood and develop expectations about reciprocity and equity in such exchanges.

Social exchange theory holds that a leader's role calls for innovation to deal with problems and obstacles. The risk of failure cannot be avoided even if the leader is complacent and refuses to show initiative in the face of serious problems. Members of the group continually evaluate their exchange relationship with leaders and will not continue to accord him the privileges and benefits implicit in his high status position unless the group feels like heading toward the attainment of goals.

The concept of Vertical Dyad refers to the relationship between an individual leader and one subordinate. The theory is based on the premise that leaders establish a special kind of relationship with a smaller number of trusted subordinates, referred to as 'in-group', who function as assistants, confidants or advisors. The nature of relationship is considerably at variance with the relationship established with the rest of the group (the out-group). Earlier in the history of dyadic interaction, the leader initiates either an in-group or an out-

group relationship. Grean & Cashman (1975) suggest that selection of in-group be made on the basis of personal compatibility, subordinate's competence and dependability. With regard to the out-group, there is a relatively low level of mutual influence. The primary source of leader's influence is the legitimate authority in combination with varying degrees of coercing, rewarding, modelling abilities and the extent or quality of expertise displayed, moderated by the leader's personal traits and possibly by some of his/her socio-demographic factors.

Essence of Managerial Leadership

Management students are often surprised by the low regard many practising managers have for academic theories of management and leadership. The critics argue that it is fine to talk of organising, planning, motivating and controlling the functions in an organisation and the bearing that subordinates and other situational factors have on the effective ways of achieving all these. Studying why certain practices click and the speculation about what should be the best way to handle a manager's job and one's subordinates is an interesting intellectual exercise. Management theories have never been famous for causing action. When one steps out of the ivory tower of theory into the real world of the manager's job, everything boils down to getting someone else to do something the way one wants it done. What really counts, these critics feel, is the effective use of influence and power.

The critics of management theories argue, despite the lack of empirical evidence to support them, that there are certain myths concerning on-the-job leadership seemingly having more lives than the liveliest cat. Among the current ones, following are important:

(1) Leadership connotes being nice to people or making them happy.

Being considerate of others is a characteristic of well-bred human beings and has nothing *per se* to do with leadership. Making people happy is a self-deceiving endeavour as far as a manager is concerned. As the pursuit of happiness

is an individual quest, every man is a 'Don Quixote' in the larger context of life.

(2) Leadership must be democratic

Democracy is a political philosophy and a way of life. No business organisation can be a democracy in a real sense any more than a family can. The manager-leader who tries always being democratic ends up in a peculiar form of pseudo-democracy. To state that the manager must be supportive and share the leadership function when appropriate is a far cry from claiming that everyone has a right to make an opinion about any subject regardless of his ignorance or exigency of the situation. The true manager-leader takes actions not from an idealised picture of his role but from the realities of the situation. In fact, a persistent effort to be democratic may actually be a subtle evasion of his responsibilities as a manager.

(3) Leadership can be turned into a clever form of manipulation.

Leadership may be utilised by some to deceive subordinates. In the long-run manipulation is self defeating. It is not leadership but conmanship. Sooner or later people will catch on that they are being used and abused. Then the confidence man will reap a mountain of resentment and subversion. In an era when the educational level and sophistication of subordinates are ever increasing, any attempt to manipulate them would endanger the organisational interest, let alone the manager's self-interest and moral integrity.

(4) Leaders are born, not made.

No one is born with a divine right to ride herd on others; no one is born to be a peon. Leadership is an achievement, not a birthright or happy accident of heredity. Everyone has some leadership potential that can be more fully actualised than it has been in the past. If subordinates have never been given opportunities to exercise leadership functions, if they have had no chance to spread their wings of leadership, then predictably they will be followers. It would be erroneous to deny

that heredity, environment, past opportunities, formal education, personality and a host of other factors that play important roles in the creation of a manager-leader. Even the so-called born-leaders must be developed. As Shakespeare has it, 'everyone is born a baby, not a leader'.

(5) Leaders have a charisma that followers lack.

Certain rare people like Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Winston Churchill and Adolf Hitler undoubtedly had a special charisma. But for the majority of business leaders that is not the case. No leader has been found to possess unique and personal characteristics that other people lack; research does not reveal any consistent personality pattern that distinguishes leaders from followers. It seems more a matter of having intensified certain human abilities and capacities, of having honed one's skills than of being the recipient of any special boon from a benevolent deity.

Managerial Leadership as a process of influence

Managerial leadership can be succinctly described as a process of influencing a group, in a particular situation, at a given point of time, in a specific set of circumstances that stimulates people to strive to attain organisational objectives. It involves giving them the experience of helping themselves attain the common objectives with the support of the type of leadership provided. The key ideas herein can be summarised as follows:

(1) Process of influence.

If leaders lead, managers must manage. Managers must relate to and interact with their subordinates. Effective managerial leadership is not a now-and-then thing exercised when emergencies arise. It is a continuous effort on the part of a manager. It seeks not reflex responses to organisational demands but that 'plus factor' which makes the difference between mediocrity and excellence. The manager is a leader of his people when they allow him to influence their thinking,

attitudes, and behaviour. Influence implies that a manager is, accepted by subordinates, looked up to for direction, pursued by them as capable of helping them satisfy their aims. At the heart of the influence process is an impact that one human being can have on another or a group. As often is the case with opinions that have endured and grown widespread, there is validity to the argument that power of managers is the most significant tool for managing effectively. However, the thinking that leadership alone is the basis of managerial effectiveness is partial and shortsighted.

(2) In a particular situation, at a given point in time, and in a specific set of circumstances

The quest for an abstraction of leadership has been as fruitless and frustrating as that for a universal solvent. Managerial leadership, like medicine is never general, but always particular. Despite the tendency of managers and executives to act on the basis of habit and past successes rather than by insight into present realities, it seems rather evident that a type of leadership behaviour suited to one situation may be entirely inappropriate in another.

(3) Stimulates people to strive attaining organisational objectives

In all organisations, many plans and goals come down the chain of command. Even though the manager may have had no say in establishing them, his duty is to do his utmost to get his people accept organisational aims and help them identify with them as a means for attaining their own goals. The manager always has the right to dissent; he may even have the obligation to make his dissent known to higher authorities, but he has no right to resist the legitimate demands of the superiors for such a behaviour would be simple disloyalty.

(4) The experience of helping attain common objectives

Managers often make the mistake of projecting their attitudes towards certain jobs on to the people who do them. Because the managers would find the

work boring and inconsequential, they tend to think of people doing it as unimportant and dim-witted. To some people some jobs are dull that they should be discarded. In fact, there are no glamorous jobs - all involve routine, repetition and built-in irritants. In a sense, there are only uninterested people occupying them.

If employees are to have some identification with the undertaking and share some responsibility for its success, the manager-leader must help the subordinates understand how their jobs contribute to an operational end result, and he must thank the employees for their contributions however mundane or unglamorous they may be. It can be very rewarding if the manager realises that he/she is the firm's pre-eminent public relations expert.

Managers are thus supposed to extend influence over others and make a difference in their work effectiveness. If that were not the case there would be no need for the managerial role. Managers' ability to extend influence over others - the managerial power - is necessarily an important aspect of managerial behaviour. It is clear that power of managers is a concept that should be examined and understood. It is a resource that managers must acquire and use.

Power of managers and their effectiveness

Effectiveness of managers can be explained relative to the source and magnitude of power available to them and the manner in which they exercise influence over subordinates. Available theory and research emphasise the mutuality of influence process and the importance of exchange relationships between leaders and followers (Yukl, 1981).

The power and influence approach argues that the essence of leadership is the leader's influence over followers. The influence process that exists between leader and follower is not, however, unidirectional. Leader influences followers, but followers also influence leaders reciprocally. Several influence typologies have been identified by Webber (1947); French & Raven (1959); Etzioni (1959). Yukl (1989) gives a composite view of these influence typologies and says that the

different forms of influence used by leaders are not necessarily incompatible and hence, some of them can be used together in a given situation. In a situation, a leader may use any one or a combination of the various forms of influence. A leader's position affords other things besides a right to make legitimate demands and administer rewards and punishments. Leader's potential for influence over subordinates' motivation and satisfaction would be greater if he has discretion to modify the design of subordinate's job. This is so as a person's intrinsic motivation is affected by the jobs, the scope for the application of skill-variety, the meaningfulness of the task, direct feedback about performance and considerable autonomy in the ways of doing the job. The opportunity for the manager to use other forms of influence such as rational persuasion, rational faith and personal identification is more often a function of the characteristics of the leader than of his position. A clear picture of the leader's influence can be obtained only by considering the inverted influence of subordinates on the leaders also, besides the superiors' influence over subordinates. The inverted influence of subordinates is referred to as 'counter power', which restricts the free exercise of leaders' powers, and is primarily based on leader's dependence on subordinates. If subordinates perform well, they can help their manager become and gain reputation for being an effective manager.

Types of power and the effectiveness of managers

Most researchers on the consequences of using different power bases rely essentially on the taxonomy proposed by French and Raven (1959), which has already been discussed earlier in this chapter. Podsakoff and Schriesheim (1985) reviewed the early power researches. Since then some additional studies were also held by others (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Rahim 1989; Yukl & Falbe, 1991) and most of these attempts found that persuasive power bases were positively related with subordinate satisfaction and performance. The results for coercive power bases were inconsistent. The correlations between the types of power that contribute to coercive power base and the criteria of satisfaction and performance

effectiveness were usually negative or non-significant rather than positive (Yukl, 1994). Overall results suggest that effective managers and leaders rely mostly on persuasive power bases to influence subordinates.

The present study proposes that effective managers emphasise their power bases falling into the persuasive category, but does not rule out the importance of coercive bases. A more likely conclusion is that effective managers use a mix of different types of power (Kotter, 1982).

In recent years, researchers have examined the specific types of behaviour used to exercise influence than merely focusing on power as a source of potential to be employed to gain influence. This approach probably bridges the gap between the power approach and the behaviour approach to managerial leadership.

A common form of influence behaviour in organisations is to make a simple request based on one's legitimate power. The influence attempts based on legitimate power are likely to be effective if the request is reasonable, relevant for the mission of the work unit. It should also be such that the request is to do something the target person knows how to do and it does not jeopardise the target person's own job performance or preferences (Barnard, 1968). Simple requests perceived to be legitimate often result in subordinate compliance. When the request is not perceived to be legitimate, or it involves actions perceived by the target of influence to be unpleasant, useless, or detrimental, resistance rather than compliance ensues.

How do managers gain acceptance for their right to make requests, give orders, their right to higher status and deference? Managers must demonstrate superior ability, whether it is technical skill or organisational sophistication. Their skills and knowledge should entitle them to the position. Organisational members expect that their leaders/superiors will know more about the field, that their heads will be acclaimed experts, that their supervisors will be experts in the trade. A manager's technical knowledge is the source of facts and arguments used to build a persuasive case.

In addition to facts and evidences, a persuasive case usually includes some

opinions or inferences that the manager makes which others accept in the face value because there is insufficient evidence to verify them. Therefore, influence of a manager depends on the extent to which others recognise him as trustworthy. Simply stated, the leaders and managers must be of proven credibility. Sayles (1989) suggests alternatively, besides credibility, managers gain acceptance for their legitimate rights to higher status, deference and acquire power by avoiding routinisation. Avoiding routinisation involves demonstrating that one's work is relatively unpredictable and not so easy for another (including superiors) to schedule, specify or cost, and that it involves innovations. Obviously, the first time an activity is undertaken, or a function performed, or technology implemented, it will appear extraordinary and worthy of high regard and status. As the new element is perfected and routinised, it becomes downgraded (Kanter, 1977). Ambitious managers therefore find that it pays to innovate, get approval for new projects, to find a problem area that hasn't been attacked successfully. Thus devising new programmes to cope with the accepted problems or opportunities accrues substantial power to the superior, particularly in comparison to those handling older, routinised activities. New activities obviously provide another leverage for power namely, Visibility - the assurance that the manager will be noticed (Sayles, 1989).

Credibility and Visibility are two organisationally relevant qualities to be acquired and maintained by the manager to fight problems of ambiguity of authority or legitimacy in doubt. A manager, in order to become capable of utilising his power bases, whether they belong to the coercive or persuasive category, has to have a reputation for trustworthiness and innovativeness (Sayles, 1989; Yukl, 1989).

The following paragraphs sum up the formal position taken in this study with respect to the power of managers and its implications for their effectiveness which legitimise the present research endeavour.

Power is a capacity to influence the attitudes and behaviour of the people in a desired direction. Authority (position power) is the right of a superior officer

in an organisation to influence others in specified ways. It is an important base for influence in a formal situation. Acceptance of the authority of a superior depends in part on the perceived legitimacy of the person.

Potential influence derived from a manager's position in the hierarchy includes, besides authority, control over rewards and punishments, control over information and control over the organisation of work and work environment. Managers can greatly vary in the amount of position power they have, usually limited by factors like organisational policies, reward systems, legal constraints, union activities of the subordinates and the union contracts.

Potential influence derived from the characteristics of the person who occupies a managerial or leadership position is the personal power. It is greater for leaders who are perceived to have expertise in doing the work and solving important problems and also is true for leaders who are attractive and likeable. Personal power is significant and important for influencing subordinates. Evidences on the use of different forms of power by leaders suggest that effective leaders rely more on personal power and utilise persuasive power bases than relying on position power and using coercive power bases. Nevertheless, coercive power bases are still important; they interact and supplement in a complex way the persuasive power bases and the manager's personal power to decide his influence on the subordinates and thereby his effectiveness.

The kind of power styles necessary for effectiveness in an organisation depends on its nature, task and subordinates. Research on influence behaviour of managers in organisations provides a bridge between power and behaviour approaches to leadership. Researchers have identified distinct influence oriented styles including integration, consensus, transaction, pressure, direction and coercion. A manager's selection and use of a style in an influence attempt can be thought of as depending on one's own power base and situational aspects. Evidence is also available to argue that managers prefer to use styles that emanate from and are supported by their characteristic traits and personally reliable power bases that are thought to be socially accepted and feasible.

The credibility and visibility of a manager seem to be factors contributing to the degree of his effectiveness in association with his power bases and the preferred power styles.

The success of a manager also depends greatly on the manner in which power is exercised. Effective managers are likely to use power in a subtle and careful fashion without emphasising the status differentials and by avoiding threats to the target person's self-esteem. In contrast, leaders who exercise their power in an abusive way, with arrogance coupled with excessive manipulation and domineering tendencies are likely to engender resentment and resistance that can result in ineffectiveness.

Indian studies on power in the recent past.

In 1985 Dr. C.B.P. Singh conducted his work on 'Behavioural Strategies in Power Relationships' in a public sector fertiliser company. He studied the interpersonal power relationships involving the use of different power strategies by managers to influence both their superiors as well as subordinates. Singh found that the workers possessed greater power than their managers did.

Dr. Arief Hassan, in the same year, examined the patterns of power distribution in a public and private steel company. In both these companies the actual hierarchical distribution of power was acceptable to the respondents. But, however, the managers in the public sector plant wanted to have more power for themselves, than their subordinates, as compared to their private sector counterparts. Higher level managers in both public and private companies possessed a level of power that was close to what they thought to be ideal. The possession of power by lower level managers in the private plant approximated their ideal but in the public plant, lower level managers suffered an acute shortage of power over subordinates. The workers in both the companies were reported to have greater power.

In 1986 Prof. Jai B.P. Sinha, through a series of studies, probed the work culture in Indian organisations and highlighted some points with respect to the

patterns of power distribution. The managers pointed out that power curve in an ideal situation should reflect the hierarchical differentiation. The top managers and lower level managers should ideally have equal power and the workers only lesser amounts. But the study revealed that workers' power approximated that of the top managers with the other two categories of managers experiencing a power deficit as against workers.

In 1989 Sunita Singh extended the research in power to banking organisations. She collected data from samples of managers and non-managers working in branches of private, originally nationalised (1969) and later nationalised (1980) banking organisations to rate the power of managers to influence the non-managers and the power of non-managers to influence managers. The findings showed that both managers and non-managers agreed that managers in originally nationalised bank had lesser power than the non-managers whereas the private bank approximated the normative pattern of power distribution.

Dr. Alka Kapoor and Mahfooz A Ansari, again in 1988, reported an investigation analysing the underlying dynamics of downward influence process in organisations. Two hundred and sixty male executives representing four heterogeneous organisations, differing in production processes used, and the source of capital, established that use of power strategies varied as a function the bases of power, the goals of the influence attempts and the personal characteristics of the influencing agent. The organisational climate was found to have no impact on the use of influence tactics in agreement with similar study (experimental) conducted in 1987 by Ansari, Tandon and Lakhtakia.

The studies reported suggest that aberrations are occurring in the normative patterns of power distribution. The workers or non-managers seem to have greater power than lower and in some case even high-placed superiors. The trend is noticed especially in public sector undertakings. The change in the pattern of power distribution may be thought to be also associated with increased unionism among the subordinates with stray incidents of indiscipline, rowdyism and other excessive ways of influencing the higher-ups in organisations. However

Singh (1988) found that both managers and non-managers used coercive bases of power to a greater extent than other bases. It was also reported by Singh (1988) that possession of power by non-managers was largely directed towards meeting social and personal ends than to achieve work related targets.

Scheme of Chapters

Being the outcome of a research work, each chapter in this report has been organised in such a way that every preceding chapter develops and unfolds into what follows in order to continuously add on to the gradually evolved and the total perspective of the various topics and variables covered.

This report has been organised into seven chapters. The first chapter has been so far offering the broader framework for sizing up the prominent variables, historically and theoretically, and has presented the background for positioning the conceptual content of the work.

Chapter two focuses on the essential subject matter of the study and its structure – the building blocks of this research in the form of concepts, the postulated nexus among them and the explications.

Elaborations as to how adherence to the tenets of scientific method has been achieved forms the subject matter of the third chapter. This chapter gives details of the methodological components called on to accomplish the task.

Results of data analysis and the ensuing discussions are brought out in the three chapters that follow. Chapter four offers a socio-demographic portrayal of the respondent managers leading to an anatomisation of the power profile of managers in chapter five. Chapter six shifts attention to managerial effectiveness and the contributions of the power profile variables into the managers' varying levels of effectiveness.

Finally chapter seven attempts at summarising and presenting the findings, conclusions and implications for theory, followed by implications for managerial practice, limitations of the present attempt, suggestions for further research and remarks on the salient contributions of this work.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK

Of

THE STUDY

In the preceding chapter, organisations were explained as intentional and purposeful mechanisms designed to accomplish specific goals and objectives. It was also shown that managers are supposed to act in ways to maximise their effectiveness; managers would do what is best for the collective good.

Power of managers was lent detailed attention as part of the attempt to understand organisation from a rational perspective. However, the current understanding of power goes on to say that all power is not associated with authority and office or the formal dictates of an organisation; instead, individual managers can and do derive power from many different sources that may be unrelated to formal authority and position. Often these powers allow managers to pursue goals and objectives, both personal and collective. Understanding of the nature of managerial power leads to a political appreciation of the organisations.

Rather than exploring what managers should do, the interest in this study is to address the question of what managers actually do in achieving what they essentially want - to become more effective. This is not the case of managers being either rational or political. Every manager has a power profile, some more so than others do. Understanding the distribution of managers' power, the component parts of their power profile and, how these fit together to provide the needed influencing ability for the managers to make the choices that are relevant in their attempts to be effective is the primary concern of this study. The model that afforded a framework and the approach for the analysis of empirical evidences collected is the sum and substance of this chapter.

Conceptual Focus

Organisations are not democracies composed of individuals with equal influence. Reality shows that some organisations are more akin to feudal states, where higher-ups believe that they can rule with some divine right. Pre-occupied with characteristic toughness and power, they oppose and rule out usefulness of subjective, human feelings and needs. They regard legitimate authority as absolute,

and accept or reject others and their ideas according to how much they agree with the normative framework; the subordinates are tyrannised and the organisation is eventually killed.

It's also true that individuals rarely join an organisation simply to work unceasingly for the firm's stated goals. They join for their own reasons too, also to fulfil personal strivings. There are also instances where the so called 'democratisation ideology' has transformed organisational members into mere political animals. Instances are also many where firms have become so politicised that organisational interests are made subservient to individual interests with a resultant 'anomie' and gradual disorganisation of the organisation itself.

The stance that organisation is not a democracy does not mean that individuals and their needs should be ignored. In fact, effective managers and administrators delicately nurture and develop power and make astute use of it to make things happen in organisations the way they want them to happen.

Ever since the work of Barnard (1938) and Simon (1947), there has been greater interest among researchers in the problems of management in different kinds of organisations. One of the recurrent themes explored in the recent attempts has been the dimension of power - downward, lateral and upward - exercised within and through different hierarchical levels in contemporary organisations. Power serves to produce important events as well as to restrict or prevent them. Paradoxically, however, there are very few studies of the relationship between power of managers and their effectiveness in organisational literature. Although power is generally recognised in theoretical discussions as one of crucial aspects of organisational reality, seldom it has been subjected to empirical research as an explanatory variable for the phenomenon of managerial effectiveness. This study is precisely an attempt in this direction.

The conceptual content of this study is centred around certain selected power related variables collectively termed as the 'Power Profile' of managers, assumed to subsume a) **relative power** (power advantage/deficit) of managers vis-à-vis the subordinates; b) personality trait dimensions namely, **visibility** and

credibility of managers in their work situations; c) **power bases** - as reported by the managers themselves and as perceived by their subordinates; and d) the managers' often repeated power tactics, referred to in this study as **power styles**. The power profile of managers is assumed to be a sufficiently interesting set of explanatory factors for the effectiveness of managers. The power profile was given importance in this research for the reason that the survey of available literature in the field suggested that the concept of power and its dimensions have been largely used as dependent variables than otherwise. Gasparini (1977) categorically disagrees with 'an analytical perspective on power which employs it as a mere dependent variable; power is primarily an independent variable with respect to organisationally contingent factors' (p. 225).

For research purposes it is necessary to designate variables and specify the expected interactions among them. The conceptual framework for this study does not draw upon the validity of classical assumptions of causality. The researcher, therefore, prefers to use the terms 'peripheral' instead of independent and 'criterion' instead of dependent variables. The peripheral variables thus include managers' power differentials, visibility and credibility of managers, their power bases, and the power styles they use in order to influence their subordinates. These peripheral variables may be thought to be interacting with one another but more significantly with the criterion measures of managerial effectiveness; these interactions to be established with the help of statistical coefficients.

It is likely that the leader traits, power base and influence tactic interact in complex ways to determine how much influence a manager has, with his subordinates, in his attempt to be effective. An attempt to describe these intricacies was proposed by Yukl (1981, 1994). The present study is based on an adapted version of the Yukl model.

Researchers have used and examined a variety of personality traits related to managerial effectiveness and also their advancement. The choice of traits and the labels used for them varied from study to study, but overall results have been fairly consistent across different occasions. Relevant traits, for the purposes of this

investigation, are limited to, visibility and credibility of managers in the work place, the two personality dimensions which have been rarely used in similar contexts.

Rosabeth Kanter (1977) has opined that French and Raven typology of power bases, though important and explanatory, does not fully exemplify all sources of power in an organisation. She takes a different view and delineates a trait-based power that is specifically organisational in nature. According to Kanter, 'the accumulation of power in a corporation is closely tied to (the person in) the overall state of the system' (p.174). She identifies distinguishable activities of the manager as a main route to power and influence in an organisation.

Three types of activities are the keys 1) extraordinary activities - being the first in a new position or an endeavour making certain organisational changes, or, taking significant risks and succeeding, 2) visible activities - the importance of attracting attention to what one is doing or is about to do, and 3) relevant activities - relating to pressing organisational or sub-unit problems. These activities may empower a manager in that the first two types provide opportunities for one to create some impact on others and thus become visible, and the third type assures access to key information or to important connections and thus become noticeable compared to others.

New, unpredictable activities and non-routine ways of doing things obviously provide visibility, the assurance that the manager will be noticed. Visibility is also enhanced whenever one moves into departments or functions classified as critical. At any one time, certain functions of the business are perceived to be most critical to organisational success just because they are less predictable and less routinised. Influence and power are definitely functions of one's extraordinary activities or membership in critical, as compared to 'taken - for - granted' functions (Sayles, 1989).

Credibility, on the other hand, was identified as important by most of the forty-five British executives in a study by Cox and Cooper (1989) on the anatomy of managerial success. Credibility stands for a personal attribute in the sense that a person's behaviour is consistent with his espoused values, and that the person is

honest, ethical and trustworthy. Unless one is, and is perceived to be credible, it is difficult to retain the loyalty of subordinates or to obtain the co-operation and support from peers and others around. Moreover, a major determinant of expert and referent powers is the perception by others that a manager is credible and trustworthy (Yukl, 1994).

McCall and Lombardo (1983; cit. Yukl, 1994) found that lack of dependability was common among managers whose career were derailed whereas managers who succeeded were regarded as credible, having strong integrity. The successful managers were found to be honest and dependable.

The ways in which managers exercise various types of power determine their effectiveness in influencing subordinates. Influence over the attitudes and behaviours of subordinates is the essence of competent managership. Despite its obvious importance, the ways in which managers exert their power have not been subjected to much research (Yukl and Taber, 1992). The problem with most of the power research in India and abroad is that they overlook the linkage between power and managers' effectiveness in organisations. The few attempts on this relationship reveal that effective leaders rely mostly on one or two power bases to influence others and that these bases were positively correlated with subordinate performance and satisfaction (Yukl and Taber, 1992). The studies conducted seem to convey that effective leader uses only expert and referent bases with no need to use others. However, this impression is at odds with findings from research on motivation. Rewards can be very instrumental in improving subordinate effort in some situations; punishments can also be effective in getting their co-operation and compliance. Barnard (1938) had indicated that exercising authority (position power) with a legitimate request is the most common approach to influencing subordinates. Thus it is likely that effective manager put to use varieties of power bases at one time or the other.

The managers' choice of influence behaviour (power style) depends partly on the nature and extent of power he has over the target person in the immediate situation. To elaborate further, it could be stated that managers with substantial

position power tend to prefer to use power styles based on that power as compared to those with little of position power. Any particular tactic or style is unlikely to be used if it requires a power that the manager does not possess.

The leader's choice of influence behaviour depends also on some of his traits that include aspects of personality, temperament, needs, motives and values which are relatively stable dispositions that cause one to behave in a particular way. Traits are considered important as they affect a manager's attention to information and events, and they guide, energise and sustain behaviour.

The manager's power profile is expected to affect the subordinates' attitudes and behaviour, and the outcome may be in terms of their commitment, compliance or resistance. As posited earlier, this outcome is the essence of competent managership. The reaction of the target person (subordinate) depends on, besides the competence of the manager, some aspects of the situation such as the extent to which the target shares the manager's task objectives, relevance of the request to the task objectives and flexibility of the request. The subordinate is more likely to respond positively to a request that is important and feasible than to one that is trivial and impractical (Barnard, 1938). These situational aspects and the intermediary outcomes of subordinates' commitment, compliance and resistance, though recognised as important for interpretative understanding, have not been formed part of the empirical rigmarole of this study only to maintain its manageability.

The outcome of an influence attempt will definitely have a feedback effect on the behaviour of the manager. The manager may modify a request or proposal in response to the concerns or suggestions proposed by the target person. Gradually, when it becomes obvious that the target person is making good progress in carrying out a request or assignment, other types of influence behaviour may occur as well.

The nature and extent of leader power, besides influencing the choice of influence tactic, directly affect target's attitudes and behaviour. When a leader has high coercive power, people are likely to be cautious, comply with rules, and try to

make better impressions. Alternatively, when the leader typically uses any of his persuasive powers, subordinates are more likely to be convinced, become committed to the request of the leader and ensure that the request is carried out appropriately.

Although the conceptual framework presented in the preceding paragraphs is potentially complex, the present study does not account for all the inter-linkages and influences that are likely to be involved. For instance, the extent of leader power may modify the effectiveness of an influence attempt. Similarly, some forms of power depend on one's traits and others depend on the aspects of the situation. The end results of success or failure can also have feedback effects on leader power that would fully justify the dynamics of power acquisition in an organisation. The feedback impacts, though implicit in the definition of power, are omitted to keep the study simple and to maintain the focus on the power profile of managers, for emphasising on the contribution of the complex variable to the effectiveness of managers.

The framework presented seeks to explain managerial effectiveness as the joint effect of the manager's traits, power bases and influence styles. For e.g., consider an influence attempt through consensus or transactional power styles both of which involve use of rational persuasion; such an attempt is most likely to be instrumental when the manager has high visibility and credibility, and a substantial persuasive power base (e.g. expertise). Sometimes logical arguments supported by perceived position power will suffice even if the manager does not have enough expertise; sometimes a credible manager on account of his expertise, though not visible at all in the organisation, may be effective even without any strong arguments, but with a simple request. Effectiveness is also likely when the manager is highly visible and credible and is acknowledged for his position in the group. In any case, the manager must have necessary skill to employ the appropriate influence tactic in order to elicit agreement and compliance than resistance from the subordinates through his persuasive and logical arguments that would fully engage his managerial role.

As power refers to a manager's capacity to affect the subordinates' thoughts and actions, it is quite natural for the researcher to expect that the managers demonstrate superior contextual and technical abilities to have some incremental power over the subordinates. Then only could they be presumed to be capable of influencing and carrying the subordinates along desired track. Further, as managers strive to exercise their power to surpass the counterpower of subordinates, it was hypothesised in this research that managers need some net usable power that could be instrumental in influencing subordinates. Therefore, the first hypothesis in the study has been articulated thus: In accordance with the dictates of the normative structure in organisations, the managers characteristically possess, in average terms, relatively greater amounts of power than their subordinates with regard to the day-to-day administration.

Conceptually this study considers visibility and credibility as two significant trait dimensions of managers that contribute towards their power profile based on the suggestions by Reddy and Williams (1988). Though the available literature does not indicate any predictor-criterion relationship between the two, an interactive relationship between the traits is purported leading to the tentative proposition that irrespective of the possibly different sets of antecedents, there exists significant association between the visibility and the credibility levels of managers.

Further, visibility and credibility of managers are thematically connected with their potential influence and has been suggested by Reddy and Williams (1988) as indicative of their power in a situation. But, in any case, these traits reflect distinct dimensions of individuals in that while the former refers to one's externally visible attributes, the latter pertains to the perceived internal probity and uprightness of a person. Notwithstanding the qualitative differences of these two traits, it was considered interesting to check for the implications of visibility and credibility on the power positions of managers. This was done by way of two hypotheses namely, higher is the level of visibility, greater is the perceived power of the managers; higher is the level of credibility; greater is the perceived power of

managers.

Power is derived from the organisationally relevant resources that managers have at their disposal. Research on the use of different bases of power by leaders suggests that managers rely more on person based power than on position related powers. Power is greater for managers who have acknowledged expertise in doing the work and solving important problems (Yukl, 1994). In a banking organisation where the work is primarily customer oriented, responsive, fluid and complex in nature, the managers' superior knowledge and ability to provide quick, on-the-spot solutions to job-related difficulties of subordinates, queries and issues raised by customers would account for the most effective power base to the managers. Fiorelli (1988) has also emphasised the importance of expertise as an individual and group based power base. Consistent with these ideas, it was postulated in this study that expert power is the most primary power base for managers in banking organisations.

It has also been tacit in this study that the power and power styles of managers emerge from a normative imbalance between the social actors in an organisation. This normative view traditionally holds that a manager wields power over subordinates and the interaction between the actors have a coloration of control and direction (Wrong, 1979) so that the subordinates could be pressured into conformity. But some other works on bargaining and negotiation emphasised the importance of interdependence in organisational life and the effect of creating win-win solutions to problems (Rubin & Brown, 1975; Fisher & Ury, 1983). Increasing evidences reveal the importance of problem-solving skills and the ability to reach consensus for the exercise of power (Patchen, 1974).

Thus the traditional view holds that one succeeds in exercising power over others through competitive and adversarial tactics while the alternate view assumes that power stems from collective or collegial styles as social actors are supposed to pool up resources to accomplish common ends.

This study, therefore, taking into account both the views, subscribes to the position that all organisational managers display mixed motives in the sense that

they share some common interests and, at the same time, they have some conflicting ones also with the subordinates causing them to engage in a mixture of power styles as perceived to be appropriate and warranted by the situation. Based on this position, the hypothesis offered is: Managers in banking organisations exercise both collective and competitive varieties of power styles in working with their subordinates.

The present study has been an attempt in the light of the framework depicted in this chapter, though not a test of the full model with all its ramifications; it was also obviously in the interest of this study to seek the acceptability of all of the initial hypotheses formulated. The researcher opted to pick up the warp and weft to weave the fabric of the study - its empirical database - to interlace peripheral and criterion variables from the branch managers of a fast growing, successfully established commercial banking organisation with its headquarters in Kerala. The branch managers of the bank were identified as subjects of observation primarily due to the following reasons:

1. Commercial banking industry in Kerala has adopted branch banking method rather than unit, group or chain banking followed in other countries. The entire affairs of the branch are up to the branch manager who strives to achieve mainly the assigned business goals. He mobilises deposits from customers and advances loans to clients and recovers the loans with interest contributing directly to the profitability. The branch manager also manages cash reserves, all with and through the willing support and co-operation of the subordinate staff. These activities are scheduled and done in accordance with the quarterly and annualised targets arrived at jointly by the branch manager and higher-ups at the regional level in the light of corporate projections, policies, and programmes, subject to the broader framework provided by surveying agencies like the Ministry of Finance and the Reserve Bank of India. Besides the achievement of business goals the branch manager is accountable for the in-house maintenance of his branch. He is empowered to take appropriate decisions, allocate human and material resources, initiate actions and steer the branch through troughs and shoals by controlling and ensuring more than

satisfactory work activities of all the subordinate staff. He motivates work-group members and elicits their efficient performance. He has to be concerned with establishing and maintaining good and amicable working relationships with staff and the customer community. Through his multi-pronged managerial role-set activities, the branch manager, as the principal officer at branch level, is expected to produce results and materialise more than satisficing output.

2. Any measure of managerial effectiveness as applicable to managers in the manufacturing sector is shrouded in vagueness. It could be, allegedly, a function of a myriad of factors such as quality of material used, human and conceptual inputs, utilisation, up-keep and maintenance of operating systems including equipment and machinery, technology in use and work designs adopted, let alone the morale of workers and the ability of the manager to influence subordinates. These and a whole host of factors are within and outside the control of the supervising manager. The bearing of all these factors on a manager's effectiveness, being a subject for ongoing debate and polemics, is liable to raise questions relating to the internal validity of the study.

The nature and context of the work of a bank branch manager, unlike those of his counterpart in the manufacturing sector, affords comprehensive, reliable and operational indices and measurements of the construct of managerial effectiveness. Bank managers are responsible for maintaining the morale of subordinates. They, having control over the quality of inputs, can decide and set the direction and pace of work, manage all human and other inanimate assets of the branch, encounter people with predictable interests, work with definite targets and fixtures, and are mostly engaged in activities utilising equipments and tools. Thus it would be safe to assume that their activities are relatively less contaminated by the vagaries of complicated technology.

It is only natural to expect the branch managers of a bank to differ in their levels of effectiveness. Differences in the effectiveness of managers of an organisation attract wider attention of both academics and practitioners in their quest to improve and maintain higher performance levels. A team of effective

managers is unquestionably imperative for the growth and success of any organisational arrangement.

This study seeks to explore answers for certain pertinent questions centred around the possible linkages between the power profile of bank managers and their differential levels of effectiveness. What is the average relative power of managers as against their subordinates? Do the personal trait dimensions of visibility and credibility affect the relative power of managers, decide their power bases, and their choice of power styles? How the power-profile variables of visibility, credibility, power bases and power styles decide the effectiveness levels of managers in organisations? And, do the personal socio-demographic backgrounds of managers have any association with their power profile? being the important ones brought in here.

These questions have been selected by the researcher for the reason that the available literature on power and effectiveness of managers have very little to say about the possible linkages between these two vital and interesting areas in the organisational existence and success of managers.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATIONS AND MEASUREMENTS

Power:

The concept of power has long been the domain of political scientists and philosophers. Topics discussed under the heading of power dealt with the various forms of government, war and diplomacy, operation of the military, relations with the actors in economic system and government, political processes as voting, exerting pressure, class and caste, and revolution etc. Power had traditionally been viewed as an attribute of large-scale social entities or, of relations among them.

Against this historical canvass it may seem strange to use the label of power to describe matters as interactions between a manager and his subordinates. The argument in this study holds that 'no categorical distinction between large and small social entities can be maintained; concepts such as influence, power and

authority may be employed in any adequate treatment of social interaction wherever it may take place'(Cartwright, 1959; p.183). Although there are important differences between large, enduring social institutions and smaller social entities, it does not mean that a single set of theoretical constructs is inappropriate for treating both. Developments within social psychology have shown that the concepts employed in cases of larger institutions are appropriate for theories of interpersonal and person-to-group relations.

There is now considerable agreement among the concerned that power should not be equated with brute force, coercion, or naked manipulation. The traditional image of power as involving unscrupulousness is not in vogue. Thus Russel (1938) asserted that an individual might have power over another as a result of being able to influence him either by direct physical power or by rewards and punishments or by influence of opinion. Power and authority, acknowledged as central concepts in studies of middle sized institutions such as business concerns, military base or research laboratory, as solutions to problems of administration and human relations are being investigated by sociologists and social psychologists.

Anyone reading the literature on power is troubled by the absence of a generally accepted definition of the term. The following quotations indicate some:

“Power may be defined as the capacity of an individual, or a group of individuals, to modify the conduct of other individuals or groups in a manner desired” (Tawney 1931; p.230)

“Power may be defined as the production of intended effects” (Russel, 1938; p.35).

“Power is the ability to employ force” (Bierstedt, 1950; p. 773)

“Power may be defined as the realistic capacity of a system unit to actualise its interests (attain goals, prevent undesired interference, command respect, control possessions etc.) within the context of system interaction and in this sense to exert influence on processes in the system” (Parsons, 1954; p. 391)

“For the assertion, A has power over B, we can substitute the assertion, A's behaviour causes B's behaviour” (Simon, 1957; p.5).

“My intuitive idea of power is something like this; A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do” (Dahl, 1957; p.202).

All of these definitions seem to refer to the same broad class of phenomena, being concerned with the influence or control of behaviour. If the definition of the term as used in this study is to refer to the same broad class of phenomena, it has to be concerned with influences upon the thoughts and behaviours of subordinates which arise from some external source namely, the manager. Lewin (1951) has prepared a conceptualisation meeting this requirement in his abstract discussion of organisational interdependence as part of his theory of frustration and aggression.

Based on Lewin’s conception, Cartwright (1959; p.188) has defined power to refer to ‘the induction of psychological forces by one entity A (manager) upon another B (subordinates) and to the resistance to this induction set up by B’. As the behaviour of B is determined by the totality of forces acting upon him at any given time, the power of A over B is concerned only with the influences on B’s behaviour originating with A. This definition refers to the same broad class of phenomena dealt with by other definitions. Further, use of this definition in other theoretical and empirical exercises is reported to have yielded satisfactory results and hence has served to guide the work reported herein also.

The concept of power, for the purposes of this study, has been taken to be the innate or derived ability of a superior for the process of inducing the subordinate/s psychologically, either through force or appeal, over and above the resistance to this induction set up by the subordinate/s. Since the attitudes and behaviour of the subordinate is determined by a variety of factors at any given time, the power of the superior over the subordinate is concerned only with the influences that emanate from the superior. Power, thus, is the ability of a manager to influence successfully the subordinates so that they are persuaded to follow his advice, suggestions or orders.

