MODULE 4
MEANING OF POWER

DEFINITION OF POWER

Power is the ability to influence other people. It refers to the capacity to affect the behaviour of the subordinate with the control of resources. It is an exchange relationship that occurs in transactions between an agent and a target. The agent is the person who uses the power and target is the receipt of the attempt to use power.

Distinction between Power, Authority and Influence

Power is the ability to influence someone else. Influence is the process of affecting the thoughts, behaviour and feelings of another person. Authority is the right to influence another person. Authority is a legitimate right to influence others.

(1) Authority is right to influence others but power is ability to influence people.

(2) Authority is legitimate while power is not.

(3) Authority confers legitimacy to power but power itself need not be legitimate.

Sources (Base) of Power
According to French and Raven, a manager drives power from five sources : Reward, Coercive, Legitimate, Referent and Expert power.
Reward Power
It is based on the agent's/manager's ability to control rewards the target/employee wants. The common, e.g., of it are managers control rewards of salary increases, bonuses and promotions. This power is based on old saying that 'wealth is power'.
Coercive Power
It is opposite of reward power. It is based on a manager's ability to cause an unpleasant experience for its people. In organizational situation, it may be in the form of action for or threat for dismissal, suspension, or demotion, for the people working in organization.
Legitimate Power
It is based on position and mutual agreement. Both the agent and target agree that the agent has the right to influence the employees. It is in the form of authority which is delegated to the positions of organizational members.
Referent Power
It is an elusive power that is based on interpersonal attraction. Charismatic individuals are often thought to have referent power. Here, people take somebody as ideal and behave accordingly upto a certain stage.
Expert Power
It exists when the agent has information or knowledge that the target needs. It is based on the proverb, "knowledge in power". Three conditions to be fulfilled are :
(1) The target must trust that the information given by the agent is accurate and correct.

(2) The information should be relevant and useful to the target.
(3) The target must consider the agent as an expert. (See p. 477, 478)

Uses of Power

Some people enjoy more power than others because:

1. Extraordinary Works : Doing things in a non-routine or extraordinary works contribute to power. For example, negotiating a new contract, developing a new product, or formulating a new programme.

2. Visible Activities : Even extraordinary activities not known to others do not generate much power. Therefore, activities need to be visible or known to others. Activities announced and appreciated by the people of higher echelons bring more power.

3. Cultivate Right People : Individuals can also increase their personal power by developing their interpersonal relationships with their superiors, subordinates and peers.

4. Coalitions : Coalescing is yet another way to earn power. The philosophy behind joining together is gaining increased capability to influence others.

5. Co-opt : Individuals can increase their personal power by co-opting people or groups. Co-opting, seeks to eliminate threats and opposition to an individual's base of power.

Importance of Decision Making

Management is essentially a bundle of decision-making process. Decision making is a process of selecting the best course of action from among many alternatives. The managers of an enterprise are responsible for making decisions and ascertaining that the decisions made are carried out in accordance with defined objectives or goals. It is useful for the successful operation of organizational activities. All the managerial functions such as planning, organizing, directing and controlling are determined by the decision. The following points describes the significance of decision making in the organization.

Pervasive Function

Decision making is essential in each level of management. Top level management makes strategic decisions such as planning, organizing, directing and controlling. Middle level management makes tactical decisions such as division of works, fixation of authority and responsibility, integration of efforts etc. Operating level management makes regular operating decisions such s preparation of schedule of daily works, divisions of works, delegation of authority etc. Thus, decision making function is performed in all the levels of management according to needs. This is necessary to bring uniformity and smoothness in the organizational performance.

Motivates Employees

Rational decision results in motivation for the employees. This is because the employees are motivated to implement rational decisions. When the rational decisions are implemented the organization makes high profits. Therefore, it can give financial and non-financial benefits to the employees.

Indispensable Component

Decision making is known as an inseparable part of management functions. It is one of the essential processes for successful operation of business. It determines all management functions and covers every part of the organizational structure. Every manager from top level to the first line is involved in the decision making process according to the nature of works.

