A power based explanation for managerial effectiveness

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ABSTRACT : *This study has engaged power related concepts as explanations for the effectiveness of managers. The finding consists of an explanation to foster and maintain effectiveness of managers in terms of their power profile that includes power bases, power styles and the personality dimension of credibility, shedding light into a sparingly explored domain in management literature. Power profile aspects of managers have been found to have functional relevance in predicting their levels of effectiveness and have been captured into an equation that possibly can stand the tests of replication and verification. Results suggest the personal qualities, resources and behaviours that can be cultivated and used to energise and channel the thoughts and efforts of subordinates and thus offer valuable inputs for management development interventions. The article has been written keeping in view the needs of students, academics, researchers and practising managers intending to focus and work in the South Asian cultures.*
KEYWORDS: *Power profile of managers, power use, power style, power base, managerial effectiveness, Indian banking*

I.   INTRODUCTION

There are historical and relatively recent reasons for the interest in the topic of managerial effectiveness. The recognition, especially among the South Asian nations, that managerial talent is a critical resource where the demand outruns supply and, that the short supply of this talent can be partially met by upgrading the available managerial talent pool, has brought the issue of managerial effectiveness to the limelight again. Managerial ability and effectiveness are central to any function in a complex society. The talent is reckoned cardinal in the developed economies and a yearning of all developing economies.

In order to survive and produce results in an economic environment, the imperative would be to understand the nature and extent of factors contributing to the phenomenon of managerial effectiveness. Having recognised the dearth of research on the phenomenon, academicians have pointed out the need for studies that distinguish effective managers from ineffective ones (Glynn and Raffaelli, 2010). The attempt here is to address this core issue in the light of an empirical research.

A manager, in order to be effective, needs to direct others' efforts towards the realisation of objectives and, bereft of rhetoric, has to essentially get someone do something the way it has to be done. That is, what is needed for achieving collective goals is primarily embedded in a managers' personal power. Power of managers thus provides a reliable foundation for an extended understanding of their role effectiveness. While the authority of a manager in a hierarchy defines what needs to be and could be done, a manager's power determines what he/she is able to do in a situation.

II.   POWER OF MANAGERS

Large numbers of managers, especially younger ones, perform below their potential because they do not understand the importance of power and they have not nurtured enough to develop the insights into acquiring and effectively using power in their positions. Essence of leadership is the influence over followers and the quintessence of managerial leadership is the actuated influence over subordinates. Understanding what

makes managers effective requires an appreciation of the complex social power relationships and the influence process relevant in organisations. Social power is the potential ability of an agent [or manager] to bring about change in others' beliefs, attitudes or behaviour using the resources available (Raven, 2008).

Social scientists have conceptualised social power of a person in different ways: as a structural potential and ability to employ force (Bierstedt, 1950; Emerson, 1962; Wrong, 1968), as the successful outcome of influence attempts (Dahl, 1957; Richardson et al.,1969) and as a process of behavioural or tactical influence (Michener & Suchner, 1972; Tedeschi & Bonoma, 1972; Rubin & Brown, 1975). Power was construed as the ability of a person or group to influence the behaviour of others (Khan & Boulding, 1964), the potential capacity of an actor to influence the behaviour of another actor in a particular situation (Tushman, 1977), the ability to get things done the way one wants them to be done (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977), the means of facilitating and achieving goals (Robins, 2001) and the potential to influence others, the things they do and the ways they feel about something (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Power may thus be viewed as the ability to employ sanction or force, the ability to influence the feelings and behaviour of others or the ability to influence the flows of available energy and resources towards achieving certain goals.

Organisational power is a useful management resource as it can both keep an organisation in check and spur it to growth and fame and hence judicious design and use of power is significant (Singh, 2009). In the work place, social power is intricately tied to superiors' strategies towards subordinates to gain their compliance (Pierro et al., 2012).

III. MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS, LEADERSHIP AND POWER

The concept of managerial effectiveness (ME) has been construed differently by different scholars due to its complex nature (Bao, 2009). For example, Reddin (1974) defined managerial effectiveness as the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of their position. Bennett and Langford's (1983) described managerial effectiveness as the relationship between what a manager achieves (performance) and what he/she is expected to achieve (i.e. aims and objectives) within the constraints imposed by the organization and socio-economic environment. Drucker (1988) concluded that effectiveness is the foundation of success. Effectiveness of managers is relative to the source and magnitude of power available, and the manner in which they exercise influence over subordinates. Influence is often a key to managerial effectiveness (Yukl, 2002).

Managerial Leadership is one of the most researched and interpreted concepts in management and organizations have paid serious attention to leadership styles of their managerial persons, holding the belief that leadership is an important factor in achieving business success (Giritli and Oraz, 2004). Kanungo (1998) regarded leadership as the exercise of influence over others utilizing various bases of social power in order to achieve organizational objectives. Leadership has been studied from many perspectives and by different disciplines. An approach that has received much attention within the past score years, and encompasses many viewpoints, is the notion that leadership is both transformational and transactional depending on the needs of the situation (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978).

IV. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transformational (TF) leadership consists in developing and selling a vision for what is possible to others, and the leaders initiate change by challenging the organizational status quo (Bass, 1998). Transformational leadership, seemingly, is better suited to more fluid situations that call for visionary leaders and highly committed and intrinsically motivated followers (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). This leadership style is critical in times of change, growth and crisis and is most successful within organizations that thrive on change and innovation (Avolio, 1999). The effectiveness of TF leadership largely depends on the interaction between leaders and able and motivated followers to accomplish organizational goals (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership can be a process where leader and followers work together, in a way that transforms the organization, the employees and the leader. It recognises that real leadership involves transformation and learning on the part of follower and leader.

V. TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Burns (1978), who studied Transactional (TA) leadership elaborately, indicated that transactional leaders are those who sought to motivate followers by appealing to their self-interests. These leaders motivate subordinates to achieve expected levels of performance by helping them to recognize task responsibilities, identify goals and develop confidence about meeting desired performance levels (Bass 1990).

In transactional leadership, rewards and punishments are contingent upon the performance of the followers. The leader views the relationship between managers and subordinates as an exchange. While good performers are rewarded poor performers are punished. Rules, procedures and standards are essential in transactional leadership. Followers are not encouraged to be creative. Research has found that transactional leadership tends to be most effective in situations where problems are simple and clearly-defined. The transactional leaders overemphasize short-term goals, and standard procedures.. They don't care for ideas that

do not fit with existing plans and goals. The transactional leaders tend to be highly directive and action oriented and their relationship with the followers tends to be transitory and not based on emotional bonds.

Effectiveness of managers is relative to the source and magnitude of power available, and the manner in which they exercise influence over subordinates. Bases/sources of social power have become central in social and organizational psychology (Pierro et al., 2012). French and Raven (1959) identified five basic sources of managerial power that have been widely accepted in literature and are taught to this day. Rahim and Psenicka have pointed out (1996, p.32), "the bases of power taxonomy suggested by French and Raven (1959) … still appear to be fairly representative and popular in application".

Available theory and research emphasise the mutuality of influence process and the importance of exchange relationships between managers and subordinates. Though the influence process that works between a leader and follower is not unidirectional and it has been established that followers also influence leaders reciprocally, managers' incremental influence over subordinates remains the essence of managerial leadership. Yukl (2002) gives a composite view of the influence typologies identified by others and says that the different forms of influence possibly used by managers are not necessarily incompatible and hence some of them could be effectively used together in a given situation. While the leader's potential for influencing subordinates' motivation and satisfaction would be greater if the former has the discretion to design and modify the latters' job, the use of some forms of influence such as rational persuasion or personal identification is more often a function of the personal characteristics of the manager than of his position. Some of the earlier researches (French & Raven, 1959; Rahim, 1989; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990; Yukl & Falbe, 1991) concluded that persuasive power bases positively correlate with subordinate satisfaction and performance while the results for the correlation between coercive power typology and subordinates' satisfaction/performance were usually negative or non-significant than positive (Yukl,2002).