The **operational** measures of power enjoyed by a manager was two

questionnaire items posed to the individual manager based on the method used by Bachman et al. (1968).

The following item was intended to ascertain the manager's power over the subordinates and the office in general: (Appendix B)

a) "In general how much say or influence do you, as the manager, have on how your office is run?"

No influence		Some influence		Great deal of influence
1	2	3	4	5

and, the extent of resistance set up by the subordinates was ascertained by a similar item namely,

b) "In general how much say or influence your staff, as a group, has on how your office is run?"

No influence		Some influence		Great deal of influence
1	2	3	4	5

Visibility:

Visibility, a personality-based dimension is represented by the derived significance among others on account of an actor's ability to cope with uncertainty and perform non-routine and critical activities in the organisation. The capacity to cope with uncertainty is considered a critical resource in the work context. Similarly, one's ability to undertake and discharge non-routine activities involves demonstrating that his work is unpredictable, not easy to be scheduled, to specify or cost. These capacities provide a person with an area of criticality in the organisation and among peers making his replacement a difficult proposition. An idea presented for the first time, a new project sanctioned, or a problem solved that

appears extraordinary and worthy of high status, would also result in enhanced visibility for the person.

Ambitious managers therefore find that it pays to innovate, to initiate leadership in groups and to speak up and demonstrate originality in the event of problems and crises. They continuously search for and work at problems that haven't been attacked successfully. They do this due to the fact that as any new element in a system becomes established, perfected, routine and certain, it gets downgraded. Kanter (1977) says it is almost paradoxical that the success of a function makes it less and less possible for the people performing it to seem successful.

New activities obviously provide visibility to manager - the assurance that he would be noticed (Sayles, 1989). Visibility is also enhanced whenever one moves into a critical functional area and is perceived as providing irreplaceable resource for the organisation (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). The ability to cope with problems or making significant contributions ensures visibility only till the person or manager enjoys a monopoly over the knowledge necessary to deal with the uncertainty. Such monopoly of knowledge and know-how is acquired and maintained by visible members through various practices of non-disclosure and secrecy so that others cannot find out how the results are being achieved. Visibility and the latent power derived from the ability to deal with critical organisational issues will disappear once others also acquire the capacity to cope with such contingencies (Pfeffer, 1981).

Visibility, in this study, **formally** refers to the manager's subjective feeling of explicit prominence about oneself that results from experiences, interactions and socio-emotional exchanges with others and that which affords a person to feel upfront and physically visible.

Visibility has been **operationally** taken to be ascertainable from a person's self-reports about his external attributes like physical, vocal, social and other expressive indicators of prominence, to be measured by the scores obtained by the respondent on designated items, intended to measure the attribute, in the

Visibility/Credibility Inventory (Appendix A) developed by Reddy and Williams (1988).

Credibility:

Credibility refers to another basic trait of an individual, an aspect of his personality and value system. It essentially means that the person's behaviour is consistent with his preferred values and is perceived by others to be ethical, moral, fair, just, honest and above all dependable and trustworthy in a social context. Credibility seems to be an important factor in the personality of a manager that helps him retain the loyalty of subordinates and obtain their willing co-operation and support (Yukl, 1994).

An important indicator of credibility is the extent to which one is perceived to be honest and truthful rather than deceptive. Managers lose credibility when they are discovered to have lied or made grossly distorted claims. Credibility also implies keeping promises. The extent to which a leader fulfils his responsibility towards followers and is trusted not to repeat or leak out indiscriminately something said in confidence are factors that contribute to his credibility in the organisation. The trust of followers can be built up leading to straightforward interactions and commitment if the leader is taken to be non-explorative and non-manipulative.

A manager who hopes to inspire others to support his vision and priorities must set an example of himself and take responsibility for his actions and decisions. Leaders appear to be lacking in dependability when they make a decision or take a position on an issue, and then try to deny responsibility later if the action is found to be non-consequential, or the decision is proved controversial.

The successful managers who were honest and credible were reported to be saying, "I will do exactly what I say I will do when I say I will do it. If I change my mind I will tell that well in advance so that others will not be harmed" (McCall & Lombordo, 1983, p.31).

Against what has been stated so far, credibility has been **theoretically**

defined as the subjective feeling of trustworthiness, developed from repeated experiences, interactions and socio-emotional exchanges, that a manager has had with others in his organisation or group, which contributes substantially towards one's ability to influence others in a given situation.

Credibility has been **operationalised** in terms of responses given by managers themselves on perceived attributes, such as significance of the self in the work group, dependability, trustworthiness, ability to influence other's opinion and decision, esteem, reputation, attributed expertise and finality attached to one's advices by others, to be measured by the scores obtained on selected items in the Visibility/Credibility Inventory developed by Reddy and Williams (1988). The tool used forms part of Appendix A.

Power Bases:

Power conceptualised as the induction of psychological forces by the manager over the subordinates essentially refers to the control over their thoughts and actions. This influence is the result of having one or more abilities or resources that a manager enjoys, controls over, can use and, is adept at. Cartwright (1965) suggested that the effectiveness of a superior's influence attempt stem from his subordinates' perception that the superior controls valuable resources. According to Dahl (1957), possession of such resources constitutes the bases of superior's power.

French and Raven (1959) identified five forms of power bases - reward, coercive, referent, legitimate and expertise. Deutsch and Gerard (1955) and later, Raven and Kruglanski (1970) described a variation of expert power under the label of 'informational power' which is based on the special information a person has (or has access to) as a result of education, function or role. In fact the information itself is not related to the person imparting it unless the person is perceived to be an expert in the field.

Hersey, Blanchard. and Natemeyer (1979) identified 'connection power' based on one's association or connection with another source of power like an

important, rich, or strong person. This source of power is based on the expectation of the influenced, for attaining a positive outcome or avoiding a negative one. This power base thus may be thought of as a combination of reward and coercive power.

Charisma was designated as a power base by Gorden (1991). Charisma describes one's personal magnetism. A manager with charisma exerts power because the subordinates identify with such manager and experience an intense emotional attraction. A person who identifies with another can be influenced.

Personal relationship can also act as a power base if the person influenced needs to maintain the relationship and therefore accepts to do what the other wants him to do (Pareek, 1994). The source of power for the influence is the desire of the influenced to please the former toward whom the latter feels strong affection. Managers having good relationship with their colleagues or with the staff get their ideas easily accepted than managers having strained relationships.

Pettigrew (1972) identified access to vital information and control over its distribution as an important power base. The control over information becomes a power base when the person holds back relevant information, or delays an action based on it. The same is true with other resources, expertise, affection and relationship. Deliberate withholding, delaying, defaulting or denying information, or action, or any other resource valued by others has been referred to as 'manipulation'. Filley and Grimes (1967) suggested manipulation as a power by which others can be coerced to do something, the valued resource being the bait.

Special expertise in dealing with critical problems makes a person competent to perform vital functions that others cannot do and this increases others' dependence (Mechanic, 1962). 'Competence Power', almost overlapping with expertise, is greatest for those with rare skills leading to high job mobility. Such people cannot be easily replaced and thus become unsubstitutable.

Power bases thus **formally** refers to what the power holder has that gives him or her the ability to influence others. Bases of power are what they control, that allow them to affect others' thoughts and enable them to influence or

manipulate their behaviours.

Ever since Machiavelli (1950) suggested 'fear' and 'love' as bases of power, suggestions have been made by many to dichotomise power bases. Flanders (1970) differentiated 'direct' influence from 'indirect' influence. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) accepted the categorisation of 'position power' and 'personal power'. Pettigrew (1986), suggesting 'push' and 'pull' factors among influence strategies, recommended classifications of 'overt' and 'covert' power bases.

All these dichotomies have a common thread of using power bases either for forcing the target into accepting what the influencer wants, or to help him choose to think, or do things as suggested by the influencer. The first has an element of coercion and the second that of persuasion (Pareek 1994). This study tries to give attention to the broader classification of 'coercive' and 'persuasive' power bases besides the original power bases as suggested by French and Raven.

Operationally power bases have been defined as the organisationally relevant resources that the manager and the subordinates value and perceive to be important in making his role effective vis-à-vis the subordinates; resources which are believed to be within a manager's control.

The managers' valued resources have been ascertained by the scores the respondent makes on the Coercive and Persuasive Power Scale (CPP Scale) devised by the Udai Pareek. (Appendix B)

A manager is considered using predominantly coercive power bases if he scores a higher value for the coercive power base items (position, coercion, charisma, manipulation and/or connection) on the CPP scale and, is treated as predominantly persuasive if his score on the persuasive power items (reward, expertise, competence, modelling, extension and/or information) is relatively high on the CPP scale.

Power bases of the managers were also ascertained by the reputational method of asking the subordinates for their evaluation of the five French & Raven power bases of position, reward, coercion, expertise and modelling, based on their perception and experience. The data were collected using a single question item,

asking the subordinates to assign scores ranging between 1 and 5 to each of the five statements, each statement pertaining to one power base. (Appendix G)

Power Styles:

The manager uses his power over others and subordinates in order to make them accept his ideas, policies, plans and priorities, and to gain their support and make them carry out his decisions. In order to exert power, a manager has to get it enacted by resorting to certain influence behaviours. Research by Hinkin and Schriesheim (1990) showed that manager's influence behaviour may be considered a construct distinct from his power, though they are interrelated.

A number of studies have identified different types of influence behaviours called influence tactics or power styles. These styles are relevant for managers in organisations in that they cause others to carry out a request, perform a task, or support a proposal. These influence behaviours can be proactive or reactive. They are proactive when used to motivate and energise the targets' behaviour or for guiding and facilitating their work. Power styles can be reactive when the behaviours are used by a manager after a subordinate has complied with a request or has failed to comply with, his request or, the rules and regulations applicable. Examples include giving praise and rewards to reinforce desirable behaviour, and using threats, warning and other forms of coercion to disapprove of or to punish unacceptable behaviour.

The concept of power style **formally** refers to the recurrent influence behaviours, believed to be dependable, either proactive or reactive in nature, utilised by a manager in order to energise subordinates or for guiding and facilitating them in accepting his ideas and priorities and carrying out his decisions with regard to the manager's official role.

Operationally, the power styles of managers covered have been identified using the Agarwal and Agrawal (1995) Managerial Power Style Scale consisting of 28 items. The scale identifies six predominant styles such as Integrative PS (8 items), Consensus PS (5 items), Transactional PS (3 items), Pressuring PS (3

items), Directive PS (6 items) and Coercive PS (3 items). The measurement items used and their groupings have been shown as Appendix C.

Managerial Effectiveness:

In defining Managerial Effectiveness, it is pertinent, once again, to distinguish between a manager and a leader. As was pointed in the chapter on theoretical background of the study, leader is one whose concerns relate to any given social situation whereas a manager is always organisation specific; leadership is thus construed to be broader than management. Manager exercises his leadership within the context of an organisation where accomplishment of organisationally valid goals is of paramount importance. Even within an organisational setting managers attempt to engage in leadership rather than management when they try to realise personal and not organisational goals.

A variety of viewpoints have been adopted to answer the basic question of what constitutes managerial effectiveness. Some investigators (Dubano, 1968; Ghiselli, 1968) emphasised personality characteristics; others (Likert, 1967; Fiedler & Mahar, 1979) focused on motivational orientation and situational characteristics.

In understanding effectiveness of any sort, the usual procedure is to look at measures of out-put alone. Out-put or end result variables are taken to be the dependent variables that reflect the achievements of an organisation; effectiveness of business managers is often determined by net profits generated within their units; and the effectiveness of a football coach may be determined by their won-lost records. Fiedler (1967) evaluated leader effectiveness in terms of the group's performance on its assigned task, and Reddin (1970; p.9) argued that "managerial effectiveness is the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position". Reddin was arguing that managerial effectiveness has to be defined in terms of out-put rather than in-put, by what he achieves rather than by what he does. A different view on managerial effectiveness emphasises on the activities and on-the-job behaviours of managers. Drucker (1967) in his book on *Effective Executive* maintains that effectiveness of managers refers to a habit that is a

complex of practices expected to get the right things done.

Misumi (1989) and Misumi and Peterson (1985) defined the ideal manager in Japan in terms of both performance and maintenance orientation, namely, a manager who leads the group towards goal attainment and preservation of its social stability. Managerial behaviours have been found to be indicative of managerial effectiveness. Amsa and Aithal (1989), in a study of regional managers in a commercial bank, found that more effective and less effective managers differed in terms of the degree to which they displayed communication behaviour, participative behaviour, supportive, positive and responsive behaviours.

Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler & Weick (1970) proposed a person - process - product approach towards clarifying managerial effectiveness. They argue that effective managerial job behaviour is any set of managerial actions believed to be optimal for identifying and utilising the organisational resources towards sustainable functioning of the unit for which a manager has the responsibility. The 'person' in the model refers to the individual traits and abilities; 'product' reflects the organisational results such as profits, productivity and achievement of business goals and, 'process' subsumes the manager's on-the-job behaviours and activities.

Morse and Wagner (1978) pointed out that in evaluating managerial effectiveness, organisations and researchers have tended to focus either on the person or the product relegating the 'process' component into the background. From the above, the following dimensions of managerial effectiveness can be inferred:

1. The manager does not function in a vacuum; he interacts with others in his striving for the accomplishment of desired effect or goal.
2. Effectiveness and efficiency are not synonymous; the former is goal oriented and the latter is input-output relationship.
3. Effectiveness is an irreducible quality displayed by managers all the time by means of their actions and behaviours.
4. Effectiveness is a matter of relative degree rather than a matter of all or none.

5. An effective manager is always concerned with accomplishing the objectives of his organisational unit and,
6. Effectiveness may be equated with getting results.

Although the authorities on the subject are interested in results, those who are behaviourally inclined emphasise on what a manager does to be effective while those who are normative in orientation are more interested in what a manager produces. Obviously both emphases are needed for a comprehensive understanding and measurement of managerial effectiveness. Therefore it has been assumed for the present that besides evaluating the achievement of organisationally valid business goals, judging managerial actions that are relevant would also form part of the measurement of managerial effectiveness. The overall measurement of managerial effectiveness was obtained by combining quantitative and qualitative dimensions of the construct. Qualitative dimensions were converted into measurable factors using a seven point rating scale consisting of thirty four items covering fourteen behavioural dimensions of managerial effectiveness based on the Managerial Effectiveness Scale developed by Mathew (1989).

In **operationalising** the concept of managerial effectiveness, the researcher incorporated three strands of evaluation of each and every respondent manager. There were the superiors' or organisational evaluation, self-rating of the respondent manager, and the subordinates' collective and inverted appraisal of their respective manager.

The superiors' appraisal of the manager was the aggregate score, a manager secured, assigned to him by the inspection department authorities, later on reviewed and perfected by the higher-ups, on various indicators of business goals accomplishment and the in-house administration of a branch office where the manager was posted and was occupying the position of 'principal officer' for a period of two consecutive business years.

The self-rating and the inverted appraisal of a manager by the subordinates were concerned with the on-the-job activities of the manager.

The database needed for arriving at the superiors' evaluation of the effectiveness of an individual manager was obtained from the inspection records maintained by the Inspection and Vigilance Department at the head office of the bank where the study was implemented. The records referred to a number of financial and non-financial criteria and the extent of achievement on each of these criteria. This database, developed by the concerned department through its detailed inspection of a branch once in two years, is being maintained as classified information. The researcher was allowed access to this information for the purpose of this study.

The database has been developed and perfected through a process of multi-layer filtration and validation involving branch inspectors, officials of the inspection department, Deputy General Manager of the function and the Chairman and Managing Director, and finally approved by the Board of Directors.

The criteria used for **operationally** measuring the extent of business goals achievement by a manager included a) attainment of quarterly deposit targets, and b) attainment of annual advance targets for the immediately past two consecutive business years.

Effectiveness criteria on in-house administration of a branch included a) credit management portfolio that covered post-credit follow up, renewal of credit limits, and updating of credit related documentation, b) internal audit and control functions comprising submission of progress reports and returns to regional office and head office, rectification of irregularities identified during the previous detailed branch inspection, c) administrative house-keeping of the branch comprising balancing of books and accounts, and d) general management quality reflected by customer service.

These data were culled out of the bank's database, recorded and scored on a data sheet designed for the purpose. (See Appendix D)

The behavioural dimension of managerial effectiveness was evaluated using a rating scale developed for the purpose based on the Managerial Effectiveness Scale of Mathew (1989). The rating scale was administered on the branch manager

to obtain his self-assessment and on the senior most clerk in the branch to generate the collective evaluation of the manager by subordinates. The rating scale was scored on a seven-point dimension consisting of 34 items covering fourteen dimensions such as 1. Decision making (3 items), 2. Planning and organising the work of the branch (3 items), 3. Technical competence (2 items), 4. Maintaining required quality of work (2 items), 5. Directing efforts of subordinates (3 items), 6. Training and developing subordinates (2 items), 7. Controlling operating costs (3 items), 8. Relating with people (2 items), 9. Meeting work schedules (2 items), 10. Handling of problem situations (1 item), 11. Communication of ideas (2 items), 12. Developing new ideas (3 items), 13. Carrying out responsibilities (2 items) and 14. Overall effectiveness (4 items).- Appendix E.

Items administered on subordinates for obtaining inverted appraisals on managers have been reproduced in appendix G.

Branch Manager:

A manager of the bank, designated as the principal officer at a branch, belonging to S1, S2, S3 or S4 category, and who is directly in charge of the banking operations of any of its branches and, has the ultimate authority and accountability for the day-to-day operations and overall performance of the branch.

Personal and socio-demographic details:

Personal details of the respondent branch managers include their personal and social particulars such as age, present grade, formal education completed, native place where the person spent most of the first fifteen years of life, parental occupation, years of experience as a manager of the bank, whether a direct recruitee or a promotee from within, whether attended any managerial training programme, and whether an active, inactive member or non-member of the officers association of the bank. These information are thought to provide the social and demographic profile of the person that would make up and reflect his background,

basic beliefs and attitudes against which he displays his orientation and behaviours (see appendix F).

Subordinate:

An employee of the bank, other than in supervisory capacity, designated as a clerk or an award staff, who is expected to work and discharge duties in accordance with the suggestions, advices and orders of the supervisory officers and managers in a branch. He has been assumed to be the target of the influence attempts of the principal officer with the specific duty of carrying out the instructions and orders and live up to the expectations of the former.

CHAPTER THREE

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Methodological Details

The study, as the title evinces, was intended to bring to light the contribution of power profile of bank managers into the effectiveness with which they play their role at the respective branches. Alternatively, the interest of this investigation was primarily to seek out the possibility of explaining the variations in managerial effectiveness of a group of bank branch managers as a function of the components that make up their power profile. The significance of personal and social background factors in the context was also explored.

The power profile of a manager includes 1) the relative power enjoyed by the manager vis-à-vis the subordinates, 2) the personality dimensions of visibility and credibility, 3) the power bases claimed by them and experientially perceived by the subordinates as being possessed by the managers, and 4) the influencing styles recurrently used by the managers in their attempts to carry the subordinates along.

The personal and social background details looked into in the course of this investigation comprised age, education, nativity, and organisational factors like tenure, mode of recruitment into the managerial position, and involvement in the managers' association activities.

While sufficient literature with adequate significance is available on each of the constituent elements of power profile, no insightful and convincing material linking power profile factors and the quantitative or qualitative indicators of managerial effectiveness, except certain vague suggestions, could be located. As the available literature could not put the researcher on sufficiently strong foundations to attribute relationships between the major sets of variables considered here in namely, the power profile and effectiveness of managers, no initial hypotheses were mooted. The researcher chose to pursue the work by holding the power profile dimensions as peripheral and effectiveness dimension as core variables, both comprising certain pertinent criterion measures. Even in the absence of any specific initial hypothesis connecting the two, the association and the bearing of the peripheral variables on the core variable namely, managerial

effectiveness have been specifically explored and established at the appropriate stage. However, some hypotheses suggesting empirical uniformities and associations in respect of the constituent elements of power profile have been offered as already indicated.

Objectives of the study

To state more formally, the study proceeded with the following set of objectives and hypotheses:

1. To ascertain the managers' relative power over their subordinates at the branch level and understand whether the bank branch managers generally experience an excess of power or deficit of power, as compared to the subordinates, in the day-to-day administration of the branch.

2. To assess the visibility and credibility attributes retained by the managers in their organisational role and to locate them in categories of varying degrees of these two personality dimensions.

3. To identify the characteristic typology of power bases employed by the managers in their attempts to influence subordinates.

4. To identify the power styles consciously used by managers while they try to persuade subordinates to co-operate or comply with their suggestions, requests or orders.

5. To locate inter-associations, if any, among the power profile components and between the personal background factors of managers and their power profile variables.

6. To measure the levels of effectiveness of bank managers in terms of:

business goals achievement

in-house administration

on-the-job managerial role activities.

7. To find out and specify the contributions, if any, of the power bases, power styles, and the personality dimensions of visibility and credibility into the

determination of the levels of managerial effectiveness.

Hypotheses:

- 1 In accordance with the dictates of the normative structure in organisations, managers characteristically possess, on an average relatively greater amounts of power than their subordinates do.
- 2 a) There exists a significant association between the visibility and credibility levels of managers.
 - b) Higher the visibility, greater is the perceived power of managers.
 - c) Higher the credibility, greater is the perceived power of managers.
- 3 Expertise is the most primary power base for the bank managers.
- 4 Managers in banking field exercise both collective and competitive varieties of power styles while working with the subordinates.

Having conceived the study, the first attempt of the researcher was to explore the possibilities of undertaking the study among managers in manufacturing sector organisations. Authorities of two major industrial organisations and the State Productivity Council were approached to discuss about the feasibility. The deliberations brought out that determination of valid and reliable measures of managerial effectiveness, free of rival explanations, would be almost impossible in the case of manufacturing sector managers. The consultants were unanimous in their opinion to recommend bank managers as study subjects. Their contention against studying manufacturing sector managers was that the effectiveness of any industrial manager would be the combined result of many factors - situational, technical and technological - all of which could be extraneous to the theoretical framework, adopted for the present study. The banking

organisation, on the other hand, evaluated against the nature of technicality in operations, and the extent of technology put to use in the day-to-day operations, would afford cogent and contiguous indicators of the effectiveness of its branch managers. Such measures were deemed, relatively less affected by situational and other extraneous factors, to be more often than not the result of a manager's ability to get things done with and through the subordinates.

Subsequent attempt was to obtain permission and materialise the study in a commercial private bank. The bank management entertained the request. The exploratory efforts at the head office of the banking institution aided in delimiting the universe and gathering information about the potential respondents. The universe was restricted to the branch managers of the bank, officially designated as principal branch officers, working within the state of Kerala. There were 278 such principal officers. Gaining access to the respondents and collecting data within a reasonable stretch of time was the prime considerations while limiting the geographical coverage of the study to the branch managers in Kerala.

Pilot Study

A leading and successful, private sector, commercial banking institution, head-quartered in Kerala, with a network of 361 customer business branches (as on March 31,1996) spread throughout the country under eleven administrative regions, inclusive of 278 branches within the geographical confines of the state was the venue of the study. The research was restricted in scope in that only branches functioning in the state were covered within its folds. The branches in Kerala, coordinated by seven regional offices, formed the major chunk of the bank's operations and business.

The pilot study provided valid and useful information about the designations, grades and other details of the personnel administration policies governing the employment of different categories of managers and subordinate staff in the organisation's hierarchy. Researcher could also learn about the nature and dynamics of the working of the branches and the importance of various

parameters used by the bank management to evaluate the functioning of branches and the quality of its functionaries.

The consultations with the officials at the head office were instrumental in discerning the availability of various reports and records in the departments and the information that could be elicited. In the light of the pilot study, researcher was convinced of the need to obtain support from departments like Personnel and Industrial Relations, Staff Administration, Planning, and Inspection and Vigilance as the sources for the requisite secondary data.

Universe and Selection of the Respondent Managers:

The ability of managers to influence subordinates (power) and their effectiveness being the major variables of interest, their very nature made it imperative that the observation had to be focused on managers with considerably long tenure in a particular branch. A new branch manager, notwithstanding his experience in a comparable position elsewhere, may not be able to wield adequate power over the branch staff as soon as he takes over. Further, power and power bases, being complex social phenomena involving elements of one's personal being and formal position, can be assessed only in the context of one's official and socio-emotional transactions with the people around. Thus it was decided to include within the purview of the study only those managers who had held the office of the principal officer at a branch for a minimum period of one year prior to data collection. The bank had been following a general policy of transferring a principal officer after three consecutive years of service at any given branch. Thus the universe of the study was delineated to comprise only those principal branch officers with a minimum of one year and a maximum of three continuous years of experience at a branch. There were 183 branch managers in Kerala who satisfied these specifications and they formed the universe for this study.

To ensure as broad a respondent base as possible and fulfil the sufficiency criterion, the census approach was planned in collecting information and the requisite database for the study. But of the 183 units in the universe, only 170

respondents could be covered in the survey. Data could not be collected from thirteen managers as they were either on leave or were not ready to give information. Data collected from seven managers had to be discarded as the information provided by them were not in conformity with the official records. Hence the final tally of managers in the respondent group was only 163 out of a total of 183.

Data collected through the census method were supplemented by the data available with the Inspection and Vigilance Department at the head office of the bank.

The group of 163 managers that formed the respondent base of the study constituted only 89% of the universe and was assumed to be adequate for generalisation purposes.

Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary data were made use of in the study. Choice of data was guided by the nature of a variable and availability. Primary data were collected to form the empirical basis in respect of the peripheral variables and the behavioural dimensions of the core variable of managerial effectiveness. The Manager and senior most clerk from every branch were the sources of primary data. While the former provided self-reports and self-ratings, reputational measures were the form of input derived of the subordinates. Manager's self-reports were relied upon for variables like the extent of power, preferred power bases, power styles and self-assessments on selected indicators of the trait dimensions of visibility and credibility. Self-ratings were also elicited for assessing the manager's effectiveness in terms of their on-the-job activities. Reputational approach was used for assessing manager's power bases and their effectiveness, according to the subordinates, for its ability to offer a contemporaneously dependable assessment of the current appreciation that subordinates have of their manager's capabilities. The response set of every manager thus had a matching set of responses from the subordinates on selected items of information.

The secondary data was in connection with the quantitative and objective assessment of effectiveness of the branch managers according to the bank management. The data were culled out of the records and files available with the Inspection and Vigilance Department at the head office of the bank.

These data, in substance, were the outcome of periodic evaluation of every branch and its branch manager by the inspection department at the behest of the top management, but independent of and different from the performance appraisal exercise conducted annually by the Personnel and Industrial Relations Department. The investigator was given to understand that it was for the first time ever that the inspection details were disclosed to an outsider.

Tools of Data Collection

Besides the question items on the respondents' socio-demographic details, the data collection instrument comprised questions and statement items, as indicated elsewhere in this report, to measure the managers' relative power over their subordinates at the branch level, statements to measure their visibility and credibility, power bases, power styles and their effectiveness related to on-the-job activities.

In order to obtain matching sets of data from the subordinates on their perceptions of the managers' relative power, power bases, on-the-job and behavioural dimensions of managerial effectiveness, a parallel instrument was administered on the senior most clerk reporting to every respondent manager in this study. This instrument is given in appendix G.

While constructing the major tool for data collection that was used to elicit data from the managers, the investigator relied upon some of the established and standardised scales authored by well known researchers and celebrities in the field. Information about the scales so used are provided below.

1. Visibility and Credibility Inventory - Appendix A

W. Brenden Reddy and Gil Williams (1988) developed the instrument

called Visibility/Credibility inventory that appraises one's functioning in a group with regard to the extent that one is being noticed and believed in.

Statements on visibility centred around behaviours resulting in externally visible attributes that permit a person to be perceived up-front among others. Credibility related statements focused on those behaviours and qualities of a person, experienced deference and responses of others that give him/her the significance so that the individual feels he/she is believed in and considered trustworthy. The statements essentially reflect the impressions one has about his/her external visible and internal credible attributes.

Measurements on these two components are made possible with the help of twenty five statement items on each of the dimensions along a seven-point continuum. Responses varied between 'hardly agree' (score 1) and 'strongly agree' (score 7). Positive and negative statements on both the dimensions were randomly distributed with the provision for reverse order scoring for the negatively keyed statements and separate aggregate scoring for the two constituent dimensions.

The inventory was pretested among managers in industrial and insurance sectors before using it formally for the study purposes. The test-retest reliability was found to be high with the correlation coefficient (r) between the paired scores being 0.709. Unlike other scales and measures used in this study, this scale claims only face validity.

2. Power Base Scale - Appendix B

The power base scale used was in fact a partial adaptation of the Coercive and Persuasive Power (CPP) Scale devised by Udai Pareek based on the dichotomy of power bases. The scale was originally developed to be administered on managers for surveying their power bases or that of a group or department mainly for the purposes of organisational development (OD) interventions.

The scale is self-administered where the respondent reads each of the twelve items indicating a specific power base and makes how important is the item in his/her role. The scale contains six coercive power base items and six persuasive

power items. Scores on each item range from 1 to 5; 1 if the item is not important, and 5 if it is very important and critical.

The internal consistency of the scale is reported, by the author, to have been established by split-half and even-odd correlations, values ranging between 0.63 and 0.82 showing that the scale has acceptable reliability.

Validity was established, according to the author, through factor analysis using principal axis with varimax for two factor solution. The construct validity index were put at 80% (100% for persuasive power and 60% for coercive power). This is claimed to be very high validity index.

3. Managers' Power Style Inventory - Appendix C

Manager's Power Styles Inventory of Agarwal and Agrawal (1995), identifies and estimates the different power styles exercised by middle level managers in organisations, and comprises a total of 28 statements on six dominant styles labelled as integrative, directive, consensus, pressure, transactional and coercive. The responses to statements, recorded on a seven-point scale, reflect varying concurrence toward the statements with responses ranging from 'hardly agree' to 'strongly agree'. The managers were instructed to choose a response that was most descriptive of their behaviour while they dealt with subordinates.

The scale, along with its sub-scales, was reported to have construct validity ascertained by factor analysis by principal components method with varimax rotation and the cronbach alpha reliability was reportedly 0.81.

4. Effectiveness Assessment Data Sheet - Appendix D

An effectiveness assessment data sheet was developed by the researcher in consultation with the officials of the inspection department of the bank. The data sheet incorporated only those items, from among the numerous parameters collected and maintained in the database of the department which, according to the department authorities, truthfully reflect the ability of branch managers in achieving the targets and meeting schedules, administrative and operational up-keep of the

branch including house-keeping, and quality of customer services. Some of the items were reflective of the current position and state of affairs for which the branch manager is solely responsible. To be more succinct, the effectiveness assessment data sheet provided information for assessing the effectiveness of the branch manager by gauging the achievement of business goals and the quality of in-house administration of a given branch.

5. Managerial Effectiveness Scale - Appendix E

Two versions of the Managerial Effectiveness Scale of Mathew (1989), one for the self-rating of managers and other for the inverted appraisal of the effectiveness of managers by the subordinates, were used for assessing the on-the-job (process) dimension (Campbell et al. 1970) of managerial effectiveness. Each version comprised the same set of thirty four items comprehending fourteen dimensions, clarified under the operational definition of the term, thought to be consequential on-the-job activities of the managers.

Ratings on each statement item were marked on a seven point continuum with 'outstanding' (score 7) and 'very low' (score 1) at the extremes and average (Score 4) at the centre. In both rating situations, subjects were aware of the alternate source of evaluation. The test-retest reliability for the self-rating and the subordinates rating were 0.88 and 0.67 respectively.

Pretesting of the Tools of Data Collection

Draft data collection instrument with sequenced scales and the format for personal details were pre-tested on a sample of twenty managers in a divisional office of one of the insurance companies in the state and ten managers chosen from the departments housed in the head-office of the bank. The respondents who participated in the pretest exercise did not form part of study universe. Pretesting revealed the need for introductory paragraphs for the scales used and deletion of certain redundant items in the data sheet for personal details. Appropriate modifications were made to enhance the instrumentality of data collection tools.

The schedule of questions for senior most clerks was also pretested on a sample of ten clerks belonging to three branches in the investigator's locality. Inappropriateness in wording and vagueness in instructions to the effectiveness assessment scale were eliminated to the extent possible in the light of feedback from the pre-test.

Another important benefit of the pre-test exercise was the reckoning that some respondents, both managers and clerks, were uncomfortable with the word 'power' for its rancorous and ill-natured connotation and hence the word power was deliberately camouflaged in the final tool of data collection by using the word 'influence' and avoiding the names and headings for the scales and sub-scales.

Data Collection

The data collection work of the study was completed in two distinct stages. The first phase was devoted to collection of primary data through direct contact established with all the 183 managers who lived up to the inclusion criteria for being considered as respondents and the senior most clerk at the branch where a particular manager was posted. The respondents were approached by the researcher either in person or with the help of a contact person who could reach out easily to the branch concerned. The instrument book-let intended for the managers and the questionnaire meant for the senior most clerk had the authentication from the bank's Chairman. Many managers and senior clerks were quick to respond by returning the filled in formats on the same day they were contacted. Some others provided the responses in a few days' time. A few of the respondents needed follow-up attempts from the researcher's side for them to oblige. The subordinates generally used a self-addressed and stamped cover provided by the researcher to mail their responses. Self-addressed cover was provided to the subordinates to ensure them of response confidentiality as they were providing evaluations about the effectiveness of their bosses.

The instrument book-lets for the managers and the questionnaires meant for the senior most clerk under a particular manager were given identification

codes before the tools were administered so that the responses of a manager and his respective subordinates could be easily matched for analysis purposes.

Data Processing and Analysis

The responses from managers and senior most clerks were first matched branch-wise along with the secondary data and were scrutinised for comprehensiveness and adequacy. Certain uncalled for comments were omitted. The valid responses were carefully entered into electronic spreadsheet using Foxpro platform and subjected to statistical analyses, computations and tests with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Descriptive and inferential statistical tools were applied to obtain different measures, coefficients and test results. Statistical tests like Chi-square, t-test, ANOVA, Multiple Regression and Multivariate Discriminant Analysis were used to establish linkages between the peripheral variables that make up the power profile of managers and the criterion variables comprising the measures of their effectiveness.

Statistical inferences generally have been largely drawn at 5% level of significance, ($p = 0.05$). Whenever any change in decision rule is resorted to, it has been appropriately noted.

Descriptive measures of Mean, Median, Skewness, Standard Deviation, Standard Error, Coefficient of correlation etc. have also been reported at appropriate places in the chapters covering data analysis and interpretation.

CHAPTER FOUR

PORTRAIT

of

RESPONDENT MANAGERS

A few personal, social and occupational details of the respondent managers were surveyed for depicting their background specifically with the intention of exploring any bearing these variables have on their power profile. The following paragraphs present data on these personal background factors one after the other.

4.1 Age of managers:

The age variations of managers included in the study are presented in Table 4.1.1.

Table 4.1.1 **Agewise distribution of the respondents**

Age Categories (Years)	Frequency & Relative frequencies	Group Scores		
		Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Err
upto 40	16 (0.098)	44.859	3.545	0.278
40 - 45	83 (0.509)			
45 - 50	52 (0.319)			
50 +	12 (0.074)			
Total	163 (1.000)			

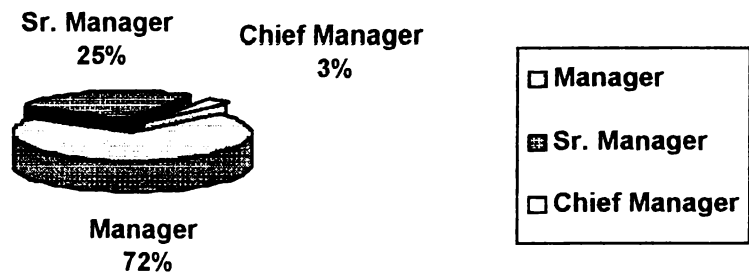
The Majority of the respondents had their ages ranging from 40 to 50 accounting for 82.8% followed by 'below 40' (9.8%) and 'above 50' (7.4%) categories. The interval estimation for the mean age of the universe is between 44.14 and 45.57 indicating relatively young managers in the bank. The mean age of the universe, converging around 45 years suggest adequate social and professional maturity among the respondents which is generally an outcome of one's age and experience.

4.2 Designations and grades of managers

One major source of power for the managers within the organisational structure is the formal position. Of course, positions differ in their potential for power and access to power bases. The designations and grades which go hand-in-hand, in the case of the respondents, indicating their differential positions in the

hierarchy was given importance because organisational members, subordinates in particular, endow the position holders with differential right to influence their behaviour in exchange for certain benefits. This idea is so much embedded in our society that it was assumed to be an internalised value for the purposes of the study. Figure 4.2.1 depicts the representation of different designations and the associated grades among the respondents.

Figure 4.2.1. Representation of designations among the respondents.



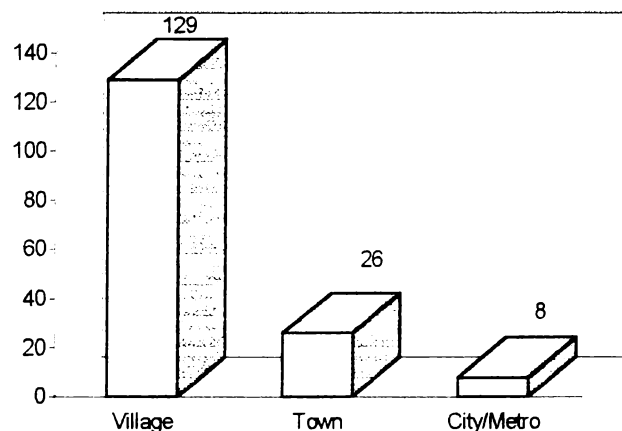
71.8% of the respondents was holding the designation of manager, 25.2% that of senior manager and small group of 3.1% had the title of chief manager with the associated grades of S2, S3 and S4 in that order. It may be emphasised that all these managers though differing in their designations and the corresponding grades, hold the title of ‘principal officer’ at their branches and are ultimately responsible for the operations at the branch level. While the S2 managers were put in charge of smaller or non-urban branches, S3 and S4 managers were more frequently posted at large, semi-urban and city branches with considerably larger business turnover and extensive operations in terms of the clientele types and schemes dealt with.

4.3 Nativity of managers

Nativity that refers to the social melieu in which the respondent was born

and brought up and where he happened to spend the first fifteen years of his life was included for its sociological and formative significance. The native place indisputably affects the nature and quality of one's socialisation and thereby the whole set of values, dispositions and orientation in personal as well as social and organisational lives. Most of the peripheral variables included in this study, being socio-psychological in nature, were assumed to be determined at least in part by the nativity anchors. The figure shown below depicts the native origins of the managers involved in this study.

Figure 4.3.1 Nativity differences of the respondents



The data hint at the qualitative changes that have occurred in the lives of villagers. Most of the respondents (79.1%) though hailing from rural areas have managed to acquire sufficiently good academic qualifications, the needed sophistication and business orientation with the help of which they have reached positions of import in one of the core sectors of the economy. Their transformation from original, rural, simple benchmarks to the present style of accomplishment may provide interesting cues into their power orientations and profile and the behavioural styles they resort to in their dealings with others.

4.4 Educational qualifications of respondents:

Individuals differ in their abilities and skills. There are also differences in their willingness to use skills and abilities within their work organisations.

Individual resources and abilities can impact the power exercised by the occupant of a given structural position (Pfeffer, 1981).

