CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF LEADERSHIP
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2.1. MEANING OF LEADERSHIP

The term leader has been derived from the verb "to lead". This also implies "to advance", "to expel" and "to stand out" and to guide and govern the actions of others. A leader is a person who leads a group of followers. He will be accepted as a leader only when he has the ability and competence to guide and govern his followers. Further, he should have an edge over his followers in regard to professional, technical, managerial or other skills. On the basis of his skill he should be capable of excelling his subordinates or followers. A leader is also capable of taking stand in the midst of all odds and adversities. He should not lose heart when adversities come in the way and become swollen-headed when success touches his feet.

The leader also possess the needed ability to guide and govern the actions of his subordinates. A person who is designated as a leader is accepted as a leader on the basis of his ability - professional, technical and others - to guide the actions of his subordinates.

To maintain discipline in the group and to set the erring subordinates right, he possesses the needed authority to direct the actions of subordinates. He has also the ability to keep the group under
discipline so as to enforce unity of action for the achievement of the common goal of the group or enterprise.

Leadership is not merely the quality or characteristics acquired by a person but it is much more than this, i.e., his relationship with his followers and workers. It means the skill of moulding himself according to situations to get the desired work done by his subordinates.

2.1.2 DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP

1. Hodge and Johnson are of the opinion that, "Leadership is fundamentally the ability to form and mould the attitudes and behaviour of other individuals, whether informal or formal situation and that management relates to the formal task of decision and command"(1).

2. Ivancevich, Szilagyi and Wallace, define leadership as "the relationship between two or more people in which one attempts to influence the other toward the accomplishment of some goal and goals".(2)

3. In the words of Keith Davis, "Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor that binds a group together and motivates it towards goals".(3)

4. In the words of Koontz O' Donnell, "Leadership is the ability to exert interpersonal influence by means of communication towards the achievement of a goal".(4)
5. Leadership is defined by Paul Hersey and K.H. Blanchard as "the process of influencing group activities towards the accomplishment of goals in a given situation".\(^{(5)}\)

6. Robbins defines leadership as "the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals".\(^{(6)}\)

7. According to Robert Tennenbaum, "Leadership is the inter-personal influence, exercised in situations and directed through the communication process towards the attainment of goals".\(^{(7)}\)

8. According to G.R. Terry, "Leadership is the relationship in which one person or the leader influences others to work together willingly on related tasks to attain that which the leader desires".\(^{(8)}\)

9. According to Dr. M.J. Mathew, "Leadership is a process in which a person attempts to influence through another to accomplish some goal or goals".\(^{(9)}\)

10. In the words of Ivancevich, Donnelly and Gibson, "Leadership is the ability to influence through communication the activities of others individually or as a group, towards the accomplishment of worthwhile, meaningful, and challenging goals."\(^{(10)}\)

11. According to James J.Cribbin, leadership is "a process of influence on a group in a particular situation at a given point of time, and in a specific set of circumstances that stimulates people to strive
willingly to attain organisational objectives, giving them the experience of helping attain the common objectives and satisfaction with the types of leadership provided". (11)

12. According to Peter Drucker, "Leadership is the lifting of man's visions to higher sights, the raising of a man's performance to a higher standard, the building of a man's personality beyond its normal limitations". (12)

13. In the words of Gupta, leadership may be defined as a process of influencing the action of individuals as members of a group to achieve the desired goal in a given situation by use of force by the leader. (13)

2.2. NEED FOR LEADERSHIP

Leadership is an important factor for making organisation successful without a good leader, organisation can not function efficiently and effectively. Since the organisation is basically a deliberate creation of human beings for certain specified objectives, the activities of its members need to be directed in a certain way. Any departure from this way will lead to inefficiency in the organisation. Direction of activities in the organisation is effected by the leader. Good leadership is necessary for:
1. **MOTIVATING EMPLOYEES:** Motivation is necessary for work performance. The higher the motivation, the better would be the performance. A good leader by exercising his leadership motivates the employees for high performance. Good leadership in the organisation itself is a motivating factor for the individuals.

2. **CREATING CONFIDENCE:** A good leader may create confidence in his followers by directing them, giving them advice and getting through them good results in the organisation.

3. **BUILDING MORALE:** High morale leads to high productivity and organisational stability. Through providing good leadership in the organisation, employees morale can be raised high ensuring high productivity and stability in the organisation.

   Daniel Katz and Robert Kahn\(^{(14)}\) have given the following four reasons that eve a mature organisation can not work without a leader:

   1) **The incompleteness of formal organisational design:** The formal organisation is generally incomplete and imperfect. Its voids are revealed when it is compared with the 'real' informal organisation. The anxiety of the new worker to know from other members of his group "how things are really done" in contrast to the official way of doing things or a worker's tendency to do only what is formally stipulated, no more-no less, are instances of the insufficiency of the formal organisation to deal with all types of situations without a leader.
ii) Changing environment conditions: Technological, legal, cultural
and many other kinds of changes necessitate corresponding changes
to be brought about in the organisation by a leader.

iii) The internal dynamics of the organisation: As the organisation
grows new complexities of structure are created, new needs for
coordination arise, and new policies must be invented. At the
departmental level, internal differences make coordination,
adjudication and resultant organisational change a continuing need.
Good Leadership is required to cope with these situations.

iv) The nature of human membership in organisations: Human
membership in an organisation is segmental in nature. This means
that an organisation calls for only a partial involvement of a person
and not his total involvement. Other activities and affiliations fill
his other hours, make demands on his energies, gratify his needs.
These extra organisational aspects of his life affect his behaviour in
the organisation which employs him. If this effect disrupts the
organisations required behaviour, it necessitates some kind of
complimentary and adoptive change within the organisation. A leader
is needed to introduce such change.
2.3. LEADERSHIP AND USE OF AUTHORITY, POWER AND INFLUENCE

Leadership has long been considered as one of the most important factors influencing organisational performance and achievement of goals. As such, it constitutes an important aspect of managing. The ability to lead effectively can be regarded as one of the keys to become an effective manager. Effective direction is not possible by managers without the aid of effective leadership. The need of leadership would be evident if one looks into the comparative use of authority, power and influence by managers in any organisation.

