CHAPTER - 1

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1.00 Introduction:

An individual is born in the biological process but his functions are largely governed and regulated by the psychological process. Genetic inheritance contributes to some extent to the development of individual differences, but the individuality is largely shaped and moulded by his socio-cultural environments. The socialization process and social learning experiences build up his personality and equip him with a specific pattern of cognitive process. An individual is said to be individual because he has acquired a distinctive pattern of cognitive style personality and as a trait of his personality and a specific level of motivational process, apart from such other functional attributes.

The goal setting behaviour of an individual and realization of organizational objectives, therefore, largely depend upon the nature, kind and quality of personnel engaged in functional processes and industrial operations of any industrial organization.
1.10 Motivation: A key to Human Resource Management

"Motivation is the strength of the predisposition of an individual to engage in goal-directed action or activity on the job. It is not a feeling of relative satisfaction with various job outcomes but is more akin to a readiness or willingness to work at accomplishing the job's goals" (Bedelian, 1980).

It is, thus, a process of regulating, directing, arousing and sustaining the human behaviour and action. Numerous psychologists, such as Murray (1938), Maslow (1954), Tolman (1932), Moreno, (1971), Vroom (1964) have developed and enriched the concept of motivation through their thinking and research.

The goals of the employee and the objectives of the organization play a vital role in developing employee motivation and perception. The goal of an organization often gives incentives to the members working in the organization, in the form of monetary and non-monetary rewards for achieving specified levels of production and sales. The individual employee acquire and attain that level of motivation which ensures his credibility in the open market in terms of power, status and prestige; and such a process of organizational identification helps not only the individual employee to restore his prestigious position but also helps the organization to grow.
barnard (1938) points out that the personal goals and motives of an organization’s members may or may not be the goals of the formal organization. There must be a mutual understanding between the management and the workers to make the management run effectively. Managers should recognize, for example, that not all persons are motivated by the same incentives. One person might feel motivated to work harder by an increase in pay; another might barely respond to any change in income. Some individuals might be highly motivated by the opportunity to have more responsibility on the job; others may be frightened of additional responsibility.

There are mainly two types of motivational approaches to management:

(1) The Traditional Approach
(2) The Modern Approach

Traditional types of managers believe that most people dislike work and will be best motivated by fear and financial reward. They believe that if more individuals will work they will respond to more productivity when the fear of suspension, demotion, or dismissal hangs over their head. Fear can motivate in the short run, but often in the longer run it merely motivates.

The modern approach to motivational management makes greater use of positive factors, such as recognition, status and responsibility, than of the negative factors.
preferred by the traditional managers. The modern manager recognizes that all persons have needs, and that not every one places the same value or priority on the objects or situations that satisfy needs.

Motivation reflects a person's desire to fulfil certain needs. On the other hand, frustration occurs when a person's movement towards an incentive or goal is blocked by some obstacles. Frustration can lead to either the positive constructive activities or to destructive activities, depending upon the situation and the individual. In some situations frustration results in increased energy being directed towards problem solving, or it may lead to aggression, resignation and withdrawal. Frustration refers to a conflict between the individual and his external environment which prevents him from achieving his goals.

The significance of Motivation as crucial to productivity has been established by numerous studies. Hawthorne studies (Exponents: Taylor, Gilbreth, Mayo, Roethlisberger; between 1924-1939) of the western Electrical Company were conducted into four phases indicating the significance of human relations and employees participation in management development over physical conditions like effects of illuminations, rest pauses, length of working days, etc. The shift from physical conditions to human factors directly reveals the significance of participative behaviour. (Viteles, 1933), job involvement and harmonious human
relations between management and employees. The Hawthorne studies indicated that the factors of motivation and morale are more important in production than the physical changes in the environment. Morale of the employees is increased when both types of mental and material satisfaction are increased. Thus, productivity has been found to be largely a function of human factor elements like motivation and morale and socio-emotional climate of the factory rather than physical environment (Mayo and Roethlisberger, 1935). The findings obtained by Vroom (1964), Likert (1961) on Michigan studies, Shartle (1952) on Ohio-State leadership studies, Selz (1952) on International Harvester Company, Herzberg (1957) are more or less consistent to the Hawthorne four phased results. Buse (1956) too conforms that "increased productivity is the acknowledged means of attaining the end of increased national wealth. Productivity depends upon the alround efficiency of the level of performance of an industrial organization. Efficiency, in turn, depends upon factors relating to material, plant equipment, designing and planning, and those contributing to human efficiency of all grades of personnel concerned in the organization.

1.11 Theoretical Foundations of Motivation:

Motivation is a strong inner drive which pushes an organism towards a certain goal. Motive is invisible, it is an active form of desire which helps an individual
to work towards a particular goal. The motivation of an individual can be studied through his performance.

Junnette (1976) has considered performance as a function of ability and motivation. And in the language of the contingency approach, the performance can be expressed and explained in the equation form as under:

\[
\text{Performance} = f (\text{ability} \times \text{motivation})
\]

\[
(1) \quad (2)
\]

or \[
\text{Performance} = f (\text{aptitude level} \times \text{skill level} \times \text{understanding level of the task} \times \text{choice to expend effort} \times \text{choice of degree of effort} \times \text{choice to persist} \times \text{facilitating and inhibiting conditions not under the control of the individual}).
\]

An analysis of these functional relationships reveals that motivation may be thought in terms of:

(a) Direction: \text{the choice to initiate effort on a certain task.}

(b) Amplitude: \text{the choice to expend certain amount of effort, and}

(c) Persistence: \text{the choice to persist in expending effort over a period of time.}

Thus, it can be said that motivation has direction, amplitude and persistence of an individual holding constant efforts of aptitude, skill, and understanding of the task.
A deeper understanding of motivation, we can get by studying various theories of motivation.

Campbell, Lawler et al (1970) have considered motivation from the points of view of (1) mechanical, and (ii) substantive theories which have been presented as the process and content oriented theories. The process oriented theories attempt to define and explain:

(1) Choice
(2) Efforts
(3) Persistence

in terms of
of

(1) Incentive
(2) Drive
(3) Reinforcement
(4) Expectancy

Thus, the process-oriented theories which could be said to be "The How Theories" include:

(1) Drive Theory
(2) Reinforcement Theory
(3) Expectancy Theory, and
(4) Equity Theory.

The content-oriented theories, on the other hand which could be said to be "the what theories" attempt to explain motivation in terms of: (1) Rewards; (2) Salary; (3) Promotion; (4) Job-Security; (5) Recognitions; (6) Job-performance; etc.

The process-oriented theories, therefore, could be discussed and interpreted on the theoretical backgrounds of the psychologists like Thorndike (1932), Hull (1952), Spence (1950), Hebb (1949), Tolman (1932) and Atkinson (1965)
whereas the content-oriented theories could be analysed on the theoretical groundings of Freud (1946), McDougall (1908), Murray (1938), McClelland (1953), Maslow (1954), and Lewin (1951) who explicitly rejected reinforcement history as a predictor of behaviour and preferred to know what value the individual expected from certain actions. But Skinner (1948) rejected the concept of drive, Need, Tension and other internal states, and explained everything in terms of reinforcement contingency. From these theoretical base, three clear cut positions exist:

(1) Hull (1952) combined reinforcement history and drive and need state.
(2) Lewin (1951) combined need state and the incentive value (valency of outcomes).
(3) Skinner (1948) focused exclusively on the organism's reinforcement history.

