Book Reviews


In recent years, there has been an intense debate over the relevance and functionality of 'non-political,' microlevel grassroots groups/organizations. The growth of such groups in most parts of rural and urban India has been phenomenal from the 1970s. The debate centres around three questions: (i) What are the basic objectives of these groups and how do they try to realize them? (ii) What is their understanding and perception regarding macro issues and structures? and (iii) How do they relate with ongoing social and political processes, including movements?

On all these questions, there is as yet no conclusive answer. This is partly due to our partial knowledge and understanding of these micro groups and partly due to our own inadequacy or lack of preparedness on a theoretic plane to 'situate' these groups in a larger matrix of socio-economic change. This is not only true in India but in most third world countries passing through post-liberation, reconstruction-oriented transition.

In this context, Anil Bhatt's monograph on micro action by the weaker sections promotes greater understanding of the prospects and limitations of voluntary organizations in a developed state — Gujarat. The book is based on an intensive study of several small groups in the backward districts of eastern and southern Gujarat. The study provides data on the qualitative as well as the quantitative dimensions of small group action. The detailed study of the Mandals (Groups) in four villages, namely, Gamdi, Ahblod, Mithibor, and Poshina provides an in-depth analysis of the inner dynamics and tensions at the ground level, the groups' efforts to overcome them, and the consequent equation of social forces.

Critical Elements Pinpointed

The book describes and discusses key issues of intra and inter-group relations, their linkages with the external milieu, and the strategies that are adopted to resolve tensions. In this process of uncovering the interactions of the groups with other authorities and power structures at district levels, Anil Bhatt brings to the fore some critical elements within a body politic, including the structure and ideological orientation of the Indian state. And here lies, in my view, the merit of this document.

The study covers 38 Mandals having a total membership of over 2,500, serving a population of 82,000. A majority of active workers — office bearers and executive committee members — are young and have some formal education. Though many of these groups confined their activities to single villages, some extended their activities to 8-10 neighbouring villages. Formal membership of each group ranged between 21 and 250. They are action groups "covering economic, educational, social justice, social reform and conscientization activities." They are, however, loosely structured in terms of specified roles and activities for their leaders and members. They are not hierarchical in nature. They are managed by tribals, scheduled castes or other backward castes like Thakardas, Koli, Bariyas, Thrulis, etc. All Mandals operate in the rural areas of Panchmahals, Sabarkantha, Dharampur, and Dangs.

Anil Bhatt has competently brought out the characteristic features of the administration in these areas. He says "... corruption, oppression, exploitation, cheating and even physical oppression by the modern sector is much more than that by the traditional sector. The traditional leaders, moneylenders or the proverbial banias have increasingly given way to politicians and their brokers, bureaucrats and their collaborators, contractors in the fields of labour, forest and transportation, and cooperative societies and banks... their efforts are severe and recourse to relief more difficult. Moreover, some of these politicians and lower level bureaucrats... are tribal themselves" (p 48). Situations like these pose innumerable difficulties for any spontaneous group formation and action.

Poor Discouraged from Democratic Action

Forces acting against the Mandals are varied and complex. They are not all local. They include the village sarpanch, police patil, traders and shopkeepers, moneylenders, rich farmers and landlords and also school teachers, police and other government officials, politicians, and even state level administrative machinery. Rules are often invoked to break the organization and unity of the small groups. Administrative machinery is used to demoralize the people seeking social justice and redress. Even threats are made and an atmosphere of fear and insecurity is created to dissuade others from joining these Mandals.
Anil Bhatt writes: “Some of them tried all the way up to the state level to stop the mandal from getting registered... The President of Poshina village panchayat spread the rumour that the mandal was formed to convert the adivasis into Christians. An ex-member of the Legislative Assembly and the then taluka panchayat president called the mandal leaders and asked them how come they, inexperienced young people, had formed such an organization without asking him and taking his permission...” (p 178). Departments with a tradition of coercion such as those of police and forest even used physical force.

Sometimes, attempts were made to keep leaders in line by maligning them and instituting inquiries of corruption against them, as in Zalod and Gamdi. The local administration harassed the groups by delaying and making them run around raising technicalities and objections. The monograph gives several instances of such non-cooperation, vindictiveness, and harassment.

State Dilatory on Basic Issues

On balance, the picture that emerges points to the apathy and indifference of the state towards the democratic aspirations of its people, especially the marginal and weaker sections. It also vividly uncovers the collusion of state with the entrenched and established sections and their agents. Political parties in opposition are socially distanced from the weaker sections and their problems. They are weak and impotent. It is a sad but poignant commentary on the role and character of the state when we observe that the poor people have to fight on issues such as: (i) regular attendance of school teacher and regular functioning of the school; (ii) acquisition of mortgaged lands by legal means; (iii) implementation of minimum wages, despite legislation to that effect; (iv) construction/repairs of roads, school buildings, health centre, etc; (v) adequate health services, and attendance of medical staff at health centres; and even (vi) registration of poor people’s mandals as a lawful association. People have to send petitions and stage sit-in demonstration for regular state-run transport services.

One may view these as temporary lopsidedness or dislocation in the administrative services network. But these are not merely minor lapses, open to rectification by sporadic action of small groups. They have to be seen in a larger context of prevailing political environment, where policies and their implementation display a critical mismatch. A review of the activities and struggles of small groups in Gujarat by Anil Bhatt clearly raises some fundamental issues. The author himself is critically aware, though not articulate enough.