2.3.1. AUTHORITY

Authority is generally the line authority which can not be questioned unless the superior has acted beyond the scope of his authority. A manager derives authority by virtue of his position as Manager. By virtue of his authority, he acquires the right to decide to act and to command the persons working under him. Authority is the set of rights that enables members to discharge their responsibilities.\(^{15}\) Henry Fayol defines authority as "the right to give orders and the power to exact obedience."\(^{16}\) Managers within the scope of their responsibilities, have the right to decide what should be done and how it should be done, and the right to give the necessary order to subordinates to get the work done thereby, fulfilling the responsibilities of the organisation.\(^{17}\)
2.3.2. **POWER**

Power is the capacity of one party to influence other parties to act as the first party wants\(^{(18)}\). Power can influence behaviour through compliance, identification, and internationalisation. Power is a function of ties of mutual dependence in social relationship. Power is the ability of one to control the actions of others.\(^{(19)}\) Robbins defines power is the ability to influence and control anything that is of value to others.\(^{(20)}\)

From organisational point of view, it can be defined as the degree of influence an individual or group has in decision-making, without being authorised by the organisation to do so. There are multiple sources of power in the leadership roles. These sources are personal or situational. French and Raven\(^{(21)}\) have identified six forms of power a manager may possess such as legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, expert power, referent power and information power. The situational sources of power relate to factors such as uncertainty, substitutability and centrality.

2.3.3. **INFLUENCE:**

The exercise of influence is the essence of leadership behaviour. Henry Mintzberg's classic study of what managers do on the job fails to describe the influence tactics used.\(^{(22)}\) French and Raven propose that social power is used to influence others.\(^{(23)}\) They state that the bases of power include rewards, coercion legitimate power, referent power and expertise.
Seven influence strategies have been proposed as particularly vital for practicing leadership roles. These strategies are:

i) Reason - using facts and data to develop a logically sound argument.

ii) Friendliness - Using supportiveness; flattery and the creation of goodwill.

iii) Coalition - Mobilizing others in the organisation.

iv) Bargaining - Negotiating through the use of benefits or favours.

v) Assertiveness - Using a direct and forceful approach.

vi) Higher Authority - Gaining the support of higher levels in the hierarchy to add weight to the requests.

vii) Sanctions - Using rewards and punishment.

According to a study conducted by them, the most popular methods used with subordinates were reason and assertiveness. While the least-used methods were higher authority and sanctions. The study also determined that managers with the power to control resources use a greater variety of influence strategies. The study suggests that using influence is a fundamental activity in organisation. Leaders apparently need to learn a variety of influence strategies, they can not rely solely on the traditional strategy of exercising the power they possess by virtue of their position in the formal hierarchy or formal group.
Managerial influence is exercised through persuasions suggestions and advice with the intention of affecting the subordinates behaviour. In the case of influence, the subordinates will have the option of either rejecting or accepting the proposition. Chester I Bernard remarked that every management comes across “a zone of influence for authority acceptance”.(25) Beyond such zone of influence, authority is questioned and the subordinates may not really accept the authority. They may resent the authority only through open defiance in most cases but also through the widespread practice of subtle disobedience in the form of deliberate slackness in performance. The necessity of leadership is keenly felt in all those circumstances or situations wherein managerial authority and power absolutely fail to deal with the cases of subtle disobedience. Such situations calling for the use of leadership and exercise of influence have become only means available to managers for affecting subordinates' behaviour and getting a little extra effort from them.

2.4. CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP

Keith Davis(26) lists the following as the characteristics of leadership:

a) Intelligence: Leaders tend to have higher intelligence than their followers.

b) Social maturity and breadth: Leaders have a tendency to be emotionally mature and to have a broad range of interest.
c) Inner motivation and achievement drives: Leaders want to accomplish things; when they achieve one goal, they seek out another. They are not primarily dependent on outside forces for their motivation.

d) Human relations attitudes: Leaders are able to work effectively with other persons. They respect individuals and realise that to accomplish tasks they must be considerate to others.

Chris Argyris(27) mentioned the following characteristics of a leader:

1. The leader is constantly interacting and commanding.

2. The leader makes the organisation a part of his self image.

3. The leader's personal goals, values, and feeling the organisationally centered.

4. The leader handles the supervisors as individuals.

5. The leader controls the transmission of important information.

6. The leader emphasises the present.

7. The leader sets realistic goals.

Based on the various definitions of leadership given by management thinkers, we can list the following as the important requisites of leadership:
1. Co-existence with followership:

Leadership involves other people; therefore, where there are leaders, there must be followers. Leadership can arise in any situation where people have combined their efforts to accomplish a task. Leadership must be earned, it can never be conferred or ordered. "The essence of leadership is followership. In other words, it is the willingness of people to follow that makes a person a leader." Thus the first feature of leadership is to be found in confidence, respect, loyalty and devotion shown by followers.

2. Understanding feelings and problems:

The second characteristic of leadership lies in understanding group and individual feelings and problems of followers. The leader must try for the satisfaction of social and personal needs of his followers. The leader is looked upon as one dependable friend, philosopher and guide by followers. Accordingly, followers expect the leader to recognise their individual difficulties and to take every possible measure for their well-being. This dependence or faith in the leader is made to prevail among personnel through mutual understanding. To increase this understanding, the leadership is required to keep the followers informed of all developments affecting the group and its work, to allow participation in decision making on important matters and to practise counselling with group members.
3. Assumption of responsibility:

The third feature of leadership calls for the acceptance of full responsibility in all situations. As the leader exercise authority and undertakes the task of guidance he must assume the responsibility for all actions and operations of his followers. He must steer the group clear of all difficulties for arriving at the fixed destination. For attainment of objectives, he is to encourage and develop the weak, to influence and control the strong and to prepare the whole group for an effective teamwork.

4. Objectivity in relations with followers:

Another characteristic of leadership rests on maintaining objectivity in relation through fair play and absolute justice in all affairs of the organisation. It is only when the leader is impartial in all operations and activities that he can retain an ability to inspire intact. Even the slightest negligence on his part leading to misjudgement and misdirection is sure to adversely affect the employees behaviour and productivity. Members feel aggrieved and the leader loses their confidence and loyalty. Consequently, leadership fails to guide and direct the group efforts.