The influence of a manager also depends on the extent to which the manager is perceived trustworthy. In other words, managers and leaders must have proven credibility (Kouzes & Posner, 1993). Alternatively, Sayles (1989) suggests that managers gain acceptance for their rights to higher status, deference and acquire overriding power by demonstrating that one's work is relatively unpredictable and not-so-easy for others (including superiors) to schedule, specify or cost, and that it involves innovation. Non-routines thus provide yet another leverage for power and influence namely, visibility – the assurance that the manager will be noticed. Credibility and Visibility are thus two organisationally relevant personal qualities to be acquired and maintained by managers to fight the problem of ambiguity of authority or legitimacy in doubt. Managers, in order to be capable of utilising the power bases, whether they belong to coercive or persuasive category, have to have credibility and visibility that would lend them 'others' ears' and be always in 'others' eyes' (Sales, 1989; Yukl, 2002).

Researchers have examined the specific types of influence behaviour (power styles) resorted to by managers to wield influence than focussing on power as a potential source and have bridged between the potential and behavioural approaches to managerial leadership. Agarwal & Agrawal (1995) have identified and established the benefits of power styles such as integration, transaction, consensus, direction, pressure and coercion in organisational settings.

Integrative power style is predictive of participativeness in the workplace and the preference of integrative work style requires active managerial participation in work activities and related decision making (Agarwal and Agrawal, 1995). Transactional power style involves reinforcement where followers are motivated by leaders' promises, rewards and praises (Lo et al., 2010). Consensus power style, also known as democratic and participative power style, seeks a consensus on the direction of a group. Managers who practices consensus style are generally more people oriented. This style builds consensus through participation, generates ideas and guidance. But it requires highly developed and competent subordinates to create ideas and to participate in the decision making process. A leader uses this style to develop and build trust among subordinates (Giritli and Oraz, 2004). Directive style is one of the oldest styles and is frequently described as autocratic. It is an instrumental type of managerial style characterized by a leader who tells subordinate staff what they are expected to do and how to perform the expected tasks. Leaders exercise firm rule and ensure that subordinates do follow. Managers employing pressurizing power style constantly use pressure on subordinates in order to get the work done. Coercive leaders manage by controlling subordinates tightly, require many reports, and prefer to motivate by using discipline. The fundamental aspect of coercive leadership style is control. Results are obtained through direct, explicit instructions on expectations of a job and how the work is to be performed. The integrative and consensus power styles are clearly based upon the exercise of collective power wherein all are empowered and the manager can gain the confidence of his work group by developing among others a sense of commitment and interpersonal trust along with goodwill and feelings of accomplishment. The integrative and consensus styles are both better possibilities for transformational leadership. Both allow for inputs from everyone, and encourage participation in the realisation of long-term goals. Transactional, directive and pressurizing power styles fall under transactional leadership style. A transactional leader sees human relations as a series of transactions.

A manager's selection and use of a style or a combination of styles in an influence attempt can be thought of as depending on one's power base and the 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 situationally acceptable and feasible.

The conceptual theme outlined in the foregoing paragraphs was put to empirical validation. The results have been quite interesting and instructive for students, academics and practitioners in the sense that power of managers has been established to be a sufficiently interesting explanation for their variations in effectiveness. The essential aspects of the study, its findings and the implications for practising managers are reported herein.

VI.   CONCEPTUAL FOCUS AND THE OBJECTIVE

The conceptualisation in this study centres around certain selected power related variables collectively referred to as the '**Power Profile'** of managers, thought to subsume a) *Relative Power* (power advantage/deficit vis-à-vis the subordinates) of managers, b) personality trait dimensions of *Visibility* and *Credibility* of managers in their work context, c) *Power Bases* of managers – as reported by themselves and as perceived by the subordinates and d) *Power Styles* – the managers' often repeated behavioural tactics. Power profile of managers was construed to be a possible and significant explanation for their effectiveness because the available literature on the topics suggested that the concept of managerial power and its dimensions have been hitherto largely used as dependent variables than otherwise. Gasparini (1977) disagrees with "an analytical perspective on power that employs it as a dependent variable; power is primarily an independent variable with respect to organisationally contingent factors" (p. 225). It was therefore purported that the ways in which managers wield and utilise their power would determine their effectiveness in influencing subordinates. Despite its obvious importance, the ways in which managers exert power have not been subjected to much research and the attempts in this direction have been restricted to reveal that leaders rely mostly on one or two power bases to influence others and that these power bases were correlated with subordinate performance and satisfaction (Yukl, 2002). The lacuna thus perceived in most of the research is that they overlooked the possible linkage between managers' power and their effectiveness in organisations.

