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India is one of the last countries of its size of business and industry left where we still have sons and great grand sons of entrepreneurs automatically promoted to the top with no tests given or questions asked. There is thus management by inheritance or management by chromosomes it the result that most of the companies in India are highly centralized and family oriented in their organizational structure are authoritarian in their approach to their employees. Mayers from his interviews with industrialists, government officials, labour leaders and managers in both Indian and foreign-owned firms, concludes that though there are some exceptional companies, “many Indian top managements are relatively authoritarian in their relationships with lower management and labour.”

The prevalence of a high degree of control is also highlighted in Ganguli’s study of leadership behaviour in a state owned engineering factory. In a survey by Punekar and Savur of the relations between white-collar employee and their supervisors in 11 different organizations such as banks, insurance companies, manufacturing firms, government offices, a state owned public utilities company and an educational institution, it was found that only 3 supervisors out of the temple of 75 believed that subordinate can work without supervision and only 6 thought that giving responsibility to the White-collar employees is the best way to get work done. Most superiors (70%) expressed that the belief that subordinates can only work with supervision and have no sense of responsibility.

Myers and others provide to suggest that certain support factor such as good working conditions, fringe benefits and fair practices may reduce dissatisfaction to the extent that individuals will stay organization, but that a different group of factors causes managers to be highly motivated towards their work. Myers believes that later group, which he calls “motivators”, includes the factors of achievement, growth, responsibility and recognition. McGregor interprets this same motivational problem in terms of the hierarchy of needs developed by Maslow. He feels that organizations continue to concern themselves with satisfying the physiological and safety needs of their employees by providing better wages, better working conditions, and more fringe benefits even after those two lower level needs have been quite
well satisfied. The greatest mistake, McGregor believes, stems from management's failure to recognise that employees' dissatisfaction and failure to put forth more than minimum effort derive from the lack of opportunities to satisfy their social, ego (esteem and autonomy) and self-fulfilment needs. The needs contained within these three higher level categories, particularly the ego and self-fulfilment needs, closely parallel Myer's "Motivators".

A sense of commitment to organisational goals can only be kept up if reasons for frustration are identified and timely action is taken to remedy them. It is possible to isolate a majority of causes of frustration and counter them by imaginative steps. Maslow's theory of motivation is based on various human needs which, when fulfilled, keep up "morale" and when unfulfilled, produce frustration.

Maslow observes: man is a wanting animal. When his one set of needs is fulfilled, new needs are created. According to him, there is a definite hierarchy of importance of needs – Security, Social, Esteem, Autonomy and Self-Actualisation, on a single continuum of least to most important. He further states that satisfied needs do not motivate behaviour.

The instinct for self-preservation common to the whole animal kingdom including man would always drive him to satisfy the Security need first. If he is deprived of any of his basic requirements such as food, water, shelter, etc. his very survival is threatened. It is only after satisfying the Security need that he would turn towards the higher need like associating with other fellow beings to complete his Ecological need. If he feels secure and socially adjusted within the community, he would turn to seek prominent place – Esteem – in the society.

Indian workers show that job security and pay and working conditions are given greater importance than other job factors. Kuchhal and Sinha report Security and Income are most important for workers in India. Bose, Ganguli and Veeraraghvan find that other factors such as opportunity for Advancement, facilities for further Training and development and nature of Supervision have been ranked lower in importance than Security and Salary. In one of the very recent investigations with middle management level, Harigopal finds that middle management personnel are relatively more
dissatisfied with salary, Security and Working Conditions than Status, Supervision and Achievement.

The individual is highly motivated when his Security and Social needs are already satisfied and he tries to satisfy is Eco (Esteem/Autonomy) and Self Actualisation needs. He wants to actualise his innate potentialities. He does the work for work’s sake, sees in it the means for the fulfilment of the Self-Actualisation need and is highly productive. The organisational goal of any industry is to achieve this motivational level for each of their employees. But it is to be recognised that, to achieve this motivational level, the other lower order needs must be first satisfied to a moderate extent.