5. Development of self awareness:

As the leader’s actions influence the behaviour of followers, the leader needs to be aware of his own preferences and weaknesses with a
view to learning what impression his actions make on followers. To be effective, leadership must also be supported by technical competence and personality traits. In the absence of familiarity with technical details of the work, necessary guidance and direction cannot be given. Personality traits must also be conducive to the growth of the self-confidence and conviction on the part of leaders. He must have faith and determination to pursue a course of action to its logical ends.

6. Adaptability to specific situations:

Leadership is not an abstract skill unrelated to people and physical environment. Leadership patterns are always moulded by the composition of the group and the nature of environment levels of education, training, and experience of group members shape the pattern of leadership in any situation. Moreover, the tradition of the company, the flexibility in operations and the rise of emergency conditions have significant influence on leadership roles and skills that are to be adopted in a specific situation.

7. Recognising leadership as a shared function:

A manager can prove successful only when he can realise that leadership is a shared function. A good leader shares everything with his followers, he is always ready to share credit, blame, ideas, opinions and experience.
8. Subordination of individual interests in preference to general organisational interests:

Individual interests should never dominate over and above the general interests of the organisation. A successful leader will be capable enough to allow his subordinates to have their individual goals, set up by themselves, in such a way that they never conflict with the common goals of the organisation.

9. Realising that leadership is not bossism:

Leadership in business is never a bossism. A leader always believes in 'we' and 'you' concept of human relationship, does never suffer from superiority complex and is always ready to consult and seek advice when the situation warrants. A boss depends upon his authority but a leader relies upon his confidence and goodwill and always believes in coaching and advising his subordinates.

2.4.1. INGREDIENTS OF LEADERSHIP

According to Harold Koontz,(30) every group of people that performs near its total capacity has some person as its head who is skilled in the art of leadership. This skill seems to be a compound of at least four major ingredients:

1. The first ingredient of leadership is power. The ability to use power effectively and in a responsible manner.
2. The second ingredient of leadership is a fundamental understanding of people i.e., the ability to comprehend that human beings have different motivation forces at different times and in different situations.

3. The third ingredient of leadership is the ability to inspire followers to apply their full capabilities to a project.

4. The fourth ingredient of leadership has to do with the style of the leader and the climate he or she develops.

2.4.2. **TRAITS OF LEADERSHIP**

Early studies of leadership in 1940s and in 1950s concluded that leadership is largely a matter of personality, a function of specific traits. A successful leader not only secures desired behaviour from his followers but succeeds in creating a sense of satisfaction among them. Even though leadership traits cannot be fixed for certain, a leader cannot be effective unless he possesses certain basic qualities. The following are some of the studies that attempt to identify these traits:

Ordway Tead\(^{31}\) has suggested ten qualities of a good leader:

1. Physical and nervous energy,
2. Sense of purpose and direction,
3. Enthusiasm,
4. Friendliness and affection,
5. Integrity,
6. Technical mastery,
7. Decisiveness,
8. Intelligence,
9. Teaching skill, and
10. Faith.

Chester I. Barnard\(^{(32)}\) has indicated two aspects of leadership traits:

1. Commanding subordinates admiration includes outstanding qualities in respect of physique, skill, technology, perception, knowledge, memory and imagination.
2. Individual superiority in determination, persistence, endurance and courage.

Henry Fayol\(^{(33)}\) treats the following as qualities of a good leader:

1. Health and physical fitness
2. Intelligence and mutual vigour
3. Moral qualities
4. Knowledge, and
5. Managerial ability.

George R. Terry\(^{(34)}\) suggested the following qualities:

1. Energy, both mental and physical
2. Emotional stability
3. Knowledge of human relations
4. Empathy
5. Objectivity
6. Personal motivation
7. Communication skills
8. Teaching ability
9. Social skills and Technical competence.

Stogdill\(^{(35)}\) identifies through research the following traits:

1. Physical characteristics such as age, appearance, height and weight.
2. Social background - education, social status and mobility,
3. Intelligence - superior judgement, decisiveness, knowledge and fluency of speech,
4. Personality - Alertnes, self-confidence, personal integrity, self assurance and dominance needs.
5. Task related characteristics - High need for achievement and responsibility, initiative and a high task orientation, and
6. Social characteristics.

2.5. **TYPES OF LEADERSHIP SKILLS**

Leaders use three types of skills\(^{(36)}\) - technical, human and conceptual:
1. **Technical skill:**

   It refers to a person's knowledge and ability in any type of process or technique. For example, the skills learned by Chartered Accountants, engineers etc. This skill is the distinguishing feature of job performance at the operating level; but when an employee is promoted to leadership responsibilities, his technical skill becomes less important. Conversely, he increasingly depends on the technical skills of subordinates.

2. **Human skills:**

   It is the ability to work effectively with people and to build team work. No leader can escape from human skill. It is the major part of the leadership behaviour.

3. **Conceptual skill:**

   This is the ability of the leader to think in terms of models, frame work and broad relationships such as long term plans.

   Conceptual skill deals with ideas while human skill concerns people and technical skill is with things.

2.6 **FUNCTIONS OF LEADERSHIP**

   A leader performs the following important functions:-

1. **Motivating and guiding the followers:**

   Leadership provides the vital spark to motivation of human beings. Whenever a group of human beings desires to accomplish a common
objective, the situation calls for the assistance of leadership. It is leadership that guides, inspires and directs group members for achieving a unity of purpose and efforts. Leadership alone can elevate men's visions to higher thinking and raise their capacity to a higher standard of performance. It infuses such will-to-do into the group as to secure the best contribution of human energy. Without leadership, a group disintegrates, destroys its team spirit and fritters away its energy.

2. Influencing and shaping the social system:

Effective leadership persuades the group to have an identity of interest, outlook and action. It provides imagination, foresight enthusiasm and initiative to the group. Leadership, which is really effective, influences and shapes the social system by -

(i) exhibiting an imitable code of conduct and responsibility,

(ii) Prescribing a high standard of performance; and

(iii) Stressing the importance of respect for the individual.