The contributions of formal education, technical and otherwise acquired while in service, and the parental backgrounds are almost indisputable in determining one's abilities and skills. Wielding of power within organisations involving abilities for argumentation, presentations, debate and articulation are all, more than anything else, functions of exposure. Bucher (1970) indicated that these qualities could even compensate for the formal and structural position. Bearing this in mind the investigator had collected data on the educational qualifications and the occupational backgrounds of fathers of the respondent managers. The details are presented in the following paragraphs.

The educational levels of managers covered are presented in table 4.4.1. The table reveals that majority of respondents (73.6%) were either graduates or post graduates when they first joined the organisation, whereas about one-fifth (20%) had the strength of professional qualifications such as LL.B. or MBA when they were inducted. A minority of 6.7% had only completed their matriculation when they joined the bank. This group consists of older managers and veterans who have been with the bank from its early days and were taken in very young.

Table 4.4.1 Educational qualifications of managers

Initial Qualifications			Qualifn. Acquired while in service		
Level	Freq.	R Freq.	Category	Freq.	R Freq.
Matriculation	11	0.067	Nil	53	0.325
Graduation	55	0.337	CAIIB	74	0.454
Post Graduation	65	0.399	CAIIB + Others	23	0.141
Others	32	0.196	Others	13	0.080
Total	163	1.000	Total	163	1.000

The table also provides information about the continued academic pursuits of the respondents while in service. About 60% of them laboured to clear the CAIIB exam primarily for its instrumentality in securing promotion within the bank. While about one-fifth of the respondents managed to improve their academic profile by securing masters, law or management degrees, about one-third

of them did not take any initiative in taking additional degrees.

If formal educational is taken as an indication of abilities and skills, intellectual or otherwise, it may be pointed that most of respondent managers were equipped with adequate abilities, skills and articulateness that education can typically provide.

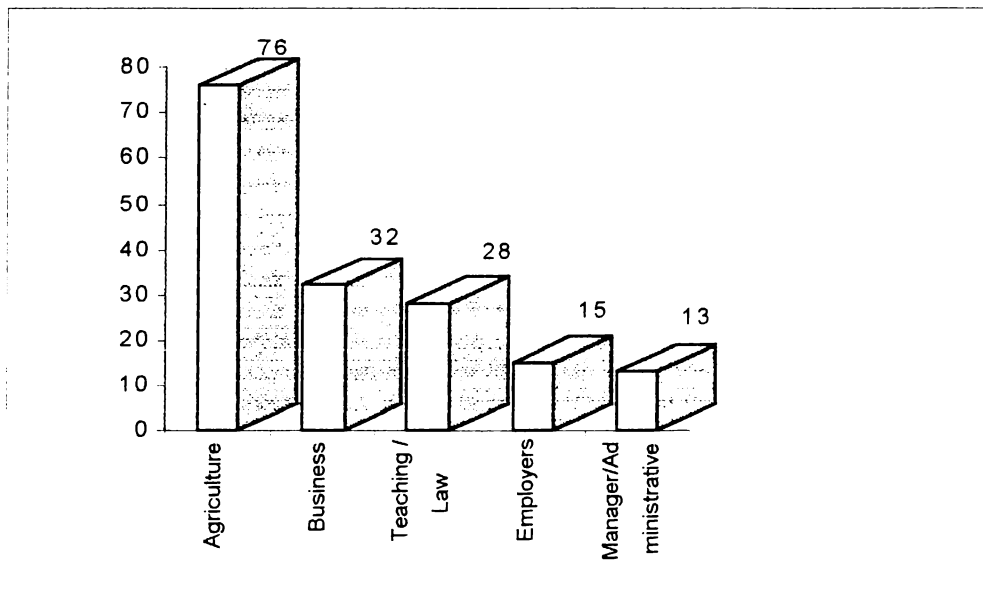
4.5 Parental occupation

The economic and social status of respondents, largely shaped by parental occupation, was considered a significant background variable in this study. The parental occupation exposes an individual to a typical set of experiences and exchanges in society and helps shape one's inclination, values and beliefs. The values and beliefs of the society that reared a person determine how he acts and reacts in situations. The self-image, perception of others, and assumptions about authority and work relations etc. need not be similar for those who were born and brought up in the families of agriculturists, businessmen, professionals and employees. This notion prompted the collection of information about the occupations of respondents' fathers as an indicator of the economic and social position of their families. As most of the respondents belonged to a generation whose mothers used to confine themselves to the household chores rather than seeking employment outside the family, no effort was made to collect information on maternal occupations. Fig 4.5.1 portrays the distribution the parental occupation of the respondents. Agriculture/Farming forms the single largest occupation of the parents of respondents (46 %). This clearly shows that most of the respondents had agrarian and rural ethos, which clearly demarcate different social role, both within family and outside, with distinct status and privilege differentiations.

19.6% of the managers were children of businessmen or self-employed entrepreneurs, 17.2% of them had professionals in the fields of teaching and law as their fathers. 15 managers (9.2%) said their fathers were employees in other public or private firms while a small percentage (8.0) of managers had their fathers who

were managers or administrators themselves offering direct models for them in their career.

Fig 4.5.1 Parental occupational backgrounds of the respondents



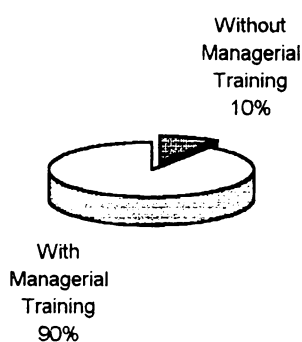
4.6 Previous training of managers

The most widely practised method in organisations to instil desired behaviour patterns and obtain better results from its employees is the training experiences offered to its managers and subordinates. Many organisations expect their new members to go through induction before they undertake specific work assignments. This involves essentially a familiarisation process with the organisation philosophy, its history, systems, policies and procedures and programmes. Besides the induction programmes, modern organisations expose their managers to various management development sessions. By developing relevant managerial and technical skills, organisations aim not only at ensuring uniformity of behaviour in similar situations from the employees in terms of their thinking and attitudes, but all the more for equipping its personnel with recent thinking in the conceptual domains and modern techniques and insightful methods developed and tested elsewhere for meeting human and business challenges in the fluid and uncertain environments.

This study, as part of the respondents' background information, had collected data as to whether they had undergone any managerial training as a branch manager of the bank. The information obtained is represented in figure 4.6.1.

Great majority of managers, i.e. 147 out of 163 (90.2%) have had undergone one or more managerial training exercises as the bank's branch managers while a negligible 9.8% said that they have had no such exposures to management concepts and techniques. Detailed probing revealed that all of the respondents have attended banking

Figure 4.6.1 **Proportion of managers with managerial training**



related, technical training programmes and that the managerial training programmes largely covered topics from the fields of general management and organisational behaviour.

4.7 Job tenure/ work experience of managers

Characteristics such as age, sex, educational attainments and the like are features that an individual brings to the organisation whereas work experience is something that the individual largely gains from an organisation. Rather than a result of any dramatic or voluntary effort of the individual, experience has some structural and accrual dimensions in that a person, with increasing experience is likely to be endowed with respectable titles, higher position, increased salary and stronger group membership. Longer job tenure is also likely to lead to greater

identification with organisational values and practices. Job values and needs are prone to modification over a period of time so as to make the organisation more attractive because with length of service a person tends to accumulate a complex network of positive and rewarding experiences that ensue from one's long association with the organisation. Prolonged job tenure with a single organisation, on account of a gradually developed psychological contract with the institution, becomes one's personal investment with resultant affective attachments in the form of pride in the organisation and internalisation of its goals, readiness to expend personal efforts and abilities for the organisational good and a kind of affection towards the organisation with a willingness to remain a member thereof.

Job tenure with its attendant advantages is likely to augment one's power in the organisation, the bases of power, and the person's visibility and credibility in the eyes of others. Others tend to attach deference and respectability to seniors for their fidelity and insightfulness gathered from experience in the field. Seniors display an heightened understanding of persons, their socio-emotional exchanges and acquires the ability to deploy appropriate influencing styles to make them work so as to achieve the common objectives within the structural restrictions.

Primary data were collected on total work experience, tenure with the present organisation, and the length of their service as branch managers. Table 4.7.1 gives the summary of this information.

Table 4.7.1 Experience of managers in completed years

Nature	Mean Years	Std. Dev.	Range of values
Total career history	23	3.8642	11-37 yrs.
Tenure with the bank	22	4.3784	08-37 yrs.
Service as Branch Manager	12	7.0229	03-26 yrs.

Of the 163 respondent managers, 34(21%) had experience up to 5 years as branch manager, 93 (57%) fell into 5-20 years category while 36(22%) had put in more than 20 years of service as branch managers. 40.5% of the managers were recruited directly into the officer cadre while the rest (59.5%) had joined the bank

as clerks and were later promoted into the officer's category.

The data revealed that large majority of respondents (79%) has completed five years of service since they became principal officers at branches indicating that they have established themselves as managers and have been accepted by the organisation for their managerial ability.

Having narrated the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, attention is henceforth directed towards the analysis of data in the light of the study objectives for the purpose of unravelling their power profile and the bearing that the power profile constituents have on the effectiveness of managers. The chapters that follow have been devoted for these purposes.

CHAPTER FIVE

POWER PROFILE

Of

MANAGERS

This chapter deals with the peripheral variables included in the conceptual content of the study that constitute the power profile of the respondent managers. Power profile is assumed to include the relative power of the managers as compared with that of their subordinates, the managers' power bases, the power styles resorted to by the managers in their attempts to affect the subordinates' thoughts and actions, and the managers' personal attributes of visibility and credibility in the work contexts. The presentations on each of the constituent elements have been organised according to the delineated objectives of the study.

5.1 Relative Power of managers:

As power conceptually refers to an agent's capacity to influence a target person's attitudes and behaviours, the influence process cannot be thought of as merely unidirectional. Normatively managers are supposed to have some power advantage over their subordinates that ensures their capability for influencing the latter along the desired track. But in an organisational context, by virtue of the very conceptualisation of power, subordinates can, and they do, exert some influence over the managers; they have some say in how things are organised and carried out at the work place. The 'net power' or 'usable power' of managers is thus the excess of power they wield over those who are managed. Power has, in this sense, a relative connotation also.

The first objective of the study was to ascertain the power of managers over the subordinates and to see whether the managers possess an excess of power or do they suffer a deficit of power as against their subordinates in matters of day-to-day administration of the bank's branches.

The power scores of managers were obtained a) by asking the managers to rate their own as well as the subordinates' power in the running of the office and b) from the subordinates, their attributions of power for themselves and their respective managers in the day-to-day functioning of their branch. These ratings, in both cases, were recorded on a seven point scale with positions ranging from 'no influence' - 1 to 'a great deal of influence' - 7. Responses of the managers

provided their self-appraisals and that of the subordinates furnished an inverted appraisal of the power positions of the former. The separate scores thus obtained were aggregated and averaged to arrive at the overall power position of the managers at the unit level.

The relative power (excess, balance or deficit) of managers at the branch level was detected by computing the differentials between the power attributions for managers and subordinates. Differentials were calculated separately on attributions given by both managers and subordinates. The comparisons resulted in two sets of power differential scores indicating the net power of managers as perceived by the managers themselves and as assented by the subordinates.

1. Relative (net) power score₁ - the power scores for managers based on the managers' assessment of their power minus that of their subordinates.
2. Relative (net) power score₂ - the power scores for managers based on the subordinates' attribution of power for the managers minus that of their own.

In either case, a positive score indicated power excess, a zero score implied power balance and, a negative score revealed a power deficit for the manager as against the subordinates.

The relevance of personal and socio-occupational factors of managers for their power (as desired under objective 5) was explored by way of working out 'slope constants' separately for the two sets of power scores, which revealed the overall trends in the power attributions as applicable to different categories of managers.

The slope constants were calculated on the mean values for the individual power scores provided by the respondent managers and their respective subordinates through a process of successive smoothing. For example, if A, B and C represented successive levels or grades in the hierarchy, the power attributions for the three levels were averaged discretely and the algebraic sum of the differences of the inter-level means were divided by the number of slopes (differences) to obtain the needed slope constant. The slope constants were used

as a meaningful approach for comparative analysis with apparent advantages of being a general, quantitative tool with conceptual and operational capabilities.

Results and Discussion:

The findings primarily indicated that the normative authority and power structure have not been severely affected in the case of managers studied. Though managers differed individually in their relative power levels, the notion of additional power to be vested normatively with them is still an acceptable idea among both managers and subordinates in the organisation. The information collected have been summarised and presented in table 5.1.1

Overall power at the work unit is admittedly distributed in favour of the managers. Though there is discernible difference between the claims of managers and what the subordinates have admitted, there is appreciable congruity between the two groups on the formers' incremental power. The t-test results for mean differences showed convincingly that managers and subordinates did not differ significantly in their attributions of managers' power at the level of the work unit ($t = 1.2439$; $p > 0.05$). The two groups obviously agreed on the supremacy of managers. The overall power scores of managers obtained by aggregating the separate attributions averaged at 5.715. The corresponding score in the case of subordinates levelled at 4.915. These two values differ with statistical significance ($t = 44.445$; $p = 0.0000$) in favour of the managers. But in the case of subordinates' say in the branch affairs, the two groups disagreed evidently with each other. While subordinates were ready to reckon considerably higher say to managers in the administration of the branch affairs, the managers' considered assent of the power of subordinates was noticeably lower than what was claimed for themselves ($t = - 4.3932$; $p = 0.000$). Thus the managers, as a consensus, were found to have more absolute power, on an average, over the non-managerial staff, which implied that the classical hierarchical structure has not yet eroded and that the power structure is still valid in the private sector organisation studied.

Closer examination of the relative or net power of managers based on the

power differentials calculated revealed varied and stimulating pattern of power distribution. Managers acknowledged and subordinates asserted that all managers did not characteristically enjoy power excess over the non-managerial staff. While some experienced a balance of power, others suffered even a deficit of power (see last three columns of table 5.1.1 indicating the relative power of managers).

Table 5.1.1 Absolute and relative power of managers and subordinates in matters of branch administration

Raters	Managers' Power	Subordinates' Power	Relative Power (Differentials) of Managers		
			Power Excess	Power Balance	Power Deficit
Managers N=163	Mean Score 5.79 Std. Dev. 1.06	Mean Score 4.60 Std. Dev. 1.25	N=104 (63.8) Mean Score 2.019 Std. Dev. 0.9099	N= 49 (30.0) Mean Score 0.00 Std. Dev. 0.00	N=10 (6.2) Mean Score - 0.15 Std. Dev. 0.671
Subordinates N=163	Mean Score 5.64 Std. Dev. 1.11	Mean Score 5.23 Std. Dev. 1.33	N=65 (39.9) Mean Score 1.86 Std. Dev. 0.833	N=69 (42.3) Mean Score 0.00 Std. Dev. 0.00	N=29 (17.8) Mean Score - 1.862 Std. Dev. 0.629
Test Results	T1 = 1.2439 P = 0.1891	t2 = - 4. 3932 p = 0. 0000	Chi-square = 21.65; df = 2; p = 0. 0000 figures in brackets show percentages		

While sixty four per cent of managers asserted of possessing excess power, 30 per cent acknowledged that they were squared with their subordinates in their power and a small group of 6 per cent of managers admitted of an insufficiency in their influencing ability. Subordinates acceded power excess only to 40 % managers, 42 % of managers were assessed to be evenly matched with them and a substantial 18 % were adjudged to be devoid of adequate power when weighed against their collective power levels. In broader terms, with 93.8% of managers claiming either power excess or at least an equalisation of power with subordinates, subordinates also said that only 18 % of the managers suffered a power deficit. Great majority of the managers (82%) was thus recognised by subordinates to be wielding sufficient amounts of power for them to have achieved a balance or even an advantage of power. But however, these assessments were found to be dependent on who made the judgements. Chi-square test established significant differences between managers and

subordinates in their respective assessments of the power excess, balance and deficit of the former (Chi-square = 21.65; $p = 0.0000$).

Results presented so far establish the incremental power enjoyed by the managers and lend support to the first formal hypothesis of the study that managers characteristically possess, on an average, greater power than subordinates at the branch level do. The findings are also in agreement with those of Singh (1989) and the view of Yukl (1994) that the normative power distribution is a valid proposition in private organisations. The power distribution in the private sector bank covered under the investigation thus approximated the normative structure unlike the notion of Sinha (1986) who suggested serious aberrations in the normative distribution of power and authority in public sector undertakings.

Answers to the query on the relevance of biographic variables for the relative power retained by managers is provided by the information summarised in table 5.1.2. The mean values and slope constants together provide a comparative sketch of the judgements of managers and subordinates about the net power of managers and its variations across different explanatory categories. Slope constants have been shown only for explanatory variations measured at ratio, interval or ordinal levels. The t-test results showing significant differences between the two groups of raters for each explanatory attribute have also been separately indicated.

The managers and subordinates generally agreed on the relative power surplus of the former, across all explanatory attribute categories, reflected by the positive mean scores. However superiors, by and large, claimed higher amounts of power levels than approved of by the subordinates. This may be due to the superiors' desire for a considerably greater influence and control over the subordinates than what really exists in reality.

The slope values based on attributions by the two categories have been separately shown. The slopes are negative across categories of age and years of experience of the branch managers and positive for total years of experience and additional educational qualifications acquired by managers while in service.

While managers acknowledged a drop in the relative power with increasing age and years of experience as a manager, workers alleged greater erosion in the relative power of older managers. The subordinates attributed greater erosion of power to those managers in the 40-50 years age category.

The curve slopes registered divergence in cases of managers' initial educational qualifications and their hierarchical position implied by designations. Managers and subordinates agreed on the relatively greater amounts of influence of those who joined with qualifications up to pre-degree as their initial educational achievement whereas the judgements were at variation with those who joined with higher educational qualifications. One plausible explanation for this anomaly across categories of initial educational backgrounds of managers could be that those who were undergraduates at the time of their becoming managers had joined the organisation as clerks and were later promoted as managers. The fact that they served as clerks might have given them an edge in their perceived understanding of the operations at the branch level and that they were 'promoted' might have contributed towards the added appreciation and respectability in the eyes of the subordinate staff.

With reference to the structural position of managers, it could be observed that the two groups disagreed on the power attribution to superiors with designations of 'Manager' (at S2 level) and 'Senior Manager' (at S3 level). At the same time, similarity was observed in the assessments of power surplus for the Chief Managers at S4 level. The overall slope for managers' power registered a marginal decline as per the managers' assessment whereas according to subordinates, the overall slope was marginally positive.

The curve slopes exhibited similar trends (positive) further in cases of 'total years of experience of the managers' and 'additional educational qualifications acquired' by them while in service. The managers asserted increasing power excess with longer tenure with the organisation; the subordinates also admitted a similar advantage for those with increasing overall experience. However, the net power as adjudged by the two groups was significantly different for various categories of years of managerial experience.

In the case of additional degrees acquired by managers, despite overall similar trends, the subordinates did not agree with the claims of those managers who did strive to take graduation, post-graduation or CAIIB qualifications while in service.

Table 5.1.2 Perceived mean net power of managers and the corresponding curve slopes across their socio-demographic backgrounds.

Categories of Managers	Net power of managers				't' values
	Managers' Judgements		Subordinate Judgements		
	Mean values	Slope *	Mean values	Slope *	
Age					
Less than 40 years.	1.50		0.75		1.697
40-50 years.	1.16	-0.165	0.38	-0.25	4.426 **
More than 50 years.	1.17		0.25		1.559
Total yrs. of experience					
Less than 5 years.	0.00		0.00		0.00
5-20 years.	1.34	0.565	0.18	0.265	4.542 **
More than 20 years.	1.13		0.53		2.968 **
Experien. as Br. Manager					
Less than 5 years.	1.29		0.53		2.542 **
5-20 years.	1.16	-0.050	0.39	-0.110	3.714 **
More than 20 years.	1.19		0.31		2.090 **
Education – Initial					
Up to Pre-degree	1.13		0.83		0.675
Graduation	0.99	0.152	0.21	-0.181	3.545 **
Higher degrees	1.43		0.46		4.098 **
Qualifications – Present					
Up to Post Graduation	1.14		0.48		2.283 **
CAIIB	1.26	0.012	0.26	0.065	4.361 **
CAIIB and other degrees	1.16		0.61		1.717
Designation					
Manager (S2)	1.09		0.44		3.749 **
Sr. Manager (S3)	1.54	-0.045	0.29	0.08	3.420 **
Chief Manager (S4)	1.00		0.60		0.371
Nativity					
Rural	1.18		0.39		4.448 **
Semi-urban	1.07		0.61		1.251
Urban	1.87		0.00		2.193 **
Recruitment					
Direct	1.41		0.35		3.975 **
Internal Promotion	1.05		0.40		3.361 **

* Slope constants worked out only for explanatory variables measured at ratio, interval or ordinal levels
** t values significant at 5% level (i.e., p < 0.05)

Differences in the judgements were also evident in cases of managers who came from different socio-ethnic backgrounds. While managers from City/Metro areas with their urban sophistication claimed maximum power advantage over the subordinates, the subordinates held that their power

advantage was practically naught in average terms.

Managers who were directly recruited and internally promoted were compared for their relative power positions and were found that the subordinates acceded slightly more power to the internal promotees than the direct recruits.

To sum up, it could be observed that the patterns of managers' power distribution as reported by the managers and their subordinates, across categorisations based on structural and socio-demographic factors of managers, for one reason or another, did not conform with each other. It was further seen that many of the managerial categories were characterised by negatively sloped power patterns.

All of these managers require concerted efforts of the subordinates in performing the tasks of the branch. The question as to how these managers elicit or obtain the willingness and compliance of subordinates in getting the job done leads us to the importance of managers' personality charm emanating from their traits and the mastery they have over some of the valued resources in an organisational setting. The answers to these and additional factors are probed in the sections that follow.

5.2 Visibility and Credibility of managers

In today's organisations, as students of management constantly remind us, the managers must earn authority and deference; these do not occur automatically along with one's title or fiat. Managers must be concerned with commanding respect and eliciting effective and adequate responsiveness from their subordinates.

Establishment of authority and legitimacy in initiating actions are dimensions of managerial leadership regrettably ignored in management literature on the assumption that subordinate satisfaction is the primary concern of every manager, and the further assumption being that satisfied subordinates admire and then defer their leaders/managers. Sources of subordinate satisfaction may not be, in fact, identical with qualities needed of leaders for impacting leadership, initiating action or asserting managerial authority.

The mark of a remarkable manager is the ability to direct the thoughts, actions and probably even the goals of subordinates. Managers gain acceptance for their right to give orders, for higher status and deference and, to expect subordinates to be responsive to their plans, requests and decisions, by being 'upfront' and 'trustworthy', that is, by being visible and credible in the organisation.

Visibility and credibility are two organisationally relevant personal attributes of managers that enable them to scale problems of ambiguity of authority and legitimacy of their office. Managers, for the effective utilisation of their power bases too, have to nurture personal reputation for being credible and engage themselves in activities that would fetch them visibility - the assurance that they would be noticed in the work units (Kouzes and Posner, 1987; Yukl, 1989; Sayles, 1989). It has been shown that members of organisations have no trouble identifying other members who are 'before everyone's eyes' or simply conspicuous. While the formal title or rank may not make a person prominent, insiders know who belongs more to the inner circle and who does not (Sayles, 1989).

Differences in visibility levels of managers get reflected in whose work and words carry greater weight in corporate deliberations and decision situations, whose budgets are more likely to be approved, and who is perceived as someone 'needed on your side' when ratification for a proposal is being considered.

The existence of visibility differentials among managers is an important feature of present day organisations. It goes without mentioning that there exist a number of different interests and interest groups in an organisation; organisation in reality is a far cry from one big, happy family. Inevitably what pleases or meets the goals of one individual or group could be inconsistent with those of another. Further, it is important to recognise that almost every ratification, decision or sanction accorded, or order implemented has some visibility implications; a manager's visibility is validated or discredited with every favourable or unfavourable decision, benefit obtained or denied. Thus visibility differences, rather than calculations and extrapolations, seem to be the substance

in whose requests, interests, or projects get supported and whose get rejected. Only naive managers assume that things happen in organisations solely on the merit of a case or on the basis of rational decision-making. Managers gain and use visibility to get their personal and official interests served (Sayles, 1989).

Managers are credible when they act in ways that are consistent with their declared values. By being true to their values, and using values to guide their actions, leaders inspire trust, faith and confidence in others and subordinates. When managers are credible and when employees believe that their manager is credible, they feel loyal and committed to their manager and eventually to the organisation, become motivated and willing to make personal sacrifices for the company, proud to tell they are part of the team. When subordinates feel their managers are not credible, they feel uncommitted and disenchanted, inclined to leave the organisation. More often such employees tend to feel that they work largely on account of extrinsic rewards with the result that they increasingly feel estranged and unsupported. Credibility is thus one of the foundations of purposeful and meaningful managerial leadership. Upon the solid basement of credibility, leaders inspire subordinates towards accepting his right to initiate action, his right to status and deference, build their forward looking dreams about their work team and organisation (Kouzes and Posner, 1991).

In order to assert authority and impact subordinates, managers must be adept at gaining and maintaining visibility and credibility as legitimate sources of initiations for these two components determine one's own and others' functioning in work groups and teams in an organisation (Reddy & Williams, 1988).

The second objective of this study was to assess the visibility and credibility attributes retained by managers with a view to locate them according to their varying degrees of the two attributes. The present study posits power as a variable that could be partially explained with the person-based dimensions of visibility and credibility. The theoretical support for the same has been drawn from Reddy and Williams (1988).

Visibility and credibility attributes of managers were assessed using the

inventory by Reddy and Williams developed for the same purpose. The inventory comprised fifty statements, equally divided to assess each of the two dimensions. Statements on visibility focused on externally discernible and behavioural attributes that permit the respondent to self-rate his noticeability and upfrontness among colleagues, peers and subordinates. The items for credibility are based on behaviours, experiences and qualities with the help of which one could self-rate the extent to which he/she could command respect that emanates from the trust and deference of others and elicit responses that essentially reflect one's internal credible qualities.

Responses were obtained across seven points with anchor stages reflecting varying degrees to which a particular statement characterised one's self in a given group situation. The range of scores on each statement was between one (1) and seven (7). Negatively worded items, randomly distributed in the scale, were reverse scored before further analysis. Going by the scoring norms provided by the authors, respondents with scores less than 100 and greater than or equal to 100 were respectively categorised as 'low' and 'high' on both the dimensions.

Results and Discussion:

Managers' self-ratings helped in differentiating those who were high and low on these two organisationally pertinent trait dimensions. The visibility scores were almost symmetrically distributed about its mean value (Skewness = 0.1631, $p = 0.1961$) while the credibility scores were, on the other hand, appreciably skewed towards higher values (skewnwss = 0.4737, $p = 0.0069$) indicating that a larger number of respondents were claiming higher degrees of the attribute. Table 5.2.1 affords an amplification of the relative standing of managers on the dimensions under consideration. Data revealed that most of the managers (72 %) remain relatively unnoticed in the organisation with only 28% in the highly visible group. On the other hand, trend is just the opposite as regards the credibility aspect. Almost 75 % of the respondents claimed substantial amounts of trustworthiness and integrity in others' eyes. It can also be seen from the table

that the average visibility score for the highly visible managers were 109.51 while the average score for the highly credible group was 116.85.

The vast majority of bank managers studied, entrapped in day-to-day, routine and uneventful banking operations, devoid of any challenge or novelty, have eventually forgotten to be innovative and original in both delivering services to the clientele and addressing criticality or problems at organisational

Table 5.2.1 Bank Managers according to their Visibility and Credibility

Dimension	Category	Frequency & Rel. freq.	Subgroup mean	Overall Scores			
				Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Range of Values
Visibility	High Visibility 100+	46 (0.283)	109.51	92.362	14.296	1.120	56 – 129
	Low Visibility <100	117 (0.718)	85.63				
Credibility	High Credibility 100+	122 (0.749)	116.85	110.209	16.232	1.271	74 - 167
	Low Credibility <100	41 (0.251)	90.44				

Chi-square value of Visibility x Credibility = 17.97508; df=1; p = 0.00001
Coefficient of correlation r = 0.7686; p = < 0.001

and branch levels. They have lost their lustre and thus become less visible. Those who experience themselves to be more visible have become so either because they could demonstrate in the immediate past their abilities in encountering and solving problems that haven't been attacked successfully by others, or by working in a critical functional area/department/branch/ office that might have fetched them attention and approbation from all concerned. Such managers could also have skilfully demonstrated their superior knowledge on certain technical aspects of banking besides being thoughtfully prominent, vocal and social in get-togethers and meetings.

Unlike visibility, credibility swung favourably for most of the respondents. Credibility scores, besides generally being higher for all the

respondents, were more than average for most of them. Only 25.1% of respondents fell into the low credibility group.

Data revealed that 74.9% of managers believed that they were perceived to be truthful, trustworthy and that they could exude integrity in their dealings with others. They have been effective in keeping their words and in matching their deeds with what they professed. Their behaviours were thus consistent and above board.

Managers acquire credibility when they act in ways consistent with their values. By being true to values, and using values to guide their actions, these managers could inspire trust, faith and confidence in others and subordinates. These managers were effective in translating their avowed values into a set of guiding principles for others. First by communicating values credible managers allow others to know what they stand for, and what is expected of everyone. Secondly these managers struggle to understand others' values and build a consensus based on the shared values which in turn forms the basis for decisions on policy matters and at the operational level. When a manager commands credibility, the entire work unit acts consistently and credibly (Kouzes & Posner, 1991).

The separate scores obtained for the two dimensions facilitated placing each of the respondents along two respective continua forming a matrix on which the position of each with respect to his visibility and credibility could be plotted. The matrix provided for four quadrants namely:

- a) High visibility and High credibility,
- b) Low visibility and High credibility,
- c) High visibility and Low credibility and
- d) Low visibility and Low credibility.

As noted earlier, those who scored less than 100 were included in the 'low' group and those with scores equal to or greater than 100 were grouped as 'high'. Same criteria were applied for both the dimensions.

Managers who fall in quadrant I representing high visibility and high credibility are 'seen and heard'. They are assumed to exhibit behaviours that

permit them to be noticed by others as well as to have significance in others' minds. In contemporary large organisations these people are held to be upwardly mobile and influential leaders. They are the 'fast trackers' in both career advancement and in achieving task priorities.

Quadrant II for low visibility and high credibility envelops those who are 'heard but not seen' in the work place. These people typically work behind the scenes, are content to enjoy and command influence but wish to stay out of limelight. In this quadrant one comes across managers who can be qualified as organisational sages. They may be the opinion leaders whose sound and credible inputs are sought before decisions are made.

Those managers who are 'seen but not heard' reside in quadrant III for they are characterised by high visibility and less credibility. These people manage to attract others' attention but are not trusted and have little influence. This category accommodates the 'yes men' by being close to other influential and higher authorities but in the process become 'infamous' for their lack of credibility and unreliability. Members of minorities and 'machiavellis', by virtue of their gender, ethnicity or manipulative tactics become visible but have little substance for real influence and charisma always eludes them.

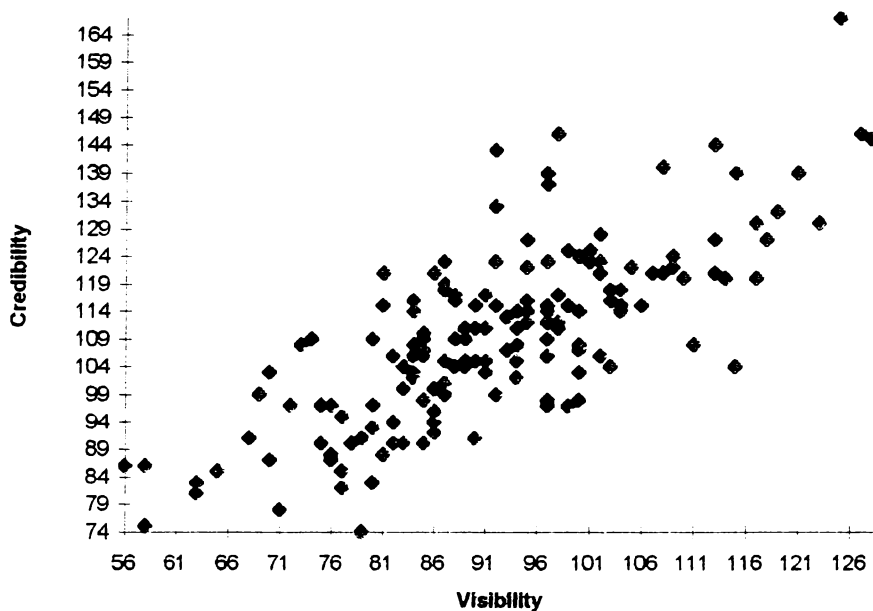
In quadrant IV are those who are 'neither seen nor heard'. For whatever reasons these prefer to be and are placed in positions or places where they perform things that offer them little visibility and credibility. Although they may do their work, because of the routineness of their job and their unpardonable complacency, duplicity, and inanimatedness, they rarely move up in the organisation. More often such members remain unknown and are passed over.

Figure 5.2.1 is the scatter plot of the visibility and credibility scores of the respondent managers. Each axis accommodates values representing the minimum and maximum scores that the respondents have made on the respective scales used. The scatter plot with its positive slope depicts visually the positive covariation among the scores of the managers on the visibility-credibility matrix.

Notwithstanding that the available theory does not purport any predictor-criterion relationship between the two person based dimensions of visibility and

credibility, the interactive nature that subsists between the two was more than evinced by the distribution pattern of the scores. Very high and significant interdependence was indicated between the two with a correlation coefficient value of 0.7686 ($p < 0.001$), additionally suggesting that the attributes are not independent of each other (Chi square value = 17.975; $p = 0.0000$). This finding supports the study hypothesis that there exists significant association between visibility and credibility levels of the managers.

Fig. 5.2.1 Scatterplot of Visibility and Credibility scores of managers



Visibility and credibility scores, when paired for individual respondents, enabled positioning them in the four quadrants as suggested by Reddy and Williams (1988). Table 5.2.2 shows the representation of managers in each of the quadrants.

Thirty one percent (31 %) of the respondents were with high visibility and high credibility. These managers are apparently perceived to be having real substance in the organisation. They enjoy a great deal of others' confidence and are really influential among peers and subordinates. They are constantly listened

to whenever they speak. In group situations they steal the show and are frequently ‘upfront’. They attract great deal of deference and appreciation from subordinates, peers and higher ups. These managers are alert to opportunities where they can be active and do take initiative in propelling activities, extending guidance and providing input without solicitation.

42% of the respondents included in the low visibility/high credibility quadrant are the ‘opinion leaders’ among the managers. Such managers use little ‘air time’, preferring to remain in the background with regard to public participation. However, they have the ‘ear’ of others and are sought out for their valuable opinions, inputs and advices. Their comments in discussions and meetings may be relatively infrequent,

Table 5.2.2 Visibility / Credibility profile of managers

Quadrant	Profile	Frequency	Rel. Frequency
I	Visibility high / Credibility high	51	0.313
II	Visibility low / Credibility high	69	0.423
III	Visibility high / Credibility low	00	0.000
IV	Visibility low / Credibility low	43	0.264

but when they speak, others listen. These managers have considerable influence and impact both within the larger organisation and at the branches.

About one-fourth (26.4%) of managers, who belonged to the low visibility/ low credibility category, maintain a very low profile and they typically avoid most activities and try being ‘out-of-the-eyes’ of others. Some of these managers may have tried to achieve credibility or/and visibility but proved themselves to be unsuccessful and then retreated to a less threatening position. Others who belong to this category seem content with their present roles and behaviours, while others less satisfied with their present profile may struggle and gain eventually incremental visibility and credibility.

It is however consoling to note that none of the present set of branch managers in the bank where the study was held ended up in the group of high visibility/low credibility which usually accommodates comedians in an

organisation. Although those who fall in this group receive attention, their behaviour quite often tends to be silly and disruptive. Such people do not command respect and are hardly influential. The observation that this quadrant is empty indicates that branch managers, as a rule, enjoy some deference and have more than minimal horizontal and vertical influence in the organisation.

Visibility and credibility, because of the conceptual and thematic linkages with the potential influence of these two personality dimensions, have been alluded to be indicative of one's power in a given situation by Reddy and Williams (1988). This allusion has been based on the notion that the two dimensions respectively refer to a person's visible, external attributes and his credible, internal attributes. It was therefore thought to be apt for the purposes of the study to check for their implications on the power and power advantages of managers.

Table 5.2.3 summarises the results of tests for significant differences between mean total power and mean power advantage scores of managers derived from their self-ratings as well as the inverted ratings by subordinates across groups of managers who differ on visibility and credibility. Results reported in the table established that the external visibility of managers do not bring about substantial variation in their total power levels ($t = - 0.89$; $p = 0.378$). Differences in credibility levels determined by internal, credible attributes were convincingly contributing to the variations in managers' overall power position in the organisation ($t = - 2.700$; $p = 0.009$).

Visibility was found to be only partially functional in accounting for variations in the power attributions, when considered separately for the attributions by managers themselves and subordinates. Subordinates' assessment of their managers' power advantage was found to have been significantly influenced by the visibility of managers ($t = - 2.36$; $p = 0.020$) indicating that the upfrontness that characterise visible and interactive managers coupled with their tendency to loom large over subordinates help them command their position and led the subordinates to ascribe greater power advantage to highly visible managers. But the quality failed to account for any significant variation in the

self-rating of managers about their own power surplus over the subordinates.

Highly credible managers believed that they had greater power and influence as compared to those who fell in the low credibility group ($t = -2.91$; $p = 0.005$); but they did not claim greater power advantage. The subordinates were also not impressed by the internal credible attributes of the managers so as to assign the latter with larger power differentials. The delegating style of credible managers, with increased autonomy granted to subordinates, and the managers generally staying out without interfering in the subordinates' pace and ways of doing things unless called for, might have led the subordinates to attribute only marginal power advantage to such managers.

Table 5.2.3 Influence of managers' visibility and credibility on their mean power scores

Visibility/ Credibility Variations	Total Power	Power Scores based on		Power Advantage Scores	
		self rating	subordinates' rating	self rating	subordinates' rating
Visibility					
Low (117)	5.680	5.778	5.581	1.171	0.248
High (046)	5.804	5.826	5.783	1.261	0.804
t- Value	-0.890	-0.240	-1.060	-0.370	-2.360
prob. (2-tailed)	-0.378	0.813	0.290	0.713	0.020*
Credibility					
Low (041)	5.427	5.342	5.512	0.951	0.171
High (122)	5.812	5.943	5.680	1.279	0.484
t- value	-2.700	-2.910	-0.820	-0.200	-1.170
prob. (2-tailed)	0.009*	0.005*	0.414	0.235	0.246

Figures in parenthesis show frequency of managers in each category;
* Significant t-values

The findings from table 5.2.3 thus lent only partial support to the hypotheses linking visibility and credibility levels of managers and their power positions. Attributed direct co-variation between visibility and power of managers was only partially substantiated. Managers with higher visibility was perceived by subordinates to be possessing significant power advantage, but the expected co-variation was proved untenable when the scores were tested for

managers' self-appraisal as well as the combined score according to the two categories.

The hypothesised linkage between credibility level and power of managers found supportive evidences in cases of total power score and managers' self appraisal of power, but a similar connection was not substantiated in respect of subordinates' acknowledgement of the managers' power standing.