As said earlier, our needs get themselves organized in a hierarchy of importance starting with physiological needs, through Safety, Social, Esteem and Ego, and ending up with the need for Self-fulfilment. When one set of needs gets satiated, the other needs next in order or importance take its place. Thus, man remains constantly and continuously a wanting animal – if not physiological sustenance or safety against starvation or membership in social groups, it will be recognition, status and finally, perhaps self-aggrandizement that will come up to play their role.

The trend of modern theories of motivation is to account for complexity of human behaviour in terms of varieties of needs and not in terms of one or two as in the case of Freud’s “libido” or “sex” or Smith’s “money” or “material gains”.

As one scans through the literature on the Indian industrial milieu for studies of the above type, one feels bereft of meaningful analyses of the above noted “Needs” in the context of empirical situations. More specifically, whatever studies in India are available, relates to the industrial workers or supervisors rather than to those levels of management which steer the fate of industrial organizations through crucial “decision – making”. This study is one attempt to fill this gap.

MANAGEMENT LEVELS

Starting with the Hawthorne experiments in the mid-thirties till the end of the fifties, the behavioural scientists have tended either to ignore the
effect of management levels or to concentrate on the simple dichotomy between managers and workers. In this stream can be put such “modern management” theorists as Argris, Haire, Leavitt, Likert and McGregor. The importance of paying closer attention to management level has been well stated by Pfifner and Sherwood: “The differentiation of task between echelons is of more significance to the selection and training of leaders at the several levels than may be indicated by the attention accorded to it in recent past. The psychological adjustment necessary when one goes from one level to another is often difficult because of the tendency to continue former behaviour patterns. At first glance this might appear to be a problem of human relations rather than of formal organization, but such a conclusion would be only partially true. Good job descriptions should reflect task differentiation at the various echelons. It is a matter of tasks combined with behaviour. We shall briefly survey the literature pertinent to organisational levels and their impact on - and relationship to - job attitudes and this will exclude the relationship with or impact on job behaviour.

THE EXPECTANCY MODEL

The expectancy model is a valuable tool for helping managers think about the mental processes through which motivation occurs. In this model, employees do not simply act because of strong internal drives, unmet needs, or the application of rewards and punishments. Instead, people must be viewed as thinking individuals whose beliefs, perceptions, and probability estimates powerfully influence their behaviour. It is a model that values human dignity.

The expectancy approach also encourages managers to design a motivational climate that will stimulate appropriate employee behaviour. Managers are encouraged to communicate with employees, asking them three kinds of questions:

“What rewards do you value?
Do you believe your effort will result in successful performance?
How likely is it that you will receive your desired rewards?”
Then some difficult tasks may face managers, such as telling employees why some desired rewards are unavailable or explaining to them why other factors may restrict employee performance despite their strong efforts.

Despite its general appeal, the expectancy model has some problems. Like any newer model, it needs to be tested to learn how well research evidence supports it. For example, the multiplicative combination of the three elements is still open to question. It is also important to discover what kinds of behaviour the model explains and which situations it does not apply to very well.

In addition, reliable measures of valence, expectancy, and instrumentality need to be developed. There is a special need to develop measures that managers can use in actual work settings. When possible, managers need to learn both what employees perceive and why they hold those valence, expectancy, and instrumentality beliefs.

Another research study examined the rewards that sales people value, and found that a two-step procedure was a useful method for assessing valence. Respondents first ranked the rewards offered from 1 to 12 and then valued them all on thermometer scales (with the best anchored at 100 points). Compared with two other methods, this technique required the least time and was the most acceptable to the respondents. This indicates that useful measures are being created to support the expectancy model.