The question arises: How long will this apathy, indifference, and callousness continue? If small group action is taken to be an answer, how many such groups do we need to resolve such elementary issues affecting the lives of ordinary people? Where do we find them? And, more importantly, why is the state ‘inefficient’ or ‘dilatory’ in such matters as wages, shelter, employment or education for the poor people, when it is quite efficient and result-oriented in other spheres where the interests of the upper strata are involved? These questions must be raised and resolved theoretically.

Need for Further Research

This monograph has brought into sharp focus the inequalities that prevail at grassroots level and the struggle launched by the small groups to overcome some of them. There is also an honest appraisal of inner strengths and weaknesses of the small groups. The analysis unmistakably leads to a question of ‘politics,’ i.e. access to and control of marginal groups over the established organs of political structures and institutions. Also, there is a question of mobilization and raising the awareness of the weaker sections.

In other words, the issue is one of alternatives, of movements and struggles towards equity and justice. The book tells us about how the small groups function in their present socio-economic and political framework. The analysis on this score is quite rigorous and insightful. But the monograph is less articulate on why small groups tend to do what they do and why they fail to achieve some of their objectives. The present book poignantly raises the need for investigating further into these factors and forces.

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There was hardly any literature on organizational behaviour worth talking about in pre-independence India. Man was born to work out of fear in a climate surcharged with suppression and oppression during this period. Also, there were very few large and complex organizations, with the exception of the Indian Railways. Thus, there was neither a need nor encouragement for the development of this field of study. Independence brought major changes in the scenario. Large scale industrialization was undertaken. With this grew several large and complex organizations. An Indian was free from foreign rule. He no more worked out of fear. The establishment of institutes of management
provided the necessary infrastructure and facilities for such studies. The study of organizational behaviour received a big boost.

**Human Factor Key to Organizational Excellence**

However, the last ten years have been the best for studies in this area, partly because of the realization that human factor was the real key to organizational excellence when the best of technology was easily and freely available because of the policy of liberalization adopted by the government, and partly because of the commitment of a group of researchers in this area. Udai Pareek is one such committed researcher whose contribution to the study of organizational behaviour is unmatched.

Any new work coming from Udai Pareek naturally raises high expectations. Viewed against this, the book under review comes as a let down. There is no deep research, no profound thought in it. The book is merely a collection of write-ups and materials used by Pareek in different courses he has taught in his distinguished teaching and consulting career.

**Organization of the Book**

The book discusses the main behavioural processes in organizations. The first 35 pages highlight the importance of the process, societal culture, and organizations. This may be taken as some sort of justification for the book. The substantive part of the book is divided into four parts. The first part describes processes relating to persons. This covers subjects like personal effectiveness, leadership styles and effectiveness, and the learning process. The second part focuses on the organizational roles covering topics like work motivation, role stress, frustration, and role efficiency. The subject of frustration and how to manage it have been handled very well. Organizations of today will do well for themselves by reading this very well presented chapter and adopting some of the methods suggested for managing frustration. The third part deals with intra-team processes like interpersonal communication, consensus building, preventing and resolving conflicts, developing collaboration, etc. The section on organizational development is quite exhaustive and well written.

**Good Textbook Material**

The book contains everything a student of management would like to know and learn in organizational behaviour. The other positive point of the book is that each chapter is followed by a list of select readings in the concerned areas. This will be a boon for researchers. However, examples cited in the book are too sketchy to be of any value or use to a manager. Proofreading leaves much to be desired.

The book is recommended as a good textbook in organizational behaviour. HRD professionals, managers and others doing research in the subject, however, may not find much in the book except references for select reading.

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The current research in social sciences suffers from too much concentration on structures as opposed to processes, and on static analysis as opposed to dynamic analysis. This calls for a shift in the focus of research and this can be brought about only by exposing social scientists to computer based modelling tools which are indispensable in developing theories about complex systems. This book is aimed at bringing about such a reorientation. It attempts to convince the reader about the importance and feasibility of modelling dynamic processes in social systems. It shows how the systems dynamics approach can be used to model and analyse social systems having varying degrees of complexity.

**Contents**

The book consists of 13 chapters, grouped into three parts. Part I introduces the necessary concepts, tools, and techniques. Parts II and III apply the ideas of Part I to model and analyse a variety of systems, arranged in an order of increasing complexity.

The book begins with an introduction to the principles of general systems. It discusses several important systems concepts such as subsystem, connectivity of subsystems, control, and complexity. Chapter 3 introduces the systems dynamics approach. To understand the implications of a model developed using this approach, experiments have to be performed on the model. In most cases these experiments require the use of a computer. To facilitate such computer-based experimentation, a model needs to be expressed in a formal language which has to be somewhere in between the natural languages and mathematics, the two means for expressing models in traditional research. The computer language DYNAMO is ideally suited for this purpose and hence is chosen as the modelling language in this book. Some basics of DYNAMO such as Levels, Rates, and Auxiliaries are introduced in chapter 3 itself. The next chapter discusses the various functions provided by DYNAMO. This chapter also examines delays related to both material and information. Chap-
Simulation is defined here as experimentation with artifacts to understand a theory. When a theory incorporates complex relations between many variables over time, then the theory cannot be analyzed with common sense; simulation is a must in such cases. The characteristics of a system that can be studied using this technique are: equilibrium tendencies, transient response, and sensitivity.