Facilitate Innovation

Rational decisions facilitate innovation. This is because it helps to develop new ideas, new products, new process, etc. This results in innovation. Innovation gives a competitive advantage to the organization.

Evaluation of Managerial Function

Decision making is a time consuming process and decision makers spend more time to select the alternative. The quality of decision serves as the yardstick for evaluating managerial performance. It provides a clear line of guidance to the management for the achievement of defined objectives. The achievement of managerial performance is evaluated and measured with planned performance.

Quick Decisions

Some decisions should be made quickly. Unfortunately, those are the ones that some business owners may agonize over for days or weeks. If a decision can be changed or undone without great cost, then it can be made quickly. The company can go broke while top management oscillates between using one office supply company over another.

Selection of Best Alternatives

Decision making is the process of selecting a best course of action from among many alternatives. A problem might be solved in different ways on the basis of time and situation. The decision maker evaluates all the possible alternatives on the basis of organizational process and suitability. The selection of the best course of action is significant to bring smoothness in operation and achieve organizational goals.

DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

Step 1: Identify the decision

You realize that you need to make a decision. Try to clearly define the nature of the decision you must make. This first step is very important.

Step 2: Gather relevant information

Collect some pertinent information before you make your decision: what information is needed, the best sources of information, and how to get it. This step involves both internal and external "work." Some information is internal: you'll seek it through a process of self-assessment. Other information is external: you'll find it online, in books, from other people, and from other sources.

Step 3: Identify the alternatives
As you collect information, you will probably identify several possible paths of action, or alternatives. You can also use your imagination and additional information to construct new alternatives. In this step, you will list all possible and desirable alternatives.

Step 4: Weigh the evidence
Draw on your information and emotions to imagine what it would be like if you carried out each of the alternatives to the end. Evaluate whether the need identified in Step 1 would be met or resolved through the use of each alternative. As you go through this difficult internal process, you'll begin to favor certain alternatives: those that seem to have a higher potential for reaching your goal. Finally, place the alternatives in a priority order, based upon your own value system.

Step 5: Choose among alternatives
Once you have weighed all the evidence, you are ready to select the alternative that seems to be best one for you. You may even choose a combination of alternatives. Your choice in Step 5 may very likely be the same or similar to the alternative you placed at the top of your list at the end of Step 4.

Step 6: Take action
You're now ready to take some positive action by beginning to implement the alternative you chose in Step 5.

Step 7: Review your decision & its consequences
In this final step, consider the results of your decision and evaluate whether or not it has resolved the need you identified in Step 1. If the decision has not met the identified need, you may want to repeat certain steps of the process to make a new decision. For example, you might want to gather more detailed or somewhat different information or explore additional alternatives.

APPROACHES TO DECISION MAKING

(1) State the Situational Goal:
At the outset, a goal for a particular situation is stated. Some decision-models do not begin with a goal. However, it is advisable because it can be used as a standard in determining whether there is a decision to be made later on.

(2) Identify the Problem:
In this phase, the problem requiring decision is recognized and diagnosed. It involves understanding the nature, magnitude and causes of the problem. The purpose of problem identification is to collect information that has a bearing on the goal.

If there is a .discrepancy between the actual situation and the goal, action may be required. Reliable information is an absolute necessity here. Inaccurate information can lead to wrong decisions. At this stage, the constraints within which the problem must be solved are also defined.

(3) Determining Decision Type:
Now decision- makers must determine if the problem requires a programmed or a non-programmed decision. If a programmed decision is required, an appropriate decision rule 0s invoked and a choice is made from the available alternatives.

(4) Generate Alternatives:
The next step in making a non-programmed decision is to generate alternatives. Here, decision-makers generate alternatives on the basis of their education-academic as well as professional, experience and knowledge about the situation.

In addition, information may be sought from colleagues, subordinates, experts and superiors. Decision-makers may analyze the symptoms of the problems for clues or rely on their own intuition or judgement to generate alternative solutions.

(5) Evaluate Alternatives:
Each alternative is assessed in terms of its Strengths and weaknesses, costs and benefits as well as possible negative consequences keeping in mind predetermined decision criteria. The positive consequences must be weighed against negative consequences.