The model also needs to be made more complete while still remaining practical enough for managers to use. Recent indications are that some additional factors can be added to it to better explain employee behaviour. For example, there are often several different rewards available to employees. The valence of each must be assessed and combined with the others to estimate the total motivational force for each employee. As another example of a possible addition, motivated employees must be provided with the opportunity to perform.

In addition, other factors may complicate the process of predicting motivation. Some employees may look beyond short-term rewards to future payoffs; others may feel indebted to their employer for past favourable treatment and perform well out of a sense of obligation. Others may lack job
alternatives and perform acceptably because of fear of losing their employment. Other employees may simply have very high energy levels or be very talented.

The model raises some fundamental questions: is it that some managers will tend to use only its highlights and not explore its details and implications? Will other managers ignore it altogether? Many managers in operating situations do not have the time or resources to see a complex motivational system on the job. However, as they begin to learn about it, perhaps they can use parts of it.

However, the expectancy model does blend easily with behaviour modification. A manager can use the acquired information about employee perceptions of valence to select those rewards which, when applied systematically, will have a predictable effect on employee behaviour. The model is also related to a number of other important managerial practices, including management by objectives and goal setting.

The path goal model of leadership states that the leader's job is to use structure, support, and rewards to create a work environment that helps employees reach the organization's goals. The two major roles involved are to create a goal orientation and to improve the path toward the goal so that they will be attained.

Leaders identify employee needs, provide appropriate goals, and then connect goal accomplishment to rewards by clarifying expectancy and instrumentality relationships. Barriers to performance are removed, and guidance is provided to the employee. The result of the process is job satisfaction, acceptance of the leader, and greater motivation.

GOAL SETTING

Goal setting plays a central role in the path-goal process. It is the establishment of targets and objectives for successful performance, both long run and short run. It provides a measure of how well individuals and groups are meeting performance standards.

The basic premise underlying goal setting is that human behaviour is goal directed. Group members need to feel that they have a worthwhile goal
that can be reached with the resources and leadership available. Without goals, different members may go in different directions. This difficulty will continue as long as there is no common understanding of the goals involved.

MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

A popular approach that revolves around goal setting is management by objectives (MBO). Generally, MBO is a system in which managers and subordinates mutually agree on the employee's routine, project-oriented, and personal objectives for the next year and on the criteria that will be used to measure accomplishment of the objectives. The major steps in this circular, self-renewing process, mutual goal setting, relatively autonomous action planning, and periodic reviews of progress. The freedom given to employees in an MBO system provides opportunities for the satisfaction of their growth needs. Goals with the greatest motivational value are those which are accepted, specific, and challenging and which provide opportunities for performance feedback.

VISION

A special type of goal setting is the creation and communication of a vision for an organization. A vision is a long range image or idea of what can and should be accomplished; if properly explained to others, it serves to stimulate their commitment and enthusiasm. Vision may also integrate the shared beliefs and values that serve as a basis for the creation and change of an organization's culture. Vision is particularly a key element in the leadership roles of top managers. They are responsible for assessing their environments, projecting future conditions, and developing master strategies for achieving their visions. When an executive's vision is properly explained to other managers and employees, it becomes the basis for developing their own goals and objectives.
PATH IMPROVEMENT

The steps surrounding goal setting represent only half of the path-goal leadership process. Leaders also need to consider some contingency factors (such as employee personality characteristics and nature of the task) before deciding how to go about smoothing the path toward a goal. A discussion of path oriented ideas, including support and role modelling follows.

Task and psychological support: Leaders provide both task and psychological support for their employees. They provide task support when they help assemble the resources, budgets, power and other elements that are essential to get the job done.

ROLE MODELLING

It is said that supervisors tend to supervise as they themselves are supervised. The same thought applies to leaders. They serve as role models, or examples, for their followers, who tend to act in about the same way that the leaders do.

POWER AND POLITICS

All leaders deal with power and politics. Power is the ability to influence other people and events. It is the leader's stock-in-trade, the way that leaders extend their influence to others. It is somewhat different from authority, because authority is delegated by higher management. Power, on the other hand, is earned and gained by leaders on the basis of their personalities, activities, and the situations in which they operate.