The framework of the present study did not draw upon the classical notions of causality between the designated variables. Researcher preferred to refer to the power profile dimensions as 'peripheral' and managerial effectiveness as 'criterion' variables respectively. The constituent peripheral variables can be assumed to be interacting with one another but more notably with the factors of the criterion variable of managerial effectiveness. Given the conceptual focus and the academic relevance, the empirical validation reported here seeks to find answer to the objective:- To find out and specify the contribution of the factors that make up the 'power profile' of managers into their levels of effectiveness.

VI.   CONTEXT AND METHODOLOGY

The data that offered the empirical fabric of this paper by interlacing the peripheral and criterion variables were picked up from the branch managers of one of the private commercial banking organisations in the state of Kerala, South India. The branch managers of a banking institution were preferred as the subjects because any measure of effectiveness as applicable to managers in a manufacturing organisation would be shrouded in a myriad of factors such as quality of material, human and technical inputs; utilisation, up-keep and maintenance of operating systems including equipment and machinery; technology and work designs adopted, let alone the morale of operatives and the ability of managers to influence them. These and a whole host of similar factors within and beyond the control of managers, having a bearing on the managers' effectiveness can raise questions on the internal validity of the study. The nature and context of the work of a bank branch manager, unlike those of the counterpart in the manufacturing sector, offers control over the quality of inputs, direction and pace of activities, human and other assets of the branch. The branch manager encounters customers with predictable interests, works with definite targets and fixtures and is responsible for maintaining the morale of subordinates and thus affords reliable and operational measures for the construct of managerial effectiveness.

The ability to influence subordinates (one's power) and effectiveness being the major variables of interest, their very nature made it imperative that observations had to be focussed on managers with considerable tenure. Further, power and power bases being complex social phenomena, involving elements of formal position and one's personal being, can be assessed only in the context of the respondents' 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' of 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 study comprised only those principal branch officers with a minimum of one year and a maximum of three continuous years of tenure in a branch. There were 183 branch managers in Kerala who lived up to these specifications and all of them

constituted the Universe of the study. The universe being definite and limited and, the concern to ensure as broad a respondent base as possible, prompted the adoption of censes approach in reaching out to the respondents. Due to various reasons, the final tally of managers in the respondent group was 163, which constituted 89% of the universe and was assumed to fulfil the criterion of sufficiency for generalisation purposes.

VII.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Managerial effectiveness

Organisational psychologists (Bass, 1990; Hunt, 1991; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992) have dealt with in some detail the issue of assessing managers' effectiveness. In most such discussions, effectiveness of leaders/managers was considered an issue of considerable complexity. Common thinking is that effective leaders and managers facilitate the ability of a group or work unit to meet goals and maintain itself over time. Therefore the effectiveness of managers, for the purpose on hand, was taken to be an outcome of a group of their behaviors than of a particular behaviour. As there is no single, comprehensive method for assessing managerial effectiveness that is free of hazards, a number of measures were resorted to for obtaining the relevant information. Indeed, most organisational experts advocate multiple criteria to assess managerial effectiveness. The variable has been measured, for the present, using multiple criteria blending the formally acknowledged measures or scores on parameters that reflect a manager's achievements 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 their manager's ability to perform the role activities. The use of multiple methods eliciting data from multiple sources on multiple dimensions of the construct may be considered strength of the present attempt.

In order to be effective, a manager must give attention to obtaining best possible results in the 'key results areas' by optimizing the use of resources for increasing profitability and accomplishing tangible and intangible pursuits of the organisation. Criteria for assessing effectiveness of the respondent mangers therefore included measures that indicated key results they were expected to achieve. The manner in which mangers achieved the results and how they affected their subordinates were also treated to be material and incorporated.