**Modelling and Analysing Simple Systems**

Part II deals with simple systems and shows how they can be modelled and analysed with the tools introduced above. The degree of complexity of a system is a function of the number of elements and the way the elements are linked with one another. A system is considered simple when it consists of very few states or unsophisticated control structures. Simple systems are considered here for the following reasons: 1. They provide building blocks for complex systems. 2. Since most simple systems considered have already been studied with mathematical and statistical models, these systems provide a ready context for demonstrating the superiority of simulation over the traditional techniques. 3. The behaviour of even a simple system may turn out to be quite complex, because a simple system need not necessarily be a trivial system. 4. Several practical systems can be modelled as simple systems.

Chapter 6 deals with single state systems. Their models consist of just one level and a control structure. The control structure, which determines the changes in the level, can be any one of several forms: dumb control, self referencing control, goal directed control, or adaptive control. The response of the system under each of these control structures to different types of input is discussed. Additionally, the cases where the response to input is not instantaneous but characterized by delays are also analysed.

Chapter 7 considers dynamics of simple processes having just one or two states, but complex control structures. The specific processes studied are growth, diffusion, and contagion.

Chapters 8 and 9 are concerned with processes having multiple states connected as chains. The control structures are relatively simple. Three examples are studied: 1. The dynamics of population structure. 2. Movement of personnel through an organizational hierarchy. 3. Movements in a mobility matrix.

**Complex Systems sans Mathematical Models**

Part III discusses complex systems for which mathematical models do not exist. These systems can be viewed as consisting of several subsystems, each of which can be modelled according to the earlier principles; in addition the subsystems are to be linked together with feedback loops. The action of one system (or actor) forms the environment for the other subsystems.

Chapter 10 deals with the modelling of an arms race between two nations. Each nation has a certain level of arms which is added to at a certain input rate, and subtracted from at a certain obsolescence rate. The rate of change in the level of arms of one nation is influenced by changes in the other's system. The chapter proposes a model and the model is simulated under different conditions to predict its dynamics.

The study of how an individual copes with stress caused by exogenous events forms the subject matter of chapter 11. In the system considered, the individual under focus interacts strongly with the environment which provides resources for stress coping. These resources consist of the individual's own personal resources and the support of the social network in which he or she is a part.

The theories of Pareto and Marx on societal dynamics are modelled in chapter 12. Both the theories deal with long term changes in political, economic, and cultural structures, and both try to explain the crises in the political systems of the nineteenth century. While the two theories have several similarities, they also have several dissimilarities; in particular, they differ in the nature of feedback between the subsystems. The proposed models are highly modular. The behaviour of each model depends not only on the causal processes taking place in each of its subsystems but also on the nature of the connections among the subsystems. In the simulation, first the subsystems are decoupled by setting some parameters to zero and the behaviour of the uncoupled system is understood. Then the coupled system with plausible starting values is simulated to illustrate the outcome of the subsystem interactions.

Each of the chapters in parts II and III follows a consistent pattern in its organization: first a verbal description of the system of interest is given. This is followed by the development of DYNAMO equations for a baseline version of the system. The model is also presented in the form of a DYNAMO flowchart. Next, the baseline model is analysed by conducting various experiments. The behaviour of the baseline model provides directions for extensions. DYNAMO equations for the extended versions are developed and simulated to gain insight into the behaviour of these versions. Finally, the chapter ends with a discussion on possibilities for further investigation. At the end of the
chapter are a set of numbered notes, corresponding to the cross references in the main text; these provide appropriate literature citations and elaborate on some of the points in the main text. The notes are followed by an appendix which gives a listing of the DYNAMO programme for the baseline model and its extensions.

Strengths

The field of systems dynamics has been dominated for the last several years by literature from the Systems Dynamics Group of MIT; this book is one of the few exceptions. It is unique in that it provides a fresh viewpoint and addresses the needs of a group which have not been specifically addressed before. Even though many of the applications discussed are common in the literature on systems dynamics, two major ones, the stress-coping-support example (chapter 11), and the models for the theories of Marx and Pareto (chapter 12) are new and are adopted from the author's own work. According to the author, the range of model types covered by the book is so wide that almost any specific model, however complex, can be built from these types alone. I do not think that this claim is too far fetched.

The book is written in a lucid, highly readable style. The contents are organized with great skill: all the different parts dovetail well with one another through a cohesive theme. The material is presented in a logical sequence, the concepts and the simplest systems coming first and the most complex systems last. Throughout the book, the author remains completely faithful to his original objective, which is to reorient the social scientists in their efforts towards theory building. He repeatedly emphasizes the need for dynamic analysis, and the superiority of simulation to conventional techniques. There is a good deal of discussion preceding and following each experiment, so that the exposition is never dull nor mechanical. In each model, the DYNAMO equations are developed very gradually and with great care. In particular, equations for the complex models of chapter 12 have been developed and explained superbly. The introduction to DYNAMO in chapters 2 and 3 is quite succinct, without omitting any essential features. It is quite thoughtful on the part of the author to include at the end of chapter 3 a section on when not to use DYNAMO. The notes at the end of each chapter are illuminating and will be of immense use to researchers.