### 1.1.1 Cognitive Process Theories of Motivation:

According to recent developments in the motivational studies, the cognitive process theories as analysed and presented by Lewin (1938) and Tolman (1932) include the following motivational theories:

(1) A Model of Human Decision Making (Edward, 1961)
(3) Theory of work motivation (Vroom, 1964)
Dunnette (1976), however, has included the following theories, while presenting a summary of recent developments in motivational studies: Vroom (1964, 1965), Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick (1970), Lawler (1971, 1973), Heneman (1972), Wachler and Hobley (1973), House and Wabba (1972), Miner and Wachler (1973), Mitchell (1974) who conducted some of the significant researches on motivation.

Broadly, the cognitive process theories could be classified under two heads: (i) Expectancy theories, and (ii) Equity theories. Some of the significant expectancy motivational models are:

I) Vroom's VIE Model of work motivation
II) Graen's Model: An extension of Vroom's Model
III) Porter and Lawler's: Expectancy Model.

A brief description of each of these three motivational models in view of their significance in motivational studies has been presented as under:

(I) Vroom's VIE Model of work Motivation:

The Vroom's (1964) model attempts to predict (i) choice among task or (ii) choice among effort level within task. He has formulated one of the more popular versions of expectancy theory and his interpretation is based upon three concepts (i) Valence, (ii) instrumentality and (iii) expectancy.
Valence represents the value, which a particular outcome has for a person. It reflects the strength of a person's desire for or attraction toward the outcomes of particular courses of action.

Instrumentality reflects the person's perception of the relationship between a "first-level outcome" (such as high performance) and a "second-level outcome" (such as a promotion). It refers to the perceived contingency, that one outcome has for the other.

Expectancy refers to the extent to which an individual feels that his efforts will lead to the first-level outcome. It refers to the perceived relationship between a given degree of effort, expenditure and a given level of performance.

It is evident that Vroom's theory is a function of expectancy and perception of future consequences.

The model depends upon:

(i) The value an individual anticipates for each outcome in an exhaustive list of outcomes.

(ii) The degree to which each outcome is perceived as being contingent on various levels of performance, and

(iii) The perceived probability that an individual can attain each of those levels of performance.
(II) Green's Model: An Extension of Vroom's Model:

Green (1969) broadened the conceptual base (Expectancy x Valency) Model by incorporating theoretical notions from Attitude Theory, Role Theory and Interpersonal Attraction Theory. The model could be sketched as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utility</th>
<th>Expectancy</th>
<th>Attraction of performance</th>
<th>Instrumentality of performance</th>
<th>Attraction to outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effort level</td>
<td>leads to performance</td>
<td>goal</td>
<td>i.e. level promotion, for attaining the outcome</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Path
1. Goal
   - Utility
     - Superior effort
     - Effective performance
     - (1)
   - External pressures toward superior effort
     - Perception of effort levels
     - Other persons expected him to exert (x) by the perceived amount of pressure those persons would apply to influence his compliance
   - Internal pressure toward superior effort
     - Attraction to various intrinsic consequences of superior efforts (x) the expectancy that superior effort will lead to these consequences.

Probability of superior effort = (1) + (2) + (3) = path goal utility (+) external pressure towards superior effort (+) internal pressures towards superior effort.
(III) Porter & Lawler's expectancy theory:

Porter and Lawler (1968) conceptualized value of reward as similar to corresponding concepts in the other models that it refers to the perceived attractiveness of possible extrinsic and intrinsic outcomes to the individual. However, he singled out that (i) value of Reward (valence) and (ii) Effort Reward Probability or perceived contingency between effort expenditure and obtaining certain specific rewards could be considered as determinants of expectancy behaviour. He estimated that perceived probability would be equal to performance depending upon the efforts. He hypothesized that the amount of effort an individual will expend toward performing is multipli-cative function of the perceived value of rewards and the perceived contingency between expending effort and obtaining reward. Thus according to him:

$$P = \text{(value of Reward} \times \text{Effort Reward Probability)}$$

He made use of two feedback notions. These are:

(i) Reinforcement history affects cognition: According to him, over time, the perceived effort reward contingency will change as a result of the actual reward practices that are followed by the organisation (extrinsic) and the individual (intrinsic); and

(ii) The effect of left satisfaction with a reward on subsequent anticipated value or satisfaction will also function as feed back.
Lawler (1971, 1973) modified his expectancy theory by elaborating the parameters that determine an individual's expectancy that effort will lead to task accomplishment and thus the inclusion of "effort as an instrument in task accomplishment" was considered as a third feedback loop in his model.

On the strength of the theoretical discussions as described above, a composite expectancy-valence model (Runnette, 1976) has been sketched as under:

**Composite Expectancy Valence Model based on VII (Valence x Instrumentality x Expectancy) Theory:**

1. Force to expend specific level of effort that specific level of effort will/will not accomplish task
2. Expectancy of task goal accomplishment of failure
3. Valence of goal outcome satisfaction
4. Instrumentality of job formed of basic needs
5. Valency of job outcomes
6. Instrumentality of failure in accomplishment of basic needs

Thus, within the organization itself, effort is a function of three determinants:

1. The **expectancy** that effort will lead to task accomplishment.
(ii) The instrumentality of task accomplishment for obtaining or avoiding task contingent outcomes and

(iii) The valence of the outcomes

\[ \text{Effort} = (E \times V \text{ of performance}) \]  

\[ \text{Effort} = (E \times I \times V \text{ of task contingent outcome}) \]

B: Adams' Equity Theory: Adams (1963) gave out equity theory, which relates to exchange theory. It is concerned with each person's feeling of fairness about the rewards received from an organization. Lawler (1968) remarked that the two models i.e. the VIE and Equity model really are not in conflict. Adams (1963) has hypothesized that individuals have a concept of fair payment and departures from "fairness" changes the perceived value (valence of money). Thus we agree with Lawler (1973) that Equity model can be subsumed under the general VIE model which in turn influences the valence of outcomes.

Later on, Lawler (1968) conducted a study to show the relation between equity theory and expectancy theory and found that the two models really are not in conflict. The differentiate statement given below reveals the relation of equity to expectancy Theory as perceived by Lawler.
Under payment | Over payment

**Incentive**

(1) Equity theory predicts more quantity and lower quality. | Equity theory predicts higher quality and lower quantity.

(2) The VIE model predicts the same thing depending on the cost associated with a minimal increase in effort balanced against the increased financial reward. Equity theory must take the same trade off into consideration. | Presumably the VIE model would predict higher quantity and similar quality depending on what was really perceived as being rewarded; and thus, the VIE prediction would conflict with equity theory. However, this assumes the valence of money does not change, and that other outcomes do not become salient.

**Hourly**

(1) Equity theory predicts a decrease in quality and/or quantity depending on which is the cheapest | Equity theory predicts higher quality and/or quantity depending on which reduces the imbalance more efficiently.