The ultimate decision criterion here is whether a particular decision will bring us nearer the goal. According to Zeleny (1976), the evaluation process usually includes: (a) describing the anticipated outcomes of each alternative, (b) evaluating the anticipated costs of each alternative, and (c) estimating the uncertainties and risks associated with each alternative.

In most situations, the decision-makers do not have perfect information regarding the outcomes of all alternatives at their disposal.

(6) Choose an Alternative:
This is the most crucial step in the decision-making process. It involves selecting the best alternative with maximum positive consequences, least or no negative outcomes, less risks and minimum costs.

In other words, the expected value of each alternative is determined and the alternative with the largest expected values is selected. Again, the choice of alternative depends on decision-makers' education, judgement, experiences, logical analysis etc.

At this stage, it is important to consider contingency plans. Contingency plans are alternative actions to take if the primary course of action is unexpectedly disrupted or rendered inappropriate. Planning for contingencies is part of the transition between choosing the preferred alternative and implementing it.

(7) Implementing the Plan:
Once a decision is formally accepted, an authorisation is made for its implementation. Implementation puts the decision into action and involves communicating the decision, gathering support for and acquiring and assigning resources to ensure that it is carried out.

It builds on the commitment and motivation of those involved in the decision-making process. Successful implementation requires appropriate use of resources and good management skills, leadership character sties, reward structure and knowledge and application of group dynamics. Sometimes the decision-maker begins to doubt a choice already made. This is known as cognitive dissonance.

(8) Control:
This is the final stage of rational decision-making process, wherein, the outcomes of the decision are measured a id compared with the predetermined, desired goals. If there is a discrepancy between the two, the decision-maker may restart the process of decision-making by revising/modifying/setting new goals.

Decision Making Conditions

There are different conditions in which decisions are made. Managers sometimes have an almost perfect understanding of conditions surrounding a decision, but in other situations they may have little information about those conditions. So, the decision maker must know the conditions under which decisions are to be made. Generally, the decision maker makes decision under the condition of certainty, risk and uncertainty.

1. Certainty
Certainty is a condition under which the manager is well informed about possible alternatives and their outcomes. There is only one outcome for each choice. When the outcomes are known and their consequences are certain, the problem of decision is to compute the optimum outcome. Similarly, if there are more than one alternative they are evaluated by conducting cost studies of each alternative and then choosing the one which optimizes the utility of the resources. The condition of certainty exists in case of routine decisions such as allocation of resources for production, payment of wages and salary etc. There is a little ambiguity and relatively low chance of making and impractical decision.

2. Risk
A more decision making condition is a state of risk. In such a condition, managers have knowledge about alternative course of actions but outcomes are associated with probability estimates. It is more difficult to predict future conditions without full information, so the outcome of an alternative cannot be accurately determined. Therefore, managers can guess the probable outcome on the basis of their experience, research and other available information. They can choose an alternative with highest expected outcome. However, such decisions are largely subjective as no decision criteria are fully

reliable. Decision making under conditions of risk is accompanied by moderate ambiguity and chances of an impractical decision.

3. Uncertainty

A state of uncertainty occurs when managers are unaware of the problem they face. They do not know all the alternatives, the risk associated with them or the likely consequences of each alternative. This uncertainty arises from the complexity and dynamism of contemporary organization and their environments. Managers have limited information to calculate the degree of risk, so statistical analysis is not possible. The condition of uncertainty arises when the organization introduces a new or innovative product or service, adopts new technology, selects new advertising program etc. To make effective decision in uncertain conditions, managers must acquire as much relevant information as possible and approach the situation from a logical and rational perspective. Intuition, judgment and experience always play major roles in the decision making process. However, decision under uncertainty is the most ambiguous for managers and there is more possibility of error.

Motives: Motive is defined as an inner state that energises, activates (or moves) and directs (or chanalises) the behaviour towards certain goals.