3. Realising the subordinates problems and securing their cooperation:

Besides influencing his subordinates, a leader always shows his eagerness to understand the problems faced by his subordinates, and thus gets influenced by their problems and feelings. It is only when the leader possesses a skill of sympathetic contact, careful listening, correct diagnosing and winning the confidence of his subordinates that he can
grasp their problems and feelings properly, promptly and impartially and try to suitably modify his behaviour and action so as to secure their voluntary co-operation.

Herbert G. Hicks\(^{(37)}\) refer to the following as common leadership activities:

1. **Arbitrating:** Often members disagree on the best decision for an organisational matter. An effective leader often will resolve such disagreement by arbitrating on making the decision on the course of action to be taken.

2. **Suggesting:** Suggestions are often employed by an adroit leader for a long-term. Suggestion is likely to be a powerful tool in the manager's kit.

3. **Supplying objectives:** A manager often personally supplies the objectives for the organisation. The manager must see that the organisation is always supplied with suitable objectives.

4. **Catalysing:** In organisations some force is required to start or accelerate movement. A leader is expected to provide such a force.

5. **Providing security:** In organisations personal security is often a significant factor. A leader can provide a large measure of security by maintaining a positive and optimistic attitude even in the face of adversities.
6. **Representing:** A leader is usually treated as the representative of the organisation.

7. **Inspiring:** Many persons work more productively in organisations when their leader keeps them know that the work they do is worth while and important.

8. **Praising:** Managers can help to satisfy the needs by their sincere praise.

The functions discussed above are of an ideal leader. Though an ordinary leader cannot perform all these functions, he should do his best in the interests of subordinates. Hence Stogdill\(^{(38)}\) is right in saying that "leadership is consistent with problems of human performance and interactions".

### 2.7. MANAGEMENT Vs. LEADERSHIP

Some social scientists treat "Managership" and "leadership" as synonymous. However, a distinction can be made between these two terms. The key difference between these two lies in the word organisation. Leadership may be viewed as the process of influencing behaviour of an individual or group regardless of the reasons. It may be for one's own goals or a friend's goal, and may or may not be congruent with organisation goals. On the other hand, there can be managers only where organised structures create such roles.
Another difference lies in the scope of functions performed. A manager has to perform all the five functions of management - planning, organising, staffing, directing, and controlling. Leadership functions come under directing through which behaviour is directed to get maximum use of subordinates' ability. Subordinates are guided by rules and requirements enforced by managerial authority. In this process, subordinates may work just enough to satisfy the requirements for holding their jobs. To raise efforts towards total capability, the managers must induce a zealous response on the part of efficient subordinates by exercising leadership. Thus leadership is a part of management but not all of it. Thus a strong leader can be a weak manager because he is weak in planning or some other managerial functions. The reverse is also possible i.e., manager can be a weak leader and still be an acceptable manage.

2.8. SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP Vs EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

According to Hersey and Blanchard, there is a difference between a successful leader and an effective leader. A successful leader is one who merely changes the behaviour of his followers (and not their attitudes) by using largely his positional power. On the other hand, an effective leader is one who not only changes the behaviour of his followers but also their attitudes by using largely his personal power. The result is that in the first case the change is short - lived whereas in the second case it is enduring. Thus, all successful leaders are not
effective leaders. But all effective leaders are also successful leaders. Effective leadership is a function of the leader, the followers and situations.

According to Koontz and o' Donnel, "leadership" can be effective only when the following principles or guidelines are complied with in the area of leading as it applies to managers: (39)

1. The principle of Harmony of objectives: It calls for a careful and sincere attempt on the part of the managers desirous of proving themselves as effective leaders to enable members of the organisation to see and understand that their personal goals are in harmony with enterprise objectives.

2. Principle of maximum clarity and integrity in communications: Managerial leading should ensure that the communication is clear, and unambiguous so as to support understanding by the individuals for enabling them to achieve and maintain the co-operation that is required to meet the enterprise goals.

3. Principle of supplemental use of informal organisation: In order to make the communication most effective, the manager should make the best use of the informal organisation as a supplement to the communication channels of the formal organisation.
4. **Principle of motivation:** Motivation is not a simple "cause and effect" process. Hence, the managers who are keen on emerging as effective leaders should make the motivational programme very effective by -

(1) Carefully assessing the reward structure;

(2) Looking upon it from a situational and contingency point of view; and

(3) Integrating it into the entire system of managing.

5. **Principle of leadership:** People tend to follow those in whom they see a means of satisfying their own personal goals. As such, the managers who want to become effective leaders should

(i) Understand correctly as to what motivates their individual subordinates;

(ii) How and in what way these motivators operate; and

(iii) Most sincerely reflect such an understanding in carrying out their managerial actions.

A careful analysis of all these principles meant to serve as useful guidelines for managerial leading suggests that practical experienced acts as the best master in making a manager effective as leader.
2.9. LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Leadership has been one of the most studied topics in management. Yet the conclusions reached have been contradictory, exaggerated, and controversial. Part of the problem lies in the definitions, measurement and theory used to study leadership. However, examined below are several major types of leadership theory:

2.9.1. TRAIT THEORIES

Prior to 1949, studies of leadership were based largely on an attempt to identify the traits that leaders possess. Starting with the “great man” theory that the leaders are born and not made, a belief dating back to the ancient Greeks and Romans, researchers have tried to identify the physical, mental and personality traits of various leaders. The “great man” theory lost much of its acceptability with the rise of the behaviourist school of psychology. Many studies of traits have been made.