Politics relates to the ways that leader's gain and use power. It is necessary to help a leader keep “on top of a situation” and control events toward desired objectives. Politics concerns balances of power, saving face, “horse trading,” “mending fences,” ingenious compromises, trade-offs, and a variety of other activities. It has been a classic human activity since the beginning of civilization, so it is not unique to modern organizations. But modern organizations are a fertile place for politics to thrive. Observers say that leaders who are otherwise capable but who lack basic political skills will
Political power comes from the support of a group. It arises from a leader's ability to work with people and social systems to gain their allegiance and support. It develops in all organizations.

The types of power are developed from different sources, but they are interrelated in practice. When one power base is removed from supervisors, employees may perceive that other bases of influence will decline as well. Studies also indicate that the use of a power base must fit its organizational context for it to be effective. Political power thrives when the organizational and technical environment is uncertain, and it will now be presented in greater detail.

TACTICS USED TO GAIN POLITICAL POWER

There are a number of tactics that leaders use to gain political power; two of the most popular ones are social exchanges and alliances of various types. Social exchange implies, "If you'll do something for me, I will do something for you." It relies on the powerful norm of reciprocity in society, where two people in a continuing relationship feel a strong obligation to repay their social "debts" to each other. When these trade-offs are successfully arranged, both parties get something they want. Continuing exchanges over a period of time usually lead to an alliance in which two or more persons join in a longer-term power group to get benefits that they mutually desire.

Another popular path toward political power is to become identified with a higher authority and a powerful figure in an organization, then, as the saying goes, some of the power "rubs off" on you. Often this identification gets you special privileges, and in many cases you become recognized as a representative or spokesperson for the more powerful figure. Others may share problems with you, hoping that you will help them gain access to the
higher figure. An example of identification is the president's personal assistant who represents the president in many contacts with others.

Another popular way to acquire political power is to give service selectively to your supporters. For example, a purchasing manager gives faster service and "bends the rules" to help friends who support the purchasing function. Another tactic is to acquire power and status symbols that imply that you are an important person in the firm, although this can backfire if you do not have power equal to your symbols.

Some managers use the more aggressive tactic of power plays to grab power from others. This approach is risky because others may retaliate in ways that weaken the power-grabbing manager's power.

A common tactic for increasing power is to join or form interest groups that have a common objective. These networks operate on the basis of friendships and personal contacts, and may provide a meeting place for influential people. A young manager who joins the chamber of commerce or a racquetball club is opening the door to new contacts that may be useful.

To relate political power with the path-goal model, a leader works collaborate with employees to help them see and obtain objectives that support the overall vision of the organization. The leaders state role expectations (goals) for the employees, use political power to obtain needed resources, and receives some level of productivity in response. The actual productivity level may vary with the quality of the exchange relationship established, depending on the amount of trust, interaction support, and rewards provided. Employees can also exert political influence on their supervisor in attempts to gain additional support.

**CONTINGENCY APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP STYLE**

The positive, participative, considerate leadership style is not always the best style to use. At times there are exceptions, and prime need for leaders is to identify when to use a different style. A number of models have been developed that explain these exceptions, and they are called contingency approaches. These models state that the most appropriate style of leadership depends on an analysis of the nature of the situation facing the leader. Key
factors in the situation need to be identified first. When combined with research evidence, these will indicate which style should be more effective. Two contingency models of this nature will be briefly examined.

**FIEDLER'S CONTIGENCY MODEL**

An early, but often controversial model of leadership was developed by Fred Fiedler and his associates. This model builds upon the previous distinction between task and employee orientation, and suggest that the most appropriate leadership style depends on whether the overall situation is favourable, unfavourable, or in an intermediate stage of favourability to the leader. As the situation varies, leadership requirements also vary.

