CHAPTER-III

DEVELOPMENT OF INDIAN TEXTILE INDUSTRY

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HISTORY AND GROWTH OF INDIAN TEXTILE INDUSTRY

The classical Indian civilization developed from the earlier Vedic civilization which was created by the Aryans, in around 1500 B.C. Aryans were tall, fair and of powerful physique. They used bronze and iron weapons and helmets and coat of man. They domesticated the horse and used to riding horse driven chariots.

The Sanskrit of the Rig-Veda is one of the earliest known languages as derived from the ancient Indo European parent of many modern languages.

“The Rig Vedic Aryans knew agriculture but they were essentially a pastoral people. Agriculture became their chief mode of production. A family wealth was judge by the number of cows and bullocks at possessed”. Their weavers were busy weaving cotton and woollen fabrics and there were other who did the work of dyeing and embroidering. Vedic literature has many references to weaving. There were female weavers called ‘Vayitris’ and ‘Siris’. The terms ‘Vasos’, Vasana’, ‘Vastra’ refer to Gangetic cotton manufacture. Vedic literature helps us to the development of costumes and tastes in India. There are references that men and women silk clothes, dyed and embroidered clothes. There are references to woollen blankets and umbrellas. Authentic records indicate that weaving was one of the earliest crafts in Egypt and China, but India was familiar with this process at an equally early date. However, instead of interwoven pattern such as those produced in other countries, the Indian craftsman made up in cotton cloth, which the decorated with dyes and prints. This provided greater originality and variety. Unfortunately none of these early fabrications have been preserved due to the high humidity of the air and the many plagues of insects.

MAURYAN PERIOD

When Alexander raided what is now Pakistan in 326 B.C. he was tremendously impressed by their advancement. He took with him some of Indian printed cotton and many of Indian finally woven silk fabrics which be
considered similar to those of the master wavers of China, though their manner of decoration was similar to that of Persia. Strabo, writing early in the Christian era, referred to these 'flower robes' brought back by Alexander. One of the generals of Alexander had kept a record of all their adventures and there in state that Indians made clothing out of 'Linen from trees'. He also noted that the natives made linen(cotton) garments wearing a shirt which reached to the nail of the leg, a sheet folded over the shoulder and a turban around the head.

This period provides us with a great deal of data regarding costumes worn by the people in those days. Eight to ten varieties of dress were in vogue. Fashionable costumes such as Kurta, Salwar, Cholies, Gowns and many dresses as well as tailored costumes were used in those days, especially in the northwestern region.

Women began to wear precious fashionable and fantastic head gearing. Tailored caps of conical, squat, skull and straw varieties are noticeable. The Choli or Bodies was tied by a knot either between the breasts or at the back. There was decorative neckline for the Choli.

It is believed that this period marks the stabilization of costume design in India. During this period, costume became regional or zonal in character. Royal soldiers, priests and other professionals were given distinctive costumes. MODERN TIMES: No doubt industrial development on modern lines in India, can be said to have begun with the cotton textiles industry. Its contribution to the industrial production has in the last few years declined on account of the emergence and the rapid growth of numerous new industries. Of course, in 1982-83 it possessed 21% weightage in the index of industrial production and stood at the top in terms of employment of huge capital and large number of factory workers during industry manufacturing 1745 million kgs. of yarn and 9803 million meters of cloth. It provided not only on an average direct employment to 8.04 lakhs workers on three shifts basis during 1981-82. It supported lakhs of cotton growers and landless workers connected with cotton cultivation in rural India and countless cotton textiles trade intermediaries – wholesalers, semi-wholesalers and retailers scattered all over the country.
HISTORY AND GROWTH OF LEADERSHIP AND MOTIVATION STUDY

Leadership is generally considered as a process of influencing the activities of a group in an effort to achieve certain organisational goals. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1938) the term 'leader' was used in English language as early as the year 1300 but term leadership had a late appearance.

Various definitions and concepts of leadership have been reviewed by a number of scholars including Morris and Seeman (1950); Shartle (1951, 1956); Carter (1953); Gibb (1954, 1969) and Bass (1960). It would appear from such synthesis that leadership has been defined as an initiation of structure; a locus of group processes; as an art of inducing compliance; as the exercise of influence; as an actor behaviour; as a goal achievement; as a differentiated role, and as a personality and its effects.

The above mentioned foci do not exhaust the lousy. Yet they suggest that it is difficult to identify a theory of leadership despite certain interlink ages among the various dominant foci pertaining to its conceptualization.