Importance of Motivation

Broadly, the **importance of motivation** is as follow:

1. **High level of performance**
2. **Low employee turn over and absenteeism**
3. **Acceptance of organization change**
4. **Organizational image**

High level of performance

Organizations must ensure that the employees have a high degree of motivation. A highly motivated employee put extra effort into work and have a sense of belonging for the organization.

The efficiency of work will be improved, wastage will be minimum which will result in increased productivity, and performance level will be high.

Low employee turnover and absenteeism

Low level of motivation is a root cause of low turnover and absenteeism. High level of absenteeism causes a low level of production, poor quality, wastages and disruption in production schedules.

Increased turnover is disastrous for any organization as it puts a strain on the financial position of the organization due to additional recruitment, selection, training and development.

Acceptance of organization change
Social change and technology evolution happens in the external environment have greater impact on the motivation of the employee. Management must ensure that the changes are introduced in the organization and its benefits explained to the employees so that there is no resistance to change and organizational growth is achieved.

Re-engineering, empowerment, job enrichment, job rotation, the introduction of new technology and processes will go a long way to boost employee morale and achieve a high degree of motivation.

Organizational image
Employees are the mirrors of any organization. Regular training & development programmes should be organized to keep employees updated with the latest skills. It will have a positive impact on the employees and the image of the organization will be improved.

The high organizational image will contribute towards the brand image of the product and services the organization is marketing.

5 Steps of Motivation Process

Employee motivation is of crucial concern to management; mainly because of the role that employee motivation plays in performance.

1. Identify Unsatisfied Needs and Motives.
2. Tension.
3. Action to satisfy needs and motives.
4. Goal accomplishment.
5. **Feedback.**

STEPS OF MOTIVATION PROCESS EXPLAINED BELOW

1. Identify Unsatisfied Needs and Motives
The first process of motivation involves unsatisfied needs and motives. Unsatisfied needs activated by internal stimuli such as hunger and thirst.
They can also be activated by external stimuli such as advertisement and window display.

2. Tension
Unsatisfied needs to create tension in the individual. Such tension can be physical, psychological, and sociological. In this situation, people try to develop objects that will satisfy their needs.

3. Action to satisfy needs and motives
Such tension creates a strong internal stimulus that calls for action. The individual engages in activities to satisfy needs and motives for tension reduction.
For this purpose, alternatives are searches and choice are made, the action can be hard work for **earning more money**.

4. Goal accomplishment
Action to satisfy needs and motives accomplishes goals. It can be achieved through reward and punishment. When actions are carried out as per the tensions, then people are rewarded others are punished. Ultimately goals are accomplished.

5. Feedback
Feedback provides information for revision or improvement or modification of needs as needed. Depending on how well the goal is accomplished their needs and motives are modified.

Theories of Motivation

1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
According to Smith & Cronje (1992), the way Maslow's theory is explained relies on the fact that people want to increase what they want to achieve in life and their needs are prioritized according to their importance. Deriving from the hierarchy of needs by Maslow, content theories of job satisfaction revolve around employees' needs and the factors that bring them a reasonable degree of satisfaction (Saif et al., 2012). Based on the basic physical, biological, social and psychological needs of human beings, Maslow came up with a five-stage theory that places the needs of the individual in different categories and prioritizes their attainment. These categories, in order of decreasing priority, are:

- physiological needs (food, shelter, clothing);
- safety and security needs (physical protection);
- social needs (association with others);
- esteem needs (receiving acknowledgement from others); and
- self-actualisation needs (the desire for accomplishment or to leave behind a legacy).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs forms the basis of theories that try to explain job satisfaction. Teachers, like all people, have needs that have to be satisfied. Besides the basic needs for food, shelter and clothing, safety from physical, harm, and social interaction, they also need the recognition and appreciation of students, colleagues, and parents.theories of motivation

2. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory/Motivator-Hygiene
Herzberg's Two-factor theory, also known as Motivator-Hygiene, emanated from a study conducted among accounts and engineers to determine what makes an individual feel good or bad about their job (Saif et al., 2012). Regarding 'satisfiers', Herzberg noted that there were five features of work that bring about satisfaction, namely achievement, recognition, the job itself, responsibility and advancement. At the other end of the spectrum, Herzberg identified institutional politics, the management approach, supervision, pay, relationships at work and working conditions as factors that may demoralize employees. Golshan, Kaswuri,