Fiedler shows that a leader's effectiveness is determined by the interaction of employee orientation with three additional variables that relate to the followers, the task, and the organization. They are leader-member relations, task structure, and leader position power. Leader-member relations are determined by the manner in which the leader is accepted by the group. If, for example, there is group friction with leader, rejection of the leader, and reluctant compliance with orders, then leader-member relations are low. Task structure reflects the degree to which one specific way is required to do the job. Leader position power describes the organization power that goes with the position the leader occupies. Examples are power to hire and fire, status symbols, and power to give pay raises and promotions. Employee-oriented manager is most successful in situations that have intermediate favourableness to the leader.

In highly unstructured situations the leader's structure and control are seen as removing undesirable ambiguity and the anxiety that results from it, so routine and the leader has good relations with the employee, they may perceive a task orientation as supportive to their job performance (clearing the path.) The remaining broad middle ground requires better leader-member relations to be established, so a more considerate, employee-oriented leader is effective.
Despite criticism, Fiedler's contingency model has made a major contribution to discussion on leadership style. For example, managers are encouraged to:

- Examine their situation—the people, task organization
- Be flexible in the use of various skills within an overall style
- Consider modifying elements of their jobs to obtain a better match with their preferred style.

**HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL**

Another contingency approach, the situational leadership (or life-cycle) model developed by Hersey and Blanchard, suggests that the most important factor affecting the selection of a leader's style is the development (maturity) level of a subordinate. Development level is the task-specific combination of employee competence and motivation to perform. Managers assess it by examining an employee's level of job knowledge, skill, and ability, as well as willingness to take responsibility and capacity to act independently. Employees typically (according to Theory Y assumptions) become better developed on a task as they receive appropriate guidance, gain job experience, and see the rewards for cooperative behaviour. Both the competence to perform a given task and the commitment to do so can vary among employees, and therefore development levels demand different responses from leaders.

Hersey and Blanchard use a combination of guidance and supportive (also called task and relationship) orientations to create four major styles: telling, selling, participating, and delegating.

**SUBSTITUTE FOR LEADERSHIP**

A totally different approach to leadership that still has a contingency flavour has been proposed by Kerr and others. Previous leadership models have suggested that a formal leader is necessary to provide task direction, structure, and rewards, plus the consideration and social support that employees require. Unfortunately, these leadership roles may create an
unhealthy dependency on the leaders which stifles subordinate growth and autonomy. In particular, when the leader is not immediately available, work may slow or stop altogether if key roles are not played.

However, there appears to be a set of factors that act as substitutes for leadership by making leadership roles unnecessary through replacing them, or even preventing leaders from having any substantial effect on employees. These factors are found in the task, organization, and employees.

SELF-LEADERSHIP

A unique substitute for leadership is the idea of self-leadership. This process has two thrusts-leading oneself to perform naturally motivating tasks, as well as managing oneself to do work that is required but not naturally rewarding. Self-leadership may involve employees' observing their own behaviour, setting their own goals, cueing themselves to perform, rehearsing effective behaviours, and administering rewards and punishments to themselves. Although self-leadership may not be possible for all employees, it may work well with those whom Hersey and Blanchard identify at the fourth level of development.

OHIO STATE LEADERSHIP STUDIES

The leadership studies initiated in 1945 by the bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University attempted to identify various dimensions of leader behaviour. The Ohio group researchers measured various dimensions of leadership and found particularly two important dimensions: "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration." "Initiating Structure" refers "the leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group and in endeavouring to establish well defined patters of organization channels of communication and methods of procedure." On the other hand, "Consideration" refers to "behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, warmth in the relationship between leader and the members of his staff - analysis based on the well-known Leadership Behaviour Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ). By LBDQ Leadership of the seniors is judged by the subordinates and peers. The LBDQ consists of on hundred questions
measuring twelve dimensions of leader behaviour. Another questionnaire in use has been Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) which is purported to gather data about the self-perceptions that leaders have about their own leadership styles.