Visibility and Credibility are fundamentally effects of the managers' network interactions within organisational conditions. Researches to date, in the light of information available, have not adequately compared the relative contributions of the contextual and individuals' background attributes in accounting for differences in visibility and credibility properties of managers. It was therefore thought be in place to consider some demographic and individual qualities of respondents as factors operating to give certain managers greater workplace privileges that determine their comparative positions in terms of visibility and credibility. Influence of formal and network variables, though important, were not considered for such an attempt would fall outside the immediate ambit of the present study.

Socio-demographic attributes including age, education, designation and tenure with the bank were taken to serve as indicators as they may potentially affect a manager's experiences and perceptions. A large literature suggests that status and relative position in the formal hierarchy affect peoples' perception about themselves and others. Such a concern is also warranted by the fifth objective of the present study.

Table 5.2.4 reports the summaries of analysis of variance for visibility and credibility scores of the respondents on the bases of their demographic and personal attributes. Results largely show that neither demographics nor grades of managers account for significant variance in the dependent dimensions, while perception based situational attributes account for significant differences. Managers were classified into four age groups. Visibility scores were maximum for the younger managers of less than 40 years of age (mean value = 103.50) with scores steadily decreasing for older respondents. The between groups variation

was significant among the age categories as indicated by the results obtained ($f = 3.8649$; $p = 0.0106$). The trend of scores was more or less similar for the credibility dimension also. Younger managers were having greater scores; mean scores were 117.5 followed by 111.8, 106.90 and 103.75 for age groups of 'less than 40', '41- 45', '46-50' and 'above 50yrs' in that order. ANOVA established variance among the mean values for the four groups ($f = 2.7856$; $p = 0.0426$). Thus age was found to be a reliable explanation for varying degrees of both visibility and credibility levels experienced and perceived by the managers.

Status differentials implied by the structural aspects of designation/grades or the benefit of experience for managers in terms of their years of service in the organisation or at the branch level failed to produce any significant difference in their subjective perceptions of both visibility and credibility ($p > 0.05$)

Higher educational qualifications possessed by managers were found to be instrumental in bringing about significant differences in their visibility levels ($f = 3.8596$; $p = 0.0106$); at the same time these were defunct in effecting variations in the credibility scores of managers. It may be that younger managers with their professional and technical qualifications begin with an aura of relative superiority and higher reckoning, exhibit initial enthusiasm, and innovation in their ways of working. They must have been bold in accepting challenges, and in attempting unresolved problems that brought them greater noticeability. Further, younger managers, being comparatively stainless in their day-to-day dealings with others, are more believed in than older managers. But as they fall increasingly into the established business groove, they also become part of the system and get hackneyed, lose their lustre and fall prey to others' scepticism.

While the social background of respondents reflected in their rural and urban moorings failed to impact the respondents' self-rating of their visibility and credibility, their membership in officers' association displayed significant bearing on the extent to which they were supposedly noticed and trusted by others. Both the scores were relatively high for active association members vis-à-vis inactive and non-members.

Table 5.2.4 Summaries of ANOVA results for visibility and credibility of managers by their biographic attributes.

Attributes and dependent dimensions	DF	F ratio	Prob.
Age:			
Visibility	3	3.8649	0.0106*
Credibility	3	2.7856	0.0426*
Educational Qualifications:			
Visibility	3	3.8596	0.0106*
Credibility	3	0.8913	0.4471
Designation:			
Visibility	2	0.1212	0.8859
Credibility	2	0.3420	0.7108
Tenure:			
Visibility	2	0.1816	0.8341
Credibility	2	0.5602	0.5722
Social Background:			
Visibility	2	0.2171	0.8051
Credibility	2	0.2370	0.7893
Membership in Managers' Assoc:			
Visibility	2	6.3869	0.0021*
Credibility	2	3.3929	0.0360*

* Significant variances established

Active membership in officers' association must have given the subgroup some sort of psychological armour and the requisite organisational strapping to be more articulate and pronounced among others resulting in their higher visibility. The same identity must have caused them to brave all prodigalities in the organisation and to stand up to their ideals and exemplify themselves.

To abbreviate it seems that managerial visibility and credibility in organisations can be earned only prudently, that these are not privileges granted to people along with their titles or position. Managers must continuously strive to remain in the eyes of others and earn their trust and commitment.

5.3 Power Bases of Managers

Managerial Leadership is the exercise of power in organisationally specific situations. Hickson & McCullogh (1980) maintain that a leader is one who successfully employs sources and bases of power. Theories of social influence assert that the ability of an agent to exert influence arises from possession or control of valued resources. Dahl (1957) referred to these resources as the bases of an actor's power, consisting of all resources, opportunities, acts, objects that one can exploit so as to affect the thoughts and

behaviours of another.

Some earlier works by Pelz (1951) and Kipnis (1958) reported that influence of a leader or a manager over subordinates varied significantly with his control of the bases of power.

The most popular among classifications of power bases is by French and Raven (1959) into five bases of power namely, Reward, Coercion, Legitimacy, Referent and Expertise. Subsequently two more bases of connection and information were added to this list by Raven & Kruglanski (1970), and Blanchard and Natemeyer (1979). While Gordon (1991) suggested personal charisma, Pareek (1994) recommended personal relationship. Earlier researchers had identified manipulation of vital information and competence (Mechanic, 1962; Filley & Grimes, 1967) as important power bases in organisational situations.

The primary concern under the third objective of the study was to identify the important power bases of the bank branch managers which they characteristically make use of in their attempts to influence their subordinates.

Two separate instruments were used for finding out the managers' power bases - one for the managers and the other was administered on the subordinates to learn about their perceptions about their managers' bases of power. The instrument used among managers had twelve items, each pertaining to a specific organisationally valid resource thought to be within managers' control and mastery. The respondents were instructed to rate the relevance of each item for their role performance and influencing subordinates. The anchor points were 1 - if the item was not important; 2 - if it was little important; 3 - if it had some importance; 4 - if it was quite important and 5 - if it was very important and critical. The range of scores on each item was thus 1 to 5. The scores for each item were summated across respondents to obtain mean values for each power base.

The senior most clerk working in the branch office where each respondent manager was the principal officer was asked why the subordinates in general did what their manager wanted or suggested them to do. Their responses

were in the form of ranks given to the following five reasons each representing a distinct power base of the manager.

- i) He has a legitimate right, considering his position to expect that his suggestions would be carried out;
- ii) We respect his competence and good judgement about things with which he is more knowledgeable and experienced than we are;
- iii) We admire our manager for his personal qualities and want to act in a way that merits his admiration;
- iv) He can give special help and benefits to those who co-operate with him;
and
- v) He can pressurise or penalise those who do not co-operate.

These five reasons corresponded to the legitimate, expert, referent, reward and coercive power bases according to French & Raven (1959), in that order. The rankings were reversed and later treated as rating scores before the analysis was conducted. The ranking procedure helped the respondents to discriminate among the bases of power and the conversion of ranks into rating scores permitted each base of power to be considered independent of others. Results of data analysis include both ranks and rating scores.

Results and Discussion:

Managers responded variously to the relevance of different power bases reflecting their perceptions about the relative importance of each organisationally valid resource in attempting to affect their subordinates. The mean scores, standard deviations and relative scores indicating the differential importance of each power base was arrived at for all the twelve items separately and were grouped together according to the broader dichotomy of 'coercive' and 'Persuasive' power bases. Table 5.3.1 displays the results of the first level analysis and pertains to the assessment of managers about their power bases.

The group mean scores and the t-tests result clearly established the preference of the respondent bank managers for the persuasive power bases over the coercive ones ($t = 3.868$; $p < 0.01$). This may be attributed to the fact that of the many possible cards that could be played, persuasion based ones may be commonly perceived and advocated to be more suitable to any democratic, or rational, social systems. The banking organisation where the study was conducted being a rationally organised one with its educated and accomplished work force, would favour only persuasion centred, person anchored resources than coercive, position based power bases.

Table 5.3.1 Mean scores, standard deviations, relative scores and the ranks for power bases according to managers' evaluation

Power Base	Mean	Std. Dev.	Relative Score	Rank Position
Coercive Bases				
Position	3.963	0.922	0.793	IV
Connection	2.620	1.084	0.524	XII
Coercive	3.583	0.980	0.717	IX
Charisma	3.135	0.926	0.627	XI
Information	3.319	0.960	0.664	X
Emotional	3.890	0.824	0.778	V
Group scores	3.418*	0.525	0.684	
Persuasive Bases				
Logic	4.141	0.860	0.828	III
Expertise	4.227	0.804	0.845	II
Referent	3.644	0.992	0.730	VIII
Reward	3.687	0.850	0.737	VII
Extension	3.834	0.826	0.767	VI
Competence	4.337	0.747	0.867	I
Group Scores	3.980*	0.634	0.796	

- t-test for mean group scores for coercive and persuasive power bases yield a value of 3.868 with $p < 0.01$; 2 tailed.

A magnified view of the dimensions under review revealed that the managers identified 'competence' as the most important power base followed by 'expertise' and 'logic' from among the persuasive bracket. From among the coercive bases, managers preferred legitimate power that they derive obviously from their official position and the power that emanates from close, personal relationships that they have carefully nurtured with subordinates. It is quite instructive to perceive that power that can be mustered from one's prerogative to mete out punishments and to pressurise subordinates, possession and

manipulation of vital information, and from the connections and closeness with the chief executive were disregarded as rustic and trivial. Reward, referent, and extension power bases have only secondary significance, according to the managers, in their professional interactions with their subordinates.

In order to avoid problems of superfluity of dimensions and annoying anatomisation of an essentially socio-psychological construct, the researcher coalesced comparable dimensions to form broader and more wholesome groups of power bases. Elementary power base dimensions of 'connection' and 'emotional' powers were put together and retained as connection power; 'charisma' and 'referent' elements were grouped together to form the referent power; 'logic', 'expertise' and 'competence' were merged to form the expertise power; and 'reward' and 'extension' were coupled to form the reward power bases of managers. Power base dimensions that could not be logically telescoped into others were left untouched. The reconstruction of power base categories thus resulted in the list of power bases and the corresponding corrected series of scores are shown in the table that follows.

Table 5.3.2 displays the regrouped power bases with respective values indicating the varying importance attached by managers to each of them and the interrelations among the power bases. The mean scores revealed that expertise power followed by legitimate power and reward power were considered consequential and were used and resorted to more frequently by the managers as compared to coercive, referent, information and connection power bases.

The data revealed that managers rely on a combination of persuasive and coercive power bases than subscribing fully to any one broader category. The major source of their personal power over the subordinates is their expertise in solving problems and performing important tasks. It may be pointed out, however, that it is not enough for the managers to possess expertise, the subordinates must also acknowledge their expertise and perceive them to be reliable sources of know-how and advice for the job related problems. Reputation of managers' expertise depends in part on the extent of knowledge acquired and maintained by them through a continued process of education and

self-learning by way of attending technical training programmes in the field. It also partly depends on the practical demonstration of the expertise by solving problems, making sound decisions and providing appropriate advices to subordinates.

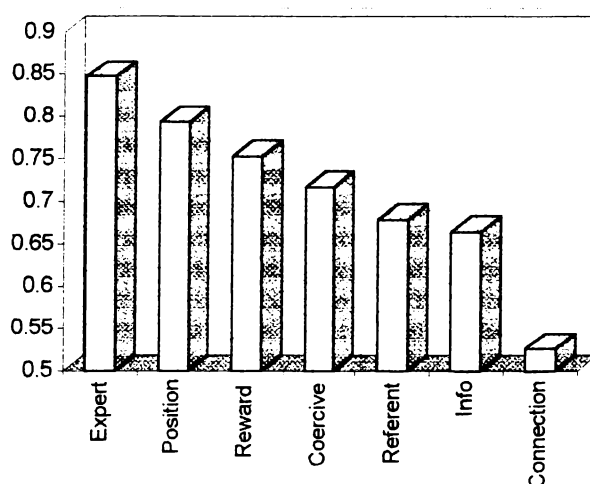
Table 5.3.2 Corrected mean scores, standard deviations and intercorrelations among power bases according to managers' evaluation.

Power Base	Mean	Std.Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Position	3.963	0.922	-	0.311**	0.320**	0.206*	0.232*	0.270*	0.411**
Coercive	3.583	0.980		-	0.267*	0.121	0.167	0.183	0.249*
Information	3.319	0.960			-	0.267*	0.392**	0.493**	0.454**
Connection	3.255	0.668				-	0.257*	0.357**	0.366**
Referent	3.390	0.832					-	0.519**	0.543**
Reward	3.761	0.697						-	0.608**
Expertise	4.237	0.689							-

n = 163; * p < 0.01; ** p < 0.001, 2 -tail.

Influence derived by a manager by virtue of the office he holds is termed as position or legitimate power. This primarily includes one's authority - control over the organisation and allocation of work - over the environment such as granting of rewards, meting out punishments and the hold over vital information. The respondent managers' ranking of position power as the second most important power base may be attributed to their perceived need for increased authority with which they hope to function more efficiently. The complex pattern of role specialisation and interdependence make it essential for the manager of the present to fulfil role expectations in an acceptable way, including discharging unpleasant duties and perhaps adhering to unpopular rules. It is not practical for a manager to rely solely on emotional appeals or expertise to obtain the needed compliance of others. In fact, in an organisational setting, position power is more acceptable and less difficult to use than most other forms of power in the day-to-day administration. It could also be true that influence grounded on legitimate authority can be used to accomplish routine activities without incurring costs associated with other types of power such as expenditure of money or the obligation to repay the favours.

Figure 5.3.1 Managers' ranking of power bases



Reward power, identified by managers as the third important power base, is a natural corollary of the legitimate power as one's control over resources and rewards stems largely from the formal authority. Reward power of the respondent managers is seemingly derived from their control over the tangible benefits that could be given to the subordinates such as positive remarks in the annual performance appraisal, recommendation for a promotion, assigning better and easier sections, better work schedules, personal concessions in the form of occasional permission for late reporting at work and allowances to leave the office earlier than the stipulated time and the like. The extent of a branch manager's authority to allocate these and other benefits gives him sufficient leverage in exerting power over the subordinates. The rank positions of the seven power bases according to their respective relative scores have been visually depicted in figure 5.3.1. The scores are based on managers' assessment.

The correlation matrix (table 5.3.2) indicated that expert and position powers were interconnected and covariant with all the other power bases ($p < 0.01$). Reward power appreciably depended on legitimate power ($p < 0.01$) with very strong correlation with information, connection and referent power bases

($p < 0.001$), but at the same time, reward power had no relation with coercive power ($p > 0.05$).

Referent power scores revealed absence of correlation with coercive power, but shared considerable interrelation ($p < 0.01$) with position and connection powers and a strong correlation with information power ($p < 0.001$).

Connection power of managers was found to be related to their formal position and its privileges, especially their access to and control over information. Here also an absence of correlation is revealed between connection power and coercive power.

Information power of managers was found to be strongly related to their position, referent, reward and expertise power bases ($p < 0.001$) with substantial relationship with connection and coercive power bases ($p < 0.01$).

Coercive power base revealed recognisable interdependence with information and expertise power bases ($p < 0.01$) and a very reliable correlation with position power ($p < 0.001$). The correlation values reveal that coercion does not move along with connection, referent and reward powers of the respondents. Exercise of coercion has lost its charm notwithstanding that the formal authority system, with its traditional maxims, provides for the use of threats and punishments by managers. Coercion, these days, is of no real instrumental value in the sense that it is neither treated germane to other power bases or considered to be thriving with the support of others.

Efforts were not spared to gather the impressions of subordinates about the power bases wielded and employed by their managers. Data were collected from them by adhering to the framework proposed by French & Raven (1959). The subordinates responded to a query as to why they did things which their manager suggested or wanted them to do.

Table 5.3.3 summarises the ratings on the five power bases of managers as provided by the subordinates. It also reveals the relative scores and ranks of each of the managers' power bases. For comparison purposes the respective mean scores for each of the power bases according to the managers' assessment have also been reproduced.

Though not statistically significant with the error level limited to 5%, subordinates roughly agreed with the rankings of managers on their bosses' power bases ($\rho = -0.8$; $p = 0.1$).

Table 5.3.3 Subordinates' assessment of managers' power bases

Power Base	Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Relative Score	Rank	Managers' Scores			t value	Prob.
					Mean Score	Std. Dev.	Rk.		
Position	3.583	1.290	0.717	II	3.963	0.922	II	3.053	$p < 0.01$
Coercive	1.859	1.094	0.372	V	3.583	0.980	IV	14.940	$p < 0.001$
Referent	3.411	1.148	0.683	III	3.390	0.832	V	0.1885	$p > 0.05$
Reward	2.466	1.188	0.494	IV	3.761	0.697	III	11.9668	$p < 0.001$
Expertise	4.288	0.873	0.858	I	4.237	0.689	I	0.5837	$p > 0.05$

Spearman's Rank order correlation coefficient (ρ) = -0.8; $p = 0.1$.

All ratings had a highest possible value of 5.0 and a lowest value of 1.0. Subordinates used a ranking procedure. The ranks were scored in the reverse order to obtain the ratings. t-values are results of 2-tailed tests.

The two groups agreed on the relative and primary significance of expertise as the most important power base of the managers, thereby supporting the hypothesis that expert power is the primary individual power base for bank managers, emphasising managers' competence, logic and their ability to provide useful information and solutions to the job-related problems; the subordinates almost concurred with managers in absolute terms on the assessment of managers' expertise power (t - test for mean differences yielded $t = 0.584$; $p > 0.05$). This suggests that, at the branch level, the subordinates experienced increased dependency on their manager for task related problems as they cannot easily find an alternate source of advice and the managers have in turn demonstrated their ability to provide on-the-spot solutions for the problems felt by subordinates. This finding is in tune with some earlier studies (Hickson, Hinings, Lee, Schneck & Pennings, 1971; Patchen, 1974; Singh, 1989). Specialised knowledge and technical skill of the managers have served to give them an edge over the subordinates and would continue to be so as long as there is dependence of the latter for information and know-how. In a highly systematised context like that of a bank, knowledge of rules and regulations is a type of expertise that may eventually become a source of counter power for the subordinates. Knowledge of rules and conventions would also provide the

The subordinates, in spite of their reckoning of the importance of

subordinates with an excuse for not meeting certain of the demands of the manager. This is more probable in the case of new managers.

The subordinates, in spite of their reckoning of the importance of managers' position power, did not agree absolutely in value terms with managers in their assessment ($t = 3.053$; $p < 0.01$). However, they recognised manager's position and the legitimate authority derived from their formal position as the second most important power base. Managers also had deemed 'position' as the second most potential power base. This may be based on subordinates' express perception about and recognition of the prerogatives, obligations and responsibilities implicit in the managers' position as the principal officer at the branch. The subordinates recognise and respect managers' right to make certain requests, with the internalised duty on their part to obey.

Legitimate power is absolutely necessary for managers to function smoothly and effectively; the complex pattern of role specialisation and interdependence make it essential. Subordinates of managers covered in this study recognised the legitimacy of managerial position and were ready to carry out managers' orders on account of their nurtured value that it was proper for them to obey authority figures, show respect for traditions and follow rules. Although it is conventional that authority flows downward from owners and managers, the potential influence derived by managers of their position depends as much on the consent of the governed also.

The third important managerial power base acknowledged by the subordinates was the personal identification they had with the managers. They say that they admired the personal qualities of their managers that resulted in their readiness to act in a way that pleased the managers. This form of power is referred to as 'referent power' (French & Raven, 1959). Though the rankings for referent power base as assessed by managers and subordinates differed, the two groups converged in terms of their absolute ratings for referent power of managers ($t = 0.1885$; $p > 0.05$). The relative importance ascribed by subordinates to the referent power base of managers indicated that they were inclined to identify with their managers and wanted to be liked and accepted by

them. Thus managers have been perceivably able to arouse feelings of liking and admiration in the minds of subordinates and thereby effectual in influencing their thoughts and actions. The relative lower rank (5th) attributed to this useful power base by the managers smacks lack of awareness on their part about the finer sides of human psyche and human interaction. It may also be that the managers have not fully realised that their influence over subordinates could be enhanced by acting friendly and being considerate, showing concern for their needs and feelings, demonstrating trust and respect. Persistent unfriendliness, disapproval of, or arrogance to subordinates can adversely affect their overall influence in the organisation. The importance of referent power as revealed in this study tenders partial support to the findings of Singh (1989) in that managers in banking organisations tended to enjoy soft power bases including referent power but disagrees with her position that managers in private banks were more inclined to use stronger power bases excluding referent power.

The managers and subordinates, covered by the present study clearly disagreed in their assessments of the two remaining power bases namely, reward and coercion. They differed not only in the rankings but in terms of the absolute ratings as well. The scores for reward power yielded a t-test value of 11.9668, with $p < 0.001$, and assessments on coercive power base differed at almost equally with a t-score of 14.940; $p < 0.001$. While managers opined that they had considerable hold over the subordinates by virtue of their authority to decide on allocation of resources including rewards, the subordinates brushed aside managers' claim and expressed the view that managers were considerably restricted and limited in their ability to parcel out rewards. Similar was the opinion on coercive power base also. Managers gave higher absolute rating for coercive power base (mean value of 3.583) with a relatively low ranking. But subordinates disagreed severely by conceding only a mean score of 1.859 (see t-test results quoted above) with a comparable low ranking. Though formal position with its attendant authority system provided the managers with the opportunity to use rewards and punishment, subordinates opined that coercion is often ineffective in itself and that all forms of coercive power exercise are

prohibitive and sharply restricted.

To sum up, the present study indicated that expertise was the most cherished power base of managers and the most primary form of managerial power recognised by subordinates as well. This observation is in tune with a similar notion held out by Fiorelli (1988). It also came to obvious that expertise followed by legitimate, reward and referent power bases would be of consequence for the managers as compared to coercive base. Some previous studies (Gold, 1963; Singh, 1982; Singh & Singh, 1985) lend support to this finding also. Further, this study purports that every power base wielded by managers was highly supported by more than one or the other form of power, consistent with the idea that development of one type of power could perhaps augment other types of power in organisations (Ragins & Sundstorm, 1990).

Power bases and extent of managers' power

Having stated that the ability of a manager to exert power or influence emanates from his/her possession of valued organisational resources, it seems quite natural to look for evidences to show the possible linkages between the power bases of managers and the attributions about the extent of their power. It is possible that a manager can wield varying amounts of power over subordinates because of his position and its inherent privileges, or that he has the ability to reward and punish, or by virtue of his superior knowledge and expertness, or the attractiveness he has successfully cultivated in the minds of subordinates. The link between having a resource and having power was examined in some detail. This was undertaken in partial fulfilment of the fifth objective of the study.

The mean power scores of managers, obtained from the combined scores of power attributions by managers and subordinates, were tested for statistically significant differences, if any, on the basis of varying levels of each power base. Analysis of variance was used for the purpose. ANOVA was also done, besides obtaining combined scores, on the separate attributions of managers' power by the two categories namely, the respondent managers and their subordinates, using power bases as explanations. The results have been

summarised and presented in Table 5.3.4.

The analysis of variance showed that managers and subordinates differed in their opinions regarding the instrumental value of the five power bases of managers in benchmarking and determining their overall influence at the bank's branch offices.

Data obtained from managers revealed that their own perceived power at the branch level reliably varied as a consequence of their legitimate and referent power bases ($p < 0.05$). The combined power score obtained by aggregating attributions by both managers and subordinates, taken to be more reliable an estimation of the manager's power, established significant differences across the various levels of referent ($p < 0.05$) and expertise ($p < 0.01$) power bases. According to subordinates' appraisals, expertise was the only quality of managers potent enough to fetch them differential amounts of power ($p < 0.05$).

Coercive and reward power bases were segregated out, by both the categories, as totally non-consequential in deciding the power levels of managers.

The table contents explicate that, among the managers covered in the investigation, the major source of power was the expertise the managers possessed and successfully demonstrated in their managerial role performance. There could be undoubtedly many reasons as to why subordinates also recognised the incremental expertise of managers, being effectively used to influence them. The reasons could be the managers' experience, training, reputation or even their demonstrated ability. ANOVA results in table 5.3.4 established clearly that the subordinates, in tune with the claims of the managers, acknowledge managers' expertise and perceive them to be reliable source of information and advice. Expertise comprising specialised knowledge and technical skill would remain a source of power only as long as there is continued dependence on managers for these vital needs of subordinates. It is thus essential for managers to maintain reputation for their advanced and superior technical expertise.

Reputation for expertise partly depends on one's control over information (Yukl, 1994). Access to important information results from one's position in the organisational communication network. The respondent managers' position as

Table 5.3.4 Mean and F-scores (ANOVA) of managers' power across the power bases

Power Bases and rater	Combined Power scores of Managers		Group-wise attributed power scores Of Managers	
	Mean	F-Score	Mean	F- Score.
Position				
Managers		1.79	5.791	3.511*
Subordinates	11.431	1.37	5.638	1.000
Coercion				
Managers		0.87	5.791	0.305
Subordinates	11.647	1.64	5.638	2.013
Referent				
Managers		4.80*	5.791	3.448*
Subordinates	11.838	1.72	5.638	0.617
Expertise				
Managers		27.48**	5.791	1.927
Subordinates	12.016	4.81*	5.638	1.522
Reward				
Managers		0.87	5.791	0.627
Subordinates	11.435	0.79	5.638	0.629

* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; df(4,158)

principal officers' at their respective branches provide them with opportunities to obtain essential and useful information that are not readily within the access of subordinates and others. The managers' can use their privileged information discretely to influence subordinates and convince them that they have to live up to instructions and orders. In effect control over information can also be used, among other things, to enhance managers' perceived expertness and thereby to cultivate more of that specific power base. The perceived expertise of a manager can gradually cause the subordinates to develop personal appreciation for the former especially when the manager, keeping aside his status differential, spends time and efforts to pitch in and help subordinates in their job related problems and crises. Whyte (1969) maintains that symbolic actions of this type demonstrate acceptance and respect for subordinates and serves to build their loyalty that results in referent power for the manager.

Thus it may be pointed out that the managers' response that their expertise, position and referent power bases together contribute towards their relative power vis-à-vis the subordinates may be well received and acknowledged.

Personality characteristics were reported by Podsakoff (1982) to be affecting the supervisors' choice of positive and negative reinforcers in organisations. Extending this to the area of power bases, this part of the study reports the analysis results relating to the implications of the personality related dimensions of visibility and credibility in respect of the respondents' preferences for the power bases considered herein. As a precautionary note, it may be added that the two personality dimensions do not exhaustively define the respondents' 'organisational persona', nor do they represent mutually exclusive personality factors. This analysis was guided only by the dominant themes adopted. It may also be brought to attention that the researcher could not locate even a single study that investigated the possible inter-linkages between visibility/credibility dimensions and the power bases of superiors or managers in organisations. Table 5.3.5 presents summary of t-test results for managerial power bases across their visibility and credibility characteristics.

Results reported show that while visibility was potent enough to bring about variation exclusively in connection and coercive power bases of managers, credibility, in its own right, affected position power significantly ($p = 0.004$) and reward power moderately ($p = 0.065$). Significant variations in information and expertise powers of managers were attributable to both their visibility and credibility levels. The only power base that remained unaffected by the dimensions of visibility and credibility was the referent power of managers. This may be due to the fact that the given piece of analysis is solely based on scores for the power bases as opined by managers alone and the subordinates' attributions on managers' power bases have not been considered. It may also be recalled that managers, in general, have given only lesser appreciation to this

Table 5.3.5 Sensitivity of managers' power bases as functions of the visibility and credibility variations

t-values for the power bases							
Personality dimensions	Position	Connection	Coercion	Information	Reward	Expertise	Referent
Visibility	- 1.63 (0.105)	- 3.44* (0.001)	- 2.00* (0.048)	- 4.49* (0.000)	- 0.77 (0.444)	- 2.82* (0.006)	- 0.98 (0.329)
Credibility	- 3.01* (0.004)	- 1.06 (0.294)	- 1.55 (0.127)	- 2.94* (0.004)	- 1.88 (0.065)	- 2.21* (0.031)	- 0.72 (0.476)

* Significant results with $p < 0.05$; Figures inside brackets show 2-tailed probability

significant and organisationally useful power base. The data also show that visibility, as a personal quality, is immaterial in deciding their position and reward powers and that credibility levels do not help managers improve their coercive and connection powers.

Researcher could not locate any previous study examining the association between the personality dimensions considered and power bases for managers. However the results herein propose combinations of power bases being used by visible and credible managers, and suggest that the two categories of managers believe in and utilise remarkably different organisational and personal resources or power bases.

Managers with high visibility are inclined to enlarge their domain through carefully cultivated connections with the seats of power and satisfy their stronger need for esteem and status. They appear to be less inhibited in exercising coercive power. To borrow the ideas of McClelland and Burnham (1975), the more visible may be ruder to others, may try to exploit and collect symbols of personal prestige such as big offices and fancy furniture. Visible managers seem to dominate subordinates by keeping them weak and dependent. Authority for making decision is carefully guarded, flow of information is restricted and punishments are used to manipulate and control subordinates. Assistance and advice based on their expertise are offered in a way that demonstrates their

superiority. Visible managers may be able to inspire subordinates' loyalty and team spirit. But any subordinate's loyalty that may occur is more likely to be towards the manager rather than to the organisation, and when the manager departs there is the likelihood of disorder and breakdown in team spirit.

Managers with greater credibility appear to be emotionally more mature. They seem to exercise power essentially for the benefit of others; they are hesitant about using power bases in a manipulative manner. They are less egoistic and defensive, have fewer material possessions, and are more willing to offer advice to people based on their relevant expertise. This kind of managers is more likely to use participative and consensus style of influence behaviour, less likely to be coercive and autocratic. They carefully exercise their position to help subordinates so that they feel stronger and responsible, bind them less with rules, help produce a clear picture of organisational structure and create esteem in subordinates to feel part of the larger unit.

To abbreviate, visibility and credibility characteristics of managers seem relevant to managerial role requirements involving the use power and influence. Visible managers use their power bases to aggrandise themselves whereas credible managers have long-range view that result in their attempts to build up the organisation and make it successful by way of their coaching styles of managerial behaviour.

Auditing associations between the managers' personal, socio-occupational attributes and the power bases they manoeuvre is in order under the fifth objective of the study. Seven biographical variables of managers were used for examining the variations, if any, in their power bases. Contingency analysis of the scores of five prominent power bases obtained from managers and subordinates across the biographical dimensions have been depicted with the help of four figures (5.3.2, 5.3.3, 5.3.4, and 5.3.5) and two tables (5.3.6 and 5.3.7). Curves in the figures show the difference in the scores as provided by managers and subordinates in respect of each of the power bases of managers. Figure 5.3.2 represents the variations according to age groupings of managers, whereas figure 5.3.3 displays the shift in power base scores on the basis of

Fig 5.3.2 Trends of the Mean Scores of Managers' Power Bases across their Age Groups

Series 1 - Managers' Appraisal; Series 2 - Subordinates' Appraisal

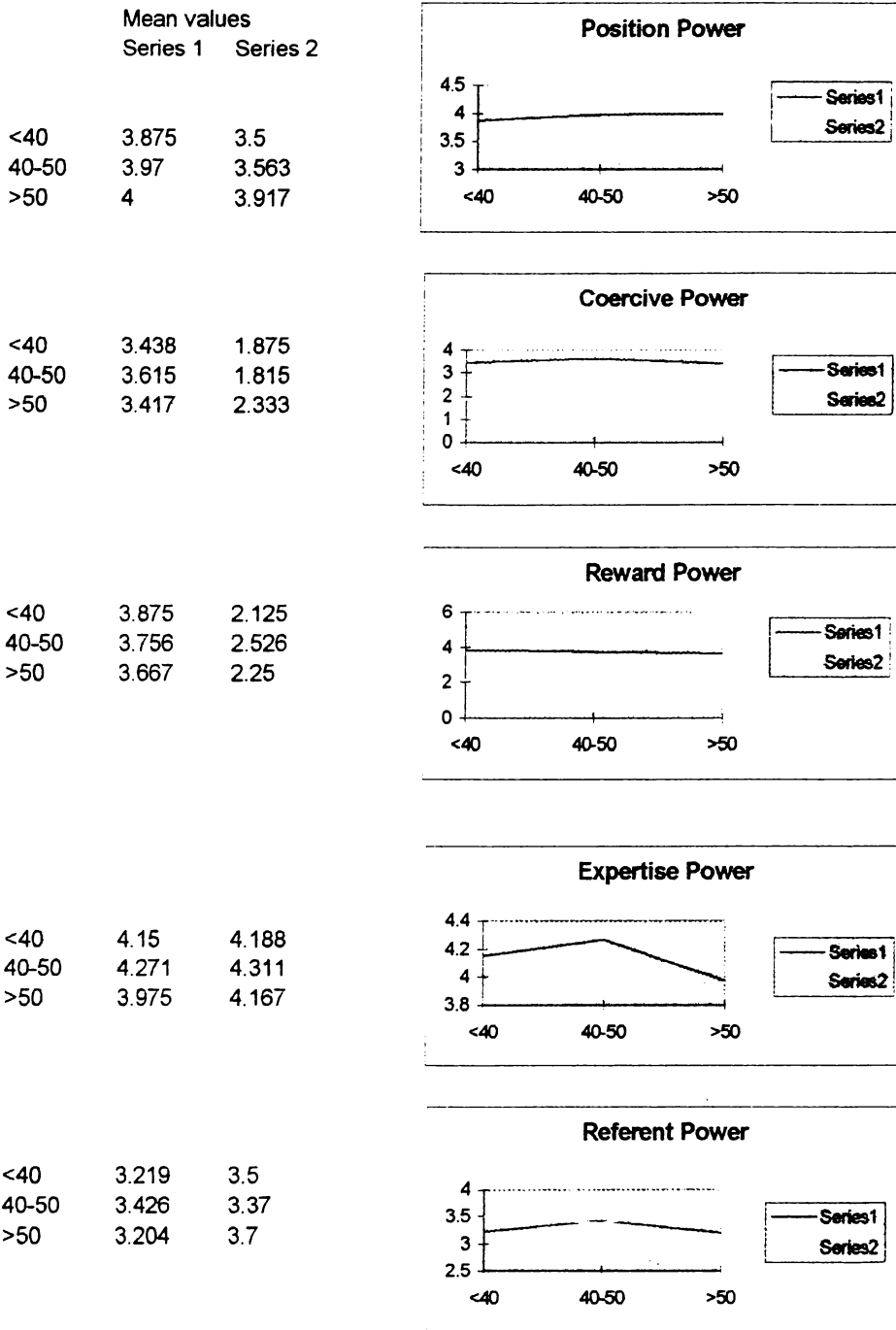


Fig 5.3.3 Trends of the Mean Scores of Managers' Power Bases across their Designations
 Series 1 - Managers' Appraisal; Series 2 - Subordinates' Appraisal

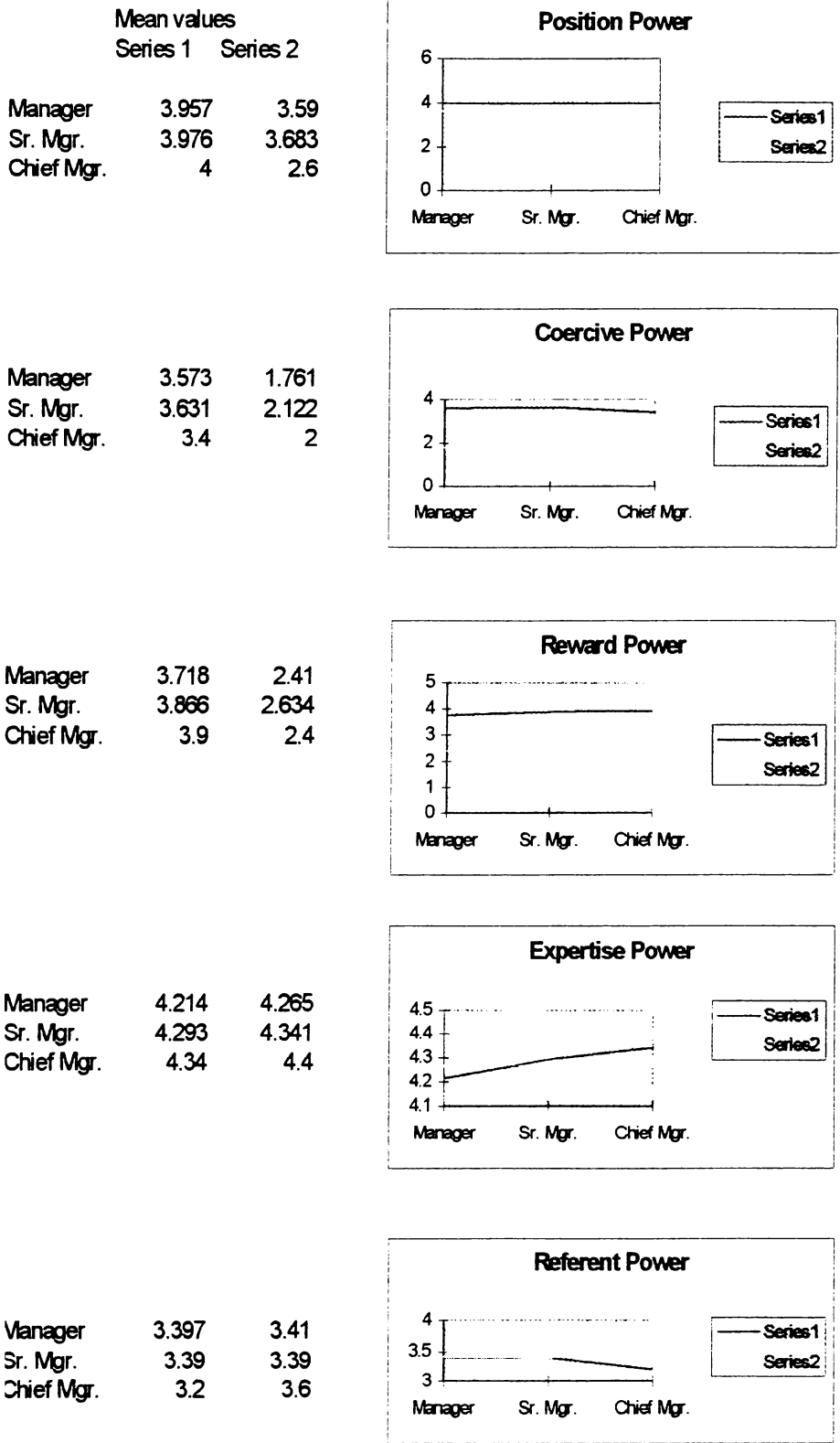


Fig. 5.3.4 Trends of the Mean Scores of Managers' Power Bases across their Tenure