Deficiencies

Although the book is outstanding in its present form and appears to be comprehensive in its coverage, it is not without deficiencies. A discerning reader cannot help noticing that two important aspects of modelling — measurement and validation — are ignored by the book. The problems of measurement and quantification are especially important in social sciences because many a time the variables of interest do not lend themselves to measurement and hence have to be substituted by proxies. A case in point is the example on stress coping given in chapter 11. The model developed here has several levels and rates which cannot be measured directly. For instance, how does one measure distress level? No less important is the problem of validation. A model may be technically perfect and yet unacceptable if it does not satisfactorily reproduce the behaviour of the real system that it intends to represent. This book merely shows that its models are internally consistent and that the results produced by them seem to be meaningful; however, to say that a model is meaningful is one thing and to say that it imitates reality is quite another. The book suffers from one more glaring gap: it is silent on the importance and nature of spadework that should be done before a model can be actually built. All examples in the book start with a given verbal description of a system, and then straightaway translate the description into a DYNAMO program. But, in practice, a researcher is rarely so fortunate as to have at his disposal a suitable verbal description of the system to start with; for most beginners, deriving such a description proves to be the most difficult and the most time consuming part of a modelling project. In fact, the above aspects, although very significant, are overlooked by almost all books on modelling.

Finally, it should be noted that the book does not strive to impart any skills to the reader; for example, it does not address the programming details such as what commands are needed to take reruns, nor does it include any exercises or discussion questions.

Conclusion

But on the whole, not only social scientists but also all those interested in systems dynamics will benefit immensely from this book. It has a consistent stance and is written with great conviction. At a time when it is becoming increasingly fashionable to deplore and decry the tendencies for quantification in some fields of research, it is really refreshing to come across a work which makes a plea for adopting quantitative modelling as a means of attaining objectivity and precision in our understanding of social systems.

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The book contains 15 papers presented at the Conference on Scientific Excellence organized in 1985 by the University of Western Ontario, London, Canada. The 16th paper on Women in Science by Jonathan Cole was specially solicited for the conference. The other papers are on psychology, sociology, and information sciences.

The purpose of the conference was to understand the conditions needed to facilitate productivity and innovation among scientists. The papers range from surveying ongoing research programmes to presenting newer ways of viewing the field of scientific excellence. The conference papers indicate that many facets of scientific enterprise are amenable to scientific study. Several papers suggest the preconditions that nurture or develop scientific knowledge. The book has an excellent foreword by Harriet Zuckerman of Columbia University, New York.

Assessing Scientific Work
The book is divided into three sections. The first section deals with how scientific work could be assessed. Eugene Garfield evaluates the use of citation analysis and co-citation cluster analyses to enable the information scientist to analyse inter-relationships among different disciplines.

Personalized Origins
The second section is called Personalized Origins and has seven papers. The papers are psychological in nature and analyse the character of eminent scientists. The papers discuss a variety of studies and conclusions of research. This review provides a brief account of what the 16 papers contain.

Philip E Vernon surveys the research over 60 years on the character of eminent scientists and provides a historical overview of the subject. A generally acceptable definition of creativity suggests two main requirements: (i) Novelty and originality, and (ii) Utility and acceptability to experts in the particular field. The paper has an impressive survey of cognitive psychological, humanistic, and sociological approaches to the study of the eminent scientist. Robert S Albert and Mark A Runco report a longitudinal study of two different types of gifted children and their families to learn about the emergence of scientific activity. There is evidence that creative potential is based on two basic dispositions — personality characteristics and abilities. The creative potential of exceptionally high IQ boys is likely to be influenced by their personality traits and those of persons they relate to. Creative persons in science show signs early, they make early career choices, show early interest, and gain early recognition.

Dean Keith Simonton suggests that creativity is a matter of superior minds and not of zeitgeist as popularly believed. J Philippe Rushton, Harry Murray, and Sampo Paunonen discuss their work on the personality traits associated with high research productivity. The creative producer is ambitious, enduring, seeks definiteness, is dominant, aggressive, independent, is not meek and non-supportive, and shows leadership. He is cognitively complex, has a radical imagination, and a well articulated self concept. The effective teacher, on the other hand, might be characterized as liberal, sociable, showing leadership, extroverted, low in anxiety, objective, supporting, non-authoritarian, not defensive, intelligent, and aesthetically sensitive. The value orientation and motivational need structures of a scientist show that work environment facilitates scientific innovation. Some of the characteristics of this environment are that excellence is harnessed, autonomy is combined with accountability, and organizational goals are clearly communicated.

Norman S Endler examines the impact of psychologists and scientific eminence and suggests that the same method could apply equally to other fields of study. The study suggests that scholars shift their research focus after they are "recognized." Intelligence, high achievement need, energy, stamina, and curiosity are necessary ingredients for a productive scholar. Pierre L Van den Berghe employs Darwinian evolutionary theory to suggest that scientific creativity has its evolutionary origins in playfulness.

Socio-cultural Origins
The third section entitled Socio-cultural Origins examines scientific productivity more from a socio-psychological perspective. It has eight papers.

Daniel Perlman and Elizabeth Dean examine the impact of evaluation bias on the scientist and suggest improvements in the review process. Henry L Roediger III discusses the influence of journal editors on the scientific process and suggests that editors can facilitate this process. Lee B Sechrest is concerned with the quality of data, quality of conclusions, and quality of interpretations. He suggests that a system of quality assurance mechanisms, deliberately planned and constructed, is necessary to have unquestionable integrity of scientific innovation. John J Furely evaluates the fostering of scientific excellence in capitalist and
socialist models. He points out that in the state controlled Soviet system, political rather than scientific performance tends to determine whether a scientist becomes a leader in his field or not. After comparing the various systems in the Western countries with capitalist bias and the Socialist countries, the author suggests improvements in the current system of funding and monitoring research. Janet Beavin Bavelas emphasizes the need for an egalitarian and mystifying view of scientific creativity. She suggests that creativity in the early stages of science is a way of thinking that can be learned and practised. She discusses from her experience how creativity can be nurtured and developed.