Ralph M. Stogdill(43) identifies through research the following traits that are shared by most successful leaders:

i) Physical Characteristics: Physical characteristics such as age, appearance, height and weight were studied in some of the early leadership studies.

ii) Social back ground: Social back ground focuses on such factors as eduction, social status and mobility. Research
studies have revealed that high social economic status based on social background may reflect advantage in attaining leadership.

iii) Intelligence: Studies have revealed that the relationship between intelligence and leader status indicate that leaders are characterised by superior judgement, decisiveness, knowledge and fluency of speech.

iv) Personality: Personality factors that effective leaders are characterised by are such personality traits such as alertness, self confidence, personal integrity, self assurance and dominance needs. Personality is significantly related to behavioural factors as perception, attitudes, learning and motivation. The major problem in this area is finding valid ways to measure personality traits and then apply these results to actual situations.

v) Task related characteristics: Studies suggest that leaders are characterised by a high need for achievement and responsibility, initiative and a high task orientation. These results suggest that the typical leader can be characterised as an individual with high motivation, drive and need for task accomplishment.

vi) Social characteristics: Studies of social characteristics have suggested leaders are active participants in various activities
interact with a wide range of people and are cooperative with others. These interpersonal skills appear to be valued by the group, which tends to provide for harmony, trust and group cohesiveness.

Edurin E. Ghiselli has studied eight personality traits and five motivational traits\(^{(41)}\). The traits he studied are:

**Personality traits:**

Intelligence  
Initiative  
Supervisory ability  
Self-assurance  
Affinity for the working class  
Decisiveness  
Masculinity - femininity  
Maturity,

**Motivational traits:**

Need for job security  
Need for financial reward  
Need for power over others  
Need for self - actualisation  
Need for occupational achievement
Ghiselli's research findings suggest the relative importance of the traits as noted in the following figure:\(^{(42)}\)

The relative importance of leader characteristics and effective leadership.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very important characteristics</th>
<th>1. Supervisory ability</th>
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<td>2. Occupational achievement</td>
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<td>3. Intelligence</td>
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<td>5. Self - assurance</td>
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<td>6. Decisiveness</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Moderately Important characteristics</th>
<th>1. Lack of need for security</th>
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<td></td>
<td>2. Working - class affinity</td>
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<td>3. Initiative</td>
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<td>4. Lack of need for financial reward</td>
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<td>5. Maturity</td>
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| Unimportant Characteristic | 1. Masculinity - femininity |
Keith Davis\(^{(43)}\) has identified the following four traits that are shared by most successful leaders:

1. Intelligence
2. Social maturity and breadth
3. Inner motivation and achievement drive and

The Centre for Creative Leadership is a non-profit research and educational institution located in Greensboro, North Carolina. Two of the Centre's researchers, sought to compare traits of 21 derailed executives - successful people who were expected to be promoted, but who reached a plateau, were fired, or were forced to retire early - with those of 20 "arrivers", who made it all the way to the top.\(^{(44)}\)

The derailed executives' flaws merged into a list of 10 traits:

1. Insensitive to others; abrasive, intimidating, bullying style,
2. Cold-aloof-arrogant;
3. Betrayal of trust,
4. Overly ambitious- thinking of next job, playing politics,
5. Specific performance problems with the business,
6. Over managing unable to delegate or build a team,
7. Unable to staff effectively,
8. Unable to think strategically,
9. Unable to adopt to boss with different style,
10. Over dependent on advocate or mentor.
The Centre for Creative Leadership researchers suggest, however, that no one - the arrivers or the derailed executives - can possess every skill and trait needed to fit every situation. A leader is a human like everyone else and therefore possesses strengths and weaknesses. But if there is one trait that seem to be associated with success, it is the ability to get along with people. Exactly how this ability can become a part of a leader's repertoire remains a mystery, however, there is no foolproof, step-by-step training programme or procedure that can assure the exact amount of this elusive ability in each situation.

The trait theory of leadership has been criticised by many. The major criticisms are based on the following ground:

1) The trait approach has ignored the effect of subordinates on leaders.\(^{(45)}\)

2) Focusing on individual traits, it does not show what the individual actually does in a leadership situation. Traits identify who the leader is, not what behavioural patterns he or she will exhibit in attempting to influence subordinate actions.\(^{(46)}\)

3) The effectiveness of leadership depends to a large extent on the environment surrounding the influence process.\(^{(47)}\)

4) Research often disagrees over which traits are the most important for an effective leader. There is no universal list of traits for successful leaders.\(^{(48)}\)
5) It is difficult to measure traits nor are there measuring tools to measure traits.

6) Leadership traits vary from person to person and the type of work he performs.

Although the results of these traits studies are helpful in identifying certain salient characteristics of leaders, little information has been provided to help predict effect on leaders. The list of important leadership traits is endless and grows with each passing year. It has not yet been shown that a finite set of traits can distinguish successful from the unsuccessful leader.

2.9.2. BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES

Dissatisfaction with the trait approach to leadership led behavioural scientists during 1950s to focus their attention on actual leader behaviour. The foundation for this "style of leadership" approach was based on the belief that leaders used a particular style to lead individuals and groups to achieve certain goals, resulting in high productivity and morale.\(^{49}\)

Leadership according to this approach is the result of behaviour of role and it is shown by a person's acts more than by his traits. This is a new approach based on two important research studies:
1. The university of Michigan Studies - Job-Centered and Employee-Centered:

The purpose of the study was to identify styles of leader behaviour that result in increased work-group performance and satisfaction. Michigan studies identified two leadership styles:

i) Job-oriented leadership style: This leadership style focused on the use of close supervision, legitimate and coercive power, meeting schedules and evaluating work performance.

ii) Employee-centered leadership style: This leadership style is people oriented and emphasizes delegation of responsibility and concern for employee welfare and needs. The study prescribed employee-centered style of leadership to increase productivity.

The main conclusion they reached was that a leadership style should not be evaluated solely by productive measures, but by other employee-related measures, such as satisfaction.

It is criticised(50) that there is evidence that the behaviour of leaders changes from situation. Other situational factors, such as the cohesiveness of the group or the nature of the subordinates, personal characteristics, or the task, were not considered.

2. The Ohio State studies - Initiating structure and consideration:

The purpose of this study was to investigate determinants of leader behaviour and to determine the effect of leadership style on work group
performance and satisfaction. The Ohio State Studies identified two leadership behaviours. The two leadership behaviours identified were:

i) **Initiating structure:** It refers to the degree to which the leader defines and organises the task of subordinates establishes communications so that organisational goals are accomplished.

ii) **Consideration:** It refers to the ability of the leader to establish trust, mutual respect, friendship, support and concern for welfare of employees. The leader listens to the problems of employees and allows them suggest.