The respondents were, by default, regularly evaluated by their superiors on a variety of reference points. Information on selected items relating to their business goals achievements and branch administration were culled out and used along with the respondent managers' self evaluation and the evaluation by subordinates on thirty four items related to the managers' abilities on fourteen distinct on-the-job activities.

Superior's 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 centered on two core competencies expected of any contemporary and local bank manager namely, a) meeting quarterly deposit targets and b) meeting annual advance targets, both for a period of two consecutive preceding years. The effectiveness indicators adjudged for assessing the quality of office administration included a) credit management attempt 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 the quality of customer service. The scores 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 was accorded for the item.

The behavioral 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 the 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 directional weights to arrive at the overall scores of effectiveness for each individual respondent manager. This was needed for statistically exploring the contribution of the power profile variables into their effectiveness.

Table 1 below 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. Managers with scores less than the aggregate sample mean of 36.96 were classified as less effective while the more effective group included those who scored above the aggregate mean of 36.96. The within group means were 30.63 and 42.49 in the same order.

Table1: Absolute and relative aggregate scores of managers on indicators of Managerial Effectiveness

Aggregate and relative scores on criteria*							
Managers' Groups	DQT	AAT	CM	SR	RI	HK	CS
Less Effective Scores < 36.96 Mean = 30.63	384.50	318.50	203.60	168.55	335.25	480.0	437.0
N = 76	**0.337**	**0.279**	**0.536**	**0.444**	**0.441**	**0.636**	**0.575**
More Effective Scores = / > 36.96 Mean = 42.49	783.75	619.35	285.25	248.62	509.75	696.0	553.5
N =87	**0.601**	**0.475**	**0.656**	**0.572**	**0.585**	**0.800**	**0.636**

* **DQT:** Deposits, quarterly target achievement; **AAT:** Advances, annual targets achievements; **CM:** Credit management quality; **SR:** Submission of reports and returns; **RI:** Rectification of reported irregularities; **HK:** Housekeeping quality **CS:** Customer service quality

The first row of values for each group 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 asset portfolios by meeting higher levels in advance targets, twelve (12) percent more effective in credit management by fulfilling the demands of credit follow up, renewal of limits and updating credit related documentation, thirteen (13) percent more diligent in submission of their branches, fourteen (14) percent more productive in correcting the previous mistakes and making good the omission 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 and concerned in delivering prompt and satisfying services in their bid to retain contended customers. The relative advantages parceled out by the more effective managers to the bank, reflecting their higher effectiveness, have been visually depicted in **figure 1**.
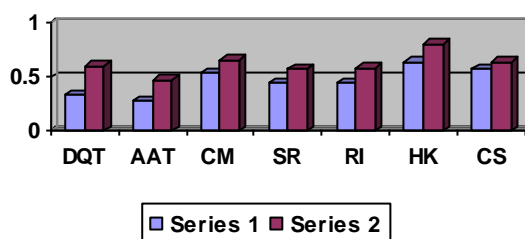
Figure 1: Relative Scores of less effective (Series1) and more effective managers (Series2) on criteria of management outputs.

This research proceeded 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 dimensions of the work units. An excessive emphasis on outputs tends to reflect society's stereotypes of what constitute 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 mangers do to effect an optimal allocation of resources in a given situation.

Mathew (1989) has provided a research tool for measuring effectiveness of managers based on their role behaviours developed through a detailed behaviour sampling procedure. The tool conveys 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. 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.

Table 2 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 2: On-the-job activities for managerial effectiveness: descriptive statistics, inter-rater agreement between managers and subordinates.

Sl. No.	Activities	Mean Self/Sub	Std.Dev Self/Sub	Inter rater Correlation	Agreement t-values
1.	Decision Making	3.45/3.59	0.72/1.26	0.028	- 1.24
2.	Planning and organising 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.	Maintaining quality	3.34/3.12	0.85/1.26	0.078	2.07*
5.	Directing subordinates' task	3.42/3.42	0.71/1.16	0.176*	- 0.04
6.	Developing subordinates	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	3.37/3.25	0.76/1.38	0.132	0.97
9.	Meeting work schedules	3.61/3.55	0.76/1.27	0.050	0.57
10.	Handling problems	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.	Carrying out responsibilities	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 time and efforts for training and developing their operating abilities.