Harry G Murray highlights how school teaching can develop scientific excellence in doctoral graduates and the role that thesis supervision plays in promoting high levels of scientific productivity. Esther R Greenglass examines misrepresentation in the empirical studies of sexist research on sex differences and evaluates the processes involved in the generation and systematization of knowledge in the area of the psychology of women. The last paper is an invited paper by Jonathan R Cole on Women in Science. Cole offers data to show that an increasing number of women are entering the field of scientific research and evaluates where women in science stand today.

Provides State-of-the-art Knowledge

It is always difficult to review a book which has several essays written by many eminent scholars. The review can merely indicate the subject matter of the essays contained in the book and I have tried to do this in this review. In doing this, I have drawn freely from the descriptions provided by the editors and taken main themes from each paper. The review can hardly critique individual papers.

In the last ten years or so, there have been a spate of books based on conference proceedings. Many of these proceedings suffer from repetitiveness from one paper to another. Some have indifferent quality of papers, ranging from extremely valuable to the pedestrian. This book includes a large number of research based papers of high quality. Though repetition of ideas in a book of this nature is unavoidable, this book does not suffer seriously from this handicap. The advantage of such volumes is that they can often provide state-of-the-art knowledge. As a reader, I find it difficult to understand why some themes have been included in the volume because the rationale for doing so is not discussed by the editors. However valuable the papers are, and though I found them extremely useful for my personal knowledge, it is not clear how the last two papers on women scientists fit into the theme of the book.

As Harriet Zuckerman in the Foreword has said, "Indeed, the subject remains daunting, as we see from observations by authors of chapters in this volume. The notion of scientific excellence continues to be elusive, it is an entity not easily identified or readily measured. Still, development has occurred. It is clear on a close reading that the papers collected here could not have been written a quarter-century ago. They draw on a store of cumulated empirical knowledge and variously developed theories about the origins and characteristics of superior scientific performance, derived from psychological and sociological perspectives that have become available only in intervening years."

This book is recommended to students of scientific performance. It is written in technical language. A casual reader with marked interest in the field may also find it useful. The type is readable and the editorial work is done with care.

Ishwar Dayal
New Delhi


This is the first volume of the proceedings of the International Conference on “Transience and Transitions in Organizations” held in India in August, 1986 which was attended by scholars and practitioners from the West, Third World countries, and India, and managers from Indian Industry.

The book reflects more than just a contribution of concepts in the field of Organization Behaviour. It symbolizes what the outcome can be if thinkers in industry

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and practitioners in academia jointly address issues of common concern. The only regret is that the delay in publishing it has made some of the ideas (that were exciting in 1986) a bit dated. One also wishes that the volume had fewer printing errors. Nevertheless, it is an important contribution that addresses an area on which we have very little material and provides a source from which serious students of organization culture can get fascinating clues as to how senior and top managers run their organizations.

The book is organized into two sections. The first covers the overall concept of the Conference and the four speeches which describe the organization scenario in India along with the critical issues related to managing organizations and their directions. The second section contains presentations by 11 top managers of India (most of them chief executives) where they share the essentials of their own approaches and models regarding how they get things done in organizations and how they confront the issues raised in the process.

The editors themselves have analysed the proceedings and given a broad framework referring to the main themes that emerged:

- periods of growth, consolidation, and stagnation
- changes in the market place
- changes in quality of people and their relatedness with the organization
- leadership styles.

However, one can go through the proceedings and pull out one's own concepts and learnings.

Fundamental Attitudinal Change Required

The inaugural address by J N Sapru, Chairman, ITC Ltd, looks at the topic of “Transience and Transitions in Organizations” through the “eyes of a practising manager whose observations span a period of three decades.” He believes that change is inevitable and that one has to move away from the trap of only reflecting on past achievements and heritage since they are no consolation for our present and future inadequacies, but he also says that “we cannot assume that a technologically advanced society which offers a higher standard of material living always provides a better quality of life.” His main thrust is that there should be a fundamental attitudinal change resulting in the creation and sustenance of the culture which is continuously striving for excellence in every aspect of life. It should be reflected in the way in which organizations plan, think, live, and how people work together in the organization. These standards have to be self-imposed and are essentially personal. He advocates that individuals in organizations must be in a position to “master” change and this requires that the organization must have a clear vision (which may be reflected in a mission statement) but it also must be very clear in terms of its performance, where each step is to be executed with precision towards the distant goal.

In the “Charter of the Conference” M H Avadhani says that “the management of human resources requires sensitized systems of value management.” However, the way in which he advocates this is rather disquieting. He says that the role of senior managers is to mould the organization in accordance with their vision. He also advocates treating an Indian employee as a member of the family (which, by itself, may not be bad) but the theme throughout is that the employee is in some dependency with the senior—in the same way as a child is with his parents. One wonders if the products of the IIMs and other institutes of management see themselves in a child-parent relationship with the leaders of the organizations they would like to join. Similarly the paper seems to say that all Indian civilization to date was based on “Vedic Scriptures, Upnishads, Shastras and interventions of Puranas and Itihasas.” One wonders what happens to the influences of the Muslim and British periods.

“Management” and “Culture”

Pulin Garg’s keynote address gives us a deeper understanding of the concepts of “management” and “culture” as he has experienced them in the client systems he has been consultant to. His thrust has been to understand the meanings of these two words through various processes that are created and that can be built within the individuals in an organization. He has identified four primary processes of culture, management, and identity:

- processes of meaning-making
- processes of role-taking
- processes of choice-making
- processes of replenishment of energy.