Series 1 - Managers' Appraisal; Series 2 - Subordinates' Appraisal

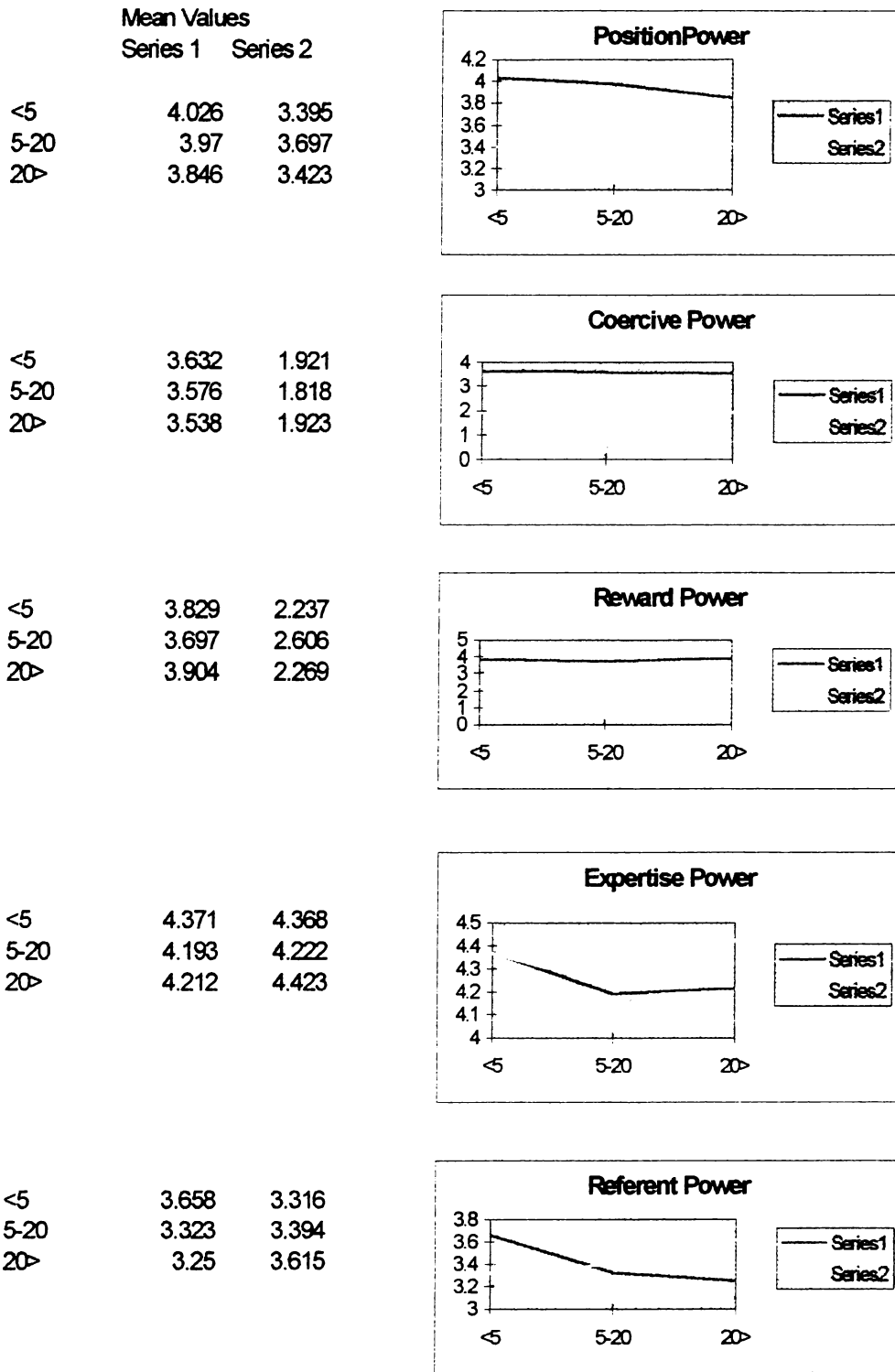
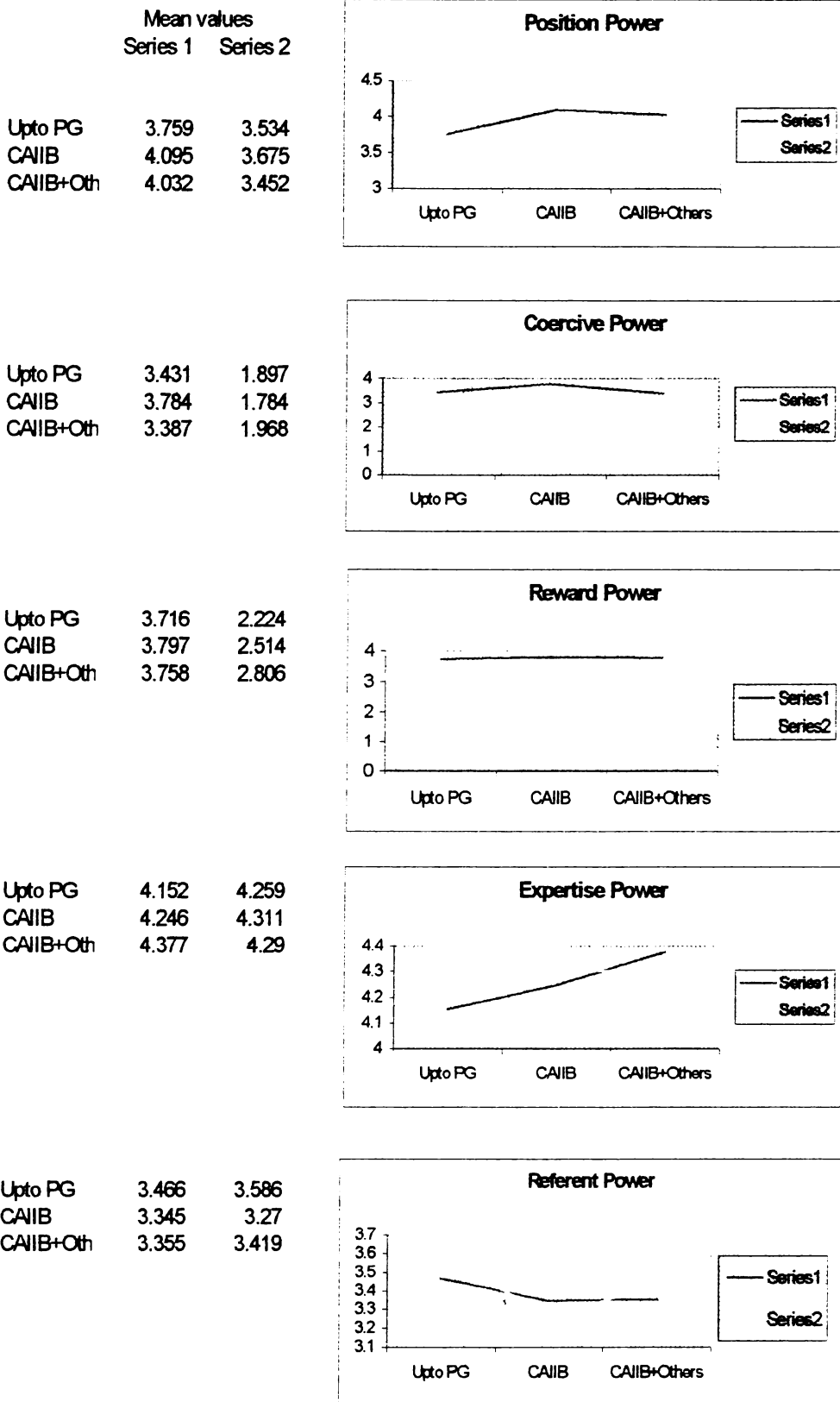


Fig. 5.3.5 Trends of the Mean Scores of Managers' Power Bases across their Educational Qualifications

Series 1 - Managers' Appraisal; Series 2 - Subordinates' Appraisal



designations. Figure 5.3.4 depicts the variations based on the managers' years of experience and figure 5.3.5 exhibits the change in power base scores contingent upon educational achievements of the managers.

The quantitative information shown along side each graph clarify the explanatory categories under each background variable with the corresponding mean scores based on which the curve for each group is drawn. Series 1 and Series 2 relate to the scores given by managers and subordinates respectively.

Figure 5.3.2. reveals that all managers, irrespective of their age, reported as having more command of position, coercive and reward bases and less of expertise and referent bases. Subordinates, in contrast to the claims of managers, attributed more expertise and referent bases to managers belonging to different age groups. The overall trend of the mean scores (Table 5.3.6) were positive for position power in the opinion of managers and negative in cases of all other power bases namely, coercive, reward, expertise, and referent bases. Subordinates, on the contrary, attributed a gradual rise in the position, coercive, reward and referent bases of managers and a decline in the expertise power of managers as they advance in age levels. Managers were of the opinion that there was a perceivable decline in their expertise and referent power bases once they crossed forty years of age. Subordinates, while agreeing with managers in their assessment of expert power, held a discordant view in cases of position, coercive and referent power bases of managers by projecting greater amounts of these powers to those above forty years.

Figure 5.3.3 conveys the changes in power bases of managers as a function of their designations namely, 'manager', 'senior manager' and 'chief manager'. Managers, irrespective of their designation differences, recorded almost the same levels of position power, coercive power and reward power with the trends imperceptibly positive for position and reward bases and minutely negative for coercive base. They claimed an increase in their expertise power commensurate with their designations, but acknowledged a decline in referent power.

Subordinates recognised only lower levels of position, coercive and reward powers to managers with the overall trend declining for position and reward powers, and an increasing trend for coercive power. They attributed higher levels of expertise and referent powers to managers than what was claimed by managers themselves. While managers and subordinates generally agreed on the absolute levels of expertise and referent power bases, the subordinates perceived relatively higher referent power for chief managers.

Table 5.3.6 Overall trends of the power bases of managers across personal and background variables

Background Variables and raters	Position Power	Coercive Power	Reward Power	Expertise Power	Referent Power
Age					
Managers	0.063	- 0.100	- 0.104	- 0.088	- 0.005
Subordinates	0.208	0.229	0.063	- 0.010	0.125
Designation					
Managers	0.021	- 0.086	0.091	0.063	- 0.099
Subordinates	- 0.495	0.120	- 0.005	0.068	0.095
Experience					
Managers	- 0.090	- 0.047	0.037	- 0.080	- 0.204
Subordinates	0.014	0.001	0.016	0.027	0.150
Education					
Managers	0.137	- 0.022	0.021	0.113	- 0.055
Subordinates	- 0.041	0.036	0.291	0.016	- 0.083

Attributions on managers' power bases collated according to the years of experience of managers have been shown by figure 5.3.4. Managers were classified into groups of 'less than 5 years', '5 - 20 years' and '20 years and more' depending on their completed years of service as branch managers in the present organisation. The mean values of power bases provided by managers and subordinates were severally obtained for each of the groups and plotted.

The graphs indicate that, on an average, managers claimed higher levels of position, coercive and reward powers and, subordinates conceded only remarkably lower degrees of the same powers at the disposal of their managers. Strikingly enough, subordinates attributed higher levels of expertise and referent

powers, especially for more experienced managers than what was claimed by managers for themselves.

The overall trends, as per table 5.3.6, registered negative slopes for managers' assessment of their position, coercive, expertise and referent powers and a very slight incremental slope for the reward power base. In contrast to this, subordinates' assessment of managers' power bases was all positively sloped, though minimal in all cases. The trends of assessments indicate that subordinates recognise and defer the experience of their managers and permit themselves to be influenced largely on account of their admiration for the possible maturity and insightfulness that managers hopefully acquire and demonstrate with increasing years of experience.

In a similar way, the separate graphs included in figure 5.3.5 give an account of the power bases of managers with differing educational achievements. Managers with higher academic and professional qualifications (CAIIB, MBA, LLB etc.) claimed an overall increase in position, reward and expertise powers commensurate with their achievements and admitted of relatively low levels of coercive and referent power bases irrespective of their educational achievements. Subordinates, while broadly agreeing with managers in their assessment of their bosses' reward, expertise and referent powers, maintained a divergent opinion on position and coercive power bases of managers.

Table 5.3.7 Power Bases as a function of certain socio-occupational background factors of managers

Position Power base of Managers						
Background Factors	N	Managers' Scores		Subordinates' assessment		t-values
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Social Background						
Rural	129	3.977	0.976	3.862	1.300	2.053*
Semi Urban	26	3.923	0.675	3.077	1.107	3.263**
Urban	08	3.875	0.599	3.625	1.218	0.487
Managerial Trg.						
Attended	147	3.966	0.943	3.605	1.291	2.728**
Not Attended	16	3.938	0.658	3.375	1.218	1.575
Recruitment						
Direct	66	4.091	0.773	3.303	1.392	3.990**
Promotion	97	3.876	0.997	3.773	1.171	0.656

Table 5.3.7 continuation.....

Background Factors	N	Managers' Scores		Subordinates' assessment		t-values
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Coercive Power base of Managers						
Social Background						
Rural	129	3.589	0.993	1.189	1.035	13.883**
Semi Urban	26	3.577	1.007	2.038	1.400	4.462**
Urban	08	3.500	0.500	1.750	0.661	5.586**
Managerial Trg.						
Attended	147	3.578	0.982	1.878	1.081	14.065**
Not Attended	16	3.625	0.927	1.688	1.158	5.058**
Recruitment						
Direct	66	3.591	0.852	1.909	1.190	9.266**
Promotion	97	3.577	1.054	1.825	1.015	11.731**
Reward Power base of Managers						
Social Background						
Rural	129	3.779	0.693	2.442	1.154	11.237**
Semi Urban	26	3.712	0.696	2.846	1.292	2.951**
Urban	08	3.625	0.696	1.625	0.696	5.376**
Managerial Trg.						
Attended	147	3.755	0.693	2.456	1.191	11.391**
Not Attended	16	3.813	0.704	2.563	1.116	3.668**
Recruitment						
Direct	66	3.750	0.724	2.470	1.158	7.556**
Promotion	97	3.768	0.674	2.464	1.202	9.271**
Expertise Power base of Managers						
Social Background						
Rural	129	4.244	0.706	4.202	0.918	0.410
Semi Urban	26	4.231	0.647	4.731	0.444	-3.186**
Urban	08	4.150	0.444	4.250	0.661	-0.332
Managerial Trg.						
Attended	147	4.253	0.674	4.265	0.868	-0.132
Not Attended	16	4.094	0.776	4.500	0.866	-1.352
Recruitment						
Direct	66	4.236	0.660	4.364	0.791	-1.602
Promotion	97	4.238	0.704	4.237	0.971	0.009
Referent Power base of Managers						
Social Background						
Rural	129	3.339	0.836	3.341	1.171	-0.016
Semi Urban	26	3.365	0.791	3.731	0.983	-1.450
Urban	08	3.313	0.827	3.500	1.000	-0.381
Managerial Trg.						
Attended	147	3.405	0.838	3.422	1.166	-0.143
Not attended	16	3.250	0.729	3.313	0.916	-0.208
Recruitment						
Direct	66	3.371	0.794	3.606	1.057	-1.433
Promotion	97	3.402	0.851	3.278	1.182	-0.834

* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; 2-tailed tests

Table 5.3.7 shows the position of managers with respect to their power bases measured against their social background, mode of recruitment and whether or not they have had attended any managerial training programme. It may be noted that as these three background variables were measured only at the nominal level no trend values were obtained and instead, the mean values were tested only for significant differences using t-test.

The mean values and t values established that the managers and subordinates differed significantly in their respective assessments of managers' power bases on many factors but quite strikingly in cases of coercive and reward powers of managers. In all the cases where significant differences between the respective means were noted, it was a common observation that the managers have claimed higher levels of the particular power base with subordinates awarding only lower levels. The only exception to this was the higher mean level of expertise power attributed by subordinates to managers with semi-urban social background.

To size up the influence of bio-social variables on the perceived power bases of managers, it could be stated that notwithstanding the overlapping and shifting trends of scores across the identified subcategories, managers maintained that they enjoyed higher levels and amounts of various power bases. Subordinates consistently acceded only much lesser leverages to managers in respect of their bases of power, all the more so with regard to coercive and reward bases. The only exception worth mentioning to this general observation was in the case of managers' expert power base where they were granted greater advantage, and to a limited extent, some added advantage in respect of their referent power base by the subordinates.

5.4 Power Styles of Managers

Researches on power styles used by organisational members to influence one another have focused on the agent of influence, particularly power holders. (Erez, Rim & Keider, 1986). Respondents in these studies were commonly asked to indicate the different power styles they used to influence others. It has also

been recognised that overall attitudes and behaviours of managers toward subordinates are functions of their attribution process. In a series of field and laboratory studies, Kipnis and others (Kipnis, 1972; Kipnis, Castell, Gergen & Mauch, 1976, Kipnis, Schmidt, Price & Still, 1981) concluded that as actual influence attempts increase, there arises a belief that the behaviour of others is not self-controlled, but is caused by the power holder. Thus power holder attributes to him/herself the control over the target person's behaviour. Such a belief leads power holders to exercise varying styles of influence and to view themselves more favourably than they view the target persons (Erez, Rim & Keider, 1986).

Definition of power as the ability to get results and the capacity to affect organisational outcomes emphasises the energy generating effects of power. Studies comparing various power styles have noted a variety of measures recurrently used by managers to exercise their power in carrying out their vision, build a commitment among others toward the pursuit of the vision and to energise members into action (Berlew, 1974; House, 1977; Pfeffer, 1981; Roberts, 1986). Furthermore, it has also been pointed out that coercive tactics are noticeable chiefly by their absence; instead, evidences converge on the frequent use of broadly problem solving and consensus approaches in exercising power (Patchen, 1974; Roberts, 1986). Research by Hinkin and Schriesheim (1990) showed that power styles of managers might be treated as independent of the extent of power wielded by them or their power bases in organisations, though they may be interrelated also. Yukl and Falbe (1990) suggested that managers use some combination of influence styles following a certain mix depending on situations and their individual preferences.

Reports on power dynamics in organisations have been relatively recent additions to management literature. The view that competitive power style of managers emerging from a normative imbalance or inequity between social actors in a relationship is the norm that tends to predominate with some key exceptions (Kanter, 1977; Mintzberg, 1983).

The traditional view holds that a manager has power over subordinates, and the interactions are characterised as competitive, controlling, directive and adversarial. Such transactions have little room for collective, consensus or co-operative approaches as exemplified in collective power styles where power is shared with others. This study takes the position that organisations are 'mixed motive' in nature (Kochan & Verma, 1983) - that is, participants share some common interests and have some conflicting interests as well. Since organisations are systems that create dependency, managers must necessarily take recourse to eliciting co-operation and integrating subordinates' activities to accomplish priorities and goals and, through this process, the organisation's mission. Based on what has been stated this far, and in the light of information available, the investigator has sought to explore and establish the relative importance attributed by the respondent managers to the six influencing styles of Integration, Consensus, Transaction, Pressure, Direction and Coercion. The first three belong to the collective power style category and the latter three falls into the competitive power style category utilised in general for affecting the behaviours of subordinates. These power styles have been suggested by Agarwal & Agrawal (1995).

Very few works have investigated the extent to which different power styles co-exist in organisations (Roberts, 1986). To what extent do managers resort to the different power styles? Does one type tend to pre-dominate? These are the dimensions actively pursued in this part as necessitated by the fourth specific objective of the study.

The managers' power style inventory developed by Agarwal and Agrawal (1995) was used to ascertain how the participating bank managers exercised power among their subordinates. The scale comprising six sub-scales, consisting of twenty eight statement items, was reportedly designed to measure both competitive and collective types of power styles. The inventory, at the time of actual administration to the respondents, was camouflaged by skipping its title and sub-titles in order to avoid cueing by the respondents. Respondents read sets of statements that reflected each style and marked on a seven-point response

format to indicate the degree of their concurrence with each statement item. The anchor points ranged between 'hardly agree' to 'strongly agree'. Respondents chose to record against each item to say whether the item was descriptive of their characteristic behaviour while interacting with subordinates, while initiating and activating them into action on work related matters. Data produced thus constituted managers' self-reports on the usefulness of styles included.

Results and Discussion:

Responses of managers toward statements on power styles were processed to obtain mean scores, standard deviations and extreme values in order to ascertain the relative importance of the styles as attributed by respondents in their day-to-day attempts to influence subordinates. Results summarised in Table 5.4.1 reveal that an integrative approach was the most preferred strategy of managers followed by consensus and directive power styles. Use of pressure tactics, though less frequent, was favoured by a sizeable number of managers; coercive style was the least preferred one. The transactional style, essentially involving an exchange of information or benefits for getting the work done was favoured by some of the respondent managers.

Table 5.4.1 Means, Standard deviations and score ranges for managers' preference for power styles used on subordinates.

Self assessment scores of branch managers				
Style	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum
Integrative Ps	5.14	0.91	1.63	7.00
Directive Ps	3.42	0.92	1.33	6.00
Consensus Ps	4.26	0.98	1.60	6.60
Pressurising Ps	2.56	0.94	1.00	6.00
Transactional Ps	3.03	1.02	1.00	5.67
Coercive Ps	2.46	0.89	1.00	6.00

Integrative and consensual power styles, the most popular among the managers according to their own appraisals, characteristically exuded a collective and co-operative orientation in exercising power over subordinates. These styles generally call for a joint problem-solving and participative decision-making to accomplish the group or, in the case of this study, the branch goals.

Integrative power style, the most prevalent among managers studied, seemingly energises organisational members to participate and thus become committed to the business and administrative targets of the branch as well as of the manager. The manager achieves these by appealing to them emotionally than through logical reasoning - a quality thought to be inherent in rational organisational settings. Generating enthusiasm in others for task accomplishment is the essence of getting the work done. Managers apparently attempt at developing the needed commitment and zeal in subordinates by trying to instil in them a vision of future possibilities by giving them a sense of mission and purpose in their work. Managers who predominantly follow this power style should naturally be adept at creatively using language and symbols. They should also be effective in forging strong bonds of identification between individual and other members in a group.

Consensus style, identified as the second most widely used way of exercising power by managers, centres around problem solving and decision-making techniques. Listening skills, acknowledgement of individual differences, utilisation of each member's resources and recognising their contributions, management of conflict and development of trust among people are all essential components of consensual approach in exercising power. When subordinates are allowed to take part in decision making, they assume responsibility, recognise legitimacy of manager's concerns, and search together for common goals and means to solve their problems and thus, work gets accomplished. In both integrative and consensus styles, subordinates join forces with others to achieve goals they cannot realise individually.

Directive, pressurising and coercive styles largely assume a competitive orientation in exercising managerial power (Roberts, 1986). In using these styles, manager anticipates facing resistance from subordinates in getting an expected outcome. A manager, using the directive style, gets work done through subordinates by working effectively behind the scenes. Sometimes they take appropriate actions without others being aware of what is happening, and so quietly and without fanfare, work can get done. They try creating a favourable

impression on others either by complementing them on their efforts and ideas, or presenting one's own work efforts as a model for others to follow. Giving praise and recognition given to subordinates for their efforts are all believed to be effective ways in eliciting goodwill and thereby getting the work completed.

While the directive power style rated as third important is rather covert and manipulative in essence, the pressurising and coercive approaches imply forcefulness and elements of threat, and subtle and timely expression of managerial dissatisfaction over the quality and quantity of tasks finished. Managers who preferred these styles to other ways of influencing subordinates gave only lesser ratings to such other styles as they firmly believe that work can also be accomplished by exerting pressure. Whether one issues directives, orders or makes demands, it is thought necessary to be forceful to get things done. These approaches emphasise the importance of reminding people of the potential loss of privileges to ensure that work is carried out. Pressurising and coercive styles call for clear statements of expectations and careful follow-up. Work gets done through monitoring and reviewing subordinates to ensure timely completion of tasks assigned to them.

Transactional power style, identified by managers as the fourth preferred approach in dealing with subordinates in job-related matters, can be either competitive or co-operative/collective, depending on the situation and the intention of the manager using it. Managers believing in this power style hold the notion that work gets accomplished by building contracts and a network of support for one's efforts. They believe that work is rarely achievable without the assistance of others. Sometimes appeals to reason, logic or emotions convince others to lend support. Other times, exchanging one's resources (time, reward, expertise, information etc.) for others' resources creates the basis for the transaction. Ultimately work gets done through a negotiation process whereby manager and subordinates exchange valued resources to one another in task accomplishment. Thus a certain amount of co-operation 'purchased' through an exchange of resources is the basis of transactional power style. Occasional reminders to subordinates about their duty to accomplish and the element of

bargaining that is implicit in transactional power style smacks of a psychological coercion that makes the style acquire a competitive coloration also.

The managers, as posited in the initial hypothesis under the fourth specific objective, used both collective and competitive styles in influencing subordinates for activating them for work. The data collected from the respondents established that integrative and consensus power styles which represent the collective power of all group members were the most widely used and the most useful means of exerting influence than the purely competitive ones like pressurising and coercive styles. The directive and transactional styles, which are, implicitly if not predominately, co-operation eliciting in nature were used by managers more frequently than evidently competitive power styles.

In the light of data obtained herein and the evidences presented, it may be surmised that in a banking organisation where accomplishment of goals depend on the support and goodwill of relatively educated subordinates who can affect the quality of services delivered in subtle and at times in profound ways, managers apparently rely more on collective power styles of integration and consensus. This does not preclude manifestation of competitive styles. In fact the particular styles used by managers to manifest their competitive power vary with situations and individuals. Managers, by and large, may not violate the consensual norms that prevail by using a more explicit competitive style, but instead choose directive and transactional power styles as more covert, subtle means of expressing their normative power in the hierarchy. The present set of findings, in addition to offering support to the study hypothesis that bank managers exercise a combination of collegial and competitive varieties of power styles while interacting with their subordinates, fall in line with the earlier positions held by Roberts (1986) and Agarwal & Agrawal (1995) on the use of power styles of managers in contemporary organisations.

Comparisons between the scores on various individual power styles revealed striking intercorrelations among them. Table 5.4.2 shows the results of zero-order correlations among the six power styles considered.

The correlation coefficients provided insights into the patterns of relationships that subsist among power styles used by managers in their attempts to influence the subordinates. The values also suggested that organisational relations be more often regulated by 'mixed motives' as held by Kochan & Verma (1987).

Table 5.4.2 Intercorrelation matrix of power styles used by managers

Styles	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Integrative Ps	1.000	0.435**	0.660**	0.073	0.399**	0.006
2. Directive Ps		1.000	0.455**	0.510**	0.607**	0.462**
3. Consensus Ps			1.000	0.191*	0.468**	0.135
4. Pressurising Ps				1.000	0.419**	0.404**
5. Transactional Ps					1.000	0.401**
6. Coercive Ps						1.000

N = 163; * p < 0.01; ** p < 0.001

The integrative power style while being correlated significantly with consensus, transactional and directive power styles ($p < 0.001$), had no relation with pressurising and coercive styles thereby explicitly suggesting the discriminant natures of collective and competitive groupings of power styles. Unlike the integrative approach, the directive power style was found to be supported by all other types of power styles. The correlation coefficient value was highest between directive and transactional styles indicating that use of directive style coupled with a tactical influence was productive of desired results.

Consensus power style was found to be moving in unison with pressure tactics ($p < 0.01$), and very significantly supported by transactional style ($p < 0.001$) which essentially centres around meaningful exchanges between the respondents and their subordinates aimed at making the latter duty bound. Transactional power style achieves this by explaining the logic and providing justification for targets and modalities for achieving them.

Pressure tactics of managers comprising forceful, verbal and other related exhortations demanding output was found to be significantly aided and abetted by transactional and coercive styles ($p < 0.001$). Managers who use the pressurising power style, besides forewarning subordinates about the baneful consequences of their failure to meet targets and deadlines, should also be

seeking their willing co-operation through confidence building attempts.

Transactional power style was very significantly correlated ($p < 0.001$) with coercive style as was its correlation with integrative and consensus power styles. This finding establishes the neutrality and mutuality of the transactional approach in that it can be fruitfully coupled with both collective as well as competitive approaches as warranted by the situation on hand.

The correlation values in the matrix, in sum and substance, highlighted the unrelatedness of the pure types of collective and competitive power styles in organisational settings. This is so because competitive styles of pressure and coercion may prove to be dysfunctional for managers who feel at home and subscribe to collegial values reflected in integrative and consensus power styles. Managers largely use collective power styles in conjunction with the directive and transactional influence that can lead to greater involvement of subordinates ensuring their participativeness in work-related decision making and implementation of task priorities.

Power Style, Power Base, and the Person.

It is likely and normal to think that the power style, power base and the pre-dominant personal characteristics interact to determine how much influence a manager earns over his subordinates (Yukl, 1981). The manager's choice of a power style can depend in part on how much of the various power bases he has garnered in the immediate work situation. A particular influence tactic or power style is unlikely to be utilised if it requires a power base that the manager has not nurtured. As an illustration, it may be thought that the transactional power style may not be used if the agent of influence has little expertise, information or positional legitimacy to offer rewards to the subordinates in exchange for what the manager requires of the latter. Similarly managers with substantial position power tend to prefer transactional style based on this power as compared to those with little of this power base.

The managers' choice of power style may also be a function of his personal characteristics or traits. Relevant personality dimensions considered in

the study were the visibility and credibility of managers.

The following analysis attempts to establish the linkages that exist between the power bases, visibility/credibility aspects of the managers and their preferred power styles while dealing with subordinates.

The relationships between all power bases and each of the six power styles were tested by a set of multiple regression analyses. For each power style, separate regression involving the five power bases were used. To simplify the analysis, assessment of managers' power bases by subordinates was eliminated. Results are summarised in table 5.4.3

The regression function involving the values of five different power bases, drawn from the assessments of managers, used as predictors in their choice of influence styles, were found to be assuming overall statistical significance in cases of only 'integrative' and 'pressurising' power styles. The percentage explanations accounted for by the explanatory variables were 7.6 and 10.3 respectively for the two mentioned power styles ($R^2 = 0.076$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.046$ for integrative Ps; and $R^2 = 0.103$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.075$ for pressurising Ps).

Overall, the stronger power base of reward power emerged relatively more material in deciding power styles of managers. Reward power was found to be a contributing factor in integrative, consensus and pressurising power styles. Managers' position power was contributing significantly in making them resort to pressurising power style. Other power bases of managers, because of multicollinearity due to the strong inter-correlations among themselves, failed to show any statistically significant impact on the choice managers' power styles.

The current analysis revealed that position and reward power bases provide added usefulness to managers in that these bases give them the leverage to impact upon subordinates. It may be noted that reward power, identified earlier by the respondent managers as an important power base at the unit level is a natural corollary of their legitimate power emanating from formal position they hold as the principal officer at the branch level. This power is directly derived from the managers' control over tangible benefits they can distribute to

Table 5.4.3 Multiple Regressions with power styles as dependent variables and the power bases of managers as explaining variables-managers' reports.

Power Styles	Multiple Regression Analysis results		
	Power Bases	B	Sig T
Integrative Ps	Expertise	0.018	0.897
	Coercive	0.013	0.863
	Position	0.020	0.817
	Referent	0.077	0.462
	Reward	0.277	0.037
	F = 2.568; Sig F = 0.029; R ² = 0.076; ΔR ² = 0.046		
Directive Ps	Expertise	- 0.049	0.741
	Coercive	0.122	0.121
	Position	- 0.103	0.252
	Referent	0.081	0.451
	Reward	0.065	0.639
	F = 0.877; Sig F = 0.498; R ² = 0.027; ΔR ² = 0.003		
Consensus Ps	Expertise	- 0.155	0.466
	Coercive	0.075	0.370
	Position	- 0.140	0.137
	Referent	0.120	0.297
	Reward	0.242	0.095
	F = 1.652; Sig F = 0.149; R ² = 0.049; ΔR ² = 0.020		
Pressurising Ps	Expertise	0.146	0.320
	Coercive	0.125	0.108
	Position	- 0.315	0.000
	Referent	0.107	0.315
	Reward	- 0.259	0.055
	F = 3.637; Sig F = 0.003; R ² = 0.103; ΔR ² = 0.075		
Transactional Ps	Expertise	- 0.041	0.803
	Coercive	0.162	0.062
	Position	- 0.183	0.062
	Referent	0.024	0.834
	Reward	0.193	0.200
	F = 1.604; Sig F = 0.162; R ² = 0.049; ΔR ² = 0.018		
Coercive Ps	Expertise	- 0.183	0.205
	Coercive	0.066	0.390
	Position	- 0.094	0.276
	Referent	0.039	0.707
	Reward	- 0.009	0.946
	F = 1.058; Sig F = 0.386; R ² = 0.033; ΔR ² = 0.002		

subordinates in the form of positive remarks in the performance appraisals, recommendations, assigning of easier and better work stations, convenient work schedules and personal concessions among other things. The extent of a manager's authority and discretion to allocate rewards to subordinates offers

sufficient advantage in exercising power in behavioural terms also. This research indicates that power stemming from formal authority and its attendant prerogatives along with the ability of managers to trade favours are important organisational resources needed in attempting to influence the thoughts and actions of members in one's work group. It has also been indicated that managers use tactics of influence reflecting their power over the subordinates.

The metamorphic effect of power is reflected in relationships between the stronger bases of position and reward powers and the power styles used by managers. Basically influence tactics of integration, pressurising and transaction are used for reasons indicating managers' power over the subordinate's behaviour, reflecting assertiveness from their perspective, and rationality and exchange from the perspective of subordinates. The managers' choice of power styles that depend on stronger power bases of position and reward may also be thought of as a reflection of the labour-management power struggle that prevails in the bank between the management and the well-organised trade union that covers almost all subordinate staff in the organisation.

The analysis of data on power styles/influence tactics so far has suggested that a manager exerting or trying to exert influence through some of his preferred styles depend on his organisational power bases. Even with these matters evident, the literature available does not contain any answer to the question as to whether the exercise of any type of influence tactic is affected by the personal properties of visibility and credibility that a manager has acquired and exudes in his organisation. Unfortunately there has been no previous research, so far as the understanding goes, on this issue. The link between these personal resources on the one hand, and the choice of certain power styles on the other, by the managers, is being explored herein.

In converting a power base into a means of influence, the personality dimensions of the agent may be thought to be of some significance. Though an agent's ability to influence may rest largely on organisational and contextual resources he can muster and manipulate, influence can occur prior to any actual usage of such resources. Mere stature of the agent, or his promise to give some

thing of value to others, or the extent of honour and confidence others attach to his words and actions, would suffice to bring about the desired influence. In other words, a manager's upfrontness or his reputation for trustworthiness can obviate deliberate use of any stronger power base. These properties or reputation can also serve to enhance the instrumental value of different power styles actually engaged. It seems likely that the perceived visibility and credibility of managers contributes to their self-confidence, which in turn affects their choice of power styles.

Table 5.4.4 reveals the effect of manager's subjective assessment of their own visibility and credibility levels in the organisation on their preference for each of the six power styles considered.

Given the finding that both competitive and collective power styles are in use among the managers studied, the attempt further was to explore which personality dimension promoted and facilitated the exercise of one type of power style rather than the other. The t-test values reported reveals significant differences in the frequency of using four specific power styles with respect to the personality factors considered. The visibility and credibility levels of managers considerably affected the use of various power styles on subordinates.

Managers with higher visibility levels reported that they could more frequently use the collective styles of integration ($p = 0.000$) and consensus ($p = 0.005$) and the competitive style of direction ($p = 0.003$) as compared to those with lesser visibility. More or less similar pattern was revealed in the case of credibility also. Managers with high credibility reported significantly greater usage of the integrative ($p = 0.000$) and consensus power ($p = 0.004$) styles from the collective category and, the directive style ($p = 0.002$) from the competitive typology.

The contrast between visible and credible managers converged on the usage of transactional power style. While credibility was found to be remarkably affecting the use of transactional power style ($p = 0.028$), visibility differences was not convincingly affecting the use of this particular style ($p = 0.092$). Managers with higher credibility were found to be more adept at using the

transactional power style than those who were categorised as less credible. Further indication was that differences in visibility and credibility traits have had no bearing on the use of pressurising and coercive power styles.

The analysis of the implications of visibility and credibility dimensions reveal that either of these personality traits of managers can support both Table

5.4.4 Effect of visibility and credibility on managers' preference for power styles - managers' reports.

Explanatory Variations	Power styles	Effect variable scores - manager's reports			
		Mean scores	Std. error	t- value	2-tail prob.
Visibility Low High	Integrative Ps.	39.795	0.647	-3.91	0.000*
		44.522	1.021		
Credibility Low High	Integrative Ps.	36.122	1.124	-5.27	0.000*
		42.812	0.590		
Visibility Low High	Directive Ps.	19.752	0.515	-3.10	0.003*
		22.522	0.731		
Credibility Low High	Directive Ps.	18.195	0.835	-3.23	0.002*
		21.320	0.488		
Visibility Low High	Consensus Ps.	20.633	0.445	-2.88	0.005*
		23.044	0.709		
Credibility Low High	Consensus Ps.	19.293	0.795	-2.99	0.004*
		21.992	0.425		
Visibility Low High	Pressurising Ps.	7.598	0.273	-0.54	0.590
		7.848	0.372		
Credibility Low High	Presurising Ps.	8.024	0.519	0.83	0.409
		7.549	0.240		
Visibility Low High	Transactional Ps.	8.838	0.278	-1.70	0.092
		9.761	0.465		
Credibility Low High	Transactional Ps.	8.220	0.444	-2.24	0.028*
		9.393	0.280		
Visibility Low High	Coercive Ps.	7.162	0.240	-1.50	0.137
		7.891	0.421		
Credibility Low High	Coercive Ps.	6.781	0.440	-1.57	0.121
		7.566	0.237		

* Significant differences between means established.

Number of cases in explanatory groups : Low Visibility = 117; High Visibility = 46;
Low Credibility = 41; High Credibility = 122.

competitive and collective orientations in their influence behaviours with subordinates, depending on their intentions at any given point of time. It may be surmised that in organisations like commercial banks where target norms largely pre-dominate, managers rely more on the co-operation of subordinates for desired transactions to occur. But instilling competition through power styles of direction and pressurising can also drive subordinates into preferred actions so far as they yearn for scarce organisational resources and advantages. Managers, swayed by compulsions of their power bases and personality resources, reported using both collective and competitive power styles. These findings have much in common with those of earlier researches on bargaining and negotiating which also reflected this dual perspective (Bacharach & Lawler, 1981; Bazerman & Lewicki, 1983).

Attempts to understand whether the managers' preference for any particular power style was directly contingent on their socio-demographic backgrounds proved futile as none of the parametric/non-parametric tests for possible associations between these variables could achieve statistical significance of 5%. Hence the results of such statistical analysis have been left out from these pages.

Data and discussions so far has led to interesting insights and caveats on four factors of a very decisive and effervescent quality expected of managers in organisations namely, their power and influence over subordinates. This study has been able to dissect the seemingly whimsical but ubiquitous reality of power in organisations. The divergent angles from which the study took its perspectives on the power profile of managers has served to shed light on power differentials, power bases, power styles and the visibility/credibility portfolios of managers. It could also be shown that power in itself is critical in defining what managers can, hope for, look forward to and, aspire to be able to do in their work settings. The task that remains to be addressed at this juncture is to unearth the relationship between managerial effectiveness and the power profile aspects. Does the power profile of managers explain their effectiveness? Do power bases, power styles

and the personality portfolios differentiate the more effective from the less effective managers? Having finished the initial stage, the research agenda now unfolds into its fuller and more promising realms.

CHAPTER SIX

MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS

and

POWER IN USE

The phenomenon of power of managers was of interest in this study for its instrumental and interpretative value in explicating the effectiveness of a group of bank managers. In the preceding chapters attempts were made to gain an understanding of the relative power position of managers over their subordinates, the foundations for the managerial power to roost, and the tactics by which it is profitably employed. The study also explored whether the personal attributes of visibility and credibility of managers donate to decide their absolute and relative power.

It is time now to consider and review evidences to establish the suggested implications, if any, of the power profile of managers for their effectiveness.

6.1 Managerial Effectiveness

The overall responsibility of managers may be taken to be the attainment of desired purposes of an organisation, for the realisation of aims and objectives would define the success of its managers that in turn would decide the survival of the organisation. There is a clear and urgent need for effective managers in all kinds of corporate mechanisms. Irrespective of the nature and typology of organisations, the effectiveness of its managers has always been an elusive concept to be assessed and ascertained.

