CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

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Theoretical aspects are the basic foundation of any investigation. The review of theoretical background of the problem is an important component of any investigation. A theoretical framework is composed of concepts and together with their definitions and reference to significant scholarly literature, existing theory that is relevant for the particular study. The theoretical framework must lay bare an understanding of theories and concepts that are relevant to the topic of the research.

Experiential education is a philosophy and methodology in which educators purposefully engage with learners through direct experience and focused reflection in order to increase knowledge, develop skills and clarify values. “Experiential Education refers to learning activity that involves the learner directly in the phenomena being studies. The nature of the involvement is direct and purposeful, addressing a real world problem in a natural setting” (Zurbrick, 1990, p.3).

2.1 Constructivism

Constructivism is viewed as a meaning-making theory that offers an explanation of the nature of knowledge and how human beings learn. In constructivism the individuals create or construct their own new understanding or knowledge through the interaction of what they already
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know and believe in the ideas, events, and activities with which they come in contact.

Learning activities in constructivist setting are characterised by active engagement, inquiry problem solving and engagement with others. Accordingly, a teacher’s role in such settings is not merely that of a dispenser of knowledge. The teacher here is a guide, facilitator of co-explorer who encourages learners to question, challenge and formulate their own ideas, opinions and conclusions. In constructivism acquisition of knowledge is really a natural process with wide perspectives. The constructivism in general and the experiential learning in particular present to teachers and teacher educators the formidable task of translating a learning theory into a theory of teaching. (Mac Kinnon and Scarff-Scatter, 1997).

The school of thought emphasizing learning through reflection on experience, considers individuals to gain and construct knowledge by interacting with their environment through a set of perceived experiences (Fenwick, 2001). Works of Kolb (1984), Piaget (1966), Dewey (1938) and Wells (1995) have greatly contributed to the constructivist view of experiential learning. The theory of constructivism implies that the learners or the individuals are constructors of their own knowledge which is generated by interacting with their socio-cultural environment (Vygotsky,
Constructivists like David Kolb whose book entitled, “Experiential Learning” published in 1984, focuses more on individual development through reflection on its past experiences but issues of cognition with respect to environment interaction tend to lack from his theoretical model. Bandura (1977) emphasized that children tend to imitate adults actions based on their perception. Learning experts must understand that the experiential diaphragm of individuals is filled with information starting from their childhood and lasts throughout life. During their life individuals tend to draw on their experiences of their interaction with people, places, situations and environments. Students especially when moving ahead from their adolescence towards young adulthood are prone to taking experiences which occur as a part of their daily life. Teachers as constructivists must be able to understand the psychological mind-setters of students and help them engage in the knowledge interpretation process by imparting constructivist pedagogy of learning.

2.2 Experiential learning

Experiential learning is one of the most dominant strategies of the modern pedagogy for developing values and attitudes. Experiential learning has become a fashionable concept in business education over the past few decades as indicated by the growing body of knowledge relative to the subject (Weil & McGill, 1989; Gentry, 1991, Boyer 1998).
“Experiential learning is participative, interactive and applied. It allows contact with the environment, and exposure to processes that are highly variable and uncertain. It involves the whole-person, learning takes place on the affective and behavioural dimensions as well as the cognitive dimension” (Gentry, 1991, 20). This approach to knowledge acquisition has been considered as one of the major educational improvements of the last half century.

2.2.1 Components

Experiential learning consists of the following four components.

i) The student is aware of the processes which are taking place and that enables learning to occur.

ii) The students is involved in a projective experience which enables him/her to relate current learning to past, present and future, even if these relationships are felt rather than thought.

iii) The experiences and content are personally significant. What is being learned and how it is being learned is especially important to a person.

iv) There is an involvement of the whole self: physical, thoughts, feelings and actions, not just of the mind. In other words, the student is taught as a whole personality.
Above components have great importance in the entire stages of experiential learning.

2.2.2 Characteristics of Experiential learning

Kolb (1984) proposed six characteristics of experiential learning:

2.2.2.1 Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes.

Learning is described as a process whereby concepts are obtained from and continuously revised by experience. Learning is an emergent process whose outcomes represent only historical record, not knowledge of the future. So the development of the process skills is essential in experiential learning. When viewed from the perspective of experiential learning, the tendency to define learning in terms of outcomes can become a definition of non-learning, in the process sense that the failure to modify ideas and habits as a result of experience is maladaptive. Knowledge emerges only through invention and reinvention through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry men pursue in the world, with the world and with each other (Freire, 1974, p.58.).

2.2.2.2 Learning is continuously derived from experiences and tested out in the experiences of the learner.

The principle of continuity of experience means that every experience both takes up something from that which has gone before and modifies in
some way the quality of those which come after. As individual passes from one situation to another, his world, his environment, expands or contracts. He does not find himself living in another world but in a different part or aspect of one and the same world. What he was learned in the way of knowledge and skill in one situation becomes an instrument of understanding and dealing effectively with the situation which follow. The process goes on as long as life and learning continue (Dewey, 1938, pp.35, 44).

2.2.2.3 The process of learning requires the resolution of conflict between opposing ways of dealing with the world.

Learning results from resolution of conflicts. Learning is by its very nature a tension and conflict filled process. New knowledge, skills or attitudes are achieved through confrontation among four modes of experiential learning. Learners, if they are to be effective, need four different kinds of abilities-concrete experience abilities (CE), reflective observation abilities (RO) abstract conceptualisation (AC) and active experimentation (AE) abilities. That is they must be able to involve themselves fully, openly and without bias in new experiences (CE). They must be able to reflect on and observe their experiences from many perspectives (RO). They must be able to create concepts that integrate their observations into logically sound theories (AC) and they must be able to use these theories to make decisions and sole problems (AE).
Learning requires abilities that are polar opposites, and the learner, as a result, must continually choose which set of learning activities he or she will bring to bear in any specific learning situation. More specifically, there are two primary dimensions that represent the concrete experiencing of events at one end and abstract conceptualisation at the other. The other dimension has active experimentation at one extreme and reflective observation at the other. Thus, in the process of learning, one moves in varying degrees from actor to observer and from specific involvement to general analytic detachment.

In addition, the way in which the conflicts among the dialectically opposed modes of adaptation get resolved determines the level of learning that results. If conflicts are resolved by suppression of one mode and dominance by another, learning tends to be specialised around the dominant mode and limited in areas controlled by the dominated mode. Thus, complexity and the integration of dialectic conflicts among the adaptive modes are the hallmarks of true creativity and growth. Such efforts are required for dealing with the world.

2.2.2.4 Learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world

Experiential learning is not a molecular educational concept but rather is a molar concept describing the central process of human adaptation to the social and physical environment. It is a holistic concept.
in that it seeks to describe the emergence of basic life orientations as a function of dialectic tensions between basic modes of relating to the world. To learn is not the special province of a single specialised realm of human functioning such as cognition or perception. It involves the integrated functioning of the total organism-thinking, feeling, perceiving and behaving.

When learning is conceived bridges across life situations such as school and work, portraying learning as a continuous, life long process. Similarly, this perspective highlights the similarities among adaptive/learning activities that are commonly called by specialised names-learning, creativity, problem solving, decision making and scientific research. Finally learning conceived holistically includes adaptive activities that vary in their extension through time and space.

2.2.2.5 Learning involves transactions between the person and the environment

Learning is primarily a personal, internal process requiring only the limited environment of books, teacher and classroom. Indeed, the wider “real world” environment at times seems to be actively rejected by educational systems at all levels.

In experiential learning theory, the transactional relationship between the person and the environment is symbolised in the dual
meanings of the term experience—one subjective and personal, referring to the person’s internal state, as in the experience of joy and happiness and the other objective and environment.

2.2.2.6 Learning is the process of creating knowledge

To understand learning, we must understand the nature and forms of human knowledge and the processes where by this knowledge is created. Knowledge is the results of the transaction between social knowledge and personal knowledge. It is the civilised objective accumulation of previous human cultural experience, whereas the latter is the accumulation of the individual person’s subjective life experiences. Knowledge results from the transaction between these objectives and subjective experiences in a process called learning. Hence, to understand knowledge, we must understand learning; we must understand epistemology—the origins, nature, methods and limits of knowledge. So we must ensure the different stages of knowledge construction in a scientific and attractive manner.

2.2.3 Principles of Good Practice for all Experiential Learning Activities

Regardless of the experiential learning activity, both the experience and the learning are fundamental. In the learning process and in the relationship between the learner and any facilitator(s) of learning, there is
a mutual responsibility. All parties are empowered to achieve the principles which follow. Yet, at the same time, the facilitator(s) of learning are expected to take the lead in ensuring both the quality of the learning experience and of the work produced, and in supporting the learner to use the principles, which underlie the pedagogy of experiential education.

1. Intention: All parties must be clear from the outset why experience is the chosen approach to the learning that is to take place and to the knowledge that will be demonstrated, applied or result from it. Intention represents the purposefulness that enables experience to become knowledge and, as such, is deeper than the goals, objectives, and activities that define the experience.