The Ohio State Studies were criticised\(^{(51)}\) that the influence of situational factors on the leadership effectiveness model was not considered in the study. The measurements of the initiating structure/consideration dimensions by leaders and their subordinates were generally not highly related.

Both the trait and behavioural approaches proved to fall short of a comprehensive and adequate theory of leadership style. Each of the theories attempted to isolate broad dimensions of the leadership behaviours and indulge profusely in over simplifications. The logic behind such fallacious reasoning appears to be that multi-dimensions confound that interpretation of leadership behaviour and complicate the research designs developed to test the particular theory. \(^{(52)}\)
2.9.3. SITUATION THEORIES

During the late 1960s, recognised by the limitations of both the Trait and Behavioural theories, researchers began to develop new approaches to the study of leadership. The situational theme of leadership is certainly challenging and an effective leader must be flexible enough to adapt to the differences among subordinates and situations. Leadership effectiveness largely depends upon the fitness between personality, task, power, attitudes and perceptions\(^{(53)}\) on the lines of this new and sophisticated conceptions, some important situational theories have been developed. The important among them are:

1. Fiedler's Contingency Model
2. Path Goal Model
3. Life Cycle theory of leadership.
4. Vroom and Yetton Normative Model.

1. Fiedler's Contingency Model:

Fiedler's contingency model\(^{(54)}\) is one of the first and most comprehensive situational theories in leadership literature. The theory holds that people become leaders not only because of the attributes of their personalities but also because of various situational factors and the interactions between leaders and group members. On the basis of his studies, Fiedler described three critical dimensions of the leadership situations that help determine what style of leadership will be most effective:
i) **Position power:** The leader obtains power by accepting and performing the leadership role. The position power refers to the power inherent in the leadership position, the extent to which the leader can influence the behaviours of others through legitimate reward, or coercive power\(^{(55)}\).

ii) **Task structure:** With this dimension, Fiedler had in mind the extent to which tasks can be clearly spelled out and people held responsible for them. If tasks are clear, the quality of performance can be more easily controlled and group members can be held more definitely responsible for performance.

iii) **Leader-member relations:** Fiedler regarded this dimension as the most important from a leader's point of view, since position power and task structure may be largely under the control of an enterprise. It refers to the degree of confidence, trust and respect subordinates have for the leader. It indicates how much the group members are cordial, it is for the leader to obtain group cooperation and effort.

Fiedler believes, a key factor in leadership success to be an individual's basic leadership style. To determine the style of leadership and to investigate the leader effectiveness, he introduced a scale/score, called least preferred co-worker (LPC). It contains sixteen contrasting objectives (such as pleasant - un pleasant, efficient - inefficient, open
guarded, supportive - hostile). The questionnaire, then asks the respondent to think of all the co-workers they have ever had and to describe the one person they least enjoyed working with by rating him on a scale of 1 to 8 for each of the sixteen sets of contrasting adjectives. Based on respondents' answers to this LPC questionnaire, we can determine basic leadership style. A low LPC score (unfavourable evaluation) indicates the leader is willing to reject those with whom he can not work. Therefore, the lower the LPC score, the greater the tendency for the leader to be task oriented. On the other hand, a high LPC score (Favourable evaluation) indicates a greater tendency for the leader to be employee oriented.\(^{(56)}\)

Fiedler states the better the leader - member relations, the more highly structured the jobs, and stronger the position, the more control or influence the leader has. He concluded that task-oriented leaders tend to perform better in situations that were very favourable to them and in situations that were very unfavourable.

2. Path Goal Theory of Robert House:

The second situational theory of leadership was propounded by Robert J. House\(^{(57)}\) in 1971. It is more comprehensive than Fiedler's Contingency Model. The Path Goal-Model proposes that individuals are satisfied with their job if they believe it leads to desirable outcomes. According to Path-Goal Theory, leaders are effective because of the
influence on followers' motivation, ability to perform and their satisfaction. The term Path-Goal is employed because the leader smooths the path to work goals and provides rewards for achieving them.\(^{(58)}\)

According to the Path-Goal Theory, leaders can perform their strategic functions\(^{(59)}\) by adopting the following styles of behaviour:

1. **Instrumental behaviour (Directive):** It gives subordinates rather specific guidance and clarifies what is expected of them. This includes aspects of planning, organising, controlling and coordinating the activities of subordinates by the leader.

2. **Supportive behaviour:** This includes giving consideration to the needs of subordinates, displaying concern for their well being and treats them as his equals.

3. **Participative behaviour:** It is characterised by the sharing of information with the subordinates and consulting them and soliciting their ideas and suggestions in reaching group related decisions.

4. **Achievement oriented behaviour:** The leader adopting this style sets challenging goals, expects the subordinates to perform the highest level continuously seeking improvement in performance.

According to Robert House, two factors are considered situational variables that moderate the relationship between the leader's style and
the behaviour of the subordinate:

1. Characteristics of the subordinates, such as their needs, self-confidence and abilities, and

2. Characteristics of the work environment, including such components as the task, the reward system and the relationship with co-workers.

The Path-Goal theory of leadership has made significant contribution to situational theories because it has identified key leadership styles and situational factors and has shown the relationship between these variables in complex organisational setting.

3. Life-Cycle theory of Leadership:

Paul Harsy and Kenneth H. Blanchard have developed a situational theory of leadership. They call it the "Life-Cycle theory". This explanation is based on the belief that the most effective leadership style varies with the maturity of followers. Maturity is viewed as consisting of two components - job related maturity and psychological maturity. Job related maturity refers to the ability to perform a task. Psychological maturity refers to a person's willingness to perform a job.

Hersey and Blanchard considered the task and relationship behaviour as either high or low and then combined them into four specific leadership styles: telling, selling, participating and delegating. They are described as follows:
1. **Telling** (high task-low relationship): The leader defines roles and tells people what, how, when and where to do various tasks. It emphasises directive behaviour.

2. **Selling** (high task-high relationship): The leader provides both directive behaviour and supportive behaviour.

3. **Participating** (low task - high relationship): The leader and follower share in decision making, with the main role of the leader being facilitating and communicating.