(2) The VIE model would predict the same if the individual was trying to avoid the outcome of being fired presumably. The performance required to avoid firing would be less for a lower paid situation. | The VIE model might predict the same thing if the individual perceives that a higher level of performance is required to keep the job.
1.112 Content Oriented Theories of Motivation:

The content-oriented theories explain the 'what' aspect of motivation. Some of the representative content-oriented theories that have been discussed by Dunnette's (1976), are -

(1) Need Theory (Murray, 1938)
(2) Need Hierarchy Theory (Maslow, 1954)
(3) DEC Model (Efferer's 1969, 1972).
(4) Content Models of performance outcomes:
   (a) Two-factor theory: (Motivation-Maintenance Model): (Herzberg, 1966).
   (b) Theory X and Theory Y: (McGregor, 1960).

A brief description of these theoretical models, therefore, has been given below:

(1) Murray's Need Theory:

Murray (1938) hypothesized the existence of a relatively large number of needs which each and every human being attempts to satisfy. According to Murray, there are about twenty basic needs which the individual tries to satisfy. The following list and abbreviated definitions are abstracted from Hull and Lindzey's (1957) presentation of Murray's theory.

(1) Abasement: Takes into consideration the external force such as to accept injury, blame, criticism, punishment, to surrender, to become resigned to late.
(2) **Achievement:** To accomplish something difficult. To master, manipulate, or organize, physical objects human beings, or ideas. To do this as rapidly and as independently as possible.

(3) **Affiliation:** The almost prehistoric notion that men's nature is to participate in social interaction.

(4) **Aggression:** To overcome opposition forcefully. To fight.

(5) **Autonomy:** To avoid or quit activities prescribed by domineering authorities. To be independent and free to act according to impulse.

(6) **Counteraction:** To master or to make up for a failure by re-striving. To overcome weakness, to repress fear.

(7) **Defiance:** To defend the self against assault, criticism and blame.

(8) **deference:** To admire and support a superior. To praise, honour or eulogize.

(9) **Dominance:** To influence or direct the behaviour of others by suggestion, order, reduction, persuasion, or command.

(10) **Exhibition:** To make an impression. To be seen and heard.

(11) **Harms Avoidance:** To avoid pain, physical injury, illness and death.
(12) **Infatuation**: To quit embarrassing situations or to avoid conditions which may lead to belittlement: the scorn, derision, or indifference of others.

(13) **Nurture**: To give sympathy and gratify the needs of a helpless object.

(14) **Order**: To achieve cleanliness, arrangement, organization, balance, neatness, tidiness and precision.

(15) **Play**: To act for 'fun' without further purpose.

(16) **Rejection**: To separate oneself from a negatively watched object.

(17) **Sentience**: To seek and enjoy sensuous impressions.

(18) **Sex**: To form and enjoy sensuous impression

(19) **Succorance**: To have one's needs gratified by the sympathetic aid of an allied objects.

(20) **Understanding**: To ask or answer general questions.

To be interested in theory.

However, Murray's list and his accompanying definitions were not based on empirical research. Rather, they represent his conceptualization of what internal states govern human behaviour and were generated from his clinical experience and observation. Nevertheless it is worthy to mention here that almost every 'need' appearing in twentieth century literature of organizational psychology appear in the list provided by Murray.
(2) Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory:

One of the most widely discussed theories of motivation was developed by Maslow (1954). His Need-Hierarchy theory assumes that man's needs can be visualized in a hierarchy, with each correspondingly higher-level need becoming a motivator as the next lower need is fulfilled. The theory postulates that people are continuously in a motivational states, and that as one desire becomes satisfied another arises to take its place. The basic of Maslow's theory is the notion that needs at a particular level of the hierarchy must be largely, satiated before the needs at the next higher level become operative. This is not to say that the two levels cannot be operative at the same time, but the needs at the lower level take precedence. It is assumed that if the lower level needs are substantially satisfied in our society, they may never actually be very important for energizing and directing behaviour. He broadly classified these needs into two categories, i.e. (1) the Deficiency Needs, and (ii) the Self-actualizing Needs. He postulated that unless and until the deficiency needs are satisfied, the question of satisfying the self-actualizing needs does not arise.

The basic outline of Maslow's hierarchy from the lowest level to the highest level is as follows:

1. Physiological needs, 2. Safety needs, 3. Social needs,
The former three constitutes the deficiency needs whereas the latter two can be said to be 'self-actualizing needs'.

Maslow's characterization of human needs is not based on any empirical foundation, but was derived primarily from Maslow's clinical experience.

(3) **Alferfer's ERC Model:**

Alferfer (1969, 1972) developed his ERC model of need satisfaction in which he has focused mainly on three types of needs. They are: (1) Existence Needs, (ii) Relatedness needs, (iii) Growth Needs. He considered existence needs as physiological needs, Related needs as social needs and growth needs as physical needs. He posulated that satisfaction of these needs actualize the relative motives of the individuals whereas need frustration would adversely affect the cognition and psychomotor activities of the individual.

(4) **Content Models of Performance outcome:**

(a) **Herzeberg's Two-factor Theory:**

Frederick Herzeberg (1966) a well-known management theorist is probably best known for another theory of motivation - the 'Motivation = Maintenance Model'. His research indicates two sets of factors or conditions which influence the behaviour of individuals in organization. The first set provides an almost neutral feeling among the workers of an organization but if withdrawn creates
dissatisfaction. These are called Maintenance of hygiene factors. The second set is termed motivational. When present, it is said to cause job-satisfaction, the factors serving as motivators or satisfiers. Absence of the satisfiers, however, will not cause dissatisfaction. A comparative view of the two sets of factors is given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational factors</th>
<th>Maintenance (Hygiene) factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) work-itselv achievement</td>
<td>(1) Interpersonal Relations Supervisions, peers, subordinates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) responsibility</td>
<td>(2) Supervision - Technical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) recognition advancement</td>
<td>(3) Company Policy and Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) status</td>
<td>(4) Job-security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) salary</td>
<td>(5) Working conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) salary</td>
<td>(6) Working conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) personal life</td>
<td>(7) Personal life.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The theory states that only "Motivations" can motivate behaviour, fulfilment of the hygiene factors simply prevents an employee from becoming dissatisfied, but cannot contribute to positive satisfaction.

(b) Content Theories of Motivation of McGregor and Likert:

Mcgregor (1960) has posulated two theories, popularly known as theory 'X' and theory 'Y'. Theory 'X' assumptions take into consideration the following points:
(1) "Workers dislike work and try to avoid it.
(2) They have little ambition, avoid responsibility and prefer direction.
(3) They want security.
(4) They have to be controlled, threatened to achieve company goal.
(5) People naturally resist change; they prefer to stay in the old ruts.
(6) People work mostly for money and status rewards.
(7) The main force keeping people productive in their work is fear of being demoted or fired.

Theory Y's assumptions take into consideration the following things:

(1) Workers seek responsibility if conditions are favourable.
(2) They prefer self direction.
(3) They want rewards.
(4) They want opportunities to contribute significantly to organisational goals.
(5) People naturally tire of monotonous routine and enjoy new experiences; in some degree every one is creative.
(6) People seek many satisfactions in work: pride in achievement; enjoyment of process; sense of contribution; pleasure in association; stimulation of new challenges, etc.
The main force keeping people productive in their work is desire to achieve their personal and social goals.