2. Preparedness and Planning: Participants must ensure that they enter the experience with sufficient foundation to support a successful experience. They must also focus from the earliest stages of the experience/program on the identified intentions, adhering to them as goals, objectives and activities are defined. The resulting plan should include those intentions and be referred to on a regular basis by all parties. At the same time, it should be flexible enough to allow for adaptations as the experience unfolds.
3. Authenticity: The experience must have a real world context and/or be useful and meaningful in reference to an applied setting or situation. This means that it should be designed in concert with those who will be affected by or use it, or in response to a real situation.

4. Reflection: Reflection is the element that transforms simple experience to a learning experience. For knowledge to be discovered and internalized the learner must test assumptions and hypotheses about the outcomes of decisions and actions taken, then weigh the outcomes against past learning and future implications. This reflective process is integral to all phases of experiential learning, from identifying intention and choosing the experience, to considering preconceptions and observing how they change as the experience unfolds. Reflection is also an essential tool for adjusting the experience and measuring outcomes.

5. Orientation and Training: For the full value of the experience to be accessible to both the learner and the learning facilitator(s), and to any involved organizational partners, it is essential that they be prepared with important background information about each other and about the context and environment in which the experience will operate. Once that baseline of knowledge is addressed, ongoing
structured development opportunities should also be included to expand the learner’s appreciation of the context and skill requirements of her/his work.

6. Monitoring and Continuous Improvement: Any learning activity will be dynamic and changing, and the parties involved all bear responsibility for ensuring that the experience, as it is in process, continues to provide the richest learning possible, while affirming the learner. It is important that there be a feedback loop related to learning intentions and quality objectives and that the structure of the experience be sufficiently flexible to permit change in response to what that feedback suggests. While reflection provides input for new hypotheses and knowledge based in documented experience, other strategies for observing progress against intentions and objectives should also be in place. Monitoring and continuous improvement represent the formative evaluation tools.

7. Assessment and Evaluation: Outcomes and processes should be systematically documented with regard to initial intentions and quality outcomes. Assessment is a means to develop and refine the specific learning goals and quality objectives identified during the planning stages of the experience, while evaluation provides
comprehensive data about the experiential process as a whole and whether it has met the intentions which suggested it.

8. Acknowledgment: Recognition of learning and impact occur throughout the experience by way of the reflective and monitoring processes and through reporting, documentation and sharing of accomplishments. All parties to the experience should be included in the recognition of progress and accomplishment. Culminating documentation and celebration of learning and impact help provide closure and sustainability to the experience.

2.3 Historical Development of Experiential Learning Theory

The experiential approach to learning in teams has a long and rich history dating back to the 1940s and Kurt Lewin’s research on group dynamics. According to Kolb (2005) “Experiential learning theory (ELT) came forth after a series of effort of the prominent twentieth century scholars who gave experience a central role in their theories of human learning and development.” John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, Jean Piaget, William James, Carl Jung, Paulo Freire, Carl Rogers and others developed a holistic model of the experiential learning process and a multi-linear model of adult development. Experiential learning theory is a holistic theory that defines learning as the major process of human adaptation.
including the person as a whole and the theory is applicable not only in the formal education, classrooms but also in all areas of life. The process of learning from experience is present in almost all human activities, summarising holistic nature of the learning process represent that it operates at all levels of human society from the individual to the group and to the whole society.

The expression ‘experiential learning’ binds the theory historically to its intellectual origins as cited in the social psychology of Kurt Lewin in the forties and the sensitivity training of the fifties and sixties. Moreover, it stresses the important role that experience plays in the learning process, an emphasis that differentiates the learning approach from other learning process related cognitive theories.

Experiential learning refers to a spectrum of meaning, practices and ideologies which emerge out of the work and commitments of policy makers, educators, trainer, change agents and “ordinary” people as the basis of bringing about change in the structures, purposes and curricula of post-secondary education concerned with personal growth and development. (Weil and McGill, 1989).

Kolb’s experiential learning theory emerged out of the theoretical works of Lewin, Dewey, Piaget and Carl Rogers and is discussed below.
2.3.1 Lewins model of Experiential Learning

Kurt Lewin’s (1890-1947) work had a reflective impact on social psychology and more particularly for the purpose of further research in the field of experiential learning, organized behaviour, group dynamics and action research and his main concern was the incorporation of theory and practice in an attractive manner. Lewin’s field theory leads to field research on human behavior. He conducted experiments in natural settings where he manipulated complex situational variables and observed the effects and concluded that it was possible to study social and psychological phenomena experimentally. This approach has been widely used in education as "action research" and has had a large impact on modern research.

Lewin (1930) developed an approach called Topological Psychology in an effort to develop something practical, using visual diagrams and geometry to illustrate relations among factors influencing behavior and learning. Lewin’s discovery of the T-group is worth examining and the work emerged three key insights that have framed research on the experiential approach to team learning as briefed below,
1) The pivotal role of reflective conversation

2) The theory of functional role leadership

3) The experiential learning process as the key to team development.

To conclude, learn from their experience, teams must create a conversational space where members can reflect on and talk about their experience all together. As Lewin’s theory, learning is maximized when there is a dialectic tension and conflict between immediate, concrete experience and analytic detachment and considered this conflict critical to organisation change and improvement, Kolb (1984). Brown (1988) argues that two key ideas emerged out of the field theory that is crucial to an appreciation of group process and they are interdependence of fate and task interdependence.

**Interdependence of fate**

Here the basic line of argument is that groups come into being in a psychological sense ‘not because their members necessarily are similar to one another (although they may be); rather, a group exists when people in it realize their fate depends on the fate of the group as a whole’ (Brown 1988). It is the interdependence of fate and not similarity or dissimilarity of individuals that constitutes a group and a person who has learned to see
how much his own fate depends upon the fate of his entire group will ready and even eager to take over a fair share of responsibility for its welfare.

**Task interdependence**

Interdependence of fate can be a fairly weak form of interdependence in many groups, argued Lewin and the more significant factor is noted where there is a interdependence in the goals of group members. In other words, if the group’s task is such that members of the group are dependent on each other for achievement, then a powerful dynamic is created and the implications can be positive or negative. In the former case one person’s success either directly facilitates others’ success and in the strongest case, it is actually necessary for those others to succeed. In negative interdependence known more usually as competition, one person’s success is another’s failure, Brown (1989).

Kurt Lewin had looked to the nature of group task in an attempt to find the uniformity of some groups’ behaviour and was able to argue that people may come to a group with very different dispositions, but if they share a common objective, they are likely to work together to achieve it. Lewin’s experiential learning model consists of concrete experience, from which observation and reflections are prepared which lead to the structure of abstract concepts and generalizations, and finally the testing of the
implication of these concepts in new situations. The four phases are placed in a circle equidistant from each other and the model is a precursor to the Kolbs cycle (Shields; Aaron; Wall; 2001). The Lewinian Experiential Learning Model shown in figure 2.1 indicates that learning and experience are cyclically interconnected. Our experiences provide us with fodder on which to reflect which in turn become our abstract conceptualisations and generalisations about life, which then come under test in new experiences.

*Figure 2.1* Lewin’s Model of Experiential Learning
2.3.2 Dewey’s Model of Experiential Learning

Dewey's views continue to strongly influence the structure of modern educational approaches, such as in outdoor education, adult training, and experiential therapies. Dewey’s (1938) model of experiential learning is remarkably similar to the Lewinian model.

The developmental nature of learning implied in Lewin’s conception of experiential learning was made clear by him and Lewin considered it as a feedback, as it described how learning transforms the impulses, feelings, and desires of concrete experience into higher order purposeful action. The conception of purposes is explained as an intellectual operation which involves three steps as mentioned below,

- Observing the environment and the conditions.
- Understanding what has happened in similar situations in the earlier, knowledge obtained partly by recollection and partly from the information, advice, and warning of the experienced people.
- Judgment, which concludes from what is observed and what is recalled to see what they entail.

A purpose differs from an original impulse and desire through its translation into a plan and method of action based upon foresight of the consequences of action under given observed conditions in a certain way.
The crucial educational problem is that of procuring the postponement of immediate action upon desire until observation and judgment have intervened. Mere foresight, even if it takes the form of accurate prediction, is not, of course, enough. The intellectual anticipation, the idea of consequences, must blend with desire and impulse to acquire moving force. It then gives direction to what otherwise is blind, while desire gives ideas impetus and momentum, Dewey (1938).

Dewey’s model of experiential learning is graphically represented in the figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2  Dewey’s model of Experiential learning**

Dewey’s description of learning is similar to that of Lewin, highlighting learning as a dialectic process incorporating experience and concepts, observations, and action. The ideas got their moving force from the experiences which in turn are directed to impulse. An experience is always what it is because of a transaction taking place between the
individual and, what at the time, constitutes the environment, (Dewey, 1938: 43). There is a need for postponing the immediate action to get intervened and to act for the purpose achievement with the support of observation and judgment and it is only through the combination of these opposing but symbiotically related processes that sophisticated, mature purpose develops from mere impulse.