4. **Delegating** (low task - low relationship): The leader provides little direction or support.

Four distinct levels of maturity are:

M1 : Person is unwilling and unable to perform the job.

M2 : Person is unable but willing to perform the job.

M3 : Person is able but unwilling to perform the job.

M4 : Person is able and willing to perform the job.

The life-cycle theory suggests that as the individual matures, the leadership style will change. When an employee is first brought into an organisation, he is considered immature (M1). Therefore, a high task-low relationship style of leadership (telling) is most appropriate to learn the new job. After the employee has learned the job, a high task-high relationship style (selling) is most appropriate.
In the third phase, the employee has now matured (M3) to the point of seeking responsibility and taking the initiative to do the job. The leader would provide emotional support, but should not over direct and initiate structure in terms of task completion (participating style).

Finally, as the follower becomes confident, experienced, and self-motivated, the leader can practice a low task - low relationship style (delegating). A fully matured person (M4) expects to be able to operate with a minimum amount of influence from a leader. This can be considered a situation in which the follower’s maturity and self-direction area substitute for leadership. (61) A person with a high level of skill, experience and self-motivation does not need a leader to structure the job. The four leadership styles are presented in the following figure.

**LIFE-CYCLE THEORY OF LEADERSHIP**

4. Vroom-yetton Model of leadership (Normative Theory):

Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton\(^{(62)}\) have developed a theory known as "Normative theory" of leadership. This theory is on the decision making function of the leader. The behavioural scientists have given the emphasis that the subordinates may be included in the decision making. Vroom-Yetton model of leadership style is mainly based on the assumption that leadership style varies with the number of subordinates who may be effected by the decision and no decision-making style is most suited to all situations and it varies with the change in situation.

Vroom and Yetton have developed five decision making styles based on the degree of employee participation. These styles are:

1. **Autocratic I (AI):** under this style the leader solves all problems and makes a decision by himself based on the information available at the time of decision making.

2. **Autocratic II (AII):** under this style the leader gets the required information from his subordinates and then personally makes decision without the involvement of the subordinates at any stage of the decision making process.

3. **Consultative I (CI):** Under this style the leader shares the problem with the concerned subordinates individually getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. The leader then makes decision at his own discretion.
4. Consultative II (CII): Under this style, the leader shares the problem with his subordinates as a group, collectively getting their suggestions and opinions. Then he makes the decision based on the subordinates suggestions, opinion and influence.

5. Group II (GII): Under this style the leader shares the problem with the subordinates as a group and together generates and evaluates alternatives and attempts to reach a consensus on a solution.

Vroom-Yetton model provides a logical framework for deciding on the proper degree or participation. It distinguishes between five different levels of participation. It also identifies the criteria that may be most appropriate to the decision. If problem is known to the leader and is structured, and there is no problem with the subordinates' acceptance, then decision style Autocratic (AI) is probably most suited. If the problem is complex in nature and the subordinates can be trusted and at the same time if there are a number of possible solutions, then decision style Group II (GII) may be best suitable. Since it is a normative model it gives precise answer to the practising managers. The researches conducted on Vroom-Yetton model supported this model for managerial decision making. This approach is really a step in the right direction in bridging the gap from theory to practice(63).
An approximation of the various styles derived from the studies and theories discussed so far can be incorporated into the continuum shown in the following table. For easy presentation, the styles listed may be substituted for the expressions "boss-centred" and "subordinate-centred" used by Tannenbaum and Schmidt in their classical leadership continuum.

Summary continuum of leadership styles drawn from the Classic Studies and Theories of Leadership\(^\text{64}\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Boss-Centred</th>
<th>Subordinate-Centred</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theory X</td>
<td>Theory Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic</td>
<td>Democratic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production-Centred</td>
<td>Employee-Centred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiating structure</td>
<td>Consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task-directed</td>
<td>Human relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>Supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>Participative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LIKERT'S FOUR SYSTEMS OF MANAGEMENT:

The grid and situational approaches are both highly descriptive and lack empirically validated research backup. In contrast, Rensis Likert\(^\text{64A}\) proposed four basic systems or styles of organisational
leadership that evolved from the many years of research by Michigan group.

The manager who operates under system 1 approach is very authoritarian and actually tries to exploit work group members. The system 2 manager is also authoritarian but in a paternalistic manner. He keeps strict control and never delegates authority to work group members, but he "pats them on the head" and does it for their best interests. The system 3 manager uses a consultative style. This manager asks for and receives participative input from work group but maintains the right to make the final decision. The system 4 manager uses a democratic style. This manager gives some direction to work group but provides for total participation and decision by consensus and majority.

The following table summarises the above four systems of management leadership:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership variable</th>
<th>System 1 (Exploitive autocratic)</th>
<th>System 2 (Benevolent autocratic)</th>
<th>System 3 (Participative)</th>
<th>System 4 (Democratic)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence and Trust in subordinates</td>
<td>Manager has no confidence or trust in subordinates</td>
<td>Manager has partaking confidence and trust such as a master has in a servant</td>
<td>Confidence and Trust in subordinates</td>
<td>Confidence and Trust in subordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinates' feeling of freedom</td>
<td>Subordinates do not feel at all free to discuss things about the job with their superior</td>
<td>Subordinates do not feel very free to discuss about the job with their superiors</td>
<td>Subordinates feel rather free to discuss things about the job with their superior</td>
<td>Subordinates feel completely free to discuss things about the job with superiors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superiors seeking involvement with subordinates</td>
<td>Manager seldom gets ideas and opinion of subordinates in solving job problems.</td>
<td>Manager sometimes gets ideas and opinion of subordinates in solving job problems.</td>
<td>Managers usually gets ideas and opinions and usually tries to make constructive use of them</td>
<td>Manager always asks subordinates for ideas and opinions and always tries to make constructive use of them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.9.5. COMBINING THE LEADERSHIP THEORIES

A framework for understanding and integrating contemporary leadership theory is proposed in the following figure\(^{(65)}\).