Managerial effectiveness has been viewed differently by authors and researchers. Regardless of the variations in the conceptualisations of the construct, one can say with certainty that in order to be effective, a manager must give attention to obtaining best possible results in the 'key result areas' by optimising the use of resources for increasing profitability, and accomplishing tangible and intangible pursuits of the organisation.

Effectiveness of managers must be assessed in relation to the achievement of some stated purpose, execution of work involved and performance of the process of management. Criteria for assessing effectiveness of the respondent managers therefore included primarily measures that indicated key results they were expected to achieve. The manner in which managers achieved the results and

how they affected their subordinates were also treated to be material and incorporated. Managerial effectiveness, for the current purposes, was thought to be a combination of such dimensions in a manager's job as meeting the demands of the assigned output goals including business targets, skilful in-house administration of the respective branch office, and the perceivable abilities of the manager to satisfy and live up to some of the prominent on-the-job expectations and requirements.

As managers were found to display differing qualities and varying styles in exercising their power, it becomes apposite to fathom the extent to which each of the power profile factors account for the differences in their effectiveness in as much as it is borne out in terms of a manager's facilitation of a group's or work unit's capacity to meet targets. The specific concerns addressed in this chapter are to understand whether managers vary in their effectiveness levels and whether their power profile factors operate to entail differences in their effectiveness. Such analyses are warranted by the sixth and seventh specific objectives of the study.

The issue of how leaders' effectiveness must be assessed has been dealt with, in some detail, by some organisational psychologists (Bass, 1990; Hunt, 1991; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). In most such discussions, effectiveness of leaders was considered an issue of considerable complexity in and of itself. However there is some common thinking that effective leaders and managers facilitate the ability of a group or work unit to meet its goals and maintain itself over time. Therefore the effectiveness of managers, for the purposes on hand, was taken to be an outcome of their behaviours than of a particular behaviour or a particular of behaviour itself. Although there is no single method for assessing the outcome that is free of hazards, a number of measures were resorted to for obtaining relevant information. Indeed most organisational experts seem to advocate multiple criteria to assess managerial effectiveness. Reflecting this view point, managerial effectiveness for the present has been measured using multiple criteria blending the formally acknowledged measures or scores on such parameters that reflect a manager's achievement of business goals and targets, scores that mirror the manager's ability

in matters relating directly to the in-house administration of the respective branch office, and evaluative ratings about manager's on-the-job performances and activities. The evaluative ratings comprised both managers' self-ratings and the subordinates' inverted ratings about the same set of factors indicative of the managers' ability to perform their role activities. The plebian criticism that people in subordinate positions are likely to provide biased judgements about a manager's activities and effectiveness has been jettisoned for the convincing evidences available to show that perception of effectiveness are consensual and, on the whole, moderately accurate (Malloy & Janowski, 1992). The use of multiple methods eliciting data from multiple sources on multiple dimensions of the construct may be considered a strength of the present attempt. Furthermore, the present investigation, unlike some others, focused on managers occupying the same managerial roles at the work unit level namely, that of the principal officer of the bank's branches.

The respondents, over-representing males, were evaluated by superiors on a variety of reference points out of which selected items of information relating to business goals achievements and branch administration were used along with the managers' self-evaluation and the evaluation by subordinates across thirty four items related to the managers' abilities on fourteen distinct on-the-job activities.

Superiors' formal and official appraisals of the managers' effectiveness on identified performance criteria encompassing business goal accomplishments and quality of in-house administration of the respective branches were made available by the banks' authorities. The database for official evaluation of managers' effectiveness was thus secondary in nature.

The parameters considered for the assessment of managers with respect to their ability for achieving business goals centred around two core competencies expected of any contemporary bank manager namely a) meeting quarterly deposit targets and b) meeting annual advance targets, both for a period of two immediately preceding years.

The effectiveness indicators adjudged for assessing the quality of office

administration included a) credit management attempts comprising post-credit follow up, renewal of credit limits and documentations, b) control and audit aspects subsuming submission of progress reports and returns, rectification of inspection irregularities, extent of housekeeping borne out by balancing of books and accounts, and quality of customer service. The scores for each of the above were obtained in percentage terms. Any achievements beyond the official targets specified for any particular time period has been treated as cent percent and the maximum score possible for the item of information was accorded.

The behavioural dimension of managerial effectiveness evaluated using rating scales administered on respondent managers to obtain their self-rating, and the senior most clerk in the branch to generate collective evaluation of the manager by the subordinates, were scored on a seven point continuum with anchor points ranging between a minimum of one (1) and a maximum of seven (7). The tools touched upon fourteen dimensions of decision making, planning and organising the work of the unit, displaying technical competence by the manager, maintaining quality of work, directing the efforts of subordinates, controlling operating costs, establishing and maintaining relationships with people, meeting work schedules, problem handling, ensuring intra-unit communication, developing new ideas, carrying out responsibilities and the overall effectiveness.

The scores were dealt with separately to chart out the effectiveness levels of the respondents on each of the criterion elements and were later collated with differential weights to arrive at the overall scores of effectiveness of each individual respondent manager. This was needed for exploring statistically the contribution of power profile variables into the effectiveness of managers.

The official evaluations delineating the quantifiable measures of business goals' achievement and branch administration was given a weight of 0.67 and the managers' self-rating averaged with the subordinates' evaluation of the formers' abilities for various on-the-job activities were factored with a loading of 0.33. Thus the overall effectiveness score of every manager was computed relative to a maximum score of 100 for the purposes of final analysis as required under the

seventh objective of the study.

Accomplishment of Management Output Goals

Consonant with the operational definition adopted and that has already been stated, managerial effectiveness as explored herein integrates two strands of evaluation for each and every respondent manager. These are the extent of business goals' achievement within a stipulated time frame and effectiveness in terms of in-house administration by the manager at the branch level. Peter Drucker, as early as in 1961, had indicated 'meeting higher standards' to be central in managers' effectiveness. Others also have emphasised the accomplishment of business goals and administration outputs as measures of managerial effectiveness (Guion, 1965; Reddin, 1974; Pripariya, Ram & Dutt, 1977).

Results and Discussion:

The concept of business goals, commonly referred to as performance budgets in the banking parlance, involves primarily deposits and advances planning and is central in the management of a bank's branch. Any realistic appreciation of the same centres around the extent to which a principal officer achieves these output requirements. Thus effectiveness has been measured, for the purposes of the present, by what a manager could produce within a given situation by managing it appropriately. Every manager has assigned standards or targets for both deposits and advances associated with the position. These are benchmarks by which a manager in the job may be judged. These standards have been used as reference points in assessing the effectiveness for the true reason that presumably these targets have been realistically investigated, forecasted, planned, discussed and ultimately agreed on by the manager himself and his superior namely, the regional manager.

Performance budgeting, normally done for an year, is supposed to be part and parcel of long-range corporate planning, is based on the foundations of corporate guidelines, past trends, earlier performance of the branch and the

potential in the command area of operations of the branch. The manager and his superior, while deciding on deposit or credit targets as part of the performance budgeting, take into cognisance various factors like competition from other banks, financing agencies, mutual fund schemes, government securities, stage of capital market formation, composition of business mix comprising industry, trade, agriculture, export and other service sectors. Composition of customer mix represented by entrepreneurs, agriculturists, traders, professionals, retired persons, religious bodies and the like in addition to developmental activities undertaken by various governmental and voluntary organisations, political scenario, weather and climatic conditions etc. are also supposed to be included in their environmental scanning exercise.

DEPOSIT MARKETING AND CUSTOMER SERVICE

Meeting quarterly targets in mobilisation of deposits was considered significant and preferred to actualisation of annualised targets for the functional value of the former in reflecting consistency of the manager in achieving the expectations. For a bank manager his accomplishments in mobilising credit resources at a lower rate of cost to be deployed in areas which would yield higher returns is one of the touchstones of his effectiveness. This is so as the deposit mobilisation programme is an advanced concept employing the marketing notions in modern banking. The marketing for deposit approach calls for dynamic and aggressive attempts from the branch manager as different from the earlier passive concept of deposit collection at the branch. The manager, almost as a dictum, strives to achieve and exceed the target fixed for each quarter. An effective manager, committed to his role, rises to the challenges posed by unfriendly environs and performs beyond and above the targets fixed.

Quite often in branches, though realisation of deposit resource targets is the responsibility of the principal officer, involvement of non-managerial and subordinate staff is pivotal in the process. A manager who influences the subordinates can ensure customer satisfaction arising directly from the quality of

services in delivering the product mix. The essentials of good delivery system in banks such as speed, accuracy, timeliness, courtesy, concern to clients and overall operating efficiency are all unachievable without the willing co-operation of subordinates. The achievement of deposit targets by a manager thus seems to be heavily dependent on the quality of customer service provided at the bank counter.

The two parameters of credit resources acquisition namely, achievement of quarterly deposit targets and quality of customer service were looked into and the managers' effectiveness as reflected by these two identifiable, but interrelated aspects, in percentage terms, have been shown in Table 6.1.1.

Table 6.1.1 Managers' percentage achievement of Quarterly Deposit Targets and Quality of Customer Service

Percent of Achievement	Quarterly Deposit Targets (DQT)			Customer service (CS)		
	Freq.	Rel. Freq.	Cum. Percent	Freq.	Rel. Freq.	Cum. Percent
up to 50%	92	0.564	56.40	04	0.025	2.50
50 to 60%	30	0.184	74.80	41	0.252	25.20
60 to 80%	08	0.049	79.70	88	0.540	81.60
80 to 100%	33	0.203	100.00	30	0.184	100.00
Max. Score	15.0			10.0		
Min. Score	0.0			0.0		
Mean Score	7.167			6.0		
Std. Dev.	3.755			1.081		
Std. Error	0.294			0.085		

Coefficient of Correlation between DQT and CS = - 0.008; p = 0.921

Data presented in Table 6.1.1 relate to the official evaluation of the parameters covering an adequately long period of two consecutive business years for each and every manager. In the case of those respondents who had completed only one year in any given branch, information relating to them from their previous branches was reached out to ensure standardisation of the time frame specification of two consecutive years. The time period of two years was counted prior to March 31, 1996.

Data revealed that more than half of the managers could achieve only 50%

of scores meant for the achievement of quarterly targets as they failed to meet two quarterly targets in the immediate preceding year. Almost 18% of them managed to achieve three quarterly targets during the same period and thereby came to be eligible for scores between 50 and 60 percent. A small portion 4.90% managed to satisfy all the four quarterly targets in the preceding year but could not achieve the same result in the previous year whereas one fifth (20%) of the respondents were productive throughout in meeting the assigned targets for all the eight quarters during the period of evaluation covering two consecutive financial years and earned scores ranging between 80 and 100 percent. In terms of the deposit marketing component of the performance criterion, these twenty percent of managers could be regarded as most effective for not only achieving the targets but as well for being consistent in achieving more than satisfactory results throughout the period.

In order to make the picture clearer, the extent of customer service rendered at the branch where a respondent manager occupies the role of principal officer was also probed. It was found that three fourths (75%) of them could succeed in ensuring more than satisfactory levels of service to the customers. 54% of managers was rated between 60 to 80% with the customer service at their branches being rated as good. While 18% of the respondents were appreciated for exceptionally good customer service, 25% of them was underappreciated for making only satisfactory or less than satisfactory levels of customer service.

The dependency between the extent of deposit accretion and the quality of customer service offered under the supervision and control of a manager being important, their scores on these two criteria were paired and checked for covariation. The result revealed that those who scored high on one of the criteria did not necessarily score correspondingly on the other ($r = - 0.008$; $p = 0.921$) hinting at an absence of concerted attempt on the part of managers to improve the quality of customer service. The result highlights the onerous task of managers to address and ameliorate the probable dissatisfactions of their valued customers through prompt and improved services. Given the hierarchical set up at a bank

branch, no other level is more influential and better placed to look into this qualitative aspect of the branch's functioning than the manager himself (Ghoshroy, 1991). A branch manager thus has to be alive to this ingredient of his role which has some material bearing on the fruition of his efforts aimed at deposit build-up at his branch.

ADVANCE OUTLAYS

Credit portfolio, more popularly known as advance or loan outlay is essentially the channelling of available loanable funds to preferred sectors in accordance with the guidelines without sacrificing the profitability of the bank. Profitability is the main concern of any business and banking is no exception. Profit for the institution, where the managers covered in this study work, comes from good advances. A manager has the task of identifying good customers, appraising their credit needs correctly, ascertaining their credit worthiness and sanctioning credit to them. When it comes to the granting of credit, even today banks are in the sellers' market and realising advance target as such is not a difficult task for an indiscriminate manager. But the threat of these credit accounts becoming non-performing assets (NPA) in future makes the managers cautious in extending credit. Good advances that fulfil the purpose of streamlining fruitful deployment of the bank's resources necessitate the managers to seek the right customer and offer him the right amount in the right mix and, at the right time. Development of a prudent credit dispensation mechanism ensuring safety and security of the funds deployed forms the essence of a bank managers' performance and hence included as a criterion of managerial effectiveness in this study.

Good advances are, in real terms, the assets created by a manager in any finance lending institution affecting directly its long-term profits, further generation of resources, survival and gradual growth.

Data were collected on the managers' realisation of annual advance targets in order to comprehend more fully their achievements with regard to the business goals of their position as bank managers. Table 6.1.2 offers an appreciation of the

same in percentage terms with proportions of managers falling in each category along with other composite indicators.

Table 6.1.2 Managers' achievement of Annual Advance Targets. (AAT)

Percent of Achievement	Freq.	Rel. Freq.	Cum. Percent	Overall scores		
				Mean*	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
up to 50%	109	0.669	66.90			
50 to 60%	25	0.153	82.20			
60 to 80%	28	0.172	99.40	5.754	2.742	0.215
80 to 100%	01	0.006	100.00			

* The scores ranged between minimum value of zero and a maximum of fifteen.

Information provided reveals the extreme caution characteristically exercised by respondents in the deployment of loans. Only one manager could achieve the specified targets for the entire two-year period. While 28 managers (17.2%) could realise the targets for the immediate preceding year, they failed to meet the target for the previous year. Vast majority of 66.9% failed in their task of achieving the targets during the past two years and, 15.3% managers failed to achieve the targets during the immediate preceding year but managed to achieve the same in the previous year.

The distribution of data seems to suggest the difficulty involved in taking lending decisions. 99.4% of managers who failed to achieve the targets for entire two-year period of evaluation may have had experience in lending money in their previous assignment in the bank. But their present role as principal officers seems to have driven home a different connotation where they have become fearfully responsible for the leading activity. Advance dispensation decisions are not easy because a single mistake can cause several sleepless nights for the manager and, if the amount involved is large, he may have to live with it in his entire future career. Managers have, therefore, been more on the defensive and have chosen to protect their career, their personal life and estates rather than testing and proving their organisational savvy.

In - house Administration

The second major strand thought to be contributing towards the accomplishment of management results, along with the achievement of business goals in terms of deposit accretion and advance dispensation, is the extent of achievement in matters of branch administration. The following paragraphs present the effectiveness of managers as regards the administrative attributes such as:

- a) Credit management attempts of the manager through post-credit follow up, renewal of limits and documentation;
- b) Internal audit and control achieved at the branch through submission of reports and returns; rectification of inspection irregularities; and
- c) Branch housekeeping assessed by looking primarily at balancing of books and accounts.

CREDIT MANAGEMENT

It is imperative on all branch managers of a bank to exercise prudence and proper care in handling the advances portfolio irrespective of whether an advance was sanctioned by him, his predecessor, any other delegated authority at the branch or by a higher authority. A branch manager is expected to conduct his advances in a safe and conservative way and to monitor them judiciously to save the bank from any accrual of non-performing or bad accounts. It is his intimate knowledge and follow-up of the customer and supervision of the securities charged to the bank that leads to effective control of advances.

Credit management functions of a bank manager boil down to keeping the accounts as performing assets. This include maintaining the advance related documents legally alive, ensuring quality of assets acquired by the borrower using the borrowed funds, ensuring appropriate end-use of funds by preventing diversion of the same to other purposes, periodic stock inspection, reviewing of book debts on the basis of age factor, maintaining insurance policies and other related documents current and promoting a warm relationship with the borrower.

The activity of credit management, diverse and multifarious in nature,

needs the unreserved support of other officers and subordinates in the functional unit of the manager. The subordinates' co-operation and allegiance to the manager emanating from the latter's influence over them get expressed in the form of their identification of incipient sickness of a borrower's business, providing alarm signals to the manager in the event of a failure of the loanee in submitting returns or reports, dishonouring of cheques issued by the borrower, larger financial transactions with parties other than the borrower's known customers and suppliers, and cash withdrawals in large and round sums. These will serve to advise the manager to keep vigil on the health of an advance account and initiate remedial action at the most appropriate point of time.

Table 6.1.3 summarises the scores granted by the official evaluators of the bank on the branch administration activities of the respondents. The scores on credit management incorporate the performance of managers on post-credit follow up, renewal of limits and documentation.

The scores of managers on credit management reflect the general concern of the bank managers in maintaining the quality of advances. 30% of them has been rated as exceptionally good in this aspect of their branch administration and hence effective in contributing to the larger organisational goal of profitability and growth. About 18% of the branch managers, at the same time, seem to be indifferent towards this important task incorporated into their role. Though the quality of advance of a branch indicates the overall branch efficiency, it need not reflect to the fullest extent the administrative ability of an individual manager who might have inherited a bad loan portfolio. Those managers who score only less than 50% appreciation in terms of the factor might contend that effectiveness vis-à-vis credit management is measurable only for loans granted by themselves and the state of account - recovery, utilisation of funds, documentation - can be considered only for a definite period after granting the advance, that is, during the tenure of the manager who granted it.

**Table 6.1.3 Official evaluation of managers on their in-house branch
administration effectiveness (in percentage terms)**

Percent of Achievemnt	Freq.	Rel. Freq.	Cum. Percent	Overall Scores		
				Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error
Credit Management (CM)						
Satisfactory (up to 50%)	29	0.178	17.8	2.999	0.885	0.069
Good (50-60%)	37	0.227	40.5			
Very Good (60-80%)	48	0.294	69.9			
Exceptional (80-100%)	49	0.301	100.0			
Submission of Reports & Returns (SR)						
Satisfactory (50-70%)	61	0.374	37.4	2.559	1.106	0.087
Good (70-75%)	50	0.307	68.1			
Very Good (75-80%)	11	0.067	74.8			
Exceptional (above 80%)	41	0.252	100.0			
Rectification of Inspection Irregularities (RI)						
Satisfactory (50-70%)	53	0.325	32.5	5.184	2.076	0.163
Good (70-75%)	54	0.331	65.6			
Very Good (75-80%)	21	0.129	78.5			
Exceptional (above 80%)	35	0.215	100.0			
Housekeeping (HK)						
Arrears for 3 months	24	0.147	14.7	7.215	2.031	0.159
Arrears for 2 months	09	0.055	20.2			
Arrears for one month	15	0.092	29.4			
Up-to-date	115	0.706	100.0			

Figures in bracket show the range of minimum and maximum values possible in the case of the respective factor.

But the factor has been included here for the explicit and official position that managers who come in later may also take interest in the advance accounts as is expected of the manager who sanctioned it.

SUBMISSION OF RETURNS AND REPORTS

Various returns and statements, the integral elements of internal control and housekeeping mechanism at the branch level, are drawn up regularly with the purpose of keeping the top management informed of the developments at the branches. These statements provide information as to whether the branches and the functionaries conform to various instructions and guidelines. The periodicity of these statements and reports vary from daily to weekly, fortnightly, monthly, quarterly, half yearly and annual. They serve to install an integrated management review system that helps in comparing the actuals with the planned performance. They also help in initiating steps to correct any significant and untoward deviation from the plans, in the absence of which the management will be totally in the dark on various parameters of branch functioning such as deposit growth, credit deployment, forex turnover, profitability, housekeeping, supervision of credit portfolio, branch maintenance, staff administration and customer service.

While most of the daily statements are meant to apprise the management on actions of branch functionaries to see whether they exceed the delegated powers, the weekly and fortnightly returns are mainly intended to shed light on the assets and liability positions of the branch to enable credit and investment decisions.

Monthly and quarterly statements largely pertain to category wise information on deposits and advance accounts with classified information on sector wise deployment of credit and deposit mix. Also they serve to ensure compliance with head office and RBI directives and instructions.

Half yearly and annual reports and returns are tools by which the top management evaluates the performance of the branch and its manager on various fronts like housekeeping, growth along budgeted lines, profitability, staff accountability, and human resources functions including identification of training needs and transfer, besides the annual performance appraisals.

The subordinate officers and bank staff have a crucial role in preparing and consolidating the data to be furnished through the reports, returns and statements.

The manager achieves this by making them interested and integrating them through appropriate work allotments. The prompt submission of reports and statements is a reliable indication of the true team spirit prevailing in the branch and therefore taken to be a criterion for assessing the effectiveness of the branch manager.

The data reveal that 37.4 percent of the respondents has chosen not to attach the seriousness the function legitimately deserves. They have been classified as just satisfactory by the superiors in respect of their diligence in drawing up the returns and forwarding them to higher ups on time. One fourth of the managers have been rated as exceptionally good at this function with the remaining sixty one managers (37.4%) falling in between. The overall mean score of the managers was almost towards the centre with variations reflected by a standard deviation of 1.106 indicating that managers occupy appreciably different positions in respect of this factor of evaluation.

RECTIFICATION OF INSPECTION AUDIT IRREGULARITIES

Audit and inspection of a bank's branches are undertaken both by internal and external agencies. While the internal audit and inspections are conducted by the inspection and vigilance department of the bank, external agencies for the purpose include Reserve Bank of India, Statutory Auditors, Office of the Accountant General, among others. The internal inspection and audit activities form part of the control function of each bank, the purpose which is normally to find out whether branches and the managers implement the policies and guidelines, understand the difficulties experienced in implementing policies and guidelines and, to suggest improvements in the system and procedures. Inspection also seeks to ascertain whether books are properly maintained reflecting the true financial strength and operating practices at the branches.

Audit and inspection of branches are not always a likeable feature for every manager. Many branch managers view it as an occupational hazard and put up with. Inspection reports are, in a way, appraisal reports of branches and the managers so far as the working aspects are considered. A good inspection report

adds to the confidence of the branch manager whereas an unsatisfactory report ideally should give him an opportunity to work more systematically. Since the ultimate objective of inspection is not only detection of irregularities but also to initiate and ensure corrective action so that the identified irregularities are rectified and do not recur, an inspection exercise would not be meaningful unless follow-up action ensues.

Once the inspection/audit report reaches the branch manager, it is accorded priority in the manager's daily agenda. The report is shared with other managerial staff at the branch in charge of various sections or departments. A day-to-day follow up schedule is drawn to ensure rectification of lapses and deviations with a definite time frame. Regular and periodical review meetings guarantee logistics and infrastructure support. The urgency for rectification of inspection irregularities should be ideally akin to that of closing work in the branch.

The researcher included rectification of irregularities among the criteria for superiors' evaluation of the managers' effectiveness as the same was perceived to be a hall-mark of a future oriented, effective branch manager. The data collected have been summarised in table 6.1.3 under the respective heading. Superiors evaluated 53 managers (32.5%) as only barely reaching the satisfactory levels in rectifying the problems pointed out in the previous inspection/audit exercise. Rest of them (67.5%) was rated as either good, very good or exceptional on this criterion. It may be that while majority of the managers has realised and lives up to this important element in branch administration, the former group shows lack of interest in assuming responsibility for the defects they inherited at the time of their taking office at the branch. These managers are either attitudinally indisposed to discern the complementary value of branch inspection and audit or might have taken the stance that errors and omissions already committed by other staff or earlier managers, and which are beyond redemption, would not reflect negatively on their effectiveness as managers.

HOUSE KEEPING

Because of the myriad systems and procedures followed by a banker, housekeeping at the branches assumes salience and is identified as a key result area in the process of branch administration. The bigger is the size of the branch, more important becomes the housekeeping. Bank managers are mindful of this function of theirs and are expected to secure and maintain high levels in the domain.

With the emphasis being increasingly shifted to 'growth with consolidation' from 'expansion' in banking industry, the subject of improved housekeeping has become a major thrust area for bank managers. They have to devote a lot of time and thought to this aspect of branch governance. In awards and incentives instituted by banks for encouraging competition among branches, a lot of emphasis is laid on housekeeping as a parameter for the evaluation of performance.

Balancing of books, effective cash management, tallied accounts and absence of statements kept pending reflect the system of control and good governance. Housekeeping also reflects the quality of staff management achieved by the manager. Often productive and uberous managers are assigned to disarrayed branches with the task of rectifying the situation. Managerial effectiveness is thus taken to be reflected partly by the quality of housekeeping achieved by managers.

Classification of managers on the basis of percentage achievements on indicators of housekeeping disclosed that a great majority of managers (70.6%) has consciously striven for and earned exceptionally good appreciation for they were rated as up-to-date by the superiors. 14.7% of the respondents was placed on the other extreme, classified as lagging behind with arrears up to three months with an equal number of managers carrying on with unfinished work for over the preceding one or two months. Commensurate with the classification of larger number of respondent managers as exceptionally good, the overall mean score for the criterion factor was pegged at 7.215 with a standard deviation of 2.031 indicating the variations in individuals' absolute scores.

The results on housekeeping indicate convincingly that many of the managers have been able to inculcate into other officers and subordinates the

importance of housekeeping and clearance of arrears. They have been effective in making others realise the importance of the branch being up-to-date on many of the parameters of housekeeping and nurturing higher levels of commitment in them to this particular goal in branch administration.

It is also pertinent to acknowledge that all managers may not be able to live up to the ideal situation given the practicalities of branch administration. A manager saddled with arrears and backlog in housekeeping has no alternative but to tackle it on a war footing. Without branch housekeeping being brought to the current, the manager would witness incidents of holding staff responsible for the loss of bank's money in bad accounts, if not suspecting them for fraud, not attending to audit irregularities and non follow-up of decreed and suit filed accounts for which assets could not be recovered. These aspects of branch administration cannot be rectified by mechanisation or computerisation independent of willing co-operation and team spirit to be carefully cultivated among the members of the work unit.

In order to locate and differentiate the more and less effective managers among the respondents, in the light of superiors' evaluations based on the secondary data obtained from the inspection records, it was necessary to sum up the hitherto used criterion measures' scores. Aggregates were computed to discern the levels of managers' effectiveness as mirrored by their accomplishment of management results comprising business goals' achievement and quality of in-house administration.

Although a measure of relative managerial effectiveness at this stage would not cover all dimensions, such an attempt would certainly serve to identify managers differing on how well they utilised the managerial resources and opportunities made available at their disposal.

Table 6.1.4 brings out the clustering of managers into less effective and more effective ones based on the aggregate mean scores they obtained on their managerial goal outputs and the relative differences of the two groups in percentage terms across the criterion elements. Seventy six managers with an

Table 6.1.4 Absolute and relative aggregate scores of managers on elements of management results

Groups of managers	Aggregate and relative scores on criteria*						
	DQT	AAT	CM	SR	RI	HK	CS
Less Effective < 36.96 Mean = 30.63 N = 76	384.50	318.50	203.60	168.55	335.25	480.0	437.00
	0.337	0.279	0.536	0.444	0.441	0.636	0.575
More Effective > 36.96 Mean = 42.49 N = 87	783.75	619.35	285.25	248.62	509.75	696.00	553.5
	0.601	0.475	0.656	0.572	0.585	0.800	0.636

- DQT: Deposits, quarterly targets achievement; AAT: Advances, Annual targets achievement; CM : Credit management quality; SR : Submission of reports & returns; RI : Rectification of inspection irregularities; HK : House keeping quality; CS : Customer service quality.

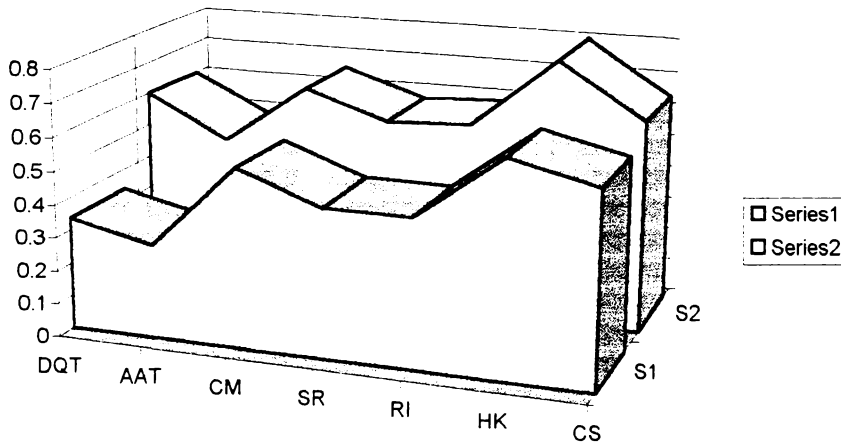
aggregate score of less than the sample mean score of 36.96 were classified as less effective while the more effective group included eighty seven managers whose scores were above the aggregate mean of 36.96. The within group means were 30.63 and 42.49 in the same order.

The first row of values for each category of managers show the sum of scores on each of the criteria and the second row of values shown in black figures represent the respective relative scores. To go by the net differences between the groups, statistics reveal that more effective managers were 26.4 percent higher in achieving the deposit targets and thus more adept at marketing of the deposit schemes of the bank, 19.6 percent smarter in generating asset portfolios by meeting higher levels in advance targets, 12 percent more effective in credit management by fulfilling the demands of credit follow up, renewal of limits and updating credit related documentation, 13% more diligent in submission of reports and returns, thereby contributing towards enhanced control of their branches, 14 percent more productive in correcting the previous mistakes and making good the omissions detected in inspection and audit interventions, 17 percent more successful in integrating subordinates and other managerial staff into a team in

order to maintain housekeeping above board, and 6 percent more aware

Figure 6.1.1 **Relative scores of less effective and more effective managers on criterion elements of managerial output results**

Series1: Less effective managers; Series2 : More effective managers.



and concerned in delivering prompt and satisfying services in their bid to retain contended customers. The relative advantages parcelled out by the more effective managers to the bank, reflecting their higher effectiveness, have been visually depicted in figure 6.1.1

Though it would be easily possible to establish the statistical difference between the mean scores of the two groups of managers for each and every criterion element, the computation of mean scores and application of t-test have been spared for such findings at this stage would remain inconclusive so far as the construct of managerial effectiveness is concerned.

To sum up it may be confidently inferred with the support of data presented that more effective managers characteristically display added enthusiasm and ability in achieving higher levels on all of the criteria of business goals and in-house administration and their performance was consistently superior as compared to the less effective ones.

The analysis of managerial effectiveness would only be comprehensive, in the light of the definition adopted in this study, when the evaluation of managers on their managerial role activities are also considered. The focus is now being turned to this aspect of the construct and the details form the subject matter of the next section.

Evaluation of Managers by Managerial Activities

This research proceeds on the view that any interpretation of managerial effectiveness would evidently be partial if the discussion is restricted to the managers' achievement of their output goals without proper attention being given to their on-the-job activities largely aimed at the broader, organismic dimensions of the work units. An excessive emphasis on outputs tends to reflect society's stereotypes of what constitutes success rather than affording a diagnosis of relevant job behaviours. In order to be comprehensive, Campbell et al. (1970) recommended a more objective approach that involves a judgmental assessment by persons qualified to evaluate managers' job behaviours that leads to an optimisation of organisational resources and opportunities. The factors for evaluation ideally include what managers do to effect an optimal allocation of resources in a given or specific situation.

Mathew (1988) has provided a research tool for measuring effectiveness of managers based on their role behaviours developed through a detailed behaviour sampling procedure. The tool covers fourteen dimensions indicative of managerial effectiveness as applicable to a wide variety of organisation settings and situations. The dimensions are reported to offer an acceptable definition of a manager's responsibility domain.

An adapted version of the tool with thirty four statements on critical management behaviours necessary for the best possible use of available and potential resources fetched data on the behavioural dimensions of managerial effectiveness. The data have been used to judge how well the managers accomplish the process dimensions of their job to be effective in the long run.

Results and Discussion:

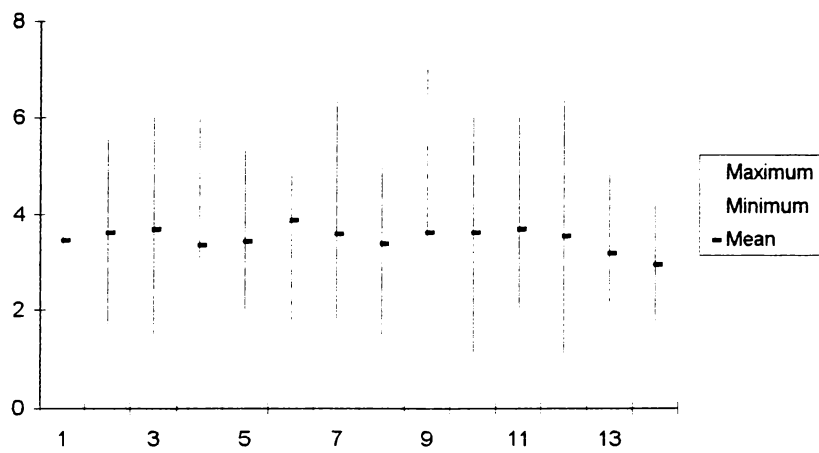
Two versions of the tool, one for managers and the other for subordinates, were made use of for obtaining matching and comparable data on the same set of behavioural indicators. Informations obtained on the dimensions of managerial role activities have been depicted in figure 6.1.2. Figures portray the minimum and maximum scores in addition to the respective mean value for every dimension. Figure (a) shows the managers' self-rating whereas figure (b) relates to the appraisal of managers by the subordinates on the same set of dimensions. The databases on which the figures have been drawn are also furnished along with.

Figure 6.1.2 Score ranges and mean values for various on-the-job activities of managers

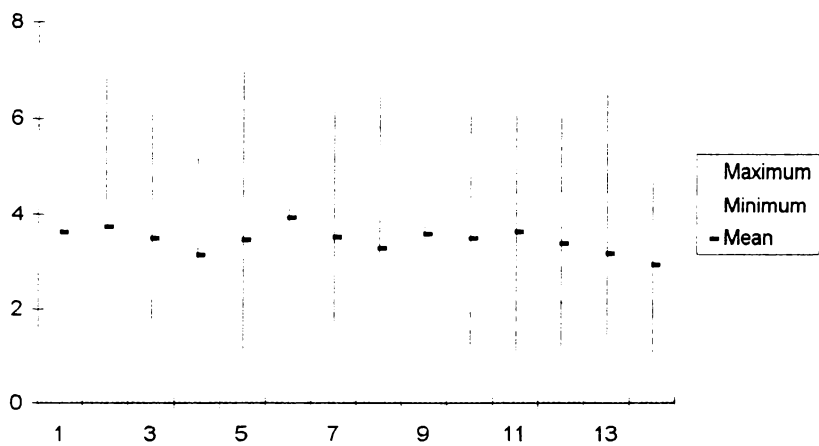
(managers' self-ratings and subordinates' inverted appraisals)

Factors	Maximum Self/Sub.	Minimum Self/Sub.	Mean Self/Sub.
Decision Making	5.67/6.33	2.00/1.00	3.45/3.59
Organising work	5.33/7.00	1.67/1.33	3.60/3.70
Tech. Competence	6.00/7.00	1.50/1.00	3.67/3.46
Maintain Quality	6.00/5.50	1.50/1.00	3.34/3.12
Directing Sub. task	5.33/7.00	2.00/1.00	3.42/3.42
Developing Sub.	6.00/7.00	1.50/1.00	3.86/3.90
Controlling costs	6.33/6.33	1.67/1.00	3.58/3.48
Relation with people	5.00/7.00	1.50/1.00	3.37/3.25
Meet workschedules	7.00/7.00	1.50/1.00	3.61/3.55
Handling problems	6.00/7.00	1.00/1.00	3.60/3.45
Commun. of ideas	6.00/7.00	2.00/1.00	3.67/3.59
Creating ideas	6.33/6.00	1.00/1.00	3.52/3.34
Carry out resp.	5.00/6.50	1.50/1.00	3.16/3.15
Overall effectiveness	4.50/5.75	1.25/1.00	2.94/2.91

(a) *Self-appraisals of managers:*



(b) *Subordinates' inverted appraisals:*



Factors 1: Decision Making; 2: Planning & organising work; 3: Displaying technical competence; 4: Maintaining service quality; 5: Directing tasks of subordinates; 6: Developing subordinates; 7: Controlling costs; 8: Relating with people; 9: Meeting work schedules; 10: Handling problems; 11: Communicating ideas; 12: Developing new ideas; 13: Carrying out responsibilities; 14: Overall effectiveness.

Table 6.1.5 presents the descriptive statistics for the fourteen dimensions

that reflect the abilities of managers and the extent of agreement prevailing between managers and subordinates in their perceptions.

**Table 6.1.5 On-the-job activities for managerial effectiveness:
descriptive statistics, inter-rater agreement
between managers and subordinates.**

Sl. No	Activities	Mean		Inter-rater Correlation	agreement t-values
		Self/Sub.	Std. Dev. Self/Sub.		
1.	Decision making	3.45/3.59	0.72/1.26	0.028	-1.24
2.	Plan & organise work	3.60/3.70	0.76/1.26	0.204*	-1.02
3.	Technical competence	3.67/3.46	0.84/1.26	0.093	1.87
4.	Maintain quality	3.34/3.12	0.85/1.26	0.078	2.07*
5.	Directing sub. task	3.42/3.42	0.71/1.16	0.176*	-0.04
6.	Developing subord.	3.86/3.90	0.85/1.28	0.082	-0.34
7.	Controlling costs	3.58/3.48	0.87/1.18	0.125	0.97
8.	Relating with people	3.3.7/3.25	0.76/1.38	0.132	0.97
9.	Meetingwork schedules	3.61/3.55	0.76/1.27	0.050	0.57
10.	Handling problem	3.60/3.45	0.95/1.43	-0.043	1.08
11.	Communicating ideas	3.67/3.59	0.69/1.24	0.200*	0.79
12.	Developing new ideas	3.52/3.34	0.72/1.20	0.125	1.74
13.	Carry out responsibility	3.16/3.15	0.75/1.28	0.192*	0.03
14.	Overall effectiveness	2.94/2.91	0.63/1.07	0.079	0.24

* Values significant at $p < 0.05$

Managers and subordinates agree considerably in absolute terms on all elements of evaluation save the ability of managers for meeting and maintaining quality standards in services offered at the branch ($t = 2.07$; $p < 0.05$). Mean scores for self-evaluations of managers range from 2.94 for overall effectiveness to 3.86 for developing subordinates; mean evaluation by subordinates range from 2.91 for managers' overall effectiveness to 3.90 for the formers' efforts at developing them. For most of the dimensions managers claimed greater buoyancy than approved of by subordinates. However, subordinates cherish their managers for planning and organising work and devoting their time and, for the efforts for training and developing subordinates' operating abilities.

Inter-rater agreement in evaluations for individual managers was checked by means of correlation coefficients. Correlations of evaluations by managers and subordinates on the dimensions ranged between 0.028 and 0.204. Maximum, though not high, but significant agreement in evaluations was in respect of the

planning and organising ability of managers ($r = 0.204$; $p = 0.009$). Though not very strong, attestable correlation could be observed in the case of managers' ability for directing the work tasks of subordinates, communication of ideas and carrying out work related responsibilities all of which are task-related activities and observable in nature. The lowest correlation was evinced for the decision making ability of managers which is mostly an innate and personal capacity for most of the managers that can manifest in many ways, at times unpalatable to others, and has been obviously misinterpreted and underappreciated by subordinates in some cases. Subordinates vary in their approbation for managers' ability in maintaining relations with them and others, and handling problem situations, indicated by larger standard deviation values.