Agashahi and Ismail (2011:12) assert that organizations are increasingly applying Herzberg's theory to create opportunities for "personal growth, enrichment and recognition" among their employees. Employees should be promoted after completing certain stages of their career and should receive recognition for special achievements – for example, when they produce exceptional results in their subject areas; on a more basic level, they should also be given responsibility to determine how to handle tasks that relate to their jobs. The Two-factor theory has however drawn its share of criticism. Golshan et al. (2011) point out that it fails to distinguish between physical and psychological aspects and to precisely explain what motivators are and how they differ from hygiene factors; it also fails to express the degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as a measure instead of using numbers. Another criticism leveled against it is that it makes assumptions that every individual will react in the same way in the similar situation.

3. McGregor's X and Y Theories

McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Y models categorize employees as belonging to one of two groups based on two sets of assumptions. Theory X assumptions take a negative perspective of people: People can have "an inherent dislike for work and avoid it if possible; because of this, they must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to make them work. They prefer to be directed, avoid responsibility, have little ambition, and want security" (Saif et al. 2012, p.138). Theory Y assumptions take the opposite view: the mental and physical inputs expended at the workplace are equated and par with those rest or play. External factors or any threats from outside may not be the sole influence for exerting effort. Workers or people can exercise caution and discipline to have objectives achieved, but the hunger in their desire to commit to objectives is dependent on how big are the rewards as assigned to that kind of achievement. Under normal circumstances, people can adapt to seek responsibility and not only accept it (Saif et al., 2012, p.1357). Applying these assumptions to a school environment, one could argue that two of the main causes of dissatisfaction among teachers are having to deal with problem students and a strict and inconsiderate management, for example a principal who is coercive and does not appreciate the efforts of teachers, or an overly directive principal who never delegates or allows teachers to make independent decisions. Conversely, a supportive principal may be a source of job satisfaction to teachers (Alavi and Askaripur, 2003, p.312).

4. McClelland's Need Achievement Theory

McClelland's need achievement theory postulates that some people are driven to success through seeking "personal achievement rather than rewards themselves" (Saif et al., 2012, p.1387). This theory is readily applicable to academic environments and explains why some teachers are high achievers, despite the difficulties they face: they set themselves high goals and achieving these goals is what drives them. Alderfer's ERG theory is related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs but reduces Maslow's five categories of a need to three; namely, relatedness being (esteem/social needs), then growth being (self-actualization) and existence which is (security/physiological needs).

5. The Equity Theory

Process theories explain 'how' satisfaction comes about, as opposed to 'what' causes motivation. The equity theory postulates that employees will weigh their input into a job against the output they receive from it – the more the rewards, the greater their satisfaction. This resonates with Naveed et al. (2011, p.302) definition of job satisfaction as the difference between employee input and job output. Regarding this theory, employees who perceive that they receive more output from their jobs than what they put into them will experience job satisfaction. Certain aspects of the job itself also shape how an employee perceives it. Tasks that are clarified bring a better job satisfaction since a clear role breeds a work force that is happy, committed and shows much involvement in work that is done. Authors identified five major job characteristics that impact on the psychological state of an employee and influence their motivation and job satisfaction, as well as their levels of absenteeism, namely the variety of skills involved in a task, the identity and significance of the task, autonomy, and feedback. Employees compare their input-outcome ratio with that of other employees and if they perceive it to be fair, employees will experience satisfaction (Robbins, 2007). If employees perceive an inequity in their input-outcome ratio compared to other employees, they become dissatisfied and less motivated. theories of motivation

6. Value – Percept Theory

Individual's values determine their satisfaction on their job because employees in organizations hold different value systems, therefore based on this theory, their satisfaction levels will also differ. Having a look at Value – Percept theory, the assumption is that the difference between expectations and what is received can bring dissatisfaction depending on how important the job is to the individual (Anderson, Ones, Sinangil and Viswesvaran, 2001, p.32). The potential problem with this theory is that there is a possibility of a relationship between what people desire and what they consider important. These concepts can be separable theoretically but practically hard to differentiate.

7. Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vrooms's expectancy theory stipulates that behavior is a product of choices that are available for to be prioritized. The idea is to derive satisfaction and minimize dissatisfaction in employees. Individual factors such as personality and skills determine performance (Wagner and Hollenburg, 2007). This theory also explains that performance, motivation, and effort are within an individual's motivation and variables such as valence, instrumentality, and expectancy verifies this. The higher the effort in work relates to the higher the performance.

8. Porter-Lawler Model

This is a comprehensive and more complete theory of motivation which is inclusive of diverse aspects. This model can give details of the fiber relation that exists between job performance and attitudes which perfectly defines managers. The model also touches on the assumptions of human behavior. The deductions of the model assume that individual behavior is influenced by both internal and external factors, rational and make own choices about their behavior, have different goals, desires and needs. Finally, individuals decide between alternative behaviors (Wagner and Hollenburg, 2007). theories of motivation

COMMUNICATION

Communication is as old as human civilization. The common need for protection led to group life. As group life developed, forms of communication also developed. Communication was in the forms of codes, indications, signals and expressions. Gradually with the increase in population, division of labour, exchange economy, etc., necessitated the development of language. In the present day world, communication is vital need of every Step in any industrial or commercial activity.

According to Koontz and O'Donnel, Communication may be understood "as the exchange of information at least between two persons with a view to create an understanding in the mind of the other, whether or not it gives rise to conflict."

Newman and Summer "Communication is an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions or emotions by two or more persons."

Types of Communication
The five types of communication you need to know about are verbal communication, nonverbal communication, written communication, visual communication, and listening.

1. Verbal Communication
Verbal communication encompasses all communication using spoken words, or unspoken words as in the case with sign language. It is important to understand how to effectively communicate your ideas verbally in order to avoid misunderstandings and maximize interest while you speak. Make sure to use the right type of language, speak clearly, know your audience, respond in the best way, and use an appropriate tone when speaking.

2. Nonverbal Communication
What is actually being said is only half the battle — the rest lies in what isn't being said. This means your tone, facial expressions, body language, hand movements, and eye contact. When you make yourself aware of what the rest of you is doing as you speak, you can make corrections and eventually use all the right nonverbal cues to convey your point.

3. Written Communication
Written communication is a form of verbal communication, but it is so different than spoken verbal communication that this form gets its own separate type. Written communication can take the form of anything you write or type such as letters, emails, notes, texts, billboards, even a message written in the sky! With written communication, it is important you know your audience, your purpose, and maintain consistency throughout your written message.

4. Visual Communication
Visual communication is one you may not have heard of, but it is one that complements the other types of communication well. Visual communication is delivering information, messages, and points by way of graphical representations, or visual aids.

Some commonly used examples are slide presentations, diagrams, physical models, drawings, and illustrations. When you use visual communication in addition to verbal, nonverbal, and written communication, you create a very effective way for your message to be heard and understood.

5. Listening

Listening is a surprisingly important part of communication and in order to be a great communicator, you must master the art of listening. Remember that listening doesn't just mean hearing, or politely waiting for your turn to speak. When others are speaking, you should practice active listening, which means that you are engaging your mind while the person speaks, intently focusing on what they are saying.

PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION

There are 8 types of Communication process. The process of communication refers to the show of information or message from the sender done a selected channel to the receiver overpowering barriers that affect its pace. Now, see the 8 stages of communication process.

1. Sender
2. Message
3. Encoding
4. Channel
5. Receiver
6. Decoding
7. Feedback
8. Noise

1. Sender

The communicator generates the message and imparts it to the accepted. Sender is the first source of process in communication.

2. Message

It is the information, view, topics, idea, feelings, sensitivity etc. that is produced by the sender and is then planned to be communicated more.
Besides, some topics are included in massage like Introduction, Meaning, and Importance of Directing
Fundamentals of Direction
Leadership
Incentives

3. Encoding

After generating massage by the sender is encoded Representative like as in the form of pictures, gestures, words etc. earlier it is being took.