It may be pointed out that the following broad purposes are generally highlighted in the leadership studies:

1. To identify the object to be observed.
2. To identify a form of practice.
3. To satisfy a particular orientation.
4. To avoid a particular orientation value orientation or implication of practice:
5. To provide a basis for theory development.

Thus, it would appear that no single is complete in itself. For instance, aiming to identify a group leader - the person whose behaviour exercises determining effect on the behaviour of other group member - may not provide much insight into the processes and structure involved in the emergence and maintenance of Leadership. Definition should involve much more than just identifying leaders and indicating the menace by maintenance and continuance of leadership.
In the early Twentieth century with the development of the scientific Management movement, Winslow Taylor (1911) initiated time and motion studies to analyze work tasks to improve performance in every aspect of organisational functioning. Once jobs are reorganized with the criterion of efficiency in mind, the economic self interest of the workers could be satisfied through various incentive work plans. The most notable function of the leader under the scientific Management of the classical theory was to enhance organisational effectiveness, while the primary aim of the leader was to improve organisational efficiency and individual efficiency.

In 1930's the foci stressed upon by Taylor were drastically modified by the Human Relations Movement that was initiated by Elton Mayo and his colleagues. Mayo (1930) emphasized that for an organization to enhance its effectiveness it has to take into account the organisation to enhance its effectiveness it has to take into account the human feelings, attitudes and processes involving inter - personal interaction. Therefore, in the Human Relations School, the focus of the leader was not on the development of the organization alone, but also on the growth of the individuals manning such organisation.

Essentially, the classical school stresses "task - accomplishment" through structural rearrangements. Whereas the Human Relationship as addition factors that strikingly influence the operation and productivity of an organization. The recognition of these two inter - related concerns have characterized the writings on leadership ever since the emergence of the scientific Management & the Human Relations on the scene.

MODELS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE

Style is a way of behaving therefore every person may have his own style functioning the difference in the various style of leadership are based on the assumptions that the leaders make about the source of their nature. The first attempt to delineate the dimension of leadership behaviour was made by Lippitt and White (1938) under the general guidance of Kurt Lewin. They differentiated two main non-overlapping types, viz., authoritarian and democratic, besides referring to another style, namely laissez - faire.
The authoritarian style of leader behaviour is often based on assumption that the power of leader is derived from the position he occupies and that people are innately lazy and unreliable (Theory X). The democratic style assumes that the power of leader is granted by the group he is to lead and that people can be basically self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated (Theory Y).

Robert Tannebaum and Warren H. Schmidt (1957) have also depicted the range of leader's behaviour from "extreme authoritarian to extreme democratic".

1. Authoritarian (Task Oriented)
   - Use of authority by the leader
   a) Leader makes decision and announces
   b) Leader 'sells' decision
   c) Leader present ideas and invites questions
   d) Leader presents tentative decision subject to change

2. Democratic (Relationship-Oriented)
   - Area of freedom for subordinates
   a) Leader presents problems, gets suggestions and makes decisions
   b) Leader defines limits: asks group to make decision
   c) Leader permits subordinates to function within limits defined by the superior.

As is evident, one end of the continuum of figure above refers to the task-orientation whereas the other end the continuum emphasizes the relationship orientation. Often this continuum is extended beyond democratic leader behaviour to include laissez-faire style. This style permits the group members to do whatever they want to do. No policies or procedures are established. The laissez-faire atmosphere represents in a scene, the absence of formal leadership.

**MICHIGAN LEADERSHIP STUDIES**

The Survey Research Centre of Michigan University has identified two concepts, which are called "employee-orientation" and "production-oriented" respectively. Leaders who are described as employee-oriented stress
the relationships aspect of their job. They feel that every employee is important and take interest in everyone, accepting their individuality and personal needs, whereas, production–centered leaders emphasize production and technical aspect of the job and sometimes treat employees as tools to accomplish the goal of the organization. Besides, there are certain leaders who are task oriented as well as employee oriented, whereas some others are not concerned about either and they do not have any dominant style of leadership manifest in their behaviour.

HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

It's probably safe to say that the most well known theory of motivation in Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs. He hypothesized that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of five needs. These needs are:

1. Physiological: Includes hunger, thirst, shelter, sex and other bodily needs.
2. Safety: Includes security and protection from physical and emotional harm.
3. Social: Includes affection, belongingness, acceptance, and friendship.
4. Esteem: Includes internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement; and external esteem factors such as status, recognition, and attention.
5. Self-actualisation: the drive to become what one is capable of becoming; includes growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfilment.