Thus, the former theory posulates a traditional view of idle and pains withdrawal attitude of the employees, whereas the latter theory contemplates the integration of goals by hard labour and goal attainment drive. The two theories thus reveal the motivational levels of the high and the low motivated employees. Likert (1961) has developed a supportive theory of motivation parallel to what McGregor (1960) has said. His first factor i.e. job organization compares with A theory of McGregor's whereas his second factor, i.e. cooperative motivation supports the attributes of McGregor's Y theory. Both the theories profounded by McGregor (1960) and Likert (1961) are known as management theories and have their relative significance in management development.

Three level work motivation
(c) Model of Uday Pareek (1974)

Uday Pareek (1974) developed a three level work motivation level, characterizing the role of organization and the individuals in the work motivation or job-satisfaction of the employees, at the organizational level he emphasized that the organizational role is significantly affected by the motivational climate prevalent in the organization, according to him the motivational climate of organization is determined by three factors:
(1) Organization structure
(2) Reinforcing mechanism
(3) Organizational goal

The total interactional effect of these three organizational factors determine the motivational climate which subsequently decide the role played by the organization in work motivation.

At the individual level the author singled out that the expectancy behaviour of the individual which is determined by primarily three individual factors; namely - (1) His personality, (2) Needs, (3) Perception of Goal and Goal setting behaviour, decides the level of role that the individual can play in the process of remoting his work motivation and job satisfaction.

At the third level of work motivation, Uday Pareek points out that the roles of the individual and the organization have its unique consequences in work motivation and job satisfaction, which according to him are determined by role interactional pattern and role perception and its acceptance. Work motivation in terms of need commitment is determined on one hand by role interactional patterns and on the other hand by role perception and its acceptance. Further role performance in the organizational behaviour thus or the consequences of work motivation, role interactional patterns and role perception and acceptance.
The three level work motivational model has made provision for feed-back at three levels:

1. At individual level, with respect to the perception of goal and goal setting behaviour of the individual;

2. At the organizational level, with the organization (goal) and

3. At the work motivation (need commitment) as such Udai Pareek's model of work motivation provides enough insight in the problems of work motivation and has its unique significance in promoting motivational climate and expectancy behaviour of the individual through his role performance.

The model as such presents a global view of the industrial interactions of the organizational and individual behaviour through their role performance, in the process of maximizing work motivation and job-satisfaction through feedback systems.
1.12 Need Motivations:

Concepts and Characteristics:

Murray (1938) has visualized relatively a large number of need motivations, out of which Need for Achievement (n Ach), Need for power (n Power), Need for Approval (n Approval) and Need for Affiliation (n Aff) have gained research currency and significance in the industrial-cum-organizational-cum-managerial aspects of Psychology. In the light of the relative relevance and significance of research on the four need motivations as specified above, they have been categorically taken up for conceptual elaboration and attribution.

1.121 Achievement motivation:

According to Vroom (1964), "achievement motivation is an energizing condition of the individuals leading him to many situations to seek high standard of performance". In our day to day life it has been found that achievement motivated persons are the best source of competent leadership in the nation's organisation, and those persons with more achievement motivation tend to rise at the highest portion. Achievement motivated persons seek accomplishment for its own sake. They are not strongly "Money-Hungry" although they may acquire wealth in their drive to achieve. Achievement motivated persons are characterised as risk-takers, having high competitive spirit, and a sense of challenge, accomplishment,
and service to others. Monetary rewards are more a lure to people low in achievement motivation. The irony of all this is that the entrepreneurs and business leaders, since they are usually high in achievement drives, turn out to be the ones who are not as money-motivated as many others are. It is estimated that about ten per cent of the people in the United States are highly achievement motivated.

Achievement motivation obviously is not innate, it is acquired according to the situations and circumstances; it is concerned with evaluating performance in the light of a standard of excellence. The research literature concentrate primarily upon the normoral value of doing a good job (Crandall, 1963). Theoretically a small discrepancy between the standard and performance will produce a positive evaluation; while a large discrepancy will produce a negative evaluation. Intellectual achievement is remarkably stable over time (Moss and Kagan, 1961).

The achievement motivated individuals are categorized mainly under two levels: (1) the high achievers and (2) the low achievers.

High achievers persons are more independent in problem solving, more pleased with success, more self-reliant in competition, and are more willing to delay immediate gratification than are low achievers. They are more moderate risk-takers, in contrast to low achievers,
who tend to either play in very sale or undertake specta-
cular ventures. The picture of the self-reliant,
assertive, competitive achiever fits nicely into the non-
moral value system of the American way of life. Third-
grade achievers are more guilty than their non-achieving
counterparts, while seventh graders are more willing to
be destructive in order to win out over others.

Gravettall (1963) suggested that achievement is
congruent with the sex-typed values of boys but not
necessarily congruent with those of girls. A girl's
motivation to achieve will be reflected in her academic
standards only if she perceives high achievement as
being properly feminine. If she regards it as unfeminine
for some reason, her academic aspirations remain hidden
or suppressed. Achievement in girls is part of a large
trait of sociability. They accomplish educational goals
in order to gain extrinsic social goals of approval and
attention. Boys are more work-oriented, and achievement
is an end in itself.

High achievement motivation is built, out of
successful attempts at problem solving, as in learning
to walk, talk, or read. Persons high in achievement
motivation will have been more frequently forced to master
problems on their own and at an earlier age than subjects
low in achievement motivation. It has mostly been seen
that if parents do not provide the child with challenging
opportunities for mastery, or if they fail to present him
with standard of excellence that when met are associated
with positive affect, the child cannot develop strong
achievement motivation. It is evident that early train-
ing in independence and mastery contributed to the develop-
ment of strong achievement motivation.

Characteristics of High Achievement Motivated Persons:

(1) Persons with higher achievement motivation may
display greater stress than those with lower ones because
of their competition based success-orientedness. This
differential coping processes with the stressful situations
of the life equip them with a differential pattern of
cognitive style.

(2) High achievement motivation is the single driving
force which promotes ego-strength and accelerates vertical
mobility with a view to become the members of the achieving
society.

(3) Success in the competition with a rare sense of
creating a standard of excellence or unique accomplishment
and a long term ego-involvement in the task undertaken
with sustained efforts are the three primary criteria of
persons possessing high achievement motivation.

(4) High achievement motivated are success-oriented
persons of greater ego-strength and sustained ego-involve-
ment in the work which they initiate with a rare sense of
competition and challenge; they might display greater amount of stress under the conditions of threat or harm. Obviously, the task-oriented behaviour actualize them to carry moderate level of Aachenik effect in the process of meeting the challenge that they undertake.

(5) The high n Ach persons realize hopes of success which promote their ego strength and level of self-confidence.

(6) Achievement motivated persons are directed towards certain end results, that are produced by one's own ability; namely, to achieve success and to avoid failure. They are characterized as result-oriented persons.