Subordinates seem to offer realistic appreciation to their managers for their various on-the-job activities. While they specifically acknowledge the managers' ability for planning and organising work in general, and for their concerted efforts at developing them, do not hesitate to hold the managers responsible for not meeting and maintaining quality consciousness and standards in service delivery to clients and customers. Subordinates, while being cognisant of the observable and task-related activities of their managers, fail to perceive and acknowledge the managers for their decision-making ability that remains mostly innate and heuristic.

The efforts so far in this chapter was to draw up and convey as vividly as possible the building blocks that have been chosen to construct the conceptualisation of the effectiveness of those managers brought under the purview of this research work. Diversity in perspectives was incorporated, in order to avoid the study from becoming lopsided, by generating evaluations from three vantage points of superiors, managers themselves and subordinates.

A host of diverse, fleeting, overlapping, and to some extent, incoherent assessments offered by the three categories of raters necessitated aggregation for a broader appreciation, if not selective attention, of the canvas of effectiveness of the managers. The present attempt is to interlock the pieces to portray the broad spectrum of managerial effectiveness that emerges.

The scores obtained for individual managers on the criterion dimensions of business goals and in-house administration were added up, extrapolated to a total of one hundred and factored with 0.67 to obtain the achievement of managers on their output goals with a two-third weight in the overall scores. Similarly the self assessments and the inverted appraisals by subordinates on each of the fourteen on-the-job activities were averaged, added up and extrapolated to a total of one hundred and factored with 0.33 to give the evaluation on abilities of managers for their role activities a weight of 33 percent in the final tally. The thinking that management goals achievements were quantifiable and hence more reliable than the subjective evaluations on managerial activities did lead to the apportionment of weights in the ratio of 2:1 to the two broader dimensions in that order.

Table 6.1.6 presents the aggregated scores of managerial effectiveness and the proportionate assignment of managers on the basis of varying degrees of their effectiveness.

Table 6.1.6 Descriptive statistics, and classification of managers in terms of their effectiveness.

Categories of managers	Freq.	Rel. Freq.	Mean*	Std. dev	Overall Scores		
					Mean	Std. Dev.	Range of values
Less Effective (< 51.65)	79	0.485	45.69	4.54	51.65	7.29	34.14 to 67.77
More effective (> 51.65)	84	0.515	57.28	4.26			

* Significant differences established between categories; $t = 24.348$, $p = 0.000$.

The managers were classified into 'more' and 'less' effective groups treating the overall mean score of 51.65 as the cut-off value. They were almost equally distributed in numerical terms with a marginal three percent over representation in the more effective category. But the effectiveness levels between the two categories of managers were found to be significantly different in mean terms ($t = 24.348$; $p = 0.000$).

It may be pointed out that combining scores for management output goals'

achievement with those for managerial activities resulted in a re-grouping of managers where the strength of the more effective group was reduced by three units.

For the purposes of further analysis, it has been deemed that the eighty four managers, classified as more effective, display characteristically greater levels of accomplishments and abilities for achieving quantifiable targets and carrying out qualitative aspects of their managerial roles. The claim of consistent and remarkable growth by the bank where the study was conducted seem to be justified and to have been brought about by the large number of its effective managers and principal officers as reflected in the results.

The statistical analysis and discussion on managerial effectiveness presented so far lead to the following observations:

- a) The bank managers studied have been able to perform with admirable effectiveness on all criteria of business goals and in-house administration. The abilities for on-the-job managerial activities were levelled around the mid-values of the rating scale and were not strikingly varying.
- b) Subordinates were generally in agreement with managers in evaluating the latter's ability for various on-the-job activities. The only element on which they differed was the managers' ability for ensuring quality of services offered to clients.
- c) In spite of the overall admirable levels displayed by managers, there are discernible variations among individual managers on the basis of which they could be classified into more effective and less effective groups with significant difference in average terms. These differences, however, were more pronounced in respect of the indicators of business goals and in-house administration than in terms of managerial activities.

The stage is now set for exploring the thematic linkage suggested and carried throughout this study between power profile variables and the levels of effectiveness of managers. What elements in power profile are critical in defining

the managers' effectiveness? Among the elements of power bases, power styles and personality dimensions of visibility and credibility, which do really account for differentiating the more effective from the less effective managers? Answers to these and further queries are offered in the next and the last section of data analysis as part of this study.

6.2 Power Profile of Managers and their Effectiveness

As indicated at the outset of this chapter, the attention is now being turned onto power in use, to review evidences to perceive the implications of the power profile of managers for their effectiveness.

The analysis of power in use and its action can potentially serve several purposes. One would be, as noted and presented in Chapter 5, that the power levels, its bases and styles of deploying it can provide indicators useful in understanding power distributions in organisations. Second would be, such an attempt can furnish a perspective on organisational functioning which may be shown to have predictable effects on managerial outcomes and effectiveness. Third, it may also offer a beginning for the kind of analysis that can be undertaken by others in other settings to help understand and explain several other organisational outcomes.

Exploring possible inter linkages between the power profile of managers and their level of effectiveness forms one of the central themes of this research primarily for the reason that this line of research would address one of the least and sparingly examined territories in today's management literature. This is the task of the present study according to its final specific objective. It is not an exaggeration to think that managerial power and its effects are omnipresent in organisations. In spite of its negative connotations, managerial power is a vital and necessary element in organisations. It is essential because it is like fuel that provides energy to run the organisational machinery. Managers without power are merely figureheads and cannot effectively function to deliver goods. Mc Clelland (1975) has argued that the emphasis on the negative aspects of managerial power

obscures its positive potential. It has also been suggested that high needs for power characterise successful and effective managers (Mc Clelland & Boyatzis, 1982). Kanter (1977) has vigorously championed the positive functions of managerial power in organisations. Kanter argued that it is the powerlessness of managers that impedes organisational work. Subordinates expect and want their managers to be powerful so that they can provide subordinates with the necessary resources at the job. Managers who are powerful feel more secure and willing to aid subordinates. It is the powerless managers who feel threatened and interfere with subordinates. Powerful managers will, drawing on Kanter's viewpoint, improve interactions with their subordinates and thereby would be able to achieve enhanced managerial effectiveness and improved organisational functioning.

Effectiveness of managers, for the analysis at this stage of the study, is assumed to be affected by the combination of all the variables subsumed in the concept of power profile that may potentially operate concurrently. While some of these may come to be significant, others may be inconsequential. Remaining part of this chapter reports the analysis to gain insight into the relative contribution of the components of power profile towards the effectiveness levels of managers. Power profile of managers, for the purpose of discriminant analysis, was thought to include the managers' power bases of Position, Expertise, Coercive, Reward and Referent powers; their power styles of Integration, Consensus, Transaction, Pressure, Direction and Coercion besides the personality dimensions of Visibility and Credibility.

Multivariate statistical technique of stepwise discriminant analysis was used to achieve the purpose on hand. By using this statistical technique, researcher hopes to determine 1) Which of the power profile variables are useful in ascertaining effectiveness levels of managers; 2) how these variables may be combined into a mathematical equation to predict the likely outcome; and 3) the accuracy of the derived equation.

In applying discriminant analysis, the assumptions fulfilled herein are: a) the units of analysis namely, the individual managers have been classified into two

mutually exclusive and exhaustive groups of less effective and more effective managers on the basis of their mean effectiveness score of 51.65; b) the power profile characteristics used to achieve discrimination, called as the discriminating variables, have been measured at the interval level of measurement so that the mean and variances could be computed, qualifying them to be used in the mathematical equation included in the procedure; c) none of the discriminating variables used in the analysis is a linear combination of other discriminating variables and no two discriminating variables are perfectly correlated; and d) the theoretical evidences available do not permit specification of any direction of causation among variables and they have not been technically designated as independent and dependent variables.

The purpose of choosing stepwise analysis rather than the direct method was to generate a more parsimonious subset of power profile variables which can discriminate nearly as well as, if not better than, the full set. Before leaving this initial discussion about the technique used, the reasons for choosing discriminant analysis as the tool for answering the objective may be summarised. The analysis would help describe the differences between the less effective and the more effective groups of managers in terms of the discriminating variables that are the components of power profile of managers, thus fulfilling an interpretative function. Further, the technique will provide a means to assign any case into the group that it most closely resembles, thereby achieving a classification function.

Results and Discussion:

The analysis resulted in a single canonical discriminant function that is a linear combination of certain discriminating variables found to satisfy some specified conditions. The number of mathematical function was limited to one because the maximum number of unique functions that could be derived using this technique is equal to the number of groups minus one or the number of discriminating variables, whichever is fewer (Klecka, 1980). In the present analysis there were thirteen discriminating variables but only two groups, so that only one

function could be obtained and a single function would suffice the requirement.

The derived discriminant function was found to have an eigen value of 0.1254 and a canonical correlation value of 0.3338. Though it is customary to think of the size of eigen value as depicting the discriminating power of functions in the event of more than one discriminating function, the eigen value attached with the sole function available in the present analysis is not of any obvious value.

Another way to judge the substantive utility of the discriminant function is by examining the canonical correlation coefficient. This coefficient is a measure of association that summarises the degree of relatedness between the groups and the discriminant function. A value of zero denotes no relationship at all, while larger numbers represent increasing degrees of association with 1.0 being the maximum. The canonical correlation for the discriminant function being 0.3338, it could be assumed that the obtained function is adequately meaningful in explaining the group differences.

The most common test for the statistical significance of the discriminant function proceeds indirectly. Rather than testing the function itself, the residual discrimination in the system is examined which refers to the ability of the discriminating variables to discriminate between the groups. To express this mathematically, Wilks's lambda was resorted to.

Wilks's lambda is a multivariate measure of group differences over several variables (the discriminating variables). Thus Wilks's lambda can be used as another measure of association and can be converted into a test of significance by computing its corresponding chi-square. The chi-square value for the discriminant function derived was found significant (Chi-square = 18.724; df = 5; p = 0.0022). Given the statistic, it would be safe to assume that the discriminant function pertains to a population that really exhibits differences between the groups being considered. This also establishes that the derived discriminant function is statistically decisive.

In deriving the discriminant function, the stepwise procedure took five steps to arrive at the function coefficients of the selected variables. They were

selected, using the SPSS programme DISCRIMINANT, subject to their clearing certain minimum conditions before being tested for their functional utility. The conditions specified were a tolerance test to assure computational accuracy and a partial F-statistic, F-to-enter, to confirm the additional discrimination achieved by the variable introduced at every successive step.

A variable with very low tolerance, say less than 0.001, the minimum tolerance fixed in the programme, is likely to cause inaccuracies in computation. It may be pointed out that none of the variables considered recorded a value equal to or less than the specified minimum, let alone a zero or a near zero value, substantiating that no discriminating variable was a linear combination of one or more variables already entered in the previous steps.

F-to-enter is a partial multivariate statistic intended to ascertain the additional discrimination brought in by a variable being considered at any given step, taking into account the discrimination accounted for by other variables already entered. Variables having larger F-to-enter values are preferred to those with smaller values for the former's ability to add up to the overall discrimination. This partial F statistic is also an indirect measure of the Wilks's lambda, a concept that considers both the differences between groups and the cohesiveness within groups. Cohesiveness relates to the degree to which cases within a group cluster near its central value called the group centroid. At every step a variable that increased cohesiveness without changing separation between the centroids would be chosen than another which increased separation without enhancing cohesiveness.

Table 6.2.1 provides insight into the within groups cohesiveness and the between centroid variations in respect of variables entered in the analysis. The relatively large values of Wilks's Lambda indicate minimal between variable differences with their group centroids packed close to each other. The high significance values reflect the appreciable amounts of impact that each of the entered variables has induced into the overall discriminant function. Thus each variable, while being justified for its internal compactness of individual cases, fails

to achieve sufficient distinctiveness as a predictor as compared to other variables.

Table 6.2.1 Summary of variables entered at successive steps in the analysis with respective significance

Step No:	Action		Variable in	Wilks' s Lambda	Significance
	Entered	Removed			
1.	Transactional Ps		1	.93345	0.0009
2.	Position power		2	.91593	0.0009
3.	Credibility		3	.90422	0.0011
4.	Pressurising Ps		4	.89655	0.0016
5.	Coercive power		5	.88858	0.0022

As we shift our attention from individual cases and group centroids to discovering the contribution of variables, the standardised discriminant function coefficients become handy. While the unstandardised coefficients talk about the absolute contribution of a variable in determining the discriminant score, the information may be misleading especially when one unit change in the value is not the same for all the discriminating variables. The standardised discriminant coefficients give the relative importance of variables included. The standardised coefficients indicate which variables contribute most towards determining scores on the function: the larger the magnitude (ignoring sign), the greater is that variable's contribution.

The F-to-remove is a partial multivariate statistic that shows the significance of the decrease in discrimination, should a variable be removed from among those selected. On the final step, this statistic discloses the rank order of the unique discriminating power carried by each of the selected variables. The variable with largest value makes the greatest contribution to the overall discrimination, and so forth.

Table 6.2.2 reports the standardised discriminant coefficients attached with the chosen power profile variables. Thirteen variables comprising five power bases, six power styles, and two personality dimensions formed the original set of discriminating variables. The final step in the discriminant analysis identified a

smaller subset of five significantly discriminating variables that include two power bases, two power styles and one personality dimension. Power bases are position and coercive power bases; power styles are transactional and pressurising styles; and the personality dimension that came to be selected is the credibility of managers.

Table 6.2.2 Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients of variables and their significance

Variable	Standardised function coefficient of variables	F-to-remove at the final step	Relative importance
Credibility	0.27674	1.2141	V
Pressurising Ps	0.31749	1.4549	III
Transactional Ps	0.78834	8.7946	I
Position Power	0.57554	5.0633	II
Coercive Power	- 0.30572	1.4085	IV

Results establish that transactional power style (**TPS**) makes the greatest contribution towards the discriminant score that decides the effectiveness of managers followed by their position power base (**PPB**) wielded, followed by their pressurising power style (**PPS**), coercive power base (**CPB**) and the personality dimension of credibility (**CR**) in that order.

The discriminant function incorporating the function coefficients of the variables can be stated as:

$$Z = 0.788 \text{ TPS} + 0.576 \text{ PPB} + 0.318 \text{ PPS} + 0.277 \text{ CR} - 0.306 \text{ CPB}$$

The discriminant score of every manager (Z) can be computed by application of the function to the person's original values scored on each of the power profile variables included.

It may be noted that while the power style of transaction and the power base of position are more important in contributing to the discriminant score, the pressurising style and coercive base are only moderately affecting the score, and the personality dimension of credibility is the least contributing factor. Compared to the personality dimension, the behavioural components of power namely the

power styles, on an average, bring in about two times weight and the power bases account for 1.6 times weight to the discriminant score than the personality dimension.

It is more interesting and important to realise that coercive power base serves as a suppresser variable in the function. By carrying a negative weight in the function in which the rest of the variables have positive bearings, the coercive power base essentially enhances the functionality of others in the equation as it does a better job of suppressing the error variance introduced by others.

Results of the current analysis have revealed that the effectiveness of a manager depends on several elements involved in his power relationships with his subordinates, the most important ones being the degree of transactional power style being utilised and his position power in the organisational context.

Transactional style as a behavioural tactic for influencing subordinates involves presentation of arguments and evidences to prove that the superior's suggestion is the best way to attain an objective or accomplish a given task. The style has a strong element of rational persuasion by which the subordinate is cajoled, prevailed upon to share the priorities and task related preferences of the manager and the organisation at large. Once the possible incompatibilities between the manager and his subordinates are meaningfully resolved, transactional style banks on the explicit or implicit offer by the manager to reward a subordinate for doing something the manager wants. Use of an incentive is especially appropriate when the subordinate is indifferent, or reluctant about complying with an order or even when he is seemingly exhausted. The manager engaging transactional style, in his bid to influence subordinates, makes them believe that it is worthwhile to carry out his orders by offering to provide something desired by the subordinates and virtually carrying out his promises which in turn reflects the manager's credibility.

Transactional or exchange tactics are in a way, though not explicitly established in the study, attempts on the part of the managers to enact their reward power. Essence of this power style is the control over rewards that are appealing to the subordinates. Rewards offered by the manager may include a

recommendation for a favourable transfer, good service entry in the personal file, sharing of some scarce resources that are fully at the discretion of the manager. It may also get expressed in allowing the subordinate to move informally with the manager that would bring him the benefits of influential connection with the authority figure, or helping the subordinate achieve his personal preferences, providing information, political support on some issue or proposal and, putting in a good word to help the subordinate and so on and so forth. In any case, an offer to exchange benefits will not be effective unless the manager has sufficient position power to exert control over the benefits cherished by the subordinate and has established himself to be trustworthy enough and committed to carry out the agreement. The basis for establishing a relationship supported by transactional power style is the managers' control of outcomes that are desirable to the subordinates. In return for the benefits, subordinates assume certain obligations and costs. They work harder, become more committed to task objectives and more loyal to their rewarding manager. The development of a mutually supportive relationship occurs over a period of time, through reciprocal reinforcement of the manager's and his subordinates' behaviour as the exchange cycle is repeated. Unless either party withdraws, or violates the understanding, the relationship develops to a point of appreciable mutual dependence, loyalty and support. In effect, both manager and his subordinates gain personal power with each other due to a sort of mutual respect and trust.

The second most contributing power profile component, as has become evident in the discriminant analysis, is the position power, otherwise called as legitimate power, that stems from the managers' formal authority, is based on the shared perceptions about the prerogatives, obligations and responsibilities associated with managerial positions in an organisation. Authority includes the perceived right of one positions' occupant to influence specified aspects of the behaviour of the occupants of subordinate positions. The manager is assumed to have the right to make work-related demands, and the subordinates have the duty to obey. Thus a manager establishes work rules, gives work assignments, and

direct the task-related behaviours of the subordinates. Authority or position power also involves the right of managers to exercise control over things, money, equipment and materials.

Importance of position power in determining the effectiveness levels of leaders has already been brought to light and is an established notion in the literature ever since Fiedler (1967) published his contingency theory on leadership effectiveness. According to Fiedler, a manager's position power ensures subordinates' compliance with his directions and policies. Managers with little or no legitimate power would have to seek other sources of influence for ensuring subordinates' support and contribution. The relative importance of position power established in this study is more than justified against the backdrop of available theory.

Position power has become important only because managers with this power base have been effective in obtaining subordinates' compliance that involves elements of internalisation and identification on the part of subordinates. It has been either inculcated in subordinates or they have an internalised value that it is proper to obey authority figures, show respect for them and follow traditions. They comply with the rules and extend deference to their manager's requests largely due to their identification with the organisation and loyalty to it. It was already seen in the previous chapter that the normative structure and its conjoint power distribution are still valid in the organisation. In such a situation, authority and position power of managers become more acceptable and less difficult to use than most other forms of power as the basis of day-to-day influence. Managers, who have been studied, as a general rule, have been able to deploy influence based on their position as the principal officers at the branches to accomplish both routine and non-routine tasks through their subordinates.

Pressurising power style, identified as the third notable discriminating variable, includes reminding, warning and assertive behaviour such as repeated demands or frequent checking to see whether the subordinate has complied with the manager's orders and has progressed in the work assigned. This may include

an occasional angry comment to suggest of unpleasant consequences and thereby induce compliance. Though it is fashionable and common to think these days that implied threats and intimidation are likely to undermine working relationships, the present finding suggests that effective managers prefer and gain from the usage of pressurising tactics than resorting to other more collaborative forms of influencing styles.

The fourth component of power profile to be reckoned in the light of the present study is the coercive base of managers. Coercive base symbolises the managers' control over punishments and their capacity to prevent someone from obtaining desired rewards. This power base is recognised in this study for its negative or suppressive role in determining effectiveness levels of managers. Managers once had the right to punish subordinates, even dismiss them for any reason they thought was justifiable. Now-a-days, the variant forms of this power base are severely prohibitive and sharply restricted in organisations.

The finding in this study suggests that, even though some managers preferred coercive power base, its use may be more due to their ignorance, arrogance or due to their psychological make up than to its contribution to demonstrated effectiveness. This is especially true against the ground reality of power equalisation increasingly being brought about by the trade union affiliation and support available to non-managerial members in organisations. When managers are tempted to act based on the coercive potential of their position, it undermines their authority and creates a hostile opposition in the work context reducing the functional utility of their legitimate position and the productive power styles of transaction and pressurising. However, as mutual dependencies usually exist between the managers and their subordinates, as it has been brought out in this study, any managerial initiative stemming from coercive base is likely to elicit retaliation and compound into a conflict that benefits neither party, and would only reduce the effectiveness levels of managers.

The least contributing factor, in relative terms, compared to other power profile components considered in this research, is the internal attribute of the

credibility of managers. Credibility is manifested in behaviours when actions are consistent with promises and the manager is perceived to be honest, ethical and trustworthy. Credibility of managers makes subordinates consider them to be dependable and worthy of loyalty. It has already been pointed out that credibility of managers is an important corollary of the transactional power style identified as the most important contributory element towards managerial effectiveness as per the evidences obtained in the study.

An important indicator of managerial credibility and integrity is the extent to which one is honest and truthful in fulfilling the avowed benefits to subordinates in exchange for their co-operation and compliance. Managerial credibility gets debased when subordinates discern their manager to have lied and was manipulative in using them only in pursuit of his self-interests.

Credibility, though not very impressive in determining the effectiveness levels, has turned out to be one of the factors that positively contribute to the effectiveness of managers. It is one of the purposeful and meaningful foundations of managership. It seems that credible managers, with their demonstrated knowledge and expertise, supported by recurrent behaviours consistent with espoused values and promises, inspires subordinates towards accepting managers' right to initiate action, and their right to status and deference. In order to be assertive in impacting subordinates, managers have to be advisedly alert to developing and maintaining healthy images of being credible. It may also be probable that managerial effectiveness, though not fully, is at least partly an affair of the heart and soul of those who manage.

The structural character of a discriminant function can be understood by determining the similarity between the variables used and the function. This was achieved by obtaining the product-moment correlation between each of the variables and the discriminant function. In discriminant analysis, these correlations are known as the structure coefficients.

A structure coefficient indicates how closely a variable and a function are related. When the absolute magnitude of the correlation is very large and near

+1.0 or -1.0, the function is deemed to be carrying nearly the same information as the variable. When the coefficient is nearly zero, they have very little in common. Further, a function can be even 'named' on the basis of structure coefficients by noting the variables having highest coefficients. If these variables seem to be measuring a similar characteristic, the function may be named after that characteristic. (Klecka, 1980).

The structural coloration of the discriminant function in this study was examined in terms of the pooled within-groups correlation called the 'within structure coefficients'. Table 6.2.3 gives the within structure coefficients for all the variables used in the analysis. The structure coefficients have revealed something different from what was communicated by the standardised coefficients reported earlier in this chapter. The standardised coefficients have already shown the contribution of each variable towards calculating the discriminant score. This is one way of looking at the variables' importance. The information furnished by standardised canonical coefficients in the discriminant function may be vitiated due to a high correlation between any two variables being considered simultaneously so that they share their contributions resulting in a low canonical correlation value. Or else, the variables' coefficients may be large but with opposite signs so that the contribution of one may be partially cancelled by the opposite contribution of the other and thus not evinced adequately in the discriminant function. This is because the standardised coefficients take into account simultaneous contributions of all the variables. The structure coefficients are, on the other hand, simple bivariate correlations not affected by relationships with other variables.

Notice that directive power style, not included in the discriminant function, is found to have a larger within group structure coefficient. This is probably due to its high and significant correlation with both transactional and pressurising power styles ($r = 0.510$ and $r = 0.607$, both significant with $p < 0.001$, respectively) which have already been identified as significantly affecting the discriminant score, and as a result, got submerged and lost its significance in the overall picture. The structure coefficients also suggest that though credibility and coercive base were

reckoned important from the standardised coefficients' point of view, have very little in common with the function in their own rights. This is different than the earlier impression on these variables based on the standardised coefficients which were appreciable and with opposite signs.

Table 6.2.3 Within structure coefficients of Power profile variables

Variables	Within structure coefficients (ordered by size of correlation)
Transactional Ps	0.75401
Pressurising Ps	0.56548
Directive Ps	0.53830
Position Base	0.32003
Consensus Ps	0.30650
Coercive Ps	0.30442
Integrative Ps	0.23623
Expertise Base	- 0.13222
Reward Base	- 0.11795
Credibility	- 0.09963
Coercive Base	- 0.04675
Visibility	- 0.04339
Referent Base	- 0.02786

In the light of structure coefficients, it may be seen that the power style variables have more correlation with the function than, the power bases, save position power, and the personality dimensions of Visibility and Credibility. This suggests that the derived discriminant function may be referred to as “ **the power style function of managerial effectiveness** ”.

The analysis and the interpretation so far seem to converge to suggest that for achieving effectiveness in organisations, managers must consider a major shift in their approaches towards managing human resources. There must be an increased focusing on ‘actual behaviour’, generated by managers, and implied in the concept of power styles that are in fact the behavioural attempts and expressions of the power potential of managers intended for influencing

subordinates. They should not be vitiating, strapped up, or bogged down with the exaggerated concerns about their own or the subordinates' 'internal states' which are predominantly psychological or role related. The overt, external, purposive behaviours of the managers will have to be carefully nurtured, monitored and employed to obtain desired results. This does not mean that the internal states are denied of importance. But they are always invisible and intangible and are more difficult to be employed profitably. On the other hand, when managers shift their attention and effort to developing and using power styles, they will be dealing with events that are visible and concrete. By managing these external and tangible realities, they will be more able to effectively manage thoughts and behaviours of subordinates to achieve the cherished results in organisations. On the whole, the set of power profile variables that are emergent in this study as determinants of managerial effectiveness seem to support the erudite observation of Sashkin (1987) that it is the appropriate combination of individual managers' personality factors and behaviours that predict their effectiveness.

Classification Results

This section of the report was started with a statement that the purpose behind resorting to discriminant analysis as the statistical tool was to achieve both interpretation and classification of known cases as well as future cases. So far the analysis and discussions were glued to the importance of the canonical discriminant function and its significance in interpreting the differences between the two groups of more effective and less effective managers, differentiated on the basis of mean effectiveness score.

Classification is a separate activity in which the discriminant function is used to predict the group to which a case would most likely belong or closely resembles. When the canonical discriminant function is derived, the classification is based on the function rather than using the original discriminating variables. Although researchers generally use the classification matrix as a means of predicting the group memberships for cases of unknown membership, the same can

be used to test the accuracy of the classification procedure. This is done by using the known cases already considered for deriving the function and applying the classification rule to them. The proportion of cases correctly classified indicates the accuracy of the procedure and indirectly confirming the degree of group separation. The procedure consists in preparing a classification or confusion matrix.

**Table 6.2.4 Classification Matrix
based on the derived Discriminant Function**

Actual group	No: of Cases	Predicted Group membership	
		1	2
Group 1	79	51 (64.6%)	28 (35.4%)
Group 2	84	26 (31.0%)	58 (69.0%)

Percent of grouped cases correctly classified = 66.87%.

Table 6.2.4 gives the classification results using the five power profile variables found to be significantly contributing towards the discriminant scores, from among a total of thirteen such variables. These five variables of transactional power style, pressurising power style, position power base, coercive power base and personality dimension of credibility, all relating to managers, could classify 109 cases out of a total of 163 respondent managers. This is 67 % of accuracy. It may be pointed out that errors present are due to incomplete separation of cases into the two specified groups. As a direct measure of predictive accuracy, this percentage is the most intuitive measure of discrimination that may be achieved by the five power profile variables included in the equation.

However, the magnitude of the percentage of correct classification achieved may be judged in relation to the expected percentage of correct classification if assignments of cases to the groups were made randomly. In a two-group situation, like the one considered in the present analysis, one can expect

50% of the prediction to be right by pure random assignment. But the classification results established that the derived function based on five power profile variables could effectively predict and classify with 67% of accuracy which is 17% more than what is possible by random assignment. Though the discriminant function could achieve a significant improvement over chance classification (chi-square 18.724; $p = 0.0022$), the characteristic humility expected of a research work, as dictated by the tenets of scientific method, constraints the present research to conclude as follows:

Of the thirteen power profile variables included in the discriminant analysis, only five were chosen in the stepwise selection procedure. The discriminant function, although statistically significant, was only moderately effective on more pragmatic grounds. The canonical correlation was relatively small while Wilks's lambda tended to be relatively high. For classification purposes, the model was found to be correct more than two thirds of the time.

CHAPTER SEVEN

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS

and

IMPLICATIONS

Findings, Conclusions, and Implications

The central concern of this research work was to elicit from a representative group of branch managers of a banking institution how they manage things with and through their subordinates. The managers covered in this investigation differed in their backgrounds - structural and socio-demographic, like designation, length of experience, nativity, age, education and the like, but had the commonality of striving to make a difference as the principal officers at their units and achieve more than the benchmarks assigned to them. The attempt was eventually tuned to trace information embedded in the power mosaic of their work units and provide clues as to where managers' power and effectiveness lie and how these work in tandem.

The paragraphs that follow recapitulate the major findings and conclusions drawn thereon, and what have been brought to bear on the theoretical build-up available. The limitations perceived to be inherent in the present work and the possibilities for future research are also indicated towards the end.

Relative power of managers:

The study has substantiated the supplementary power of managers, that extra measure of their innate or derived ability for inducing subordinates over and above the latter's resistance.

Managers' power, as assessed by managers themselves and subordinates, was found to be distributed in favour of the former. The power levels of managers were assessed by the two groups independently and these assessments were found to be very close to each other in absolute terms ($t = 1.2439$; $p = 0.1891$). The additional power enjoyed by managers over and above that of subordinates was ascertained by obtaining the power levels of subordinates as appraised by both the concerned groups as against that of managers in the day-to-day functioning of the unit. In respect of the subordinates' say, the

assessments showed appreciable variations. While the managers' assent to subordinates' say had a mean value of 4.60, subordinates declared that they had a greater sway reflected by a higher average value of 5.23 ($t = -4.3932$; $p = 0.0000$). In spite of this disagreement, the subordinates joined with managers in ascribing greater leverage to the latter in matters of branch administration. The combined power scores computed by aggregating the separate assessments of the two categories resulted in a mean score of 5.715 for managers and 4.915 for the subordinates, thus favouring significantly the relative advantageous power position of managers ($t = 44.415$; $p = 0.0000$). Managers were hence concluded to be endowed with more power, on an average, over the non-managerial staff.

The results thus signified that the authority and power structure associated with the classical hierarchical notions in organisations has not eroded and that the normative power structure is still valid in the private sector organisation and among the managers studied.

Closer examination of data to decipher the relative power position of managers based on power differentials between managers and subordinates revealed that all managers did not enjoy power excess or advantage as a rule. Some managers did have a power advantage over their subordinates while some of them were levelled with their subordinates, whereas still others even suffered a power deficit. However the relative power of managers, expressed as their power advantage, balance or deficit was not independent of the assessors and varied significantly based on whether the managers themselves or the subordinates made the judgements. ($\text{Chi-square} = 21.65$; $p = 0.0000$).

The findings provided support to the first hypothesis of the study that managers characteristically possess, on an average, relatively greater amounts of power than the subordinates in accordance with the dictates of normative structure in organisations. This conclusion of the study, while extending affirmation to some of the earlier findings of Singh (1989) and the ideas mooted by Yukl (1994), does not conform to the notion of aberrations in the distribution of power and authority patterns in organisations as suggested by Sinha (1986).

The patterns of power distribution across categories of structural and socio-demographic factors of managers were also explored to find that differences existed on

account of these factors, as well as the source of assessments. While managers and subordinates generally agreed on the relative power advantage of the former across the attributes of their biographic variables, managers, by and large, claimed higher amounts of power surplus than approved of by subordinates.

Managers' power was found to be declining as they advanced in their age and years of experience. At the same time, higher educational qualifications fetched the managers increasing amounts of power. Subordinates also held the view that there was greater erosion of power for managers as they became older and obsolete.

Managers expressed that variations in their structural positions resulted in a marginal loss of power as they moved up the organisational ladder probably due to the increased distance between themselves and subordinates. But according to subordinates' evaluation, the overall power trend across managers' designations was positively correlated denoting that they attributed greater power to managers occupying senior positions in the organisational hierarchy.

Managers from urban background claimed considerable power excess over subordinates, which the latter did not accede, but at the same time, the subordinates assented some power advantage to managers from rural and semi-urban backgrounds.

Direct recruits among the respondent managers claimed more power surplus for themselves than those who were internally promoted, while subordinates' assessment was marginally in favour of the internally promoted managers.

A significant observation at this point is that while managers consistently claimed greater net power for themselves in respect of many of the socio-demographic categorisations, the subordinates, while reckoning power advantage to their managers, were conceding only narrow margins in statistical terms.

Visibility and credibility of managers:

Visibility and credibility are two organisationally relevant personal attributes of managers that enable them to scale problems of ambiguity of authority and legitimacy of their office. Managers have to nurture personal reputation for being principled and dependable and, engage themselves in activities that would fetch them increased

noticeability. The second objective of the study was to gauge these attributes possessed by the managers with a view to locate them according to varying degrees of these attributes.

Visibility scores of managers were almost symmetrically distributed about the mean score (skewness = 0.1631; $p = 0.1961$) while credibility scores were definitely skewed towards higher values (skewness = 0.4737; $p = 0.0069$). This indicated that managers are conscious of being trustworthy and try maintaining their reputation for it, whereas most of the respondent managers are yet to realise the organisational significance of being visible and acquisition of the same has not been given any place in their personal agenda.

Data revealed that most of the managers (72%) rated themselves as less visible whereas the trend was just reverse as far as credibility was concerned. Almost 75% of the managers claimed to be highly credible members in the organisation. The managers believed and asserted as being perceived by others to be truthful and candid in their dealings.

Very high interdependence that exists between the two dimensions denoted by a coefficient of correlation value of 0.7687 with $p < 0.001$ empirically authenticated the hypothesis offered in the study premising significant association between visibility and credibility levels of managers. It was also found that the two dimensions were not mutually independent of each other (chi-square = 17.975; $p = 0.0000$).

Paired values of the managers' visibility and credibility enabled the fulfilment of the second objective of the study with the result that 31% of them fell into the high visibility/high credibility quadrant. These managers, considered to be men of substance, enjoy others' confidence and could be really influential among peers and subordinates; they are alert to opportunities to take initiative in propelling action and extending guidance and help with or without solicitation.

A substantial number of managers (42%) found their places in the low visibility/high credibility classification in tune with the distribution pattern of the raw scores on the two dimensions. They may be qualified as the opinion leaders among the lot. They rarely seek the limelight during discussions and meetings, but when they speak others are inclined to listen.

About one-fourth of the managers maintain a low profile in terms of both visibility and credibility. They characteristically avoid centre stage and try being out-of-the-eyes of others. There was none in the high visibility/ low credibility quadrant indicating that no manager wants to be identified as a comedian in the arena.

Thus, to state briefly, the classification of managers based on the superimposition of the two dimensions of visibility and credibility served to indicate that bank managers, as a rule, enjoy some deference and have more than minimal horizontal and vertical influence in the organisation.

The two dimensions, because of their conceptual and thematic linkages with the potential influence, were used to check for their probable impact on the total and relative power scores of the managers. It was brought out that while visibility, though an important quality to be nurtured and used by managers, failed to account for any substantial variation in their total power ($t = - 0.89$; $p = 0.378$), whereas credibility levels affected convincingly the total power positions of the managers ($t = - 2.700$; $p = 0.009$).

Managers who claimed increased visibility did not lay a corresponding claim as regards their power advantage over subordinates but, interestingly enough, they were perceived to be having a power advantage by the subordinates ($t = - 2.360$; $p = 0.020$).

Credibility scores of managers seemed to explain, on the other hand, quite convincingly the assessment of their power ($t = - 2.91$; $p = 0.005$). Subordinates were seemingly unimpressed on this count in reckoning power differentials to their bosses.

The findings have lent only inconclusive support to the hypotheses linking visibility and credibility levels of managers to their command of power. Attributed direct co-variation between visibility and power standing of managers was supported only in the eyes of the subordinates when they adjudged formers' relative power. Credibility of managers was seen to be linked up with the managers' total power and the self-rating of their power levels, but failed to contribute to their relative power.

Socio-demographic attributes of age, education, designation and tenure were used to explain variation in managers' visibility/credibility configurations.

Age was found to be affecting both visibility and credibility levels of managers. Visibility and credibility scores were maximum for younger managers with a declining

pattern for older ones. The between age groups variation was statistically established for both the dimensions using ANOVA (for visibility $f = 3.8649$; $p = 0.0106$ and for credibility $f = 2.7856$; $p = 0.0426$).

Status differentials signified by designation and grades, and years of experience, or the differences in nativity backgrounds could not account for significant changes in the visibility and credibility claims of the managers.

Visibility levels of managers were found to be affected by their educational qualifications ($f = 3.8596$; $p = 0.0106$) but credibility scores were more or less uniformly distributed across varying educational qualifications ($f = 0.8913$; $p = 0.4471$).

An important bio-data variable that was observed to be affecting the visibility/credibility levels of managers was their membership in the Officers' Association. Active membership in the association seems to have given them the psychological pep to articulate better and become pronounced and have helped them brazen all odds to live up to their declared values (for Visibility $f = 6.3869$; $p = 0.0021$ and for credibility $f = 3.3929$; $p = 0.0360$).

Power bases of managers:

Theories of social influence hold the view that the ability of an agent to exert influence arises from possession or control of valued resources. These resources are in fact the bases of an actor's power consisting of all resources - opportunities, acts, objects one can exploit so as to affect others' thoughts and actions.

The interest as per the third objective of the study was to identify the important power bases of bank managers that are being admittedly used by them to influence their subordinates.

Managers answered variously to the relevance of different power bases for their instrumental value in their official role performance. Going by the broader classifications of coercive and persuasive bases, in a democratic and relational social system, the managers preferred competence, expertise and logic based powers from the persuasive category and only position power from among the coercive types. It is very educative that managers treated coercive, connection and information powers as relatively sterile.

The managers hinting that referent and extension powers were only auxiliary or even nonessential as regards their personal armoury gave these power bases only lesser appreciation. The managers thus obviously rely on a combination of persuasive and coercive bases than fully banking on any one category.

Expertise was identified by the managers to be the most important power base followed by position and reward powers. Connection power was the least preferred base in their eyes.

Correlation analysis revealed the interdependence of expertise power, the most preferred one, with others. Expert power, it seems, does not exist in and of itself but is related to and is sustained by other power bases. Similar was noticeably the case of position power also. On the other extreme was the coercive power that conserved reciprocity with only expertise and position powers. The coercive base was found to be not tied up with connection, referent and reward bases. The justifiable inference that can be drawn seems to be that while managers, over a period of time, develop administratively and technically some coercive ability from their formal position and masterly prowess, use of threats and punishments that are integral components of the coercive base neither contribute towards nor are nourished by other power bases.

Subordinates also agreed with the managers in locating expertise as the most important and position as the second important power bases of managers. The primacy of expertise, acknowledged jointly and severally by managers and subordinates established it as the vital and fundamental power base of managers for its functional value, thereby supported the study hypothesis that expert power is the primary individual power base for the managers. This also serves to say that subordinates experience indisputable dependency on their managers for their task-related problems as a reliable source of advice, and that the latter have been, in turn, able to demonstrate their ability to offer solutions. The present finding falls in line with some earlier studies also (Hickson, Hinings, Lee, Schneck & Pennings, 1971; Patchen, 1974; Fiorelli, 1988; Singh, 1989).