During the study of both dimensions, namely initiating structure and consideration, it has been found that these dimensions are separate and distinct. A high score on one dimension may not necessarily lead to low score on the other dimension. Therefore, leader behaviour should not be plotted on a continuum rather it should be plotted on two separate axes. Despite differences and at places basic ones, the models referred to above do share some common concerns. For example, they all focus in the one way or the other, on the two dimensions of leader's context – the task and the people. A group or an organization is formed to accomplish certain tasks which are of common interest to all members. At the same time the members must remain coordinated and integrated so that the task may be accomplished. The foci of various models given by different authorities can be outlined in the following table.

**Major Stylistic Emphases in Leadership Studies:**

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<tr>
<th>Research Source (Authors)</th>
<th>Leadership Task - Oriented</th>
<th>Styles People-Oriented</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Lippitt and White (1943)</td>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>Democratic</td>
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<tr>
<td>2) Ohio Studies (1945)</td>
<td>Initiating Structure</td>
<td>Consideration</td>
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<tr>
<td>3) Michigan Studies (1951)</td>
<td>Employee-Orientation</td>
<td>Production - Orientation</td>
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<tr>
<td>4) Bales &amp; Strodbeck (1951)</td>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Social - Emotional</td>
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<tr>
<td>5) Dorwin Cartwright &amp; Alvin Zander (1960)</td>
<td>Achievement of some specific group goals</td>
<td>Maintenance of strengthening of the group itself</td>
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<td>6) Blake and Mouton (1964)</td>
<td>9-1 style</td>
<td>1-9 style</td>
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<td>7) Fiedler (1967)</td>
<td>Low LPC</td>
<td>High LPC</td>
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<td>9) Vroom and Yetton (1973)</td>
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EARLY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The 1950s were a fruitful period in the development of motivation concepts. Three specific theories were formulated during this period, which although heavily attacked and now questionable in terms of validity, are probably still the best-known explanations for employee motivation. These are the hierarchy of needs theory, theories X and Y, and the two-factor theory.

MOTIVATION THEORIES

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:

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

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

- Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.
- Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled, or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
- Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.
- 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:

- Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.
- People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives.
- The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility.
- 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.

CONTEMPORARY THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

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.

ERG Theory

Clayton Alderfer has reworked Maslow's need hierarchy to align in more closely with the empirical research. His revised need hierarchy is labelled ERG theory.

Alderfer argues that there are three groups of core needs like existence, relatedness and growth hence, the label: ERG theory. The existence group is concerned with providing our basic material existence requirements. They
include the items that Maslow considered to be physiological and safety needs. The second group of needs is those of relatedness like the desire we have for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied, and they align with Maslow's social need and the external component of Maslow's esteem classification. Finally, Alderfer isolates growth needs like an intrinsic desire for personal development. These include the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included under self actualization.

ERG theory is more consistent with our knowledge of individual differences among people. Variables such as education, family background, and cultural environment can alter the importance or driving force that a group of needs holds for a particular individual. The evidence demonstrating that people in other cultures rank the need categories differently for instance, natives of Spain and Japan place social needs before their physiological requirements. This would be consistent with ERG theory. Several studies have supported ERG theory.

**MCCLELLAND’S THEORY OF NEEDS**

McClelland's theory of needs was developed by David McClelland and his associates. The theory focuses on three needs: achievement, power, and affiliation. They are defined as follows:

- Need for achievement: the drive to excel, to achieve in relation to a set of standards, to strive to succeed
- Need for power: the need to make others behave in a way that they would not have behaved otherwise.
- Need for affiliation: the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships.