(7) High Achievement motivated persons have got the sense of challenge, accomplishment and need for service to others.

realization of the significance of achievement motivation, not only in personal growth but also in national development, motivated many researchers working in the fields of organizational/managerial and other allied areas of psychology to investigate its role in certain walks of life. Consequently we are, today, having sizable empirical data to speak about its significance in life. As such, an attempt has been made, here, to provide a brief view of the results of the outstanding studies on achievement motivation, which constitutes the content of Chapter II.
1.122 **Approval Motivation:**

Approval Motivation like many other psychological constructs, e.g. social desirability, attitude, etc. poses a significant problem. Approval motivation has also remained to be a controversial issue, with socially desirable behaviour which is largely determined by cultural norms of a society. The concept of social desirability refers to the extent to which a person or respondent acquiescence to statements that depict some behaviours, attitudes, or dispositions that are in conformity with the norms, values and aspirations of the social spectrum of which the respondent is a member.

The subsequent effectiveness of social approval may therefore be attributable to a need for reassurance created by an anxiety provoking situation, rather than to social deprivation.

**Characteristics:**

(1) Higher degree of approval motive would agree to greater number and varieties of social desirability.

(2) Approval motivation can lead to a consistent over-estimation of the positivity of many social attitudes.

(3) Approval motivation helps an individual to reflect his or her feelings about the attitude objects rather than a desire for a positive self-presentation.
Approval motive persons are more cautious in setting goals, in a risk-taking situation.

Persons with high need for approval are unable to behave in autonomous, self-assertive way, and they avoid taking introspectively about themselves.

1.123 Affiliation Motivation:

Affiliation motivation is a drive to relate to people. It is a sociogenic motive in which interpersonal attraction plays a significant role. Shipley and Veroff (1952) have conceptualized two aspects of affiliation motivation: (a) seeking affiliation because of the pleasant stimulus reward value of the affiliative relationship which McClelland (1951) calls 'approach Behaviour', (b) seeking affiliation because of the painful stimulus value of rejection which McClelland (1951) termed as 'avoidance Behaviour'. Persons with affiliation motives work better when they are complimented for their favourable attitude and cooperation, they select friends to surround them.

Motivation that induces people to seek the company of others is one of the most interesting of all the motives that activate and direct man's social behaviour. The first and foremost nature of a man is to participate in social interaction. Theoretical analyses that differentiate biogenic motives from sociogenic motives have brought most contemporary social scientists to the conclusion that man
is motivated to participate affiliatively with others, which, in turn, is a product of several kinds of social learning.

In affiliation motivation, one may gain status by identifying himself with highly prestigious groups (e.g., joining the "proper" fraternity.

The concept of affiliation, therefore, could be considered as concern with other person as social object. Affiliation with other people may in some cases be instrumental to the satisfaction of other needs, allowing the individuals to use his interaction with others to attain a variety of personal goals, including the supportive reduction of anxiety under threat. Affiliation, on the other hand, may also be thought of as a quest for approval and acceptance by others, conceiving of motivation to seek social approval as an autonomous system of goal-directed behaviour.

1.124 Power Motivation:

The power motive relates to the desire to get others to behave in ways that suit one's purposes, and to prevent others from controlling your own behaviour to fulfil their purposes. Power might be sought individually or through a group. Use of power tactics is common in all organizations to a smaller or greater extent. Michael Macaulay (1978) has described power as "jungle fighters". They are people who operate by seduction, manipulation and
betrayal (the foxes), and those who dominate through superior ideas, courage and strength (the lions). Excessive use of power tactics can be costly to the organisation as it drains energy that might otherwise be spent on collaboration.

The expression of aggression and power in our culture is influenced by socialization. Social dominance represents manipulative power over other people and, as such, is frequently regarded as a learned sociogenic motive. The dominance of adults over children is condoned in our society, and to a limited extent, the dominance of male over female is the socially conventional pattern in martial relationship. Horney (1939), Komarovsky (1946), de Beauvoir (1953) and Friedan (1963) suggested that our culture's tendency to thwart and frustrate the family of power motives in the female produces an inordinate amount of conflict for women in our society. Greiner (1967) has distributed power into three categories. These are:

1) **Unilateral Power**: The use of unilateral power to initiate change may take any of three forms:
   (i) the decree approach
   (ii) the replacement approach
   (iii) the structural approach.

2) **Shared Power**: Shared powers are those approaches which rely on shared power, where "authority" is still present and used, yet there is also interaction and sharing of power. The shared exercise
of power as a means of implementing change may take either of the two forms, viz.,
(1) The group decision approach, and
(2) The group problem-solving approach.

Delegated Power: Delegated powers are almost completely responsible for defining and acting on problems if turned over to the subordinates. The use of delegated power may take one of the two forms, viz.,
(1) Data Discussion Approach and
(2) Sensitivity Training Approach.

Handy (1976, 1979), developed a topology of organizational ideologies or cultures, namely: the power-culture, the role-culture, the task-culture, and the person-culture. Thus, power is an aspect of organizational life - one of the essential spices - that OD and GD are often accused of ignoring (Friedlander and Brown, 1974, Srivastava, 1975). Srivastava and Brown (1974) have asserted that 'Power' Corrupts, powerlessness corrupts absolutely.

Lukes (1974) has described three steps towards an encompassing view of power.

First, power is not only manifested through decision-making (or non-decision-making) but also through the overall bias of the social and political system towards consideration of certain issues and exclusion of others.
Second, power is not only associated with observable conflict, but may also be used to shape desires and stop conflict from raising.

Third, power is not present only when there are grievances.

Power in the society, thus, includes, the power to determine, decisive socialisation processes, and the power to produce reality.

Huckabay (1975) has argued in connection with the women's movement that the most important tool for maintaining any particular social form or relationship is this power to define reality: a power which is developed and maintained through control over reality defining processes and institutions. Thus power is used to prescribe what is and what is not, what may or may not be considered and discussed.

Harrison (1972) argues that an organization that is power oriented attempts to dominate its environment and vanquish all oppositions. It is unwilling to be the subject to any external law or power. And within the organization those who are powerful strive to maintain absolute control over subordinates.

Power culture are proud and strong, able to move fast and react to threat or danger; they support power-oriented, political-minded, risk-taking individuals (Handy, 1976), they are competitive jealous of territory, and self-seeing (Harrison, 1972).
In a power culture, some people are powerful, some are powerless; relationship often have a vertical character, relationship are often arenas for competitive striving and gamesmanship.

Power has been identified as being distributed differentially, so that some people have more of it than others, and that theoretically its quantity can be measured. Power has been viewed as having magnitude, weight, scope and domain (Lahl, 1957; Gervov, 1970; Gamson, 1968; Tushman, 1977; Hickson et al., 1971; Tannenbaum, 1953 and Zald, 1970).

Hall and Bates (1970) suggested that power involves directing activities of others, making rules for others, enforcing rules for others, setting goals and objectives for others, hiring and firing and making decisions.