2.3.3 Piaget’s Model Experiential Learning

According to Piaget (1970), the development of adult thought is an upshot of the continual transaction between assimilation and accommodation, occurring in successive stages. Development from infancy to adulthood moves from a concrete phenomenal view of the world to an abstract constructionist view and to a reflective stuffed mode of knowledge. Piaget also upholds that these have been the major directions of development in scientific knowledge and said; learning process whereby the development takes place is a cycle of interaction between the individual and the environment that is similar to what Dewey and Lewin said. According to him, the key to learning lies in the mutual interaction of the process of accommodation of concepts to experience in the world and the process of assimilation of events and experiences from the world into existing concepts and schemas. The Piaget model of experiential learning explains in the figure 2.3
Each of the three models of experiential learning explains conflicts between opposing ways of dealings with the world, suggesting that learning results from resolution of their conflicts. In Paget’s framework, the twin process of accommodation of ideas to the external world and assimilation of experience into existing conceptual structure on the mainly force of cognitive development was included. According to Piaget (1969), intelligent adaptation results from a balanced tension between two processes one is accommodation and the other assimilation. When accommodation processes dominate assimilation, we have imitation that means the molding of oneself to environmental contours or constraints. When assimilation predominates over accommodation, we have play which means the imposition of one's concept and images without regard to environmental realities. Continual transaction between assimilation and
accommodation, occurring in successive stages makes the process of cognitive growth from concrete to abstract and from active to reflective, occurring in successive stages in which each of which incorporates what has gone before into a new and higher level of cognitive functioning.

2.3.4 Carl Roger’s on Experiential learning

Rogers' (1983) point of view highlighted the inclusion of feelings and emotions in education as he believed that education and therapy shared similar goals of personal change and self-knowing and said that the highest levels of significant learning included personal involvement at both the affective and cognitive levels, were self-initiated, were so pervasive they could change attitudes, behavior, and in some cases, even the personality of the learner. Learning needed to be evaluated by the learner and take on meaning as part of the total experience. He was interested in the Maslow’s principle of learning that leads to personal growth and development.

Rogers summarized the attitudes which characterized a true facilitator of learning as,

- Realness - the instructor should not present a "front" or "facade" but should strive to be aware of his/her own feelings and to communicate them in the classroom context. The instructor should present genuineness, and engage in direct personal encounters with the learner.
• Prizing the Learner - This characteristic includes acceptance and trust of each individual student. The instructor must be able to accept the fear, hesitation, apathy, and goals of the learner.

• Empathic Understanding - The instructor can understand the student's reactions from the inside.

Roger (1969) distinguished two types of learning: cognitive (meaningless) and experiential (significant). The term cognitive corresponds to academic knowledge such as learning vocabulary or multiplication tables and the latter refers to applied knowledge. The classification is made so as to explain that the experiential learning that really addresses the needs and wants of the learner. Rogers listed the qualities of experiential learning as personal involvement, self-initiated, evaluated by learner, and pervasive effects on learner.

To Rogers (1969), experiential learning is equivalent to personal change and growth and to him all human beings have a natural propensity to learn; the role of the teacher is to facilitate such learning. This includes:

• Setting a positive climate for learning
• Clarifying the purposes of the learner(s)
• Organizing and making available learning resources
• Balancing intellectual and emotional components of learning
• Sharing feelings and thoughts with learners but not dominating

According to him, learning is facilitated when,

• The student participates completely in the learning process and has control over its nature and direction

• It is primarily based upon direct confrontation with practical, social, personal or research problems

• Self-evaluation is the principal method of assessing progress or success. Rogers also emphasizes the importance of learning to learn and an openness to change.

Roger’s theory of learning evolved as part of the humanistic education movement Patterson, (1973); Valett, (1977). Rogers (1983) warned that a non-judgmental teacher is sure to arouse suspicion in older students and adults, because they have been "conned" so many times. The wise teacher is aware of this and can accept their initial distrust and apprehension as new relationships between teacher and students are built. The Carl Rogers model of experiential learning explains in the figure 2.4
2.3.5 David A. Kolb on Experiential Learning

Reflective practice is the important factor for the development of lecturers as professionals as it enables us to learn from our experiences of teaching and facilitating student learning and the practice develops the way of reviewing one’s own teaching so that it becomes a routine. According to Kolb (1984), “Learning is a process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience knowledge results from the combination of
grasping experience and transforming”. Kolb developed a theory of experiential learning model which help to develop the practice called The Kolb Cycle, The Learning Cycle or The Experiential Learning Cycle. The cycle encompasses four different stages of learning from experience and one can get in at any point of the stages but all stages must be followed in sequence for successful learning to happen.

The Learning Cycle suggests that it is not sufficient to have an experience in order to learn but it’s necessary to reflect on the experience to make generalisations and conceptualisations which can then be applied to new situations and it must then be tested out in new situations. The learner must make the link between the theory and action by planning, acting out, reflecting and relating it back to the theory. The four stages were explained below,

• **Concrete Experience**

Concrete Experience is the 'doing' component which derives from the content and process of experience framed out from the reading, teaching or as a listener being a student.
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- **Reflective Observation (reviewing / reflecting on the experience)**
  
The Reflective Observation element emanates from one's analysis and judgements of events and the discussion about the learning and teaching that one engage in.

- **Abstract Conceptualisation**
  
  Abstract Conceptualism is the conclusion of the whole reflective and related experiences.

- **Active Experimentation**
  
  Active Experimentation then starts after the abstract conceptualisation where one implement those changes in the teaching practice to generate another concrete experience which is then followed by reflection and review to form conclusions about the effectiveness of those changes.

He proposes that experiential learning has six main characteristics (Kolb & Kolb 2009).

- Learning is a continuous process grounded in experience.

- Learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed models of adaption to the world.

- Learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world.
Learning involves transaction between the person and the environment.

Learning is the process of creating knowledge that is the result of the transaction between social knowledge and personal knowledge.

The Kolb’s model of experiential learning explains in the figure 2.5

![Kolb's Experiential Learning model](image)

**Figure 2.5** Kolb’s Experiential Learning model

2.3.6 Jarvis Learning Process (1987)

British educator and researcher, Peter Jarvis developed a theory about the process of learning through social experience. Jarvis (1987) formulated nine routes of response for the potential learning situation and
categorized these routes into three levels which are described in detail below,

- Level I- Non-learning Level
- Level II- Non-reflective learning
- Level III- Reflective learning

**Non-learning level:**

- Presumption (boxes 1-4) - Here people interact through patterned behaviour only.
- Non-consideration (boxes 1-4) - Here the person never responds to a potential learning situation.
- Rejection (boxes 1-3 to 7 to 9).

**Non-reflective level:**

- Pre-conscious (boxes 1-3 to 6 to either 4 or 9) - This form occurs to every person as a result of having experiences in daily activities that are not really considered.
- Practice (boxes 1-3 to 5 to 8 to 6 to either 4 or 9) - This is not applicable to training for a manual occupation or acquiring particular physical skills but refers to the acquisition of language.
- Memorization (boxes 1-3 to 6 and possibly 8 to 6 and then either to 4 or 9)
Reflective learning level:

- Contemplation (boxes 1-3 to 7 to 8 to 6 to 9) - The person considers the situation and builds an intellectual decision about it.

- Reflective practice (boxes 1-3 (to 5) to 7 to 5 to 6 to 9) - A person makes a reflection on and in action.

- Experiential learning (boxes 1-3 to 7 to 5 to 7 to 8 to 6 to 9) - This is the way in which pragmatic knowledge may be learned.

The Jarvis learning model of experiential learning is represented in the figure 2.6,
2.4 Facilitators Roles in Experiential Learning

In experiential learning, the instructor guides rather than directs the learning process where students are naturally interested in learning. The instructor assumes the role of facilitator and is guided by a number of steps crucial to experiential learning as noted by (Wurdinger & Carlson, 2010, p. 13).

1. Be willing to accept a less teacher-centered role in the classroom.
2. Approach the learning experience in a positive, non-dominating way.
3. Identify an experience in which students will find interest and be personally committed.
4. Explain the purpose of the experiential learning situation to the students.
5. Share your feelings and thoughts with your students and let them know that you are learning from the experience too.
6. Tie the course learning objectives to course activities and direct experiences so students know what they are supposed to do.
7. Provide relevant and meaningful resources to help students succeed.
8. Allow students to experiment and discover solutions on their own.
9. Find a sense of balance between the academic and nurturing aspects of teaching.
10. Clarify students and instructor roles.
2.5 Students Roles in Experiential learning

The qualities of experiential learning are those in which students decide themselves to be personally involved in the learning experience (students are actively participating in their own learning and have a personal role in the direction of learning). Students are not completely left to teach themselves; however, the instructor assumes the role of guide and facilitates the learning process. The following list of student roles has been adapted from (UC-Davis, 2011 and Wurdinger & Carlson, 2010).