As each of these needs becomes substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. The theory would say that although no need is ever fully gratified, a substantially satisfied need no longer motivates. So if you want to motivate someone, according to Maslow, you need to understand what level of the hierarchy that person is currently on and focus on satisfying the needs at or above that level.
THEORY X AND THEORY Y

Douglas McGregor proposed two distinct views of human beings: one basically negative, labelled Theory X, and the other basically positive, labelled theory Y. After viewing the way in which managers dealt with employees, McGregor concluded that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on a certain grouping of assumptions and that he or she tends to mould his or her behaviour toward employees according to these assumptions.

Under Theory X, the four assumptions held by managers are

1. Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
2. Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
3. Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.
4. Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.

In contrast to these negative views about the nature of human beings, McGregor listed the four positive assumptions that he called theory Y:

1. Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.
2. People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives.
3. The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility.
4. The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.

McGregor himself held to the belief that Theory Y assumptions were more valid than Theory X. Therefore, he proposed ideas such as participative decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations as approaches that would maximize an employee's job motivation.
TWO FACTOR THEORY

The two-factor theory was proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg. In the belief that an individual's relation to work is basic and that one's attitude toward work can very well determine success or failure, Herzberg investigated the question, what do people want from their jobs?" He asked people to describe, in detail, situation in which they felt exceptionally good or bad about their jobs. These responses were then tabulated and categorized.

The data suggest, said Herzberg, that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, as was traditionally believed. Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. Herzberg proposed that his findings indicated the existence of a dual continuum: the opposite of "Satisfaction" is "No Satisfaction," and the opposite of "Dissatisfaction" is "No Dissatisfaction."

According to Herzberg, the factors leading to job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction. Therefore, managers who seek to eliminate factors that can create job dissatisfaction may bring about peace but not necessarily motivation. They will be placating their workforce rather than motivating them.

There are a number of contemporary theories that have one thing in common—each has a reasonable degree of valid supporting documentation. Of course, this doesn't mean that the theories are unquestionable.

PATH-GOAL MODEL-COMPARISION WITH LEADERSHIP AND MOTIVATION

Robert House and others have further developed a path-goal view of leadership initially presented by Martin G. Evans which is derived from the expectancy model of motivation.

Motivation and Leadership are the part of personnel administration as a discipline of study is relatively recent; the precepts upon which its current concepts are based had their origins deep in history. For example, the "minimum wage rate" and "incentive wage plans", financial motivation and positive leadership style, were included in the Babylonian Code of Hammurabi.
around 1800 B.C. The Chinese, as early as 1650 B.C. had originated the principle of "division of Labour" and they understood the meaning and implications of labour turnover even in 400 B.C. The "Span of Management" and the related concepts of organization were well understood by Moses around 1200 B.C. and the Caldrons had incentive wage plans around 400 B.C. The ancients, with their stone axes, adages and other flint tools, may not have appreciated the principle of "transfer of skill from the humans to the machine", but they were nevertheless applying the principle of "transfer of skill from the humans to the machine", and separated them from large numbers of other human beings.

In India, Kautalya observed that there existed a sound base for systematic management of Leadership and Motivation as early as the fourth century B.C. The government then took active interest in the operation of public and private sector enterprises and provided systematic procedures for regulating employer-employee relationship. Charm has described the contribution of Kautalya in the field of "staffing and personnel management".

Some authorities have preferred to study the growth of personnel management on the basis of the classification given below:

i. Era of Industrial Revolution;
ii. Era of Trade Unionism;
iii. Era of Social Responsibility;
iv. Scientific Management Era;
v. Industrial Psychology Era (including Human Relations Era);
vi. The Behavioural Science Era; and

[I] ERA OF INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Modern personnel management has evolved from a number of significant interrelated developments which date back to the beginnings of what is popularly known as the Industrial Revolution or, as some prefer to call it, Evolution. Prior to it, there were several distinct types of relationships involving employers and employees, which were variously termed as "slaver," "serfdom" and the "guild system". The initial stage of the guild system is said
to be early beginnings of personnel management, for the three classes - the masters, the travelling journeymen and apprentices - were all a closely knit group; and the system involved "selecting, training, developing, rewarding and maintaining workers."