The efforts so far were to draw up and convey as vividly as possible the building blocks chosen to construct the conceptualisation of effectiveness of those managers brought under the purview of this research. Diversity in perspectives was incorporated to prevent lopsidedness, by developing evaluations from three vantage points of superiors, managers themselves and their respective subordinates, and the assessments were aggregated to grasp the broader canvass of effectiveness of the respondent managers. The scores obtained for individual managers on the criterion dimensions of business goals outputs and quality of in-house administration were added up, extrapolated to a total of one hundred and factored with 0.67 to obtain the achievement of the managers on the 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 the abilities of managers for their role enactments 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 considered in that order.

Table 3 presents the aggregated scores of managerial effectiveness and the categorisation of managers on the basis of varying degrees of their effectiveness. 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 ($t = 24.348$, $p = 0.0000$).

Table 3: Descriptive statistics and final 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 difference between the mean values established; t = 24.348, p = 0.0000

For the purpose 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. Consistent and remarkable growth evinced by the bank where the study was conducted seem to be justified and have been brought about by the larger number of its more effective managers and principal officers as reflected in the results.

VIII.   POWER IN USE

Attention is now turned to power in use and to review evidences to perceive the implications of the power profile of managers for their effectiveness.

The analysis of power in use can potentially serve several purposes. One would be that the power levels, its bases and styles of deploying it could provide indicators useful in understanding power distributions in organisations. Second, such an attempt can furnish a perspective on organisational functioning that may be shown to have predicable 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 linkages between the power profile of managers and their level of effectiveness forms the central theme of this research paper, primarily for the reason that this line of research would address one of the least and sparingly examined territories in today's management literature. It would not be an exaggeration to think that managerial power and its effects are omnipresent in organisation. 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. McClelland (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 (McClelland & Boyatsis, 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 interferes with subordinates. Powerful managers would, drawing on Kanter's viewpoint, improve interaction 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. Power profile of managers, for the purpose of analysis was thought to include the managers' power bases of Position, Expertise, Coercive, Reward and Referent powers; their power styles of Integration, Consensus, Transactional, 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. The statistical tool was used to determine 1) which of the power profile variables are useful in ascertaining effectiveness levels 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 the discriminant analysis, the assumptions fulfilled herein are: a) the units of analysis namely, the individual mangers 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 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 gave 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 compact subset of power profile variables which can discriminate nearly the full set and would help describe the

differences between the less effective and the more effective groups of managers in terms of the discriminating variables, which are the components of the 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.

Table 4 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 stepwise discriminant analysis identified a smaller subset of five significantly discriminating variables that include two power bases, two power styles and one personality dimension that came to be selected is the credibility of managers.

Table 4 **Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients of variables and their significance.**

Variable	Standardised function	F-to-remove	Relative
	Coefficient of variables	at the final step	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 greater contribution towards the discriminant score that decides the effectiveness of managers followed by their position power base (**PPB**) wielded, followed by their pressuring power styles (**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 the application of the function to the person's original values scored on each of the power profile variables included.

Results of the current analysis have revealed that the effectiveness of a manager depends on multiple elements involved in his power relationships with his subordinates, the most important ones being the degree of transaction power style utilised and his position power in the organisational context.

Transactional style as a behavioural tactic for influencing subordinates involves presentation of arguments and evidence to prove that the superior's suggestion is the best way to attain an objective or accomplish a given task. The style, protected and shrouded well within the rubric of Transactional (TA) Leadership as propounded by Burns (1978), 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 offers by the manager to reward a subordinate for doing something the manger 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.

Transactional or exchange tactics are in a way 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. Reward offered by the manager may include a recommendation for a favourable transfer, good service entry in the personal file, sharing of some scare 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 manger's 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 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 manger and his subordinates gain personal power with each other due to a sort of mutual respect and trust.