According to Robert Michels (1962) "The consciousness of power always produces vanity, and undue belief in personal greatness. The desire to dominate for good or for evil, is universal. "Physical power-energy becomes a moving force of the 1980s, social power and its manifestation in both interpersonal and organizational settings is emerging as a critical variable. The study of power and its role within social relationships has been hindered by a literature which is diffuse and an application which has been idiosyncratic to individuals needs.

The exercise of power is ascribed to individuals not to institutions. It has been described as a specifically
human phenomenon (Guardini, 1961) and Chein (1978) went so far as to postulate that the desire for power is inherent to the nature of man. Without a personal intent, power could not exist. As Berle (1969) summarized, 'power is an attribute of man. It does not exist without a holder'.

Personal power is linked to self-actualization of one's potential. Within an organizational environment, a powerful individual is seen as one who has the ability to get things done.

Kotter (1979) characterized effective managers as those individuals who understood their organizational environment so perfectly that they were able to use different types of power appropriately to achieve the desired outcomes.

The concept of power motive has been approached from several different directions. Veroff (1957) and Kipnis (1974) described power motivations as either a 'need state' (Kipnis) or a 'disposition' (Veroff) which could be satisfied only through control or influence over other individual. However, Hinton (1972) distinguished between an intrinsic and an extrinsic nature to the power motive. The intrinsic power motive is the seeking of power through self-initiated efforts where the reward is a feeling of self-determining. The extrinsic power motive sees power as being sought as a reward external to any self-initiated efforts.

The most definitive work done with the power motive has been by Winter (1973) and McClelland (1970, 1975).
Winter described the power motive as a disposition to strive for certain kinds of goal or to be affected by certain kinds of incentives, whereas Veroff (1957) and Kipnis (1974) required the control or influence of the behaviour of others. For Winter the power motive was found to examine the thoughts, images, and themes in the minds of people when power is aroused or made salient to them.

Results of his research indicated that the power motive could be distinguished as an approach to or 'hope of power' or an avoidance of or 'fear of power'.

Similarly McClelland made the distinction between a personalized face of power and a socialized face of power. McClelland (1980) characterized the personalized face of power as the negative aspect where power struggles were seen as 'I win, you lose' situations. The socialized face of power was considered more positive, reflecting a concern for group goals and making members within a group sense their own levels of strength and competence. It was McClelland's belief that managers reflecting a socialized face of power would be more effective. Later research findings led him to conclude that personalized power was a less mature stage of power development than socialized power (1975).

Lasswell (1948) described it as 'an interpersonal situation; those who hold power are empowered. It depends upon and continues only so long as there is a continuing stream of empowering responses. Even a casual inspection
of human relations will convince any competent observer that power is not a brick that can be lugged from place to place, but a process that vanished when the supporting responses ceases.

Characteristics of Power motivated persons:

(1) Power oriented person has got a higher need for achievement motivation.

(2) Power oriented persons are planner and decision makers.

(3) They have got the ability of risk taking behaviour.

(4) Power oriented persons have got leadership in group activities.

(5) Power oriented persons have got the power of controlling other persons.

(6) Such persons gain a position of authority and status, they make suggestions, by giving their opinion evaluations.

(7) Power oriented persons are verbally fluent, often talkative, and sometimes argumentative.

(8) Power oriented persons are seen by others as forceful and outspoken, and are hard-headed and demanding.

(9) Power oriented persons enjoy roles, such as teaching and public speaking.
Power oriented persons are different from the general persons.

Men having strong need for power have got strong authoritarian values, and tend toward autocratic and dictatorial action. He is sensitive to others feelings and desires.

1.20 **Cognitive style:** Pattern of organizing the environment:

Cognitive is a mediating process that is the center of a resurgence of interest. Mahoney (1977) noted: "There are numerous indications that Psychology is undergoing some sort of revolution in the sense that cognitive processes have become a very popular topic". He pointed out that one characteristic of the current cognitive learning perspective is that the organism responds to its cognitive construction of the environment rather than to objective reality.

1.21 **Theoretical foundations of Cognitive style:**

Cognitive style is a hypothetical construct that has been developed to explain the process of mediation between stimuli and responses. The term cognitive style refers to the characteristic ways in which individuals conceptually organize the environment. Harvey's (1963) view that cognitive style refers to the way an individual filters and processes stimuli so that the environment taken on psychological meaning in representative of this
use of the term. As such, cognitive representation modify the one-to-one relationship between stimulus and responses. If it were not for these cognitive representations, Harvey pointed out stimuli would be irrelevant for the individual, or the individual would respond to stimulation in a robot-like fashion.

Aassick (1976) also defined style in terms of consistent patterns of "organizing and processing information. "Cognitive style" refers to self-consistent ways of approaching and transforming information, especially through perception, memory and thought, influenced by the 'ego' psychologist, psychodynamic researchers have looked for consistent cognitive styles that people might habitually employ in coping with anxiety and adapting to environmental demands and stresses. These researches are guided by psychodynamic concepts, but they follow a methodology that does not depend on the clinician. They rely, instead, on objective tests of perceptual and cognitive problem-solving (e.g. the speed with which the subject can find a hidden figure embedded in a picture) as in the work of Witkin (1965).

Coop and Wigel (1971) used the term cognitive style "to denote consistencies in individual modes of functioning in a variety of behavioural situations". In this definition cognitive style is equated with behaviour rather than mediating processes.
Common to all theory and research on cognitive style is an emphasis on the structure rather than the content of thought (e.g. Suedfeld, 1971). Structure refers to how cognition is organized; content refers to what knowledge is avoidable. Here the cognitive style refers to the ways in which thought is structured. Behavioural consistency is viewed as the product of the structure.

Numerous approaches to the study of cognitive style have been made. Messick (1970) attempted to conceptualized this work in terms of nine categories. Messick used these cognitive controls as his four categories: Scanning, leveling-sharpening, constructed-flexible control and tolerance for incongruous or unrealistic experience. A fifth approach was originated by Sitkin and his co-workers (1954) who use the term field dependence. A sixth approach noted by Messick is cognitive complexity.

Recently, Messick (1976) modified these nine categories, added new ones, and listed a total of 19 approaches to the study of cognitive style. This reflects both increasing research interest in cognitive style and Messick's continuing attempt to organize and integrate a wide variety of research efforts.

Kogan (1973, 1976) distinguished three types of cognitive styles. Cognitive styles of the first type refer to an ability to perform, with a performance judged against a standard.
In type II cognitive styles, greater value is placed on one of the stylistic categories by the investigator.

The type III cognitive styles does not relate to ability.

1.211 Approaches to the study of Cognitive Styles:

Some of the approaches to the study of cognitive style are cognitive controls, category width, conceptual styles, and reflection-impulsivity.

(i) Cognitive Control:

George Klein (1954) introduced the term 'Cognitive Control'. According to Klein, a cognitive control is a hypothetical construct that directs the expression of need in socially acceptable ways, as required by the situation. Cognitive controls delay the gratification of needs, leading to their description as "delay mechanisms".