1. Students will be involved in problems which are practical, social and personal.

2. Students will be allowed freedom in the classroom as long as they make headway in the learning process.

3. Students often will need to be involved with difficult and challenging situations while discovering.

4. Students will self-evaluate their own progression or success in the learning process which becomes the primary means of assessment.

5. Students will learn from the learning process and become open to change. This change includes less reliance on the instructor and more on fellow peers, the development of skills to investigate (research) and learn from an authentic experience, and the ability to objectively self-evaluate one’s performance.
2.6 Experiential Learning Opportunities in Higher Education

There are numerous experiential learning opportunities in higher education that can be found in most disciplines. The following is a list of these experiences as noted by (George Mason, University 2011; Loretto, 2011; Northern Illinois University OTC, 2011).

2.6.1 Apprenticeship Experiences

Apprenticeship Experiences provide students as opportunity to try out a job usually with an experienced professional in the field to act as a mentor. Apprenticeships are a type of on the job training which may lead to certification. Many skilled labourers learn their trade by doing an apprenticeship. The development of life skills is an integral component of apprenticeship experience skills.

2.6.2 Clinical Experiences

Clinical Experiences are hands on experiences of a pre-determined duration directly tied to an area of study such as nursing student to participating in a hospital based experience or child development and teacher education students participating in day care and classroom settings.

2.6.3 Co-operative Education Experiences

Co-operative Education Experiences are more than internships and will usually two or more semesters of work. Co-operative experience
usually is included on student’s transcript in addition to being awarded designated credit hours for its completion.

2.6.4 Fellowship Experiences

Fellowship Experiences provide tuition or aid to support the training of students for a period of time, usually between 6 months to one year. They are usually made by educational institutions, corporations, or foundation to assist individual’s pursuing a course of study or research.

2.6.5 Field Work Experience

Field work Experience allows students to explore and apply content learned in the classroom in a specified field experience away from the classroom.

2.6.6 Internship Experience

Internship Experiences are job related and provide students and job chargers with as opportunity to test the waters in a career field and also gain some valuable work experience internships centre for credit, not for credit, paid or unpaid.

2.6.7 Practicum Experience

Practicum Experience is often a required component of a course of study and place students in a supervised and often paid situation. Practicum experiences also allow students to design and develop a project
in which they apply knowledge and develop skills such as doctoral
students prepare the components of an online course.

2.6.8 Social Service Learning Experiences

Service learning experience is distinguished by being mutually
beneficial for both student and community. Service learning is growing
rapidly and is considered a part of experimental education by its very
nature of learning, performing a job within the community and serious
reflection by the students. Service learning involves solving some of
society’s issues, such as, landlessness, poverty, lack of quality education,
pollution etc.

2.6.9 Students Teaching Experience

Students teaching experience provides students candidates with an
opportunity to put into practice the knowledge and skills he or she has
been developing in the preparation programme.

2.7 Experiential Learning Vs Conventional Learning

Experiential learning essentially means that learning and
development are achieved through personally determined experience and
involvement, rather than on received teaching or training, typically in
group, by observation, listening study of theory or hypothesis, or some
other transfer of skills or knowledge.
Experiential learning is determined and controlled by the individual for the purpose of achieving personal development and growth, where as in conventional learning, the teaching method is designed and delivered by an organization for the purpose of developing the capabilities of a group of people, necessary to meet organizational needs.

Experiential learning, especially used at the beginning of a person’s new phase of learning, can help to provide a positive emotional platform which will respond positively and self-confidently to future learning, even for areas of learning which initially would have been considered in comfortable or unnecessary. In experiential learning the starting point is quite different, the starting points are the person, and the primary driver is to help the individual grow and learn and develop in their own direction and in their own way, but conventional teaching and training are based mainly on knowledge/skills transfer, but this does not address individual growth and potential particularly well. In conventional teaching and training the needs of the organization are the primary driver of the learning content, design, delivery and assessment.

2.8 Leadership Quality

Leadership is a fascinating subject for many people. Leadership is the quality which influences the behaviour of others in a particular direction. A Good leader can make changes in a society or institution. In
some people leadership is in born, while in some others it is build. Education and training also help to build leadership quality in people. Abraham Maslow defines leadership qualities as “the process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent”.

Leadership quality makes a person more creative and enthusiastic. House (1997) defines leadership as “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable other to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the group of which they are members”. Leadership quality is ability or capacity to influence people to strive willingly for group objective. Davies (1994) defines educational leadership as “that quality which evokes from co-workers their voluntary, active participation in assuming responsibilities which contribute to growth in relationships, attitudes and activities of the group.”

2.8.1 Components of Leadership

The components of leadership involves:-

2.8.1.1 Self confidence

Self confidence is essentially an attitude which allows us to have a positive and realistic perception of ourselves and our abilities. It is an attribute of perceived self. Self confidence refers to a person's perceived ability to take situations successfully without leaning on others and to have
a positive self-evaluation (Breckenridge and Vincent 1965). In the words of Basavanna (1975), "self confidence refers to an individual's perceived ability to act effectively in a situation to overcome obstacles and to get things go all right."

2.8.1.2 Assertiveness:

Assertiveness refers to being forth right in expressing demands, opinion, feelings, and attitudes. Being assertive, helps leaders to perform many tasks and achieve goals. Assertiveness is a skill regularly referred to in social and communication skills training. Being assertive means being able to stand up for your own or other people’s rights in a calm and positive way, without being either aggressive, or passively accepting ‘wrong’. Assertive individuals are able to get their point across without upsetting others, or becoming upset themselves.

2.8.1.3 Emotional stability

At refers to the ability, to control emotions to the point that one’s emotional response are appropriate to the occasion. It is an important leadership trait because group members expect and need consistency in the way they are treated. Individuals' steadiness of mood, their ability to withstand minor setbacks, failures, difficulties, and other stresses without becoming upset emotionally. Emotionally stable persons tolerate minor stresses and strains of day to day living without becoming emotionally
upset, anxious, nervous, tense, or angry. They are able to maintain composure under minor emotional stress. They are fairly constant in their basic mood, and they generally revert quickly to that state following those occasions when they have experienced considerable stress or have been exceptionally provoked. The unstable person, on the other hand, is subject to fairly wide, frequent, and often unpredictable mood shifts that may swing from pole to pole.

2.8.1.4 Task orientation

Be aware of the tasks of the group and sensitize the group about the tasks to perform effectively. Focusing on the completion of particular tasks as a measure of success.

2.8.1.5 Sincerity

The quality of being genuine and not pretended. Saying things that one really means or believes. The leaders should be sincere to him and top his group.

2.8.1.6 High Tolerance

This is an important trait possessed by great leaders. This trait is important because a leader encounters many constructions. Capacity to endure pain or hardship: endurance, fortitude, stamina and sympathy or indulgence for beliefs or practices differing from or conflicting with one's own.
2.8.1.7 Co-operation

Co-operation is the ability to interact with others and work in a team. Cooperation is important because it allows people and groups to work together to achieve a common goal or derive mutual benefits. Co-operation exists at many levels and takes place between individuals and organizations as well as between states and countries. Co-operation allows participants to exchange valuable information that helps both sides improve their knowledge bases and work in a time- and resource-efficient manner.

2.8.1.8 Managing ability

It is the capability of an individual to manage the emerging situations in a fruitful and suitable manner. It is essential for facing the various situations of life and controlling the situations without any difficulty.

2.8.1.9 Motivation

Motivation is the ability to inspire and induce others to achieve a particular objective. Motivation is a theoretical construct used to explain behaviour. It represents the reasons for people's actions, desires, and needs. Motivation can also be defined as one's direction to behaviour or what causes a person to want to repeat a behaviour and vice versa. A
motive is what prompts the person to act in a certain way or at least develop an inclination for specific behaviour

2.8.2 Historical Developments of Leadership Quality

The area of leadership acquired a practicability after the rapid growth of the management concepts in the day to day activities especially in the field of business and education. A lot of studies were conducted in the field for the promotion of education and business after for the development in the fields. All the studies have its own significance in that area and each theory explained much about leadership keeping its own point of view. A lot of theories have been emerged to explain the specific qualities and conducts that distinguish the leaders from the group.

Innovations and trend in this field of study was emerged after the studies initiated by Ohio state university which turned the style and dimension of the discussion.

The leadership theories can be sorted and explained under four major categories as,

1. Trait theory
2. Behavioural theories
3. Situational theories
4. Transformational leadership
2.8.2.1 Trait Theory of Leadership

This was the first systematic attempt to study the leadership quality and called as ‘Great man’ theories because they focused on identifying the inherent traits and qualities possessed by important social and political leaders. The basic assumption behind the theory was that effective leaders are born, not made. Many leadership studies based on this theoretical framework were conducted in the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s. The scientific study of leadership began with a focus on the traits of effective leaders, on the basis of the concept that a man is born with or without some specific traits. The traits that characterises the leaders from his followers are in two categories, one is inherent personal qualities and the other is acquired tendencies. The research of this period was centred on keying out the specific traits that discerned leaders from followers. Leader trait research examined the social, physical and mental characteristics of individuals and looked for significant associations between individual traits and measures of leadership effectiveness. Social traits such as personality, physical traits such as height and mental traits such as intelligence were all subjects of empirical research.