4. Media or Channel
It is the middle part of the communication process. Basically, the message may be conveyed in writing. For communicating includes some important media like internet, **telephone**, e-mail, post, fax etc.

5. Receiver
It is the opposite party of communicating. After, sending writing massage then it's encoding by the multiplexer via channel then come to receiver. Then, the receiver receives the message and it in proper outlook and acts giving to the message. Basically, the purpose of communication will be success when receive massage by the receiver.

6. DECODING
Decoding is the process of adapting the symbols encoded by the sender.

7. FEEDBACK
When the receiver confirms to the sender massage that he has received and understood it carefully, actually, the communication process is completely done.

8. Noise
Noise is any type of disruption that interferes with the interpretation of information from the massage sender. We can say it's example bad telephone connection, faulty encoding, inattentive receiver, poor understanding of message, internet connection loading, due to prejudice etc.

Barriers to Communication

The communication barriers may prevent communication or carry incorrect meaning due to which misunderstandings may be created. Therefore, it is essential for a manager to identify such barriers and take appropriate measures to overcome them. The barriers to communication in organizations can be broadly grouped as follows:

1. Semantic Barriers
These are concerned with the problems and obstructions in the process of encoding and decoding of a message into words or impressions. Normally, such barriers result due to use of wrong words, faulty translations, different interpretations, etc.
For example, a manager has to communicate with workers who have no knowledge of the English language and on the other side, he is not well conversant with the Hindi language. Here, language is a barrier to communication as the manager may not be able to communicate properly with the workers.

2. Psychological Barriers
Emotional or psychological factors also act as barriers to communication. The state of mind of both sender and receiver of communication reflects in effective communication. A worried person cannot communicate properly and an angry recipient cannot understand the message properly.

Thus, at the time of communication, both the sender and the receiver need to be psychologically sound. Also, they should trust each other. If they do not believe each other, they cannot understand each other's message in its original sense.

3. Organizational Barriers

The factors related to organizational structure, rules and regulations authority relationships, etc. may sometimes act as barriers to effective communication. In an organization with a highly centralized pattern, people may not be encouraged to have free communication. Also, rigid rules and regulations and cumbersome procedures may also become a hurdle to communication.

4. Personal Barriers

The personal factors of both sender and receiver may act as a barrier to effective communication. If a superior thinks that a particular communication may adversely affect his authority, he may suppress such communication.

Also, if the superiors do not have confidence in the competency of their subordinates, they may not ask for their advice. The subordinates may not be willing to offer useful suggestions in the absence of any reward or appreciation for a good suggestion.

STEPS TO OVERCOME COMMUNICATION BARRIERS

Barriers to communication can be overcome by:

- checking whether it is a good time and place to communicate with the person
- being clear and using language that the person understands
- communicating one thing at a time
- respecting a person's desire to not communicate
- checking that the person has understood you correctly
- communicating in a location that is free of distractions
- Acknowledging any emotional responses the person has to what you have said.

Don't make any judgments about what someone may be experiencing, always ask!

Emotional intelligence in work organizations and administrative units

If a person can understand the emotions and feelings of his own, it is his personal skill, but awareness about an organization and administrative units is a social skill to understand the ethos within which those emotions function. Emotional Intelligence is the proficiency through which one learns about the emotions of others, and how the organization affects them. Emotional intelligence offers understanding of others, means to interact with others that help boost productivity, improve relationships, and increase your general quality of life.

An organization is more than a workplace, here only emotionally plus intellectually smart people can thrive and it requires the following six strategies.

- Practice Organizational Self-Awareness
- Develop Social Skills
- Foster Optimism
- Encourage Flexibility and Problem Solving
- Model and Encourage Emotional Control
- Support Teamwork

There are eight Emotional Intelligence social skills that are required in any organisation to function at its best. These skills also help in also relationship building, decision making, creating a productive and pleasant work place.

- Building Bonds
- Change Catalyst
- Communication
- Conflict Management
- Influence
- Developing Others
- Leadership
- Teamwork and Collaboration

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