Based on studies in the area of thirst and color interference, Klein distinguished between constricted and flexible control. Individuals who manifested constricted control over the expression of need were characterized in a manner similar to compulsive people. They were precise and meticulous, over-valued order, were uncomfortable with disorder, and tended to pigeon-hole reality rather than deal with it in affective terms.
Gardner, Jackson and Messick (1960) differentiated cognitive controls from cognitive style. According to these authors, the former term refers to the specific dimensions investigated as part of the perception project and includes leveling-sharpening, scanning, field articulation, conceptual differentiation and constricted-flexible control. Cognitive style refers to the organization of these dimensions within an individual.

(4) **Category Width:**

While the results of the work of Bruner and co-workers (1956) were cited by Pettigrew (1958) as evidence of intraindividual consistencies in the range in which individuals consider events likely to occur. That is, individuals who estimate a wide range for the width of windows are likely to estimate wide ranges for other phenomena.

(5) **Conceptual Styles:**

Cognitive style was viewed by Kegan, Moss and Sigel (1963) as "stable individual preferences in mode of perceptual organization and conceptual categorization of the external environment". These investigators studied cognitive style by analyzing how individuals group objects. They postulated that individuals could by dimensionalized on the basis of their productivity to analyze and to differentiate the stimulus environment."
(4) Reflection - Impulsivity:

A popular approach to the study of cognitive style in children is reflection-impulsivity, originally introduced by Kayen, Kosman, Day, Alberts.

Some personality theorists at the Menninger Foundation (e.g. Klein, 1951; 1954; Klein and Holzman 1950, Klein and Schlesinger 1951, Gardner 1953, Holzman and Klein 1954, and et al) have focused light on the concept of cognitive topologies provided by the productive group. A detailed examination of these experiments after an interval of nearly 30 years would be very illuminating, but need not be taken here, because substantive recent reviews are available (Vernon, 1973; Hamilton, 1976) have inferred some of the dichotomized perceptual attitudes, or cognitive styles studies.

(1) assimilating new to old experience vs accentuating difference.

(2) levelling vs sharpening.

(3) coarse categories vs fine categories

(4) form-boundedness vs form lability.

(5) intolerance of stability vs tolerance of instability.

(6) interference proneness vs resistance to interference.

(7) intolerance of overlaps vs tolerance of overlap.

(8) constriction vs flexibility, need, dominance vs reality.

(9) dominance; wide scanning vs narrow scanning.

(10) field articulation vs non-articulation.
The field-articulation and non-articulation is identified with the work of *Within* (*Within et al. 1954, 1962*). Cognitive style which were not inferred from perceptual characteristic appeared at a later stage in the concrete vs. abstract belief systems postulated by Harvey et al. (1961).

Relevant variables include rigidity, speed of closure, intolerance for ambiguity and field-dependence. Rigidity may be seen as a relation among concepts, that makes them highly resistant to change from appropriate inputs. *Field-dependence* (*Within, 1962*) may be viewed in our terms as the tendency to judge objects on the basis of explicit presented information, rather than on the basis of internal standards maintained by the individual.

1.2.12 *Within's Field-Dependence-Independence*:

*Within, *Otman, *Raskin and *Karp (1971) defined cognitive style as "the characteristic, self-consistent modes of functioning which individual show in their perceptual and intellectual activities. These cognitive styles are manifestations in the cognitive sphere of still broader dimension of personal functioning which cut across diverse psychological areas".

*Within* felt that to understand the perceptual phenomena, it was necessary to study the characteristics of the individual as well as aspects of situation. *Within*
noted that an individual's characteristic way of perceiving was consistent from one situation to another that it was not easily altered and that it was stable over periods of years.

"Itkin's next step was to study the relationship between performance on his perceptual measures and on other measures. In the major portion of his first book, personality through perception ("Itkin, Lewis, Hertzman, Nachover, Messner and Sapner, 1954) investigations of the relationship of personality to perception were summarised on the basis of these studies individuals designated "field dependent" were found to be passive and to have poor impulse control, low self-esteem, and undifferentiated and primitive body image. The results of these early studies supported the hypothesis that the individual differences we have been observing are definable in terms of degree of dependence on the structure of the prevailing visual field, ranging from great dependence at one extreme to great ability to deal with the presented field analytically, or the separate an item from the configuration in which it occurs, at the other ("Itkin et al, 1954).

"Itkin was concerned with the relationship between field independence and the individual performance in a wide variety of areas. He suggested that the dimension of differentiation "pervades the individual's perceptual, intellectual, emotional, motivational, defensive and social operations". "Itkin and Woodenough (1976) reviewed the
development of the field-dependence construct and noted that adaptive qualities are associated with each pole of functioning. For example, field-dependent individuals are more socially sensitive, whereas field-independent individuals are superior in some cognitive areas.

In their early work, Witkin et al. (1954) found females to be more field dependent than males, the differences being largest among adults. Since this early report, it has often been maintained that females are more field dependent than males. Field-independent subjects are also less susceptible to stimulus competition than field-dependent subjects.

In a review of some of his work, Witkin (1964) noted a relationship between field dependence and performance on the Einstellung water jar task. A number of studies were discussed showing that individual high on authoritarianism tended to be more rigid in their Einstellung performance. Witkin hypothesized that field-dependent subjects, because of their inability to overcome embeddedness, would have difficulty breaking the set induced by the initial problem. Greskin and Gorman (1969) concluded that field-independent subject manifest less rigidity on the Einstellung task than field-dependent subject.

Witkin et al. (1962) hypothesized that field-dependent subjects, having a greater need for the support of other people would be more attentive to the physical appearance of the other people.
The dimension of field dependence versus field independence originated in research on perceptual process and has been applied to the personality realm. Perceptually, field-dependent individuals are those who are dependent or reliant on external cues to an extreme degree whereas field-independence individuals are able to rely at least partially on internal cues in their perceptual processes.

A good example of the difference between the two may be seen in their performance on a visual rod-and-frame test, in which they are required to place a bar or rod in an upright, vertical position within a rectangular frame that may be rotated to varying degrees of slant. The task is performed in a dark room in which other sources of visual reference to the vertical are unavailable. Field-dependent individuals have difficulty overcoming the slant of the frame in attempting to place the rod in a vertical position, whereas field-independent individuals have more success at the task. It appears that field-independent individuals use among other things their own bodily position for a reference point in placing the rod in a vertical position.

Another task at which field-dependent individuals have difficulty is finding embedded figure within a complex visual display. Field independence individuals do not find this task so difficult.

The relevance of this variable for personality research lies in the generalization that may be made on assumption that field-dependent people also are more oriented
to environmental cues in the social realm. Within and Woodenough (1977) hold that field-dependent individuals make greater use of external social referents in an ambiguous situation, are more attentive to social cues, have an interpersonal orientation, and are more socially skilled than field-independent persons, who in turn have greater cognitive analysis skills. On the basis of the foregoing description field-dependent individuals should clearly be extraverted and field-independent person should be introverted. Lester (1974) reach the same conclusion based on a common physiological element in the two personality traits. However, there is only one recent study involving a small sample of 35 female college students that supports the hypothesized relationship. The two tests used were the group embedded figures test and the Syenk Personality Inventory extraversion scale (Loo, 1976). Later, however, Loo and Townsend (1977) clarified the relationship by showing that in three small samples field dependence was unrelated to the sociability items of Syenk's scale, unrelated the sensation-seeking items, but associated in two of the three samples with fast decision time as measured by five items on the extraversion scale. One study of an unusual population, abnormal offenders (Blackburn, 1972b), found the opposite to be true: 15 extreme field-dependent individuals were more introverted on the M. PI social introversion scale, but not on the Syenk personality inventory than 15 extreme
field-independent subjects. Division of subjects into
groups was based on the group Embedded Figure test.