Some people have a compelling drive to succeed. They are striving for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success per se. They have a desire to do something better or more efficiently than in it has been done before. This drive is the achievement need (nAch). From research into the
achievement need, McClelland found that high achievers differentiate themselves from others by their desire to do things better. They seek situations in which they can attain personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, in which they can receive rapid feedback on their performance so they can determine easily whether they are improving or not, and in which they can set moderately challenging goals. High achievers are not gamblers; they dislike succeeding by chance. They prefer the challenge of working at a problem and accepting the personal responsibility for success or failure rather than leaving the outcome to chance or the actions of others. Importantly, they avoid what they perceive to be very easy or very difficult tasks. They prefer tasks of intermediate difficulty.

Employees have been successfully trained to stimulate their achievement need. Trainers have been effective in teaching individuals to think in terms of accomplishments, winning and success, and then helping them to learn how to act in a high achievement way by preferring situations in which they have personal responsibility, feedback, and moderate risks. So if the job calls for a high achiever, management can select a person with a high nAch or develop its own candidate through achievement training.

CONGNITIVE EVALUATION THEORY

"It's strange," said Marcia. "I started work at the Humane Society as a volunteer. I put in 15 hours a week helping people adopt pets. And I loved coming to work. Then, three months ago, they hired me full time at $11 an hour. I am doing the same work I did before. But I am not finding it near as much fun."

There's an explanation for Marcia's reaction. It's called cognitive evaluation theory and it proposes that the introduction of extrinsic rewards, such as pay, for work effort that was previously intrinsically rewarding due to the pleasure associated with the content of the work itself tends to decrease overall motivation.
REINFORCEMENT THEORY

A counterpoint to goal setting theory is reinforcement theory. The former is a cognitive approach, proposing that an individual's purposes direct his or her action. In reinforcement theory, we have a behaviouristic approach, which argues that reinforcement conditions behaviour. The two are clearly at odds philosophically. Reinforcement theorists see behaviour as being environmentally caused. You need not be concerned, they would argue, with internal cognitive events; what controls behaviour are reinforcers like any consequence that, when immediately following a response, increases the probability that the behaviour will be repeated.

Reinforcement is undoubtedly an important influence on behaviour, but few scholars are prepared to argue that it is the only influence. The behaviours you engage in at work and the amount of effort you allocate to each task are affected by the consequences that follow from your behaviour. For instance, if you are consistently reprimanded for outproducing your colleagues, you will likely reduce your productivity. But your lower productivity may also be explained in terms of goals, inequity or expectancies.

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND MOTIVATION:

Shaw (1956) found that speed and accuracy of group performance were significantly higher under autocratic than under democratic leadership. However, Spector and Suttell (1956) found no difference in group performance under democratic and autocratic leadership. On the other hand Harguist (1956) observed that group members tend to feel more satisfied under democratic than under the autocratic leadership. Zweig (1966) found, however, that democratic supervisors were rated by higher management as more effective than were the supervisors exhibiting less democratic style of behaviour. Mullen (1965, 1966) found employee satisfaction associated with democratic leadership in work groups but personnel turnover and productivity was not related to the style of supervision. Mahoney (1967) found no relationship between democratic supervision and measures of organisational effectiveness in a study of industrial organizations. Supervisory control however, was positively related to group effectiveness.
Several studies suggest that satisfaction with supervision differs with the size and composition of the group. Satisfaction with democratic leadership tends to be highest in small interaction-oriented groups. Members are better motivated with autocratic leadership in large task-oriented groups.
RESEARCH DESIGN

Textile industry is one of the major and oldest industries of Indian economy. It is one of the capital intensive and vital industries which assumes an important role in economic growth and development of our country.

Textile industry in India has remained as source of providing employment to many people. Demand and supply of skilled manpower their wage and salary structure, trade unions, collective bargaining power, industrial discipline, government polices and the role of management in textile industries have been changing from time to time. This study is concentrated on motivation and leadership strategies and practices practised by textile manufacturing and processing units in Gujarat.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To explore theoretical and conceptual framework of motivation and leadership strategies in changing scenario.
2. To understand present status and stand of textile industry in Gujarat.
3. To undertake a detailed and in depth study of industrial relations strategies and practices in textile units in Gujarat by covering institutional, economical, technological, social, cultural and government factors.
4. To explore environmental issues and its implementation.
5. To study government polices on working environment for textile industry.
6. To know major problems of leadership and motivation at supervisory level and managerial levelling textile units of Gujarat and to suggest a few remedial measures.