Subordinates additionally agreed with managers in their appreciation of the position power of their bosses. They ranked position of managers as the second important power base, expressly stating their internalisation of the prerogatives, obligations and

responsibilities infused into the position of a principal officer at the branch. The subordinates recognise and respect managers' right to make certain requests and their own duty to obey these stipulations.

Referent power was identified by subordinates as the third important managerial power base unlike managers who put reward power in the third place. However subordinates relegated reward and coercive bases to the lowest places.

The present study thus showed that expertise followed by legitimate and reward and referent powers of managers are of consequence unlike those having a dominant coercive shade. Studies by Gold (1963), Singh (1982) and Singh & Singh (1985) have offered such ideas already. Further this study, in unison with that of Ragins and Sundstorm (1990), suggests that every power base profitably being wielded by managers can support the development of other types of powers also in organisations.

Power bases and the extent of managers' power

Analysis and discussion on the relation between power bases and managers' power levels in the work unit showed at the outset that managers and subordinates differed in their perception of the linkages explored.

ANOVA revealed that managers' self-perception of their power position varied as a function of the extent to which they were able to employ their legitimate or position power ($p < 0.05$) over the subordinates, or whether or not they could project themselves as role models, referred to as referent power, to their subordinates ($p < 0.05$).

Combined power scores of managers, obtained by aggregating the independent evaluations by managers and subordinates were found to be changing according to managers' expertise ($p < 0.01$) and referent ($p < 0.05$) power bases. According to subordinates' appraisals, expertise was the only quality of managers potent enough to fetch them additional power ($f = 4.81$; $p < 0.05$). Coercive and reward bases were held commonly by both the groups to be inconsequential in determining power levels of managers.

Visibility and Credibility of managers and their power bases

Based on Podsakoff's (1982) argument that personality characteristics of superiors affect their choice of positive and negative reinforces in organisational setting and work situations, the implication of personality dimensions of visibility and credibility was explored for their effects on the managers' preferences for various power bases.

Managers believing to have gained greater visibility in the organisation were more appreciative of the added instrumentality of connection and coercive power bases ($p = 0.001$) in influencing subordinates, while those who claimed higher credibility expressed a kind of exclusive preference for position power base ($p = 0.004$). Information and expertise powers were equally sought by the managers claiming higher degrees of both visibility and credibility ($p < 0.05$). Reward power was also marginally preferred by those who claimed higher credibility ($p = 0.065$).

The only power base that remained apparently unaffected by the two personality dimensions was the referent power. It may be recalled that managers endorsed only lesser approbation towards this power base in their original ranking.

To abbreviate further, the study findings indicated that visibility, as a personality quality of managers, does not generally seek building up positional power, for such managers are able to manage into the ropes even without the support of their formally designated positions nor do they attach importance in becoming role models for others. Credibility seems to restrict managers from eliciting compliance from others through negative reinforcements. They were, unlike visible managers, averse to developing connections with higher ups to be utilised in one's favour as a resource in their encounters and transactions with subordinates.

Biographical variables of managers and their power bases

Managers' personal and socio-occupational attributes were also used for examining variations, if any, in their preferences and claims for power bases.

All managers, irrespective of their age, claimed to be commanding more of position, coercive and reward bases in absolute terms than what was acceded by the subordinates. Managers opined that as they advanced in age, they grew more in their

position power, but lost others like coercive, reward, expertise and referent types. Subordinates, while agreeing with them in acknowledging greater position power and declining expertise power for older managers, held that managers' coercive, reward and referent powers actually increased, as they grew older.

Notwithstanding designation differences, managers claimed comparable levels of position, coercive and reward powers with the trends minutely progressing positively for position and reward bases and negatively for coercive base. They claimed substantial increase in their expertise power with higher designation, but acknowledged a decline in referent power base.

Subordinates, characteristically, granted only lower levels of position, coercive and reward powers with a declining trend for position and reward powers and an increase in coercive power. They attributed higher levels of expertise and referent powers to senior managers and chief managers than what was claimed by managers themselves.

Experienced managers claimed higher position, coercive and reward powers with subordinates conceding only remarkably low levels of these powers to managers with more experience. Strikingly enough, subordinates granted higher levels of expertise and referent powers to more experienced managers indicating that they recognised and respected the experience of managers and permit themselves to be influenced on account of the possible maturity and insightfulness that go hand-in-hand with the increasing years of managerial experience.

Managers claimed higher amounts of position, reward and expertise powers and a lowering of coercive and referent powers with their increasing educational accomplishments. Subordinates while recognising increased reward and expertise power of educated managers, maintained that education does not fetch them a corresponding increase in position and referent power bases.

To summarise the influence of socio-personal backgrounds on the power bases of managers, it was found that while managers asserted higher levels and amounts of various power bases, subordinates consistently acceded only lesser leverages to managers in respect of the power bases, more so with regard to coercive and reward bases. The exceptions worth mentioning relate to expert power that was conceded in greater

amounts, and to a limited extent, in respect of referent power of managers.

Power styles of managers:

As the last component in the construct of managers' power profile, the study sought to explore the relative importance of six influencing styles assumed to be recurrently used by them in affecting the behaviour of subordinates. These power styles comprised integration, consensus, transaction, pressure, direction and coercion; the first three falling into the collective power style category and latter three into the competitive group. The study took the position that since organisations are mixed motives, the managers tend to use both collective and competitive styles depending on the situations.

Results revealed that the managers mostly preferred integrative style followed by consensus and directive styles. Use of pressurising style was less frequent and coercive style was the least favoured one. Transactional style that imbued tinges of both cooperative and competitive approaches were also in vogue in that it was preferred to pressurising and coercive styles.

In the light of data and evidences obtained, it was evident that in the banking organisation, managers relied more on collective power styles of integration and consensus without precluding usage of competitive styles. Managers, by and large, may not violate the consensual norms by using more explicit competitive styles and, instead, use directive and transactional approaches as more covert and subtle means of expressing their normative power. The present findings, in addition to substantiating the study hypothesis that bank managers exercise a combination of collegial and competitive varieties of power styles in influencing subordinates, fall in line with earlier studies by Roberts (1986) and Agarwal & Agrawal (1995) on power styles of managers in contemporary organisations.

The correlation analysis furnished insights into the patterns of relationships that subsist among power styles used by managers. The integrative style correlated significantly with consensus, transactional and directive styles ($p < 0.001$), and did not covary with pressurising and coercive styles, suggesting the discriminant natures of the broader collective and competitive groupings of power styles. Unlike the integrative style, the

directive power styles was supported by all other styles with a maximum correlation with transactional style indicating productive efficiency of directive style when coupled with a tactical exchange approach.

Consensus style was found to be moving in unison with pressure tactics ($p < 0.01$) and to be significantly correlated with transactional style ($p < 0.001$).

Pressure tactics of managers in turn was found to be aided and abetted by transactional and coercive styles ($p < 0.001$) indicating that managers while using pressure and coercive tactics comprising forceful, verbal and other related exhortations demanding output from subordinates should also be seeking their willing co-operation through confidence building attempts.

Transactional style was very much in agreement with coercive style also ($p < 0.01$) as was its affinity with integrative and consensus styles. This finding established the neutrality and mutuality of transactional approach in that it can supplement both collective and competitive power styles as warranted by situations on hand. The correlation analysis, in sum and substance, highlighted the non-relatedness of the evidently pure types of collective and competitive power styles and established the mutuality of transactional power style. The transactional style comes in handy to those managers who are predominantly votaries of either of the two pure style types. It was also evinced that managers, by and large, believes in greater involvement of subordinates in accomplishing the unit goals.

Power style, power base and personality traits

The managers' choice of power style can depend on how much of the various power bases they have garnered, and also on their personal characteristics. The relationships between power bases and each of the six power styles were checked through a set of multiple regression analyses.

The regression functions involving the values of five different power bases, drawn from assessments of the same by the managers, assumed overall significance only in cases of integrative and pressurising power styles. The percentage explanation accounted for by the explanatory variables were 7.6 and 10.3 respectively for the two power styles

mentioned ($R^2 = 0.076$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.046$ for integrative style; and $R^2 = 0.103$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.075$ for pressurising style).

Reward power base emerged as contributing towards integrative, consensus and pressurising power styles. Position power was found to be affecting the managers' preference for pressurising style. Other power styles failed to show any statistically significant impact on the managers' choice of power styles.

Reward power is a corollary of the managers' legitimate position in the hierarchy and is derived of their propensity to control and distribute tangible benefits to subordinates. Thus the extent of a manager's authority and discretion to allocate rewards offers them sufficient leverage in exercising power in behavioural terms also. This research thus indicates that power stemming from formal authority and its attendant prerogatives along with the managers' ability to trade off favours are important organisational resources in influencing the subordinates.

Given the finding that both competitive and collective power styles are in use among managers, the bearing that visibility and credibility properties of managers bring to their choice of power styles was established in cases of four distinct approaches.

Managers with higher visibility were found to be more in favour of using integrative ($p = 0.000$), consensus ($p = 0.005$) and directive ($p = 0.003$) styles than those with lesser visibility. Credibility dimension also was found to be affecting the very same power styles with equal rigour.

The contrast between visible and credible managers converged on the usage of transactional power style. While credibility was found to affect the usage of transactional power style ($p = 0.028$), visibility differences were only marginally accounting for the grater use of the style ($p = 0.092$). Visibility and credibility variations did not have any bearing on the use of pressurising and coercive styles.

The findings seems to indicate that both visibility and credibility can support both competitive and collaborative styles depending on the manager's intentions at any given point of time. But factors other than the personality dimensions may cajole managers to rely more on the co-operation of subordinates for the desired transactions to occur.

Managers, swayed by compulsions of their power bases and personality resources,

use both collective and competitive power styles and the present finding that emphasise the trade-off values of the two broader categories of power styles have much in common with some earlier works by Bacharach & Lawler (1981) and Bazerman & Lewicki (1983) on bargaining and negotiating.

Attempts to understand if the managers' preference for power styles was contingent upon their socio-demographic factors proved futile and as such have not been summarised here.

Managerial Effectiveness:

The evaluation of managerial effectiveness based on secondary data collected from the official records integrated two major strands. The first being the extent of business goals' achievement assessed by a) realisation of the quarterly deposit targets and b) the achievement of annualised advance targets; and the second line of evaluation was the quality of in-house administration abilities of managers that collated their accomplishments on credit management, internal audit and control, housekeeping and quality of customer service.

The results revealed that relatively more effective managers were 26 percent higher achievers in deposit mobilisation, and 19 percent more capable of generating worthwhile asset portfolios for the bank by meeting higher levels in achieving annualised advance targets.

With regard to in-house administration, more effective managers were 12 percent ahead of others in credit management by fulfilling demands of post-credit follow up, renewal of limits and updating credit related documentation. Effective managers were 13 percent more diligent in submitting reports and returns thereby contributing towards enhanced control of their branches. They were 14 percent more productive in correcting previous mistakes and making good the irregularities detected during inspection and audit exercises, 17 percent more successful in integrating subordinates into a team to maintain housekeeping function above board, and 6 percent more effective in up-keeping customer satisfaction and service.

The analysis of management effectiveness was made more comprehensive by

combining the scores for business goals' achievement and in-house administration with the evaluations of the managers' ability for various role-related activities collected from managers themselves and their subordinates. The findings as regards the managerial activities have been that subordinates were generally in agreement with managers in appreciating the latter's abilities for various on-the-job activities. Of the fourteen different dimensions checked, the only dimension on which the subordinates differed from managers was in terms of their under appreciation for their bosses' ability for ensuring the quality of services rendered to clients and customers.

The study established discernible variations among individual managers along the criteria included with the result that they could be classified into more effective and less effective categories. These categories were statistically different in average terms ($t = 24.348$; $p = 0.000$). The differences between the two groups were more pronounced along the indicators of business goals' achievement and in-house administration rather than those of managerial activities.

Power profile and Managerial Effectiveness:

Exploring the possible linkages between the power profile variables, and the contributions of these variables into the determination of effectiveness levels of managers were identified as the central themes in this research. The task of deciphering the contributions of power profile variables of power bases, power styles and personality dimensions of visibility and credibility was undertaken primarily for the reason that this line of exploration would shed more light one of the sparingly examined domains in today's management literature.

Results established that transactional power style (TPS) makes the greatest contribution towards the discriminant score that reflects the effectiveness of managers followed by their position power base (PPB), followed by their pressurising power style (PPS), coercive power base (CPB) and the personality dimension of credibility (CR), in that order.

The discriminant score function incorporating the function coefficients of the two

power styles, two power bases and the personality dimension can be formally stated as:

$$Z = 0.788 \text{ TPS} + 0.576 \text{ PPB} + 0.318 \text{ PPS} + 0.277 \text{ CR} - 0.306 \text{ CPB}.$$

The discriminant or the effectiveness score of individual managers can be obtained by substituting the scores of a manager on these variables to the above shown function. Thus while the transactional power style and position powers of managers make more significant contributions to one's effectiveness levels, pressurising style and coercive base are of secondary importance with minimum effect being brought in by the personality dimension of credibility.

Compared to the personality dimension, the behavioural components of power are found to have about two times weight and the power bases account for 1.6 times weight to the effectiveness levels of managers. It is very insightful to realise that the coercive base serves as a suppresser variable in the function because of its negative coefficient. The coercive base score, at the practical level, enhances the functionality of others in the equation as it does the job of the retarding the error variance introduced by other variables. Going by the structure coefficients of the thirteen power profile variables used to explain the effectiveness levels of managers, the present research has been instrumental in developing a “**power style function of managerial effectiveness**”.

The findings of the study could also establish the accuracy of classification based on the derived discriminant function. The function involving five power profile variables of transactional power style, position power base, pressurising power style, coercive power base and personal credibility of managers was found to classifying correctly 109 cases out of a total of 163 managers, there by establishing 67 % of accuracy.

Researchers and writers have been interested in both leadership and managerial effectiveness for quite long. In spite of the massive literature available in these areas, much remain to be clarified. This research was a humble attempt to conceptualise and explain managerial effectiveness incorporating the three themes as suggested by Campbell et al. (1970). Thus managerial effectiveness was measured in this study in terms of the ‘product’ and ‘process’ dimensions, and was offered an explanation in terms of the ‘person’ dimension that included power related concepts. This power profile explanation of managerial effectiveness differentiates the present work from many others in this category.

Implications for Managerial Practice

Given the detailed analyses and discussions of the variables chosen and the inter-linkages brought out in the study, researcher would now view the question of interpreting managerial effectiveness from an integrative perspective. Specifically, the attempt is to present a socio-psychological interpretation of the findings with a prescriptive coloration.

An assumption that was basic and later found to be tenable in this study seems to be that managers have a super-ordinate position in the hierarchy with its attendant rights and privileges, duly recognised by subordinates, and that managers' behaviours are largely unidirectional. That is, reality, as evinced in the light of data collected, agrees with the organisational chart that depicts the position of a branch manager or the principal officer with arrows pointing towards lower positions. Managers are viewed as position holders who initiate action for others, and their interactions with subordinates are centred largely on issuing of directives. A manager is thus one who directs, gives instructions, structures tasks and takes decisions, all of which suggesting that a manager plans, organises and manages, while subordinates implement.

Although there is nothing new in what has been stated, this orientation was being increasingly obliterated in the thick of recent proliferation in management literature and was even considered archaic by some. The present study has served to refurbish the classical importance attached to managerial position with all its significance in a current, competitive and complex organisational setting.

The study has unveiled the importance of a crucial property implicit in the purposive interactions between a manager and his subordinates namely, the 'exchange' content. The most decisive power style identified is the transactional style that holds that the persons who interact in a management situation undoubtedly behave in a reciprocal fashion than unilateral. When instructions are adhered to, or orders implemented, or requests honoured, it is reasonable on the part of a manager to assume that subordinates expect some form of benefit, and their compliance can be viewed as investments which are intended to fetch them returns. The speed, likelihood and probably, the magnitude of such returns affect the quality of the manager-subordinate interaction. The argument is that

inspite of the unilateral overtones that characterise managerial initiation, the managers may have their attention riveted to the basic fact of subordinates' expectancies concerning the returns that can affect the managers' relationship with subordinates and, in the long run, their effectiveness as managers.

It should be clear that exchange processes hardly confine to simple verbal feedback to subordinates. They may even bargain with the manager for more tangible forms of returns. For example, the subordinate may comply with his manager's wish and expect that in return the manager would comply with some of his requests, or allow him greater latitude not only in his work related behaviour but with future assignments as well. The exchange processes can extend considerably beyond verbal feedback to the extent that in future interactions, the manager would take account of earlier investments of the subordinate and would adjust his response so that a balanced and reciprocal exchange is brought to existence.

An effective manager would thus be one who surveys among his subordinates, finds those who can be helpful at different stages in his work flow, tries to ensure the availability of their services by openly negotiating an exchange with them. An effective manager thus structures his relationship with his subordinates in such a way that in return for some rewards or consideration, others would provide him services on demand. The managers, in order to be effective, have to assume that exchange or transaction is the basic preference of persons and that if this preference is acknowledged, interaction will unfold with more regularity. When a manager approaches subordinates to establish a reciprocal rather than unilateral relationship, he would be in a better position to obtain continuing support and inputs from them. The manager who is sensitive to the reciprocal properties of manager-subordinates relationships, handles them properly and remains attentive to the obligations and rewards associated, is better perceived as more credible, and would be able to stabilise relationships and reduce subordinates' dissatisfaction.

The importance accrued by the pressurising power style in the study can be found to be legitimate once the exchange relationship mentioned in evaluated more closely. The manager and his subordinates in an exchange relationship, primarily due to the transactional style being followed by the former, may have quite different ideas about how

frequently it is necessary to meet the obligations generated from the relationship. A manager, typically enough, is more accustomed to delayed rewards. His job can impose longer time perspectives and may envision progress in terms of more remote outcomes. Thus he probably repays the investments of subordinates at a relatively slow pace. Subordinates however maintain more limited time perspectives and can perceive such delays lengthy and conclude that the manager is hoarding rewards, is reluctant to repay, and is unresponsive to them. When these impressions gets crystallised, subordinates may reduce their compliance to the orders and requests of the manager and eventually reduce the inputs and invests more effort in relationships with the work group where rewards are more immediate. It is not the amount of repayment that is crucial, but the structure of repayment. When the worker ostensibly reduces his input, the manager gets prompted to show up by increasing pressure on the subordinate to work harder and meet schedules set.

The pressure tactics engaged in by managers may include threats, warnings and assertive behaviour such as repeated demands, reminders or frequent checking to see if the person has complied with the requests and orders. A constraint, however, on the indiscriminate use of pressurising style is that it can sometimes lead to unwelcome side effects. Threats and intimidation are likely to undermine the working relationship that has been achieved based on exchange notions and lead to either avoidance or to counter aggression against the manager. For this or similar reasons, it seems that effective managers use pressure tactics only as secondary or even as a last resort when results are not forthcoming in the normal course of events.

Credibility of managers is something to be elucidated at this juncture. It has already been pointed out that credible managers would be better equipped to secure a stable relationship with subordinates and reduce their dissatisfaction. Vast majority of people wants their superiors to be honest and reliable besides being competent, inspiring and forward looking.

Managers earn their credibility with considerable effort and over time. A manager has to wield his position and engage purposely in behavioural styles that would help him achieve his goals and priorities, but also has to desist temptations to do things and behave in ways that could damage his credible image. When subordinates perceive their managers

to be lacking in credibility, they tend to be incredulous and disenchanted.

Kouzes and Posner (1991) maintain that managers enhance their credibility in organisations by clarifying their personal values and belief systems with others and by attempting to integrate theirs with those of others through a process of consensus building. Shared values are the foundations for ensuring a productive and genuine relationship. Lack of proper understanding and disagreements over values can lead to confrontations and false expectations.

Credible managers are also people who take a stand but at the same time maintain an open mind to alternatives and listen carefully to feedback. They demonstrate what is important to them by showing how they spend time, by the priorities on their agenda, by the questions they ask, by the people they keep company with, the places they go to and their behaviours, and the results they recognise and reward. Effective managers, by being credible, create opportunities to live up to and practice what they profess.

Managerial effectiveness is thus an affair of heart and soul as much as it is a matter of reason and effort. Managers, in order to be effective, may be encouraged to be concerned about achieving their output goals and displaying exemplary behaviour. Managing, to sum up, may be seen as a complex, broad ranging involvement, requiring myriad skills and abilities for planning and executing work, and dealing in a co-ordinated, consistent and graceful way with people and subordinates.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

The researcher feels constrained to generalise the results and conclusions of the present study to organisations of different natures. Although the work of managers covered was somewhat flexible as the principal officers of the branches under their supervision and control, the overall administrative structure could be described as bureaucratic and mechanistic. This may partly justify the finding that normative power pattern is still intact for the present group of respondents.

The study was limited as regards the number of variables that could be included. Thus neither all the power sources nor all the power styles were exhaustively covered. Inclusion of the additional constraints on power, such as group membership of

subordinates, their trade union affiliation, technology and the like, to be appreciated as moderating or situational variables might have changed the results.

The power styles were dealt with in such a way that each was treated as isolated and independent of others, rather than as part of a sequence of reciprocal process that occur in an evolving relationship between managers and their subordinates. More research is therefore needed to determine whether and why managers select particular combination and sequences of power styles over time, and how these choices affect subordinates' compliance and commitment, and thereby the effectiveness of managers.

Future research also might benefit from extending the study at both micro and macro levels of analysis to a variety of organisational typologies. At micro level, a future researcher may include personal sources of power and behavioural tactics other than those already examined. At macro level, group membership and organisational centrality measures of managers' are likely to offer comprehensive results.

By virtue of confining the study among bank managers, bearings of factors such as technology, task, workflow design etc. have not been properly accounted for in deciding the effectiveness levels. In addition, implications of environmental uncertainties and critical contingencies both within and outside organisations have not been incorporated into the present framework.

The interpretations of results have been limited by cross-sectional nature of data used in this study. One cannot determine the causal direction of the relationships among structural, behavioural, personality aspects of power and managerial effectiveness using cross-sectional approach. Further, the practical difficulties in observing behavioural elements in managerial activities in a field setting forced the use of subjective measures. In relying on evaluations by self and others, the researcher assumed that the raters could be able and willing to divulge information candidly. Bias arising out of the notions of social desirability of opinions would have had its impact on the quality of data collected. Experimental and longitudinal researches are advisable to determine causal direction of relationships among variables and for enhancing quality of data and the inferences.

Future researches would achieve better classification results if additional and other significant person related variables of 'achievement' and 'sociability' are considered and

incorporated, as suggested by Mc Clelland (1961) and emphasised again by Analoui (1997) in the course of his recent study among senior managers in the Indian Railway establishment.

Concluding remarks

The most significant contribution of this study consists in the achievement of an explanation that affords an alternative approach to foster and maintain the effectiveness of individual managers in terms of their power bases, power styles and personality dimensions of visibility and credibility. This accomplishment would serve to shed light into a hitherto sparingly explored domain in management literature. The research has also been instrumental in engaging power related concepts as explanations for a very significant construct in management namely, the effectiveness of individual managers. The relevance of variables that have been found to have functional importance in predicting managerial effectiveness has been formalised into an equation, called as 'the power style function of managerial effectiveness' that can stand the tests of replication and verification.

Managerial effectiveness, in order to be predicted, developed and nurtured, needs an explication that incorporates individual managers' innate or acquired qualities and resources - either personal or organisational - and tangible behaviours that can be deliberately cultivated and engaged in so as to energise and channel the thoughts and efforts of subordinates. The findings of the present research thus offer valuable inputs for management development interventions.

Though some pioneering thoughts and ideas on the visibility and credibility of managers have already appeared, this research would probably find its place among the first few ones that have seriously employed these personality related dimensions in an attempt to size up the effectiveness of a group of managers who struggle in the thick of fast evolving and competitive business domain.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

THE VISIBILITY CREDIBILITY INVENTORY
W. Brendan Reddy and Gill Williams

Instructions: Completing this instrument will give you an opportunity to learn about your visibility and credibility in your group or team. Please answer each question candidly, recognizing that there are no right/wrong, good/bad answers. Base your responses on your initial reaction to your actual behavior, *not* what you wish your behavior to be. circle one of the numbers next to each statement to indicate the degree to which that statement is true for you or is descriptive of you.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
	Strongly Disagree (Very Unlike Me)	Disagree (Unlike Me)	Slightly Disagree (Somewhat Unlike Me)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (Neither Like nor Unlike Me)	Slightly Agree (Somewhat Like Me)	Agree (Like Me)	Strongly Agree (Very Like Me)		
1. I am usually one of the more vocal members of the group.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I frequently volunteer to lead the group.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. People in the group usually listen to what I have to say.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I frequently find myself on "centre stage".			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am able to influence the decisions that the group makes.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. People often seek me out for advice.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel that I am trusted by the group.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I enjoy the role of being "up-front".			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My opinion is usually held in high regard by group members.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I am often reluctant to lead the group.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I receive much recognition for my ideas and contributions.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I have a reputation for being believable.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Group members typically influence what I have to say in the group.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
	Strongly Disagree (Very Unlike Me)	Disagree (Unlike Me)	Slightly Disagree (Somewhat Unlike Me)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (Neither Like nor Unlike Me)	Slightly Agree (Somewhat Like Me)	Agree (Like Me)	Strongly Agree (Very Like Me)			
14.	I would rather lead the group than be a participant.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I do not like being in the limelight and avoid it whenever possible.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	My ideas are usually implemented			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Group members frequently ask for my opinions and input.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I take the initiative in the group and am usually one of the first to speak out.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I usually volunteer my thoughts and ideas without hesitation.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I seem to blend into crowd at parties.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	During meetings I am alone in presenting my own point of view.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I wait to be asked for my opinion in meetings.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	People seek out my advice.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	During meetings my point of view is not joined by others.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	People check with others about the advice I give to them.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I ask questions just to have something to say.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I often find myself in the role of scribe during meetings.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Group members usually "check out" data I give them.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	Group members view me as an expert in my field.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I am in highly visible race, ethnic, or gender group (for example, a woman in a predominantly male organization)			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	I am often asked to work at organizational levels higher than my own.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	Group members usually consult me about important matters before they make a decision.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	Strongly Disagree (Very Unlike Me)	Disagree (Unlike Me)	Slightly Disagree (Somewhat Unlike Me)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (Neither Like nor Unlike Me)	Slightly Agree (Somewhat Like Me)	Agree (Like Me)	Strongly Agree (Very Like Me)	
33.	I try to dress well and/or differently from members of my group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	I usually try to sit at the head of the conference table at meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	Group members often refer to me in their statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	I speak loudly during meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	I have noticed that group members often look at me even when not talking directly to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	I stand when I have something important to say.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	Sometimes I think group members do not know I am present.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	I am emotional when I speak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	Following my absence from the group, I am not asked to explain where I was.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	The word "wisdom" has been used in reference to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	Group members come to me for gossip but not for "substance".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	I seem to have the "ear" of the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	I am very influential in my group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	I clown around with group members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	Group members do not like me to disagree with them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	I jump right into whatever conflict the group members are dealing with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	I like telling jokes and humorous stories in the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	My contributions to the group are not very important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**THE VISIBILITY/CREDIBILITY INVENTORY
SCORING SHEET**

Instructions: Transfer the number you circled for each item onto the appropriate blank on this scoring sheet. Then add each column of numbers and write its total in the blank provided.

Visibility		Credibility	
<i>Item Number</i>	<i>My score</i>	<i>Item Number</i>	<i>My score</i>
1.	_____	3.	_____
2.	_____	5.	_____
4.	_____	6.	_____
8.	_____*	7.	_____
10.	_____	9.	_____
14.	_____	11.	_____
15.	_____*	12.	_____
18.	_____	13.	_____*
19.	_____	16.	_____
20.	_____*	17.	_____
22.	_____*	21.	_____*
26.	_____	23.	_____
27.	_____	24.	_____*
30.	_____	25.	_____*
33.	_____	28.	_____*
34.	_____	29.	_____
36.	_____	31.	_____
38.	_____	32.	_____
39.	_____*	35.	_____
40.	_____	37.	_____
41.	_____*	42.	_____
43.	_____	44.	_____
46.	_____	45.	_____
48.	_____	47.	_____
49.	_____	50.	_____*
Total	_____	Total	_____

*Reverse-score item. Change your score according to the following scale and write the corrected number in the blank.

1=7 2=6 3=5 4=4 5=3 6=2 7=1

Appendix B

POWER BASE SCALE

(Adapted from the CPP Scale of Dr. UDAY PAREEK)

I In general, how much say or influence do you feel you have, as the manager, on how your office is run?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No Influence		Some influence		Considerable influence		Great influence

II In general, how much say or influence do you feel the staff as a group has on how your office is run?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No Influence		Some influence		Considerable influence		Great influence

III Below are given some items which may contribute to your influence in the organisation. Read each item and write how important it is or would be for your role performance. Use the following key.

Write 1 if it is not important

Write 2 if it is little important

Write 3 if it has some importance

Write 4 if it is quite important

Write 5 if it is very important and critical

Items	Importance to your role
1. Formal authority	-
2. Close contact with and / or direct access to the Chief Executive	-
3. Knowledge and information to explain the logic and convince others	-
4. Authority to take actions / punish	-
5. Functional or operational expertise	-
6. Modelling influence (convincing people through personal example and behaviour)	-
7. Charisma (Ability to arouse emotions for actions)	-

8. Capacity to reward people (all kinds of rewards including recognition and positive feed back). -
9. Capacity to hold back critical information, resources or decisions -
10. Capacity to help (providing care / help to others when needed) -
11. Competence (achieving the goals worked for) -
12. Close personal relationships to which you can appeal to get things done -

Appendix C

MANAGER'S POWER STYLE SCALE

Manisha Agarwal & G.C. Agrawal

Item Index

Factor 1

Integrative PS

1. The best way of getting work done is by making others feel that they are essential for the type of work.
2. Making others feel committed to a task helps in getting the work done
3. Developing in others a sense of responsibility helps in getting their best performance
4. Making others feel that their contribution is very essential for the completion of a task is an effective way of getting the work completed.
5. Developing in others a sense of duty helps in getting the work done.
6. Work can best be completed by developing in others a sense of goodwill for each other.
7. Developing interpersonal trust among others is an effective way of accomplishing work objectives
8. Solutions which enable each person to feel that he is a winner are best for accomplishing organisational goals

Factor 2

Directive - Charismatic PS

9. Praising others and highlighting their past contributions is an effective way of getting others to co-operation
10. Highlighting one's own work efforts is necessary for making others enthusiastic about getting the work done.
11. It is necessary to issue orders and directives for getting the work done.
12. Making others aware of the consequences of failing to comply with the boss's expectations is necessary for getting the work done.
13. Each person's performance has to be constantly checked in order to get the work done.
14. The daily assessment of performance has to be made in order to force others to finish the work in time.

Factor 3

Consensus PS

15. Work can be done best by listening to each person's view before deciding the appropriate method of working.
16. It is better to search for common goals in order to get the work done.
17. It is necessary to consult with others for deciding upon the best method of working.

18. It is necessary to make full use of each individual's potentials before deciding the appropriate method of working.

19. Assistance from others is necessary for completing the work.

Factor 4

Pressurising PS

20. It is necessary to constantly use pressure on others in order to get the work done.

21. Constant reminders have to be sent to others for getting the work done.

22. One has to be very forceful and demanding for getting the work completed.

Factor 5

Transactional PS

23. In my organization one has to provide suitable reasons and/or benefits to subordinates for getting the work done.

24. One has to appeal to others' sense of duty based on obligations towards their boss for getting the work completed.

25. One has to explain the logic behind each goal for getting others to cooperate on the job.

Factor 6

Coercive PS

26. An effective way of getting work done is by reminding others of the loss of their privileges and promotions if work is left incomplete.

27. It is necessary to threaten others with the loss of their promotions in order to get their cooperation.

28. Work can only be completed if others know their boss's expectations

Appendix D

Managers' Effectiveness Assessment Data Sheet (ORGANISATIONAL / SUPERIORS' EVALUATION)

	Parameter	Very Good 80-100%	Good 60-80%	Satisfactory 50-60%	Unsatisfactory upto 50%	Maximum Credit	Credit Awarded
1	Business Goals						
	Deposits:						
a	Attainment of quarterly targets	Quarterly targets achieved for past two years	Quarterly targets achieved for the immediate preceding year	2 Quarterly target not achieved for the immediate preceding year	All quarterly targets not achieved in the preceding year	15	-
2	Advances:						
a	Attainment of Annual targets	Targets achieved for past two years	Targets achieved for the immediate preceding year	Targets not achieved for immediate preceding year	Targets not achieved for past 2 years	10	-

In-house Administration

	Parameter	Very Good 80-100%	Good 60-80%	Satisfactory - 50-60%	Unsatisfactory upto 50%	Maximum Credit	Credit Awarded
3	Credit Mgmt.						
a	Post-credit follow-up	Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	5	-
b	Renewal of limits	Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	5	-
c	Documentation	Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	5	-
4	Internal Audit and Control						
a	Submission of Progress reports	above 80%	Between 75-80%	Between 50-75%	Below 50%	5	-
b	Rectification of inspection irregularities	above 80%	Between 75-80%	Between 50-75%	Below 50%	10	-
5	House keeping						
a	Balancing of books	up to date	2 months' arrears	3 months' arrears	arrears for more than 3 months	10	-
b	Customer service	Very Good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	10	-

Total Effectiveness :

Appendix E

MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS SCALE

Dr. M. K. Mathew

Listed below are some of the activities you engage in as managers on a day-to-day basis. You are requested to rate yourself on each of the dimensions presented. Rating is to be done on a seven (7) point scale against each statement by circling the appropriate number.

As far as possible avoid the tendency to concentrate (clustering) in the middle points. Use other answer categories when necessary. Please avoid the tendency to rate yourself either positively or negatively always. There are no ideal answers.

		Self Rating						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		out						
Your demonstrated ability to:		standing	high	average			low	
(read this as a prefix to the first twelve items below)								
1.	make timely decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	analyse problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	make sound decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	provide for both long-term and short-term needs of the branch	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	set up work schedules	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	systematically approach things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	keep yourself informed of recent developments and changes in your special field	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	apply knowledge in your work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	ensure the quality of service your group provides to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	develop and install mechanisms to ensure the desired quality in the services provided by your group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	to define and assign responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	ensure follow up attempts on subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	The team spirit in your branch	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Your assessment of training and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15.	Your attempts for stimulating the subordinates' self development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Your cost consciousness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	The effectiveness of the control measures implemented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Your attempts to make subordinates aware of the cost factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Your communication with others both within and outside	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Your ability to gain the acceptance of and support from others including subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Your ability to check the progress of work and other assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Your group's ability to meet deadline without last minute rush	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Your preparedness to face problematic situations like employees strike and absenteeism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Your ability to transmit information insuring the other person's attention and comprehension	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Your subordinates' satisfaction of their need for information about their work and the branch	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	Your capacity to accept new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Your own demonstrated imagination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	your adeptness at generation of better ways of doing things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	Your readiness to assume new or additional responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	Your ability to ensure satisfactory completion of your assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	Your operating results under existing conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	Your ability to utilise manpower, equipments, materials.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	Your integrity and loyalty to the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	Your overall personal resourcefulness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix F

Socio - occupational data of managers

Please write or tick at the appropriate places.

Personal

1. Age (Completed years as on your last birthday years)
2. Sex Male / Female
3. Designation (Present)
4. Grade (Present)

Social background

5. Where did you spend most of your first fifteen years of your life
 - i Village
 - ii Town
 - iii City/Metropolis
6. Your fathers occupation

Education

7. Number of years of formal education
8. Educational qualifications at the time of joining the organisation
9. Educational qualifications acquired while serving in the organisation
10. Have you attended any managerial training programmes Yes No

Work Experience

11. Total number of years of work experience Yrs.
12. Number of years of service in the present organisation Yrs.
13. Number of years as a branch manager Yrs.
14. Are you a direct recruitee of the officers' level? Yes No
or
15. Are you a promotee to the managerial level from the staff level? Yes No
16. Are you a member of the officers' Association? Yes No
17. If yes. Are you an active member of the Officers' Association? Yes No

Appendix G

Questionnaire for subordinates

Read the following two questions and respond to them most candidly using the response categories given. Each of the statements relates to your experiences or behaviours in terms of your current on-the-job situations. Circle the number that best corresponds to your assessment of your on-the-job behaviour. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. Indicate your honest answer to each item.

Section I

1 In general, how much say or influence, do you feel, the staff, as a group, has on how your branch office is run?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No Influence		Some influence		Considerabl e influence		Great influence

2 In general, how much say or influence do you feel your manager has on how your office is run?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No Influence		Some influence		Considerabl e influence		Great influence

Section II

Listed below are five reasons generally given by the people when they are asked why they do things their superiors suggest or want them to do. What according to you are the reasons as to why you people should be responding positively to your manager's requests, priorities, and orders?

Please read all the following five items carefully before making your responses. Give rank 1 to the most important factor, 2 to the next, and so on. (Please rank all the items).

	Statements	Rank
i	We admire our manager for his personal qualities, and want to act in a way that merits his admiration	
ii	We respect his competence and good judgement about things with which he is more experienced than we are	
iii	He can give special help and benefits to those who co-operate with him.	
iv	He can pressurise or penalise those who do not co-operate	
v	He has an inherent right, considering his position as the manager, to expect that his suggestions are promptly carried out.	

Section III

Listed below are some of the activities your manager engage in on a day-to-day basis. You are requested to rate **your manager** on each of the dimensions presented. Rating is to be done on a seven (7) point scale against each statement by circling the appropriate number.

As far as possible avoid the tendency to concentrate (clustering) at the middle points. Use other answer categories when necessary. Please avoid the tendency to rate either positively or negatively always. There are no ideal answers.

Item	Rating						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	out						
	standing	high	aver	age		low	
IV Your manager's demonstrated ability to:							
(read this as a prefix to the first twelve items below)							
1.	make timely decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
2.	analyse problems	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
3.	make sound decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
4.	provide for both long-term and short-term needs of the branch	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
5.	set up work schedules	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
6.	systematically approach things	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
7.	keep yourself informed of recent developments and changes in your special field	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
8.	apply knowledge in your work	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
9.	ensure the quality of service your group provides to customers	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
10.	develop and install mechanisms to ensure the desired quality in the service provided by your group	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
11.	to define and assign responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
12.	ensure follow up attempts on subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
13.	The team spirit in your branch	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
14.	Your manager's assessment of training and development needs of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
15.	Your manager's attempts for stimulating the subordinates' self development	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
16.	His cost consciousness	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

17.	The effectiveness of control measures your manager has implemented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	His attempts to make subordinates aware of the cost factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	His communication with others both within and outside	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	His ability to gain the acceptance of and support from others including subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	His ability to check the progress of work and other assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	His ability to make the group meet deadlines without last minute rush	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	His preparedness to face problematic situations like employees' strike and absenteeism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	His ability to transmit information insuring the other person's attention and comprehension	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	His ability to ensure subordinates' satisfaction of their need for information about their work and the branch	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	His capacity to accept new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	His demonstrated imagination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	His adeptness at generation of better ways of doing things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	His readiness to assume new or additional responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	His ability to ensure satisfactory completion of your assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	His overall operating results under existing conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	His ability to utilise manpower, equipments, materials.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	His integrity and loyalty to the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	His overall personal resourcefulness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7