Barnard (1938) categorised the traits or qualities for effective leadership in terms of physique, skill, technology, perception, knowledge, memory, imagination, determination, persistence, endurance and courage.
Theoretical Overview

Stogdill (1948) analysed the traits and more than 124 trait studies that were conducted between 1904 and 1947. This survey identified a group of important leadership traits that were related to how a leader is formed. The finding of the analysis reveals that the average individual in the leadership role is different from the average group members and they showed their individuality in,

(i) Intelligence
(ii) Alertness
(iii) Insight
(iv) Responsibility
(v) Initiative
(vi) Persistence
(vii) Self-Confidence
(viii) Sociality

The traits that leaders possess must be relevant to situations in which the leader is functioning and a leader in one situation may not necessarily be a leader in another situation. A large number of studies and wide discussions are conducted nowadays in the area of the influence of personality traits on leadership behaviour. Hence, the trait approach is still relevant. The studies are started with an emphasis on identifying the traits
of great persons, then shifted to the situations on leadership and presently, it’s focusing to restore the critical role of traits in qualitative leadership.

The lack of significant results was an important problem with the early trait research as the measurement theory at the time was not highly sophisticated. It’s was not much known about the psychometric properties of the measures used to operationalise traits. Thus different studies were likely to use different measures to assess the same construct, which made it very difficult to replicate findings. Early trait research was largely a theoretical, sufficiently never explained the proposed relationship between individual characteristics and leadership.

The empirical studies of leader traits were largely abandoned in the 1950’s, as a result of the lack of consistent findings linking individual traits to leadership effectiveness and that the research did not consider the impact of situational variables that might moderate the relationship between leader traits and measures of leader effectiveness.

2.8.2.2 Behavioural Theories of Leadership

Partially as a result of the disillusionment with the trait approach to leadership that occurred by the beginning of the 1950s, the focus of leadership research switched from leader traits to leader behaviors. The argument of this stream of research was that the behaviors exhibited by leaders are much important than their physical, mental, or emotional
traits. Ohio State University and the University of Michigan conducted the two most famous behavioral leadership studies in the late 1940s and 1950s. These studies triggered a lot of other leadership studies and discussions and widely cited even now.

Behavioural approach in leadership is based on observed behaviour and gives emphasis on how the leaders actually behave as observed by the followers. Consideration and initiating structure were two factors that consistently appeared after the discussion. Consideration involves showing concern for subordinates, being supportive, recognizing subordinates' accomplishments, and providing for subordinates' welfare and is concentrating on goal accomplishment; they help group members to achieve their goal. The latter one that is the relationship behaviours called as task-oriented behaviour, let the subordinates feel free and comfortable with themselves, in their activities that involves planning, organizing, and coordinating the work of subordinates on the accomplishment of the goal. Thus the core and scope of behaviour approach is to explain how leaders integrate these two kinds of behaviours to influence subordinates in their efforts to achieve the goal.

Research studies in behavioural approach gained much significance during the period of 1960’s and 1970’s. X and Y theory by Mc Gregor, (1960), Group dynamic studies by Cartwright and Zander, (1960), Likert’s
Theoretical Overview

(1961) management system are the notable studies in this area. But the main role was played by the Ohio State University studies, Michigan University studies and the Blake and Mouton leadership studies. The three groups give an all-encompassing demonstration regarding the behavioural approach to the leadership studies. A brief of the studies follows,

2.8.2.2.1 Ohio State University Studies

A series of leadership studies was initiated by, The Bureau of Business studies and research wing of Ohio State University in 1945. A research team of experts from the field of Sociology, Psychology and Economics, developed leaders behaviour description questionnaire (LBDQ). The tool helped the Ohio group in identifying two major dimensions of leadership. One of which is initiating structure and the other is consideration. Halpin, (1959) explains that the Initiating structure refers to the leader’s behaviour in defining the relationship between himself and members of the work group and in striving to establish well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communications, and methods of procedure. Along with consideration refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff. High scores in both dimensions shows the better is the leadership behaviour.
The leader scoring high on the initiating structure manifest his behaviour, which clarifies goals, and organises for the completion of specific task and the type of leadership behaviour can be called as more institution-oriented. Whereas a leader, who gets high score on consideration, is more person-oriented. A less effective leader is the one scoring low on both the dimensions. The result of further studies in this field reveals that the high – high leaders (high scores in both initiation and consideration) as the high achievers in their organisation. The Ohio State Studies suggested that the high-high style commonly resulted in positive outcomes.

### 2.8.2.2.2 Studies by Michigan University

The Michigan leadership studies took place at about the same time as those at Ohio State. Studies of leadership behaviour concentrating on the impact of leader’s behaviour on the performance of small groups was initiated by the survey research centre of the Michigan University. Under the general direction of Rensis Likert, Michigan studies focused to determine the principles and methods of leadership that led to productivity and job satisfaction.

Conducting the survey, they identified two types of leadership behaviour,

(a) Employee Orientation

(b) Production Orientation.
Employee orientation is based on the strong human relations with subordinates and leaders with an employee orientation showed genuine concern for interpersonal relations. They give special attention to their personal needs, considering the worker’s individuality. A similarity can be observed in the employee orientation to the Consideration Structure of Ohio State Studies. However production orientation is based on the task or technical and productive aspect of a job. According to Bowers and Seashore, (1966), in the production orientation, workers are viewed as a means for getting work accomplished. The conclusion of the Michigan studies was that better results can be achieved by employee orientation and general instead of close supervision. As resulting in the most positive outcomes, Likert developed four "systems" of management called as System 4 participative-group system, which was the most participatory set of leader behaviours.

2.8.2.2.3 Managerial Grid

The managerial grid model appeared first in the early 1960’s and since then a number of revisions took place on the same model. Robert Blake and Jane Mouton(1964, 1978, 1985), developed the model and conducted a lot of research in the same. Managerial grid is also known as leadership grid that concern for production refers to whatever the organisation is seeking to accomplish. It includes variety of activities, such as policy decisions, new
product and process, work plan, new innovations, etc. This concern includes building organisational commitment and trust, promoting the personal worth of employees, providing good working conditions, maintaining a fair salary structure, and promoting good social relations.

The Managerial Grid is based on two behavioral dimensions:

- **Concern for People** - This is the degree to which a leader considers the needs of team members, their interests, and areas of personal development when deciding how best to accomplish a task.

- **Concern for Results** - This is the degree to which a leader emphasizes concrete objectives, organizational efficiency and high productivity when deciding how best to accomplish a task.

Blake and Mouton, (1964) explains that, Concern for people refers to how a leader attends to the team members within the organisation who are trying to achieve its goals. Blake and Mouton defined five leadership styles using the axis to plot leadership ‘concerns for results’ versus ‘concerns for people’.
The five leadership styles were as follows,

- Country club leader
- Impoverished leader
- Middle-of-the-road leader
- Team leader
- Produce or perish leader

According to the grid, a person emphasized concern for people and placed little emphasis on production was termed as "country-club" leader. The country club leader has the most concern for people. This leader assumes that if employees are happy, they will work hard. The country
club leadership style is plotted at the top-left corner of the grid and shows the most concern for people but the least concern for production.

An individual who emphasized neither production was practicing "impoverished management". This leader has no system of getting work done, nor is the work environment satisfying or motivating for employees and leader's low interest in the work and the work environment results in disorganized work, dissatisfied employees and a lack of harmony. The impoverished leadership style is plotted at the bottom-left corner of the grid and shows the least concern for production and for people.

A person who tried to balance concern for production and concern for people was termed a "middle-of-the-road" leader. This leader settles for average performance from employees. This leader's balanced interest results in mediocre production and employee satisfaction. The middle-of-the-road leadership style is plotted in the centre of the grid and shows balanced concern for production and people.

An individual who was able to simultaneously exhibit a high concern for production and a high concern for people is said to be the "team leader." The leader stresses high production by employees and believes employees who are satisfied will be committed to high production. High trust levels on the part of both the leader and employees lead to high employee satisfaction and production. The team leadership
style is plotted at the top-right corner of the grid and stresses high production employees.

Conversely, a person who emphasized a concern for production but paid little attention to the concerns of subordinates was a "perish leader". This leader is mostly ineffective. He/she has neither a high regard for creating systems for getting the job done, nor for creating a work environment that is satisfying and motivating. The result is disorganization, dissatisfaction and disharmony. This type of leader is very autocratic, has strict work rules, policies, and procedures, and views punishment as the most effective means to motivate employees. The produce or perish leader is plotted in the bottom-right corner of the grid and stresses on the own welfare and suppression of the employees.