[II] ERA OF TRADE UNIONISM

Shortly after the advent of the factory system, groups of employees began to get together to discuss their common problems. Initially, these problems arose out of child labour, long hours of work, and poor working conditions. Later, economic problems, including the question of employee benefits and services, became the major concern. Workers joined together on the basis of their common interests to improve their lot. The basic philosophy underlying trade unionism was that "through strength and collective support, the management could be forced to listen to the workers and redress their grievances." The weapon used was that of strikes, slowdown, walkouts, picketing, boycotts, and sabotage. Sometimes, even physical force was used. This trade unionism, however, did influence the Personnel Management in such fields of activity as "the adoption of employee grievances handling systems, the acceptance of arbitration as a means of resolving conflicts of rights, disciplinary practices, the expansion of employee benefit programmes, the liberalization of holiday and vacation time, clear definition of job duties, job rights through seniority and the installation of rational and defensible wage structures."

[III] ERA OF SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY FEELING

In the past, employers were not very sympathetic toward their workmen. It was Robert Owen (1913) who for the first time, adopted a somewhat paternalistic attitude towards his employees. He was a British businessman, reformer and humanitarian. He believed that "the principal social and economic environments influence the physical, mental and psychological development of workers." Therefore, in order to increase productivity, it was necessary to improve the conditions of employees by
removing them from an adverse environment or by changing the environment with the provision of more satisfactory living and working conditions.

Owen implemented this philosophy by "organizing model villages next to his cotton mills in Scotland; by introducing such unheard of facilities as shower baths and toilets into the factories which were cleaned and painted and in which windows were installed for light and ventilation; by organizing day schools for the children and night schools for the workers; and by raising the minimum age for the employment of children to 11 years and shortening their work day to 10 hours. Later, he abolished child labour entirely."

[IV] THE SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT ERA

This era began in 1900, reached its peak approximately in 1930, and then dwindled in relative importance, though it has remained alive somewhat even to the present times. The scientific management movement owes its origin to Frederick W. Taylor (1856-1955) who is known as he Father of Scientific Management. He started his experiments in steel industry in the Midvale and Bethlehem plants, in 1885. He developed the "four great principles of management", viz.,

1. the development of a true science of each job;
2. a scientific selection of the right person for the job;
3. training a person to perform his job in a scientific manner; and
4. friendly co-operation between the management and the men.

[V] INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL ERA

During the period, psychologists were introduced to the field of industrial management to study systematically many personnel problems. The development of Industrial Psychology owes a great deal to Hugo Munsterberg's book, *Psychology and Industrial Efficiency*, which was published in 1913. He is regarded as the Father of Industrial Psychology. His contributions to industrial management were particularly notable in respect of his analysis of jobs in terms of their mental and emotional requirements and in terms of the development of testing devices (such as the Alpha and Beta tests).
Experiments were conducted at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago during the late 1920s and early 1930s by Elton Mayo (1868-1949), F. Roetjesberger and W. J. Diskson of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration. They concluded that "human and social factors, not physical variables, accounted for the productivity phenomenon." As a result of this experiment, employee productivity began to be analyzed in such behavioural terms as 'team-work' 'participation,' cohesiveness', loyalty and esprit de corps, instead of in terms of engineering alternative.

[VI] THE BEHAVIOURAL ERA

The behavioural science movement is an outgrowth of the human relations studies and began around 1955; and their major impacts continued some 10 to 15 years. The Behavioural science includes Anthropology, Economics, History, Physiology, Mathematical Biology, Medicine and Psychiatry, Sociology, Social Psychology and Psychology. The research in these disciplines has provided he subject matter for Personnel Management.

Abraham Maslow (1954) propounded a theory regarding an individual "hierarchy of needs"—also known as 'Deficit Theory Motivation." He stated that "there is a series of needs some of which are lower in the scale or system of values, in individual or social and some are higher. Higher needs cannot be satisfied or even felt while the lower needs remain unsatisfied. A satisfied need is not a motivator." Hertzberg advanced a Two Factor Theory of motivation: Some organizations used hygiene consideration: money, supervision, job, frills, and the physical aspects of work to motivate people; but these factors served only human "maintenance needs" rather than the "job itself" Another consideration, motivators provided opportunities for personal realization.

[VII] PERSONNEL SPECIALIST AND WELFARE ERA

With the introduction of the factory system, thousands of persons began to be employed under one roof, and had to be controlled if the goals of an organization were to be achieved. For work in the administrative office, clerks or manual employees had to be recruited. These were entrusted with the responsibility of hiring men to work of an organization. Later, they were
concerned with the recruitment, placement and selection of personnel. With the increase in the size of an organization, these functions had to be allotted to a full time 'manger'. With further increase in the number of employees separate personnel executive had to be appointed to develop systematic methods, determine wage rates, develop job discipline and descriptions and job specification. Later, his duties were enlarged to cover additional responsibility of looking after the benefits and services provided for the employees. In the course of time, arrangement