**A FRAME WORK FOR COMBINING LEADERSHIP APPROACHES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader’s background and experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leader’s communicative ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader’s Perception of self, subordinates and situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader’s ability to diagnose situation and required behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective Influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task performance and individual and group performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The above framework emphasizes the effect of the leader’s background and experiences on (1) the leader’s qualities such as communicative ability, self-awareness and confidence; and (2) the leader’s perceptions of subordinates, the situation and self. The interaction of all these factors is important in determining the leader’s ability to influence others.
The leader should consider a number of important organisational and environmental variables. The effective leader influences followers in such a manner that high productivity, high group morale, low absenteeism and turnover, and the development of followers are achieved. The above figure specifies only three personal qualities which contribute significantly to a leader's ability to influence others. The three qualities are suited for most leadership styles and are especially compatible with the situational, or contingency, theory of leadership.

One of the most important factors in the situational approach to leadership centres on leader self-awareness. Leaders should be aware of the impact of their behaviours on those they lead, even though they can not predict accurately in every situation how those behaviours will affect followers. Leaders should attempt to learn more about their influence on others.

Every leader must be able to communicate with followers. The leader who fails to communicate with followers may become ineffective as an influencer of others.

An important ability of effective leaders is that they understand themselves, their subordinates and their situation. They must understand the causes and effects of individual motivation and behaviour and group dynamics and behaviour. Leadership training programs should stress diagnostic and adaptability skills. Patience is essential if leaders are to become flexible enough to change their leadership styles.
2.10. **LEADERSHIP IN THE INDIAN CULTURE**

Leadership in Indian organisations has generally been found to be, at best, of the benevolent authoritarian type (Bass 1980; Hair, Porter and Ghiselli, 1966). Hofstede (1980) empirically established, that compared to most other countries India has a high power Distance Index\(^{66}\). Power distance denotes a society’s acceptance of the way in which power is distributed in organisations. In cultures with a high power distance, power is distributed unequally, with a powerful group at the top of the hierarchy making decisions that are highly centralised. Such system usually functions well because those at the lower levels of the hierarchy have a need to feel dependent on others for guidance and administration.

In many proprietary organisations, a certain amount of the paternalistic attitude prevails. As contrast to these, there are many organisations which put high emphasis on supportive leadership. Thus the total position appears to be a mixture, and the real situation in this context can be appreciated only when a detailed account of various practices is taken for consideration. Myers\(^{67}\) concludes that barring a few, most Indian top managers are relatively authoritarian in their relationships with lower management and labour. Similar result has also been high lighted by Ganguli\(^{68}\) in his study of leadership behaviour in state - owned engineering company. Rangaswamy\(^{69}\) in his study of leadership behaviour found that Indian managers are more employee -
oriented due to Indian culture and religious pattern which influences towards helpfulness and peaceful co-operation.

The study of Jaggi\(^{(70)}\) concludes that prevailing leadership styles appear to be between benevolent autocracy and consultative type. The study further indicates that the leadership style is associated with various factors such as of the executives, their positions and functions and the size of the organisations. Thus, younger managers and less authoritarian managers in bigger sized companies are less authoritarian; and the managers in production and technical areas are more authoritarian.

Managerial styles are determined by a host of factors such as forces in superiors, subordinates and situations, it is unlikely to expect a uniform leadership style. Indian work organisations, from this point of view, can be classified into three parts which have some distinctive features and consequently the different leadership styles. Such classification may be: \(^{(71)}\)

a. family - managed traditional organisations,

b. Professionally managed Indian organisations and foreign owned organisations, and

c. Public sector organisations.

In family - managed traditional organisations the most prevalent style is autocratic. Sons and grandsons of the entrepreneurs are automatically promoted without any consideration of efficiency or overall
suitability. Thus there is management by inheritance or management by chromosomes with the result that these organisations are highly centralised in their organisation structure and are authoritarian in their approach. Dasgupta(72) points out that the proprietary character of business and large scale participation of family members in it have made the attitude of the head of the business, who is also the head of the family, highly paternalistic. The same paternalistic attitude extends to the employees and has developed a set of values in an employer vis-a-vis his employees.

The organisations in the private sector owned by Indian or by multinationals have appreciable degree of participation or democratic leadership. The reason is that multinationals bring not only their technology but also the work culture which is more permissive and conducive towards the application of modern approach of management. As such, the degree of participation is greater in such organisations. However, participative management does not imply elimination of authority.

The third category of organisations is in public sector. Here, bureaucratic style is more prevalent owing to the work culture inherited by public sector managers. Initially, public sector organisations were manned by civil servants who brought a lot of bureaucratic culture with them. The net result is that the entire organisation processes are governed by bureaucratic model and works against participative style,
Sinha (1976) found that authoritative leadership is often preferred by employees in Indian organisations. Such leadership depicts a strong task orientation and a strong personal involvement and effort by the leader. While this may have been true in the past, a question that we should ask ourselves is whether such a leadership style will be functional in the future. The changing demographics of the work force, at least in the urban cities in India have to be taken into consideration as we examine the concept of effective leadership styles. Those working in urban organisations in India are younger, more educated and technically better trained than their counterparts of the previous generation. With this changing composition of the work force, a different leadership style is perhaps called for to better utilise the skills and expertise of the younger generation. An authoritarian style of leadership is obviously not the best suited to tap the full potential of today's well-trained, and relatively less dependant employees. In fact, the need for dependence on others that had hitherto been a characteristic of the older generation in India, may be yielding place to a need for autonomy and participative experiences desired by the younger, more educated generation of new employees. If such is indeed the case, a more situational approach to leadership taking the abilities and aspirations of the employees into consideration, would appear to be more appropriate for India today. Further, there are certain perceptible changes-changes that require greater participation. Unionism at workplace, professionalisation of management,
rapid industrial growth and technological changes demand for more autonomy and interdisciplinary approach by new generation and democratic way of living have demanded more participation. Therefore, a move towards participative style has already begun in enlightened companies in India. There are various such organisations in public sector and private sector in India following such style. However it should not be taken for granted that this style may be suitable in all circumstances. A particular style requires work culture. Looking into the future, work culture may be changed to suit participative style because authoritarian work culture is unlikely to succeed in future. However, it does not mean that managers should follow participative styles without considering the total situations.
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