According to the prescriptions of the grid, team leadership was the best leadership approach. The Managerial Grid became a major consulting tool and was the basis for a considerable amount of leadership training in the modern world. The leader behaviour approach tends to explain that there were certain behaviours that would be universally effective for leaders. Unfortunately, empirical research has not demonstrated reliable relationships between task-oriented or person-oriented leader behaviors and leader effectiveness. Leader behavior research did not consider
situational influences that might moderate the relationship between leader behaviors and leader effectiveness like the trait research.

### 2.8.2.3 Situational Theories of Leadership

In 1950’s, an another turning point in the field of leadership studies was made by the socio- psychologists determining the role of situational variables that had impact on leadership roles, skills, and behaviour. Situational leadership theory is the part of a group of theories known as contingency theories of leadership which holds that a leader's effectiveness is related to the leader's traits or behaviors in relation to differing situational factors. Contingency or situational theories of leadership suggest that the organizational or work group context influences the extent to which given leader traits and behaviors will be effective. But the theories gained it’s prominence in the late 1960s and 1970s.

Situational Leadership focuses on leadership in situations and the basic theory of situational leadership is leaders are adopting different styles according to the situation demands. In short an effective leader always adopt his or her own style satisfying the demands of different situations. A number of studies emerged in this area and four of the more well-known contingency theories are Fiedler's contingency theory, Path-goal theory, Reddin’s tridimensions management style theory, The Vroom-Yetton-Jago
decision-making model of leadership, and the situational leadership theory. Some of the important attempts are briefly discussed below,

2.8.2.3.1 Fiedler’s Contingency Theory of Leadership

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory was the first to specify how situational factors interact with leader traits and behaviour to influence leadership effectiveness. The theory suggests that the favourability of the situation determines the effectiveness of task oriented and individual oriented leader behavior. A number of studies were conducted by him on different types of leaders worked in different context. Fielder and his colleagues suggests that three major situational variables seem to determine whether a given situation is favourable to leaders, after analysing the styles of hundreds of leaders who were both good and bad. The situational variables are briefly explained below,

i) Leader member relations refer to the extent to which the group trusts the leader and willingly follows the leader’s directions means the trust that the followers have for the leader.

ii) Task structure refers to the degree to which the task is clearly defined and the extent to which the subordinate’s responsibilities can be structured and measured.
iii) Position power means the extent to which the leader has official power to influence others means the control the leader has over the subordinate’s.

If all the three variables are high, the situations are favourable to the leader, means followers generally accept the leader. If the dimensions are in low position, the situation will not be favourable for the leader. Hence effectiveness is determined by the favourableness of the situation in combination with the leadership style.

The situation is most favorable when followers respect and trust the leader, the task is highly structured, and the leader has control over rewards and punishments and the research indicated that task-oriented leaders were more effective when the situation was either highly favorable or highly unfavorable.

The study revealed that person-oriented leaders were more effective in the moderately favourable or unfavourable situations. The research did not necessarily suggest that leaders could adapt their leadership styles to different situations, but that leaders with different leadership styles would be more effective. Fiedler's contingency theory has been criticized on both theoretical and methodological grounds yet, empirical research has supported many of the specific propositions of the theory, and it remains an important contribution to the understanding the effectiveness of leadership.
2.8.2.3.2 Path-Goal Theory

Path-goal theory was first presented in Administrative Science Quarterly article by Robert House (1971). The theory proposes that, the relationship between the leader’s style and the characteristics of the followers is the most important aspect while considering the leadership style or behaviour.

The theory states that subordinates' characteristics and characteristics of the work environment determine the leader’s behaviour and effectiveness, where the key characteristics of subordinates identified by the theory are locus of control, work experience, ability, and the need for affiliation where as nature of the task, the formal authority system, and the nature of the work group are the important environmental characteristics.

According to the theory, leader behaviour should reduce hurdles to subordinates’ goal attainment, empower subordinates’ expectancies that help to improve the performance that will lead to valued rewards and provide training to make the path to payoffs easier for subordinates. Path – goal theory gives emphasis on this aspect. Actually the basis of this theory is derived from expectancy theory, which suggests that subordinates will be motivated if they think they are capable of performing their work. House (1971) explains four major types of leadership on the basis of Path – Goal theory, which include directive leadership, supportive leadership,
participative leadership, and achievement-oriented leadership. The four types are explained below,

i) Directive: the leader tells employees what he expects of subordinates, and shows them how to do it.

ii) Supportive: the leader shows concern for the well being of his employees by being friendly and approachable.

iii) Participative: the leader involves employees in decision making, consults them about their views of the situation, asks for their suggestions and considers those suggestions in making a decision.

iv) Achievement: the leader helps employees to set goals, and encourages them in achieving the goals assuming themselves to be responsible.

Path-goal theory has been criticized because it does not consider interactions among the contingency factors and also because of the complexity of the expectancy theory which is its underlying theoretical model. Empirical research has provided maximum support for the theory's propositions, primarily as they relate to directive and supportive leader behaviour.
2.8.2.3.3 Reddin’s Tridimensions Management Style Theory

The theory is an accepted theory in situational leadership. Proposing the theory, Professor Bill Reddin (1970) made the advance to the next level of practical leadership theories also called as Reddin’s 3-D theory. He developed the first relatively simple method to measure what he called “situational demands”, means the things that dictate to make a manager to operate most effectively. The model was based on the two basic dimensions of leadership, Task-orientation and Relationships-orientation found out by the Ohio State studies. However Reddin(1970) introduced a third dimension called Effectiveness and stated effectiveness was what resulted when one used the right style of leadership for the particular situation.

The real theoretical contribution of Reddin’s Tridimensions Management Style Theory was the idea that one could assess the situation and identify what behaviour was most appropriate in the situation. As mentioned in this theory a leader has to look at the five situational elements namely,

(i) Organization

(ii) Technology

(iii) Superiors
(iv) Co-workers

(iv) Subordinates

The organisation refers to all those factors which influence behaviour of the leader within a social system that are general to essentially unrelated positions. Technology refers to the way work may be done or the ideas used to achieve managerial effectiveness. Superior, Co-workers and Subordinates are concepts which are used in the commonly accepted sense that these elements make demands on the leader’s style. A leader has only to exhibit all these elements in order to make a comprehensive situation analysis. Leaders before controlling the situation, they have to control themselves first.

2.8.2.3.4 The Vroom-Yetton-Jago decision-making model

This model was originally described by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton in their 1973 book titled *Leadership and Decision Making* revised by Vroom and Jago in 1988. The theory focuses primarily on the degree of participation of subordinates is appropriate in different situations. Thus, it highlights the decision-making style of the leader. The theory discusses three major factors that affect the style and degree of participation while making a decision,

Decision Quality – The higher the quality of the decision needed, the more you should involve the subordinates in the decision.
Subordinate Commitment – How important is it that the team and others participate in the decision making process? When teammates need to embrace the decision there is a need for increasing the participation levels.

Time Constraints – How much time is in need to make the decision? The more time one gets, the more chance of including others, and of using the decision as an opportunity for team building.

Vroom-Jago distinguishes three styles of leadership, and five types of leader decision-making styles, which are labeled AI, AII, CI, CII, and G. This style ranges from strongly autocratic (AI), to strongly democratic (G). According to the theory, the appropriate style is determined by answers to up to eight diagnostic questions, which relate to such contingency factors as the importance of decision quality, the structure of the problem, whether subordinates have sufficient information to make a quality decision and the importance of subordinate commitment to the decision. The description of the model is shown below,
### Theoretical Overview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Autocratic</strong></td>
<td>Leader makes the decision and informs others of it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processes:</td>
<td>There are two separate processes for decision making in an autocratic style:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic 1 (A1) – Leader uses the information already have and make the decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Autocratic 2 (A2) – Leader asks team members for specific information and after getting it, the decision is made. Here it's not necessary to inform subordinates what the information is needed for.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consultative</strong></td>
<td>Leader gathers information from the team and other and then make the decision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processes:</td>
<td>Consultative 1 (C1) – The leader inform team members of what to do and may individually ask opinions, however, the group is not brought together for discussion. And the final decision is made by the leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consultative 2 (C2) – Leader is responsible for making the decision, however the leader discuss the situation together as a group, hear other perspectives, and solicit suggestions.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collaborative</strong></td>
<td>Leader and team members work together to reach a consensus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processes:</td>
<td>Group (G2) – The team makes a decision together. The leader is a facilitator and helps the team taking final decision that every members of the group agrees on.</td>
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**Figure 2.8 Vroom-Jago model of Leadership**

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model has been criticized for its complexity, for its assumption that the decision makers’ goals are consistent with organizational goals, and for ignoring the skills needed to
The theoretical overview involves arriving at group decisions to tackle difficult problems. Empirical research has supported most of the prescriptions of the theory.