HYPOTHESES

1. Working environment for managers and heir leadership styles in textile industry are not satisfactory and proper.
2. Industrial Relations policies are not implemented perfectly and properly by the leaders of the organization.
3. Models of motivation and leadership are applied by textile units are not perfect in result.

DATA COLLECTION MEHTOD

1. Secondary and Primary data had been collected:
   a) Employed extensive library work was carried out to meet the objectives of research. It also expects field work to collect information and data. A descriptive design in the form of literature research has been used for the proposed research work.
   b) A structured questionnaire has been operated on selected units for data collection.
   c) Personal contacts, meetings, interviews, and interactions have been made with the executives of selected companies for data requirements.
   d) Sources providing suitable published data have been used to focus facts.
   e) An internet service has also been used to get required information and data of selected textile units.
   f) Collected data and information have been analysed, evaluated and studied by using statistical and quantitative techniques.

2. Research tools:
   Factor Analysis, Cluster Analysis, chi Square and Key Motivational Factor Index for profit making companies and loss making companies had been used for hypothesis testing.

3. The Sample: the study sample size is 112 textile executives of different textile companies like Arvind Mafatlal Group (AMG), Garden Silk Mill (GSM), Arvind Mills Ltd (AML), Bharat Vijay Mills (BVM) now Sintex Mill, and Blue Blend India Ltd (BBIL). Sampling method has been convenient sampling method which consist 112 numbers of samples
of different level of different departments like accounting, processing, weaving, costing and other important departments.

4. Name of Plant and Location.
   1. Newshorroc Mill (AMG) - Nadiad.
   2. Arvind Mill Ltd (AML) - Ahmedabad (Naroda)
   3. Bharat Vijay Mill (BVM) - Kalol.
   4. Blue Blend India Ltd (BBIL) - Ahmedabad.
   5. Garden Silk Mills (GSM) - Surat.

5. Study period: the Study has been carried about six years from 2002 to 2008.

CHAPTER SCHEME

In the first and second chapter, Leadership and Motivation and its functions are referred in subject. In the third chapter, Development of Textile Industry. Literature Review and Research design in the fourth chapter. In the fifth chapter, Profile of Selected textile units of Gujarat in which, general information of Companies has been described. Sixth chapter is entitled Leadership and Motivation Analysis of Selected Textile Units of Gujarat. In the chapter, Data Analysis is given in which Leadership and Motivation analysis from the data collected. In the Seventh chapter, important finding of the study are given and some important suggestions and recommendations are made to improve the condition of the textile industry.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

During the study, we have faced several problems. The major problem faced by us was data collection. I have sent about 700 forms of questionnaire and got only 112 forms filled by employees. Though top executives were very supportive but in private limited companies employees were very busy and they are afraid to disclose information before third party and they are hesitating to provide necessary information. Some are even not ready to give the information that in which department they are working. This study covered the textile units of Gujarat region only. So, the conclusions derived at the end of this study are applicable to the Gujarat Cotton textile industry of
Gujarat only. However, the general suggestions made here may be useful in general. In this study, only Cotton textile and some composite mills are included.

FURTHER STUDY

The study has been carried out with very less finance and limited time period. The present study is conducted on a small scale and therefore, the results cannot be used on a wider generation. However, the study throws light on some of the important areas, by which a better motivation and leadership styles to enhance the productivity of the employees can be gained. If details study of denim cloth, silk cloth and yarn is also possible and d textile is huge industry where small and medium size of units are more than big units. Our study was concentrated only big units of Gujarat. There is wide scope of study in Western India and South India region and small and medium size of textile units in India.