Numerous studies have shown no relationship between
the two variables. Such was the case with Cegalis and Leen
(1977) using the Myers-Briggs Type indicator, Chuman (1977),
who administered Rettell's Children's Personality Questionnaire
to 11 and 12 year olds; Lester (1976c), in three
separate studies utilizing small groups of college students;
and Mayo and Bell (1972). Likewise Fine (1972) presents
data from seven different samples, all of which indicate no
relationship between field dependence and extroversion.
Hysenck's extroversion scale was used in some of the
samples and the MMPI social introversion scale in others.
Having demonstrated that field dependence and extroversion-
introversion are unrelated, Fine considered the possible
interaction of the two dimensions as related to mental
health and adjustment. He suggested that the combination
of field dependence and introversion was a unhealthy combi-
nation because the two characteristics are incongruent and
work at cross purposes. The result would be anxiety and
neurotic tendencies. The hypothesis was tested by taking
subjects in each of the seven samples and dividing them
into four possible field dependence, field independence,
extraversion-introversion categories. In six of the seven
samples, subjects scoring high on the neuroticism scale of
the Maudsley Personality Inventory, the anxiety factor of
the 16 PF, or the three neurotic scales of the MMPI were
over-represented in the quadrant characterized by field dependence and introversion. A further study by Boyle (1976a) also supports the hypothesis. Using the Hyenck Personality Inventory and the rod-and frame test, Doyle identified 16 field-dependent extraverts and 5 field-dependent introverts and found that the latter had significantly higher neuroticism scores and significantly lower scores on three of the scales of the personal orientation inventory, a measure of self actualization.

Bauer and Achenbach (1976) deals with the dimension under consideration by adding a third element, self-image disparity. The investigators took 20 male freshmen and 20 male seniors at Yale University, administered the repression sensitization scale and Wielt and Downing's MMPI extraversion scale, and assessed self-image disparity by administering 30 self-referenced statements referring to both the real and ideal self. The term self-image disparity refers to the difference between how individuals see themselves currently and how they prefer to be. From the correlations among extraversion, repression-sensitization and extraversion-introversion. So interpreted the common element among all three dimensions would be a sensitivit, and willingness to acknowledge differences between one's actual and ideal self associated with a high motivation to improve oneself. If so, that description would apply to sensitizers, introverts, and individuals
with high self-image disparity and the opposite description would apply to sensitizers, introverts and individuals with high self-image disparity and the opposite description would apply to extraverts and repressors.

A study by Miller and Magaro (1977) provides evidence concerning several of the variables discussed in this chapter. The perspective of the study was to identify four different types of personality based on various specified combinations of scores on a number of personality inventories. Among the scales used in two different studies were the sensation-seeking scale, the depression-sensitization scale, the internal-external locus of control scale, the EPRI social introversion scale, the Group Embedded Figure Test (field dependence), the Eysenck Personality inventory and two measures of self-esteem. The two samples consisted of 107 and 135 college students respectively. The data were analyzed by cluster analysis and examined to determine whether the clusters that emerged were similar to the theoretical clusters previously identified. It may be worth noting in passing that two of the cluster, one labelled the hysterical style and the other character disorder style, involved extraversion in combination with some other variables, whereas a third, labelled the depressive style, was associated with introversion in combination with other variables. There was theorized to be a fourth cluster, the compulsive style, which should have introversion as a major element but for which the results were not clear-cut.
The most evident relationship in these data is between extraversion and sensation seeking, in which the placement in clusters was congruent in eight of the nine cases. In other words, if high extraversion scores emerged as part of a cluster, high sensation seeking scores did also when introversion was part of a cluster.

1.30 **Cognitive style and need motivations:**

Their relevance and significance in the present study:

Adkin (19) has characterized the cognitive style of the individual as core of his personality which is formed, shaped and molded through his socialization in a specific culture in which the individual is born and nurtured. Thus field-dependent and field-independent as cognitive styles are the culture bound attributes of personality of individuals which governed his cognitive process, affective behaviour and action tendencies. Persons having dependent prone personality display field-dependency, whereas persons brought up in open achieving societies exhibit independent cognitive style. The nature and kind of cognitive style that the individuals thus display have these specific and differential impact on their role performance and work motivation. Productivity of an individual and production of an organization are thus the consequences of the nature and kind of industrial personnel that feed the production process, the expectancy behaviour of an employee having field dependence as their cognitive
style would be entirely different from those displaying field independence. The difference in the nature and kind of cognitive style of an individual has a direct bearing on his motivational process also, the wants and needs, desires and motives, goals setting behaviour and goal attainment process of field-dependent individual would be different from those of the field-independent. The differential cognitive style of the individuals generate in them differential patterns in need motivations, which are key to raising production of any industrial organization. The studies conducted by McClelland and Atkinson (1953) and subsequent researches by other psychologist like Brayag Menta, Murray reveal that national development and economic reconstruction of any nation is contributory to the nature and kind of the man-power that the country is having. It is, thus, evident that it is not the size of the human beings of a nation but the quality of the human being that the country is having, is more beneficial for the optimum development of the nation. High achievement motivations of the individuals with competitive temperament and challenging temper are the essential attributes of personality that brings unique recognition to the nation. The other important need motivations like affiliation, power and approval have also their unique significance in the welfare and well being of any country.

A global perspective of cognitive styles and need motivations of employees of any industrial organization
contribute significantly to the maximization of production and promotion of work motivation. It is thus evident that a study on cognitive style and need motivations of persons working in any industrial organization constitute a significant research problem. It is further revealing to record that knowledge of the nature and kind of managerial personnel and workers provides an insight into the manpower planning, development and forecasting. The absence of significant dependable researches on cognitive styles and need motivations of Indian industrial personnel enhances the great relevance and the socio-industrial significance of the present study. Any study conducted in the country in the present set up of the society on human resource development is a study of unique national significance and of great importance. "and the present study very well encompasses within that limit."

1.40 Objectives of the Present Study:

(1) To study the inter-relationships that exist between the four need motivations, i.e., n Ach, n App, n Aff and n Power.

(2) To study the role of cognitive style in influencing need motivations of the industrial personnel.

(3) To study the differential motivational potentials of the managers and workers in n Ach, n Power, n Affiliation and n Approval.
(4) To study the levels of the four need motivations under study of the managers and workers at various levels of age, educational attainment and (V-I-L) cognitive style.

(5) To evaluate the relative effects, main as well as interactional of the three main demographic variables, i.e. age, educational status and job-status as well as Sitkins cognitive style on each of the four need motivations of the industrial employees.

1.50 Scope and Significance of the present study:

Psychology as a science of human behaviour has helped the researchers to contribute much more about individuals having interest in different disciplines like, business, commerce, management, history and economic, but to date its contribution have not been very impressive.

Perhaps the current trends of