### 2.8.2.3.5 The situational leadership theory

The situational leadership theory was initially introduced in 1969 and revised in 1977 by Hersey and Blanchard. The theory suggests that the key contingency factor affecting leaders' choice of leadership style is the task-related maturity of the subordinates. Subordinate maturity is defined in terms of the ability of subordinates to accept responsibility for their own task-related behaviour. According to the theory, a leader's efficacy is reliant on his ability to modify his management behavior to the level of his subordinates' maturity or sophistication. The theory classifies leader behaviours into the two broad classes of task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviours. The major proposition of situational leadership theory is that the effectiveness of task and relationship-oriented leadership depends upon the maturity of a leader's subordinates.

The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory has two pillars: leadership style and the maturity level of those being led. To Hersey and Blanchard (1977), the leadership styles stem from four basic behaviors, designated with a letter-number combination:

- S-1 Telling
- S-2 Selling
The theoretical overview includes the following points:

- **S-3 Participating**
- **S-4 Delegating.**

The leadership style, itself, manifests itself as task related behavior and behavior as to relationship with the group. "Telling" behavior simply is a unidirectional flow of information from the leader to the group and transactional leadership methods operate here. In the selling" behavior, the leader attempts to convince the group and leader should lead them by providing social and emotional support. Even if there is two-way communication, it is clear that the leader is leading. With "participating" behavior, the leader involves the group members in the decision making process, making the system more democratic and making less of an emphasis on accomplishing an objective than building human relations. The fourth type of behavior in leadership style, "delegating" is reflected by handing over tasks to group member and the leader still is in charge but more emphasis is made on monitoring the ones delegated with the tasks.

Four maturity levels of the group are posited by Hersey and Blanchard with letter designations:

- **M-1**: basic incompetence or unwillingness in doing the task
- **M-2**: inability to do the task but willing to do so
- **M-3**: competent to do the task but do not think they can
- M-4: the group is ready, willing, and able to do the task.

Each type of task may involve a different maturity level, so a person with an overall maturity level of M-3 might be only an M-1 with respect to specific work and according to Hersey, ability level and willingness to do work can be refined by a good leader by raising the level of expectations. Blanchard overlays four permutations of competency-commitment, again, with a letter designation:

- D1 - Low competence and low commitment
- D2 - Low competence and high commitment
- D3 - High competence and low/variable commitment
- D4 - High competence and high commitment

Situational leadership theory has been criticized on both theoretical and methodological grounds. However, it remains one of the better-known contingency theories of leadership and offers important insights into the interaction between subordinate ability and leadership style. There are situations in which the theory may be less applicable such as those involving time constraints and task complexity and testing of the theory doesn't seem to bear out the predictions.
2.8.2.4 Transformational Leadership

New innovative studies were conducted in the field of leadership and administration after 1980’s regarding the new approaches, transformation and Transactional approaches. These theories began to develop with highlighting on the leader’s personality or charisma, ability to develop and implement vision and attain goal of the organisation, and ability of each employee to act as self-leader. Manz and Sims (2002) explain that, when most of the people think of leadership, they think of one person doing something to another, and it’s the influence and a leader as one who has ability to influence another. A classic leader is said as one whom everyone recognizes is a leader and also sometimes described as a charismatic or heroic. There comes the importance of a leader who has the vision and dynamic personal attraction to total organisational change who’s said to be a transformational leader.

Simply, Transformational leadership is a process of transforming individuals or the subordinates. The terms values, ethic standards, and long-term goals are highly correlated with this concept. The leadership makes estimation on the follower’s motives, satisfying and treating them with human values and ethics. Burns (1978) observes that, Transformational leadership refers to the process in which an individual engaged with others creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both
the leader and the follower. Here the leader initiates the followers to attain the maximum goal. Burns presents Mahatma Gandhi, who raised the hopes and needs of millions of his people as a best example of transformational leadership.

Bass (1985), one of the proponents of this approach made arguments on the topic that there are essentially two types of leaders which are Transactional and Transformational. Transformational leaders motivate employee by pleasing to self-interest and helping to achieve the goal, whereas transactional leaders treat leadership as an exchange by maintaining a transactional relationship between themselves and their employees, said to be in a give and take manner. The transactional leader tends to behave as, ‘I will look after your interests if you will look after mine’. He mentioned nothing is wrong with this approach but argued it fails to lead to the kind of employee commitment and perseverance necessary for greatness and to achieve this to accomplish the goal, the leader must exhibit charismatic or transformational characteristics. A transformational leader is one who inspires trust, confidence, loyalty and admiration from the followers and as a result, followers are motivated to make use of high levels of effort and strength out of a sense of personal loyalty and admiration to the leader, if not the organization. Conger and
Kanungo, (1987) studied and explained certain sole features that confer the leader to influence followers. They are as follows,

(i) High self-confidence - Charismatic leaders exhibit strong self-confidence in their own judgements and actions.

(ii) Ability to articulate a vision- Such leaders has as exceptional ability to put idealized vision into words of what the future could hold. In fact, the greater the discrepancy between the status quo and the idealized vision, the greater the chance that followers will attribute extraordinary vision to the leader.

(iii) Willingness to assume high personal risks- To pursue the vision, charismatic leaders are often seen as being willing to attempt great risks to attain their vision. This commitment to the future and self-sacrifice often attract others to follow the leader.

(iv) Use of unconventional strategies- These leaders often use alternative behaviour or break conventional norms as a sign of their confidence in their course of action. Such attention acquiring behaviour often attracts the esteem of the followers.

(v) Perception of leaders as change agent- At last, the charismatic leaders are often seen by followers as change agents or
revolutionaries, especially when followers are disaffected or unhappy with existing procedures.

Schermerhorn (1996) classifies and describes the specialities of a transformational leader as follows,

(i)  Vision: having ideas and a clear sense of direction, communicating the ideas to others thereby developing excitement about working hard to accomplish shared dreams.

(ii) Charisma: arousing enthusiasm, faith, loyalty, pride, and trust of others within themselves through the power of individual reference and appeals to emotions.

(iii) Symbolism: identifying a hero offering him/her special rewards, and conducting spontaneous and planned ceremonies to celebrate excellence and high achievement.

(iv) Empowerment: helping others to develop and perform by removing the performance obstacles, sharing responsibilities and entrusting truly challenging work.

(v) Intellectual stimulation: gaining the involvement of others by creating awareness of problems and rousing their imagination to create high-quality solutions for goal achievement.
(vi) Integrity: being honest, plausible, and acting consistently out of personal confidence.

2.8.2.5 Recent developments

2.8.2.5.1 Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory

Vertical dyad linkage theory later said as Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, was introduced by George Graen and various colleagues in the 1970’s and has been revised and developed in the years. Graen; Alvares; Orris; Marleta (1970), in the LMX theory emphasizes on the dyadic (one-on-one) relationships between leaders and individual subordinates, instead of the behavior or traits of leaders or situational characteristics.

The theory's focus is determining the type of leader-subordinate relationships that promote effective outcomes and the factors that determine better leader- subordinate relationship. According to LMX theory, leaders do not treat all subordinates in the same manner, but establish close relationships with some, said as the ‘in-group’, while remaining detached from others called the ‘out-group’.

The subordinates in the in-group enjoy relationships with the leader that is marked by trust and mutual respect and they tend to be involved in important activities and decision making situations. Where, those in the out-group are excluded from important activities and
decisions. LMX theory suggests that high-quality leader-subordinate relationship will lead to positive outcomes such as better performance, lower turnover, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment and many empirical researches supports the proposed relationships.

2.8.2.5.2 Substitutes for Leadership theory

Kerr and Jermier (1978) developed the substitutes for leadership theory and proposes that under some circumstances, situational factors may substitute for leadership. The theory's focuses on providing an explanation for the lack of stronger empirical support for a relationship between leader traits or behaviour and subordinates’ satisfaction and performance. Leader substitutes may be situational factors or characteristics of the organisation (such as job design, or a cohesive work group) or subordinates’ characteristics (such as ability, training and previous experience). Well-designed jobs that provide clarity, meaning and intrinsic motivation should require only little guidance, support and inspiration from a leader.

Leader substitutes make leader behaviors such as task-oriented or relationship-oriented unnecessary and the organisational factor that may substitute the leadership makes the subordinates not under the control of the leader. Characteristics of the task that may substitute for leadership also include routine and repetitive tasks or tasks that are satisfying. The
question ‘Why leader behaviour impacts subordinates in some situations but not in others?’ was addressed properly and explained by the substitute for leadership theory so has generated a considerable amount of interest. However, some of its theoretical propositions have not been effectively tested. Yet, given the importance of teams for organisational functioning, this is likely to be an area of growth and is important to understand that leadership goes beyond a focus on the leader him or herself.

2.8.2.5.3 Servant leadership

This approach to leadership reflects a philosophy that leaders should be servants first. While servant leadership is an enduring concept, the phrase “servant leadership” was coined by Robert K. Greenleaf (1970) in *The Servant as Leader*, an essay that he first published. In that essay, Greenleaf said: “The servant-leader is servant first… It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve *first*. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is *leader* first; perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions…The leader-first and the servant-first are two extreme types. Between them there are shadings and blends that are part of the infinite variety of human nature. The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant-first to make sure that other people’s highest priority needs are being served. The best test, and difficult
to administer, is: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, *while being served*, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? *And*, what is the effect on the least privileged in society? Will they benefit or at least not be further deprived?"