He defines the conflicts in transience and transition as being a conflict faced in Indian industry because there is the culture that has been unconsciously introjected from the Indian viewpoint which conflicts with the consciously internalized concepts regarding modern organizations which is western. He goes into details about the sub-optimal and organizationally destructive choices that many individuals make in trying to cope with this conflict.
The second section has some interesting contributions by senior managers in Indian industry. The first contribution by Arabinda Ray, "Transition of First Generation Indian Managers in the Second and Third Generations," gives a fascinating account of how backgrounds, beliefs, and expectations of Indian managers have changed from the 1950's and 60's, through the 70's, and into the 80's. He also highlights certain issues that any senior management will need to address if they seek to retain the young top talent of the country. He also gives a very clear definition which separates "Westernization" from "Modernization."

In his talk, "Institutionalization of Change: Formal and Non-Formal Approaches," T Kunnankal gives what amounts to almost a case study that shows how — given the will and sensitivity — transition can be brought about even in a typically bureaucratic system (in this instance the Central Board of Secondary Education).

In "Building Organizational Culture: A Search from Traditions," D B Gupta authentically shares his experiences but (perhaps because of the editing or language) we are left with the question of what specifically happened to raise Lupin from a Rs 50,000 organization to a Rs 100 crore one.

M K Kumar's "Coping with the Changes in Corporate Identity: A Study of Best and Crompton," is a fascinating account of how an organization's definition of itself builds its culture which, in turn, influences everything inside it and also influences its interface with the outside world. The portion leading up to 1979 is dealt with in detail but after that one has a sense of it petering out. It does, however, give an account of how the 'roots' of an organization continue to influence it even after it has moved far away in time from its original definition.

The study is mainly restricted to two districts in Karnataka state, viz. Uttara Kannada and Shimoga. It proceeds at two levels. At first, the authors describe the nature of struggle between various groups with conflicting interests in the forest resources for the region under study. This analysis covers the period from 1800 to the 1980's. Three dominant claimants identified in this respect are: local users, industrial users, and the state or the government. An analytical account of the struggle between these groups in different stages of use of forest resources is provided along with comments on their implications for the state of health and management of forest resources of the region. Three stages covered in the discussion are: (i) pre-commercial stage (ii) initial stage of commercialization (iii) the stage of...
dominant industrial use particularly since the 1950's. Corrective steps needed to reverse the process of degradation of forests are also discussed in this context.

At the second level, the analysis focuses on the local economy with specific reference to the local class structure and land use pattern, economy of arecanut gardens, and the livestock economy of the region with the help of a household survey in the four selected villages. The main objective of this primary enquiry is to judge the nature and extent of dependence on forests by different classes in the village communities and to estimate the associated social costs.

A synoptic view of both the analyses has been provided in the concluding chapter which also has comments on the policy issues relevant for achieving an enlightened stage of management of our forest resources at the national level.

**Observations about Local Users of Forests**

The study unfolds several interesting dimensions of the political economy of forest use in the Western Ghats region of Karnataka. It belies the popular belief that it is industrial use which is mainly responsible for degradation of forest resources and that local use is by and large sustainable. In fact, the author bemoans the fact that the locals hardly showed any interest in forest regeneration. A more interesting observation about the local users is that they do not form a homogeneous group, as is otherwise commonly believed. The better off segment of the local population has dominant control over the use of forests. Significant total dependence of the local economy on forests notwithstanding, the share of the impoverished peasants and labourers is considerably low in the total gains derived from forests. Thus, not only does the local population remain alienated from the extensive use of forests, it is the rich class among the local users who corner most of the benefits due to their relatively higher control over privately owned and operated land as also on betta lands attached to arecanut gardens.

**Role of the Forest Department**

Ultimately, it is the 'state' i.e. the Forest Department which is left with the entire responsibility of conservation and regeneration of forests, without any institutional arrangement to induce their sustainable use. In respect of the role played by the Forest Department the author asserts that "in spite of increasing commercial demands, the reserved forests today are in a much better state of health, while the minor forests and bettas which were under local use are more or less completely degraded." (p 163) The reason has been that, "it was always the government that was expected to take care of regeneration and not the people even in privatized forests" (emphasis added).

The reviewer is rather puzzled to find that despite the above mentioned categorical observations regarding lack of interest of the local users in regeneration, the author concludes: "the indifference of the locals to regenerate forests under common use could be mainly attributed to class differentiation and to the highly skewed control on land and benefits from the forests." (p 164) On the contrary, in view of the total indifference shown by all the classes towards sustainable use, I believe that even an egalitarian distribution of operational holdings (including betta lands) would not have automatically generated institutional arrangements conducive for scientific management of the forest resources by the locals without deliberate efforts made in this direction either by the 'state' or the 'community.'

**Factors Contributing to Over-exploitation of Forests**

In fact, it is the degree of commercialization of the local economy rather than its class character which must be directly and vitally linked to the extent of over-exploitation and thereby non-sustainable use of forest resources, apart from other factors such as pressure of population on land. It is only under near-total subsistence use of forests, such as in non-commercial livestock activity or fuel-wood collection accompanied by relatively much less pressure of population on land that the rate of local exploitation may remain less than or equal to the natural rate of regeneration of forest resources.

The reviewer, therefore, will not be surprised to find that under increasing pressure of commercialization and of the landless and near landless on land, short run private benefits would assume overriding importance over long term social gains arising from sustainability and conservation of forests. It is but obvious then that commercial interests and pressure for survival in the local economy and industrial interests in the larger economy will continue to neglect social costs associated with indiscriminate exploitation of the forests. The crisis of fuelwood in Karnataka is a fallout of this situation.