The second most contributing power component as has become evident in the discriminant analysis, is the position power, otherwise called as legitimate power that stems from a managers' formal authority, based on the shared perceptions about the prerogatives, obligations and responsibilities associated with the managerial position in an organisation. Authority includes the perceived right of a position's 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 directs 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. According to Fielder, 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 thus more than justified against the backdrop of available theory.

Pressuring power style identified as the third discriminating variable includes reminding, warning and other assertive behaviours 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 threats and intimidation are likely to undermine working relationships, the present finding suggests that effective managers prefer and gain from the usage of pressuring tactics more often 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 punishment 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. By carrying a negative weight in the discriminant 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. Managers once had the right to punish subordinates, even dismiss them for any reason thought justifiable. These days, the variant forms of this power base are severely prohibitive and 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 makeup than its contribution to their demonstrated effectiveness. This is especially true against the ground reality of power equalisation increasingly being brought about by the trade union affiliation and the protection 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 hostile feelings and opposition in the work context reducing the functional utility of their legitimate position and the productive power styles of transaction and pressuring. However as mutual dependencies usually exist between the managers and subordinates, any managerial initiative stemming from coercive power base is likely to elicit retaliation that may compound into a conflict benefiting none and would reduce the effectiveness of managers. Effective managers, in nutshell, are likely to use power in a subtle and careful fashion with or without emphasising the status differentials, avoiding threats to the target person's self-esteem. In contrast, leaders and managers who use their power in an abrasive way, with arrogance coupled with excessive manipulation and domineering tendencies are likely to engender resentment and resistance from others that can end up in ineffectiveness.

The last 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 hinted 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 self-interests.

Credibility, though not very impressive in determine the effectiveness levels, has turned out to be one of 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 exposed 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, mangers 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 discussions so far seem to converge to suggest that for achieving effectiveness in organisations, managers must consider a major shift in their approach towards managing human resources. There must be an increased focusing on actual behaviours of managers implied in the concept of power style that are in fact the behavioural attempts and expressions of the power potential of managers intended for influencing subordinates. The overt, external, purposive behaviours of 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 are more difficult to be employed profitability. On the other hand, when managers shift their attention and efforts 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 and credit the observation of Sashkin (1987) that it is the appropriate combination of individual managers' personality factors and behaviours that would predict their effectiveness.

IX. IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERIAL PRACTICE

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, which 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 and intelligent on the part of a manager to assume that subordinates expect some benefits and their compliance can be viewed as investments 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 in spite of the unilateral overtones that characterise managerial initiation, 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, encouraging verbal feedback to subordinates. They may even bargain for more tangible returns. For example, the subordinate may comply with the manager's wish and expect that the manager would in return live up to some of his requests or allow him greater latitude not only in his work related behaviour but in 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 the subordinate's earlier investments and would adjust the 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 explicitly negotiating an exchange with them. An effective manager thus structures relationship with subordinates in such a way that rewards are given to those who would provide services on demand. 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 than unilateral relationship, he/she 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 remains attentive to the obligations and rewards associated, handle them properly and is better perceived as more credible, and would be able to stabilise relationships and reduce subordinates' dissatisfaction.

The importance accrued by the pressuring power style in the study can be found to be legitimate once the exchange relationship is evaluated closely. The manager and 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. Thus the manager 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 get crystallized, subordinates may reduce their compliance to the orders and requests of the manager and eventually reduce their inputs and invests more effort in relationships with the work group where rewards are more immediate. It is not the amount of repayment, but the structure of repayment that is crucial. When the worker ostensibly reduces input, the manager gets prompted to show up by increasing pressure on the subordinate to work harder and meet schedules set.

A constraint however on the indiscriminate use of pressuring 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 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.

Mangers earn their credibility with considerable effort and over time. A manager has to wield the position and engage purposely in behavioural styles that would help achieve goals and priorities but also has to desist temptations to do things and behave in ways that could damage the credible image. When subordinates perceive their mangers to be lacking in credibility, they tend to be incredulous and disenchanted.

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 place 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. 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 coordinated, consistent and graceful way with subordinates, others and situations.

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