The theory suggests that leaders must consider the needs of subordinates, customers, and the community ahead of their own interests and must place them in order to be effective. Compassion, stewardship, and commitment to the personal, professional, and spiritual growth of their subordinates are the main characteristics of servant leaders. Servant leadership has not been subjected to extensive empirical testing but has engendered considerable interest among both leadership researchers and practitioners. Leadership continues to be one of the most written topics in the social sciences. Although much has been learned and explored about leadership since the 1930s, many avenues of research still remain to be conducted and the issues must be addressed as we enter the twenty-first century.

**2.9 Business Interest**

Business may be defined as an economic activity which involves production or purchase of goods and science for the purpose of sale at a profit. It includes activities like manufacturing, trading, transportation, warehousing, banking and finance insurance, advertising etc. Business
excites in a society and is part of it. The purpose of business is not only earning profits but also discharging responsibilities towards society.

“Interest may refer to the motivating force that impels us to attend to a person, a thing, or an activity or it may be the effective experience that has been stimulated by the activity itself. In other words, Interest can be the cause of an activity and the result of participation in the activity.” (Crow & Crow 1973)

Interest can be defined as a sense of concern with and curiosity about someone or something. Business interest can be defined as a sense of concern and curiosity about business matter.

2.9.1 Emerging Modes of Business

The way business is done has undergone fundamental changes during the last decade or so. The never modes of business are not new business. There are rather simply the new ways of doing business attributable to a number of factors.

(i) E-commerce

E-commerce covers a firm’s interactions with its customers and suppliers over the internet. E-commerce is online electronic technology connected via the internet to assist and enhance a variety of business processes, function and systems. It is the most modern marketing option before us.
(ii) **B2B commerce**

Here, both the parties involved in e-commerce transactions are business firms, and hence the name b2b, i.e. business to business. Creation of utilities or delivering value requires a business firms which may be supplier or vendors of diverse inputs; or else they may be a part of the channel through which a firm distributes its products to the consumers.

(iii) **B2C commerce**

As the name implies, B2C (business – to – customers) transaction have business firms at one and its customers on the other end. B2C commerce therefore entails a wide gamut of marketing activities such as identifying activities, promotion and sometimes even delivery of products that are carried out online.

(iv) **Intra – B. commerce**

Here, parties involved in the electronic transactions are from within a given business firm. In a computer based interactions among the other departments makes it possible for the firm to reap advantages of efficient inventory and cash management, greater utilization of plant and machinery, effective handling of customers orders and effective human resource management.
(v) **C2C commerce**

Here, the business organization originates from the consumer and the ultimate destination is also consumers, thus the name C2C commerce. This type of commerce is best suited for dealing in goods for which there is no established market mechanism.

### 2.10 Commerce Education

The world is changing very fast. The pace of globalization, liberalization and privatization has tremendously influenced the various dimensions of Commerce education. Commerce education has gained such an importance because if a simple mistake is committed or an entrepreneur in his business affairs takes a slightly wrong decision, then it would lead to the doom of his enterprise, which has been developed so far. Therefore, Commerce education is very important. The activities relating to Commerce is also affected when the business cycle is not going well.

Paul S. Lomax (1928) writes, "Commercial education is fundamentally a programme of economic education that has to do with the acquirement, conservation and spending of wealth". H.G. Shields (1935) defines commerce education as follows, "Real commerce education is economic education-economic education, not of academic sort, long on theory and short on facts, but economic education which will given the
student a knowledge of the basic realities of business life and relationships. The basic science of business is economics and without a thorough grounding and awareness of economic problems much of the material included in secondary schools, Commerce course is purely additive and essentially superficial. We cannot place technical and socio-business subjects on a dual basis science one is basic and the other is supplementary. We cannot accept a two headed definition of the field, but must recognise that certain elements must be given most prominence and these I take to be economic factors”.

Through Commerce education, a student is exposed to the surroundings of the business world. It is helpful for preparing them for self-employment and mounting in them, the entrepreneurial abilities. It also inculcates practice orientation among the students. It makes them know about the importance of applying economic principles while making business decisions. It makes them aware of social, economic and political problems relating to business concerns. It teaches them to face the market situation, to adapt themselves to the present circumstances. Moreover, it helps them to meet the global competition.

The role played by an effective system of Commerce education is self-evident as it provides necessary inputs among the young graduates of today, towards turning them to dynamic and successful businessmen of
tomorrow. It must train the students not only in the technical aspects of the business, but also teach morals and ethics. The Commerce education must be theoretical and practical. This must never be forgotten that the real education is one, which provides freedom of thought and judgment and liberation from dogmas. In this way, the role played by Commerce education is very important or sufficient as well as effective in the changing business world.

Commerce is a down-to-earth practical discipline. Hence learning processes should be organised around current business processes. There is, therefore, a need to closely interact with business. A student of commerce must be able to relate himself to the changing business environment and to understand their implications. Through this interaction, peer sharing of experience and experiential learning are inevitable. Learning through activities will definitely make the learning of commerce more effective and more goal oriented.

The subject taught under commerce includes business studies and accountancy.
2.10.1 Objectives of Commerce Education

- To develop a positive attitude towards commerce education.

- To develop skills such as conceptual skills, technical skills and application skills in the field of commerce, management and industry.

- To prepare a student for a career in business or to start a business enterprise of his/her own.

- To give each student enough opportunities to acquire relevant knowledge about business and economy.

- To familiarise students with current business process and practices.

- To familiarise students with the behaviour of markets, products as well as finance.

- To train students in the use of information technology for business.

- To develop a capability in each student to identify business opportunities, analyse their risk-return possibilities and support business development in socially desirable avenues with strong moral commitment.

- To develop the skill of entrepreneurship among the learner.

- To face the challenges of modern world in getting an income.
2.10.2 Relevance of Commerce

The importance of trade and commerce are mentioned in following points.

2.10.2.1 Commerce tries to satisfy Increasing Human Wants

Human needs are never ending. They can be classified as 'Basic wants' and 'Secondary wants'. Commerce has made distribution and movement of goods possible from one part of the world to the other. Today we can buy anything produced anywhere in the world. This has in turn enabled man to satisfy his innumerable wants and thereby promoting social wellbeing.

2.10.2.2 Commerce helps to Increase our Standard of Living

Standard of living refers to quality of life enjoyed by the members of a society. When man consumes more products his standard of living improves. To consume a variety of goods he must be able to secure them first. Commerce helps us to get what we want at right time, right place and at right price and thus helps in improving our standard of living.

2.10.2.3 Commerce Links Producers and Consumers

Production is meant for ultimate consumption. Commerce makes possible to link producers and consumers through retailers and wholesalers and also through the aids to trade. Consumers get information about different goods through advertisements and salesmanship. The
manufacturers are regularly informed about the likes and dislikes of the consumers through marketing research. Thus commerce creates contact between the centre of production and consumption and links them.

2.10.2.4 Commerce Generates Employment Opportunities

The growth of commerce, industry and trade bring about the growth of agencies of trade such as banking, transport, warehousing, advertising, etc. These agencies need people to look after their functioning. Increase in production results in increasing demand, which further results in boosting employment opportunities. Thus development of commerce generates more and more employment opportunities for millions of people in a country.

2.10.2.5 Commerce Increases National Income and Wealth

When production increases, national income also increases. In a developed country, manufacturing industries and commerce together accounts for nearly 80% of total national income. It also helps to earn foreign exchange by way of exports and duties levied on imports. Thus, commerce increases the national income and wealth of a nation.

2.10.2.6 Commerce helps in Expansion of aids to Trade

With the growth in trade and commerce there is growing need for expansion and modernization of aids to trade. Aids to trade such as
banking, communication, advertising and publicity, transport, insurance, etc., are expanded and modernised for the smooth conduct of commerce.

2.10.2.7 Commerce helps in Growth of Industrial Development

Commerce looks after the smooth distribution of goods and services made available by the industry. Without commerce, industry will find it difficult to keep the pace of production. It helps to increase demand for goods on one hand and on the other hand it helps industries by getting them the necessary raw materials and other services. Hence, commerce helps in attaining better division of labour and industrial progress.

2.10.2.8 Commerce Encourages International Trade

Through commerce we can secure a fair and equitable distribution of goods throughout the world. With the help of transport and communication development, countries can exchange their surplus commodities and earn foreign exchange, which is very useful for importing machinery and sophisticated technology. It ensures faster economic growth of the country.

2.10.2.9 Commerce Benefits Underdeveloped Countries

Underdeveloped countries can import skilled labour and technical know-how from developed countries. While the advance countries can
import raw materials from underdeveloped countries. This helps in laying down the seeds of industrialization in the underdeveloped countries.

2.10.2.10 Commerce helps During Emergencies

During emergencies like floods, earthquakes and wars, commerce helps in reaching the essential requirements like foodstuff, medicines and relief measures to the affected areas.