**Tasks Ahead**

However, it is heartening to find that the authors are not pessimistic about the future. For resolving the dilemma between an urgent need for conservation of forests and meeting the needs of both the locals and larger economy, they recommend that different types of institutes may be entrusted with these tasks. While the role of Forest Department may be significant in monitoring the health of the reserved forests and in
regulating local access to them, people's organizations may be evolved to take care of the needs of local and larger economy through regeneration of tree cover over the wastelands, degraded minor forests, etc. The local organizations may function with the active help of voluntary workers, agricultural scientists, environmentalists, etc. Such institutional arrangements for use and management of community land can also provide an effective check against domination of their use by an elite class or caste. This optimism is not far-fetched. The Central Government has realized the need for conservation of forest resources. Similarly, there is no dearth of successful experiments in eco-development by the voluntary organizations. The task is arduous; but as the authors have rightly argued, it must be performed. Social awareness for performing it is good as never before.

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"In the Innovation Age, control systems will be based primarily on selecting and empowering the right people to manage resources, not on building elaborate controls to make sure inadequate people do what they are supposed to do."

Who are the right people for innovation? And how does one empower them? That is the leitmotif of this book by Pinchot.

Economic development is observed to be closely associated with entrepreneurship. As A J Schumpeter (1934) has said, changes in the economic system may occur either as an adaptation or as development. The stress here is on the importance of 'changes due to initiative from within as opposed to without.' In fact, if no such change arises, then there is no economic development taking place. Within, the major source of spontaneity is the entrepreneur.

Often, the innovative entrepreneur has a feel for the latent and incipient needs of the consumer and takes the initiative in bringing about the change and educating the consumer about it.

However, studies in entrepreneurship have not shown favour toward the special role of entrepreneurship in economic development. Entrepreneurs are clubbed along with adapters, product innovators, etc. and researched along different variables in toto.

The Concept of Intrapreneuring

The term intrapreneuring was coined by Pinchot for internal entrepreneurs who, while employed in a corporate job, are nevertheless given the freedom and incentive by their companies to create and market their own ideas for their own as well as the companies' profit.

The idea that the independent entrepreneur and the "organization man" are irreconcilable opposites is a myth and the exploding of some of the myths about the personalities and motivations of entrepreneurs answers the question "why would anyone choose to be an intrapreneur if he or she could become an entrepreneur just as well?" One such myth about the entrepreneur is that his primary motivation is a desire for wealth. In reality, he is interested in money rewards or profits primarily because of the feedback they give him as to how well he is doing. Money is not the incentive to effort but rather the measure of its success for the real entrepreneur. Another myth is that entrepreneurs are high risk takers. In fact, they avoid high risk situations and seek and enjoy calculated, moderate risks.

Yet another myth is that the entrepreneur lacks analytical skills. To quote Art Fry, one of the intrapreneurs, "Making use of and trusting your own insights is where the entrepreneur gets a big jump on things. Where others are making incremental steps you can jump ahead. You can't always justify it and you certainly can't prove it. At that stage people say, 'He is pulling hoaxes' but actually you are following a higher truth they cannot see."

Having made the intuitive leaps, intrapreneurs sit down and think through their ideas analytically, extending, consolidating, and testing them.

There is also a general feeling that entrepreneurs are amoral but often their need to achieve produces flexibility within the rules, not a loss of integrity. Finally there is the myth that the entrepreneur is a power-hungry empire builder but the fact is that it is the need for achievement that is on overdrive rather than the need for power.

Intrapreneuring and its Advantages

Having dispelled these myths it follows that the 'organization man' and the entrepreneur are not really irreconcilable. In fact, the entrepreneur is a person who is special in that he has different characteristics. If it were possible for an organization to provide the appropriate environment it would mean that intrapreneuring can score over entrepreneurship on significant parameters.
For intrapreneuring in big companies, the advantages are clear. The marketing clout of big companies can make the critical difference required for capturing initial market share. Secondly, the technology base of the large firm is diverse and therefore the chance that research results will fit some business the company is in or at least competent to enter, is greater. Thirdly, they possess a vast network of trusted people. Fourthly, there is the advantage of bounded networks. Large firms can share proprietary secrets freely with insiders because they know where the boundaries are, while entrepreneurs dealing with other entrepreneurs have no clear boundaries for proprietary information. This shuts down communication. Finally, there is the advantage of pilot plant and share-time production and of finance.

As against this, the three great advantages of entrepreneurship are, decisiveness (indecisiveness of the corporation is missing), sophisticated investors (competent venture capitalists), and ownership. The route which a company adopts in dealing with these three factors could make the difference between success and failure in implementing an intrapreneurial culture.

In summary, for the right person, intrapreneuring is exhilarating because it combines the resources and security of a cooperation with the freedom and creativity of the entrepreneur.

Choosing an Idea and Identifying a Sponsor

For the intrapreneur, two decisions are critical. First, the choice of the idea. In choosing an intrapreneural idea, three needs have to be kept in mind by the intrapreneur: (1) the customer’s needs, (2) the corporation’s needs, and (3) the intrapreneur’s needs. The intrapreneur’s needs is defined in terms of what he is striving to become and what his deepest values are. If the idea does not meet all three needs, then it is unlikely that it will work.

Flexibility in the organization makes for good intrapreneurial ideas to succeed — flexibility in terms of decision making, risk tolerance, fund availability, self-selection and cross-functional teams.

Second and by no means less important, is the choice of the sponsor. Sponsors help keep intrapreneurs in large companies in more ways than just keeping them from being fired. By protecting intrapreneurs from the sense of powerlessness that being in a large organization can engender and by giving them control of the resources they need to realize their visions, sponsors build an environment around the intrapreneurs that makes staying worthwhile. Effectively, they deal with the problem of indecisiveness and also take up the role of competent venture capitalists albeit in a different sense.

Those who take up the job of sponsorship solve three of the most basic barriers to intrapreneuring: lack of resources, nervous money, and political attacks.

In sum, intrapreneurial venture groups seem to flourish when three conditions are present:

- Prospects for existing businesses don’t look good enough, so diversification is necessary.
- There is excess cash to be invested not needed by existing businesses.
- The company is optimistic about its ability to diversify by internal growth.

Rewarding the Intrapreneur: The Concept of Intracapital

Perhaps the most difficult task for an organization is rewarding an intrapreneur. Traditional rewards for success such as promotion do not match the risks of innovating or intrapreneuring. Then there is the disadvantage of absence of ownership. In fact, it is probable that the more important reward for an intrapreneur in comparison to incentives and promotion would be recognition. This is not surprising since recognition in an organization can be a source of empowerment.

Given that progress on the intrapreneurial path is not measured in promotions that lead to the pinnacles of corporate power, the most fundamental measure of progress for the intrapreneur is the increasing freedom to use corporate resources to build new businesses for the corporation. This freedom is gained by the entrepreneur by accumulating capital. For the intrapreneur, the answer is intracapital — a timeless discretionary budget that can be used to fund the creation of new intrapreneurs and innovation for the corporation.

Intracapital, because it is a kind of freedom renewable only on the basis of more success, motivates the individual to greater care and frugality. No system of budgetary reviews and approval by seniors could be half as tight as spending “one’s own” irreplaceable freedom.

Applicability to Organizations at Different Stages

In Intrapreneuring, the author has cited numerous examples from companies such as 3 M (Minnesota Mining & Manufacturing), IBM, Intel, DuPont, General Motors, etc. The citations are interesting case studies on the process of intrapreneuring. They give an insight into
how intrapreneuring can be brought about at various stages of a business enterprise. Innovations tend to be closely associated with the creation of a new unit because that is perhaps the "only way to secure innovation that is not excessively bound and hampered by tradition and precedent. But once a tradition of intrapreneuring sets in, the environment need not necessarily hamper innovations. How does one bring in a tradition of intrapreneuring if it does not exist? Pinchot does provide some clues though tradition cannot be dismissed as an unimportant variable.

Relevance to Theory and Practice

For Schumpeter (The Theory of Economic Development, 1934), the entrepreneur is by definition an innovator. Dwijendra Tripathi (Occupational Mobility and Industrial Entrepreneurship in India: A Historical Analysis, 1981 and "An Integrated View of Entrepreneurship," EPW XX(48), 1985) argues that the distinction among innovators, adapters, and imitators is meaningless. P N Khandwalla, in contrast, classifies entrepreneurs as pioneering-innovating. The PI motive as conceptualized by Khandwalla ("The PI Motive: A Base for Development," Abhigyan, Spring Issue, 1985, pp 59-76) "has two related underpinnings — the need for unique path-breaking accomplishments (pioneering) and the need for transforming the status quo (innovating)."

Pinchot draws a distinction between product inventors, market developers, and entrepreneurs. In fact, his conceptualization of entrepreneurs is completely divorced from imitators and adapters. Further, Pinchot distinguishes the intrapreneur from the entrepreneur as being of a different genre in terms of need for corporate resources and the security of cooperation at the cost of decisiveness (he has to put up with the indecisiveness of the corporation) and ownership. Thus, he lends credence to the hypothesis that entrepreneurs are different. But he does not say whether some entrepreneurs are more innovative and others less.

In terms of motivation, Pinchot categorizes intrapreneurs along with entrepreneurs. And he draws his conclusions about motivation from McClelland's thesis that entrepreneurs are driven more by a need for achievement than for power or affiliation. People with a strong need for achievement are primarily concerned with setting goals for themselves and achieving them. They have strong internal standards of excellence. They want to make unique achievements and find new ways of doing things. In this assumption, Pinchot has not considered Khandwalla's argument that the kind of entrepreneurial behaviour that McClelland's nACH predicts is not necessarily of the pioneering, innovative Schumpetarian kind.

On the whole, therefore, the book does throw up some interesting theoretical issues and hypothesis. Besides this, the issues that Pinchot discusses would be of great relevance to India. If, as Khandwalla hypothesizes ("Talent and the Pioneering-Innovating Motive," in M K Raina and Sushma Gulati (eds), Identification and Development of Talent, 1988), in Indian conditions (high conflict situations) professionals seem to feel that they can pursue pioneering, innovating, and self-actualization only by resisting the temptation to opt for economic safety, social legitimacy, social status, etc. then intrapreneuring could be a more appropriate alternative in India. Thus, PI activities within a company could probably be increased since economic safety is increased. Of course, for social legitimacy and social status, educational reorientation or social engineering could still be the only route.

The above would have implications for the venture capital community. Should the economy concentrate more on generating venture capital or on intracapital? Or should venture capital companies collaborate with firms in developing intrapreneuring?

In summary, Intrapreneuring brings to surface crucial issues of relevance both to entrepreneurship as a discipline and as a profession. Given the Indian context, i.e. conflict of motives due to the environs on one side and newly emerging venture capitalism on the other, the book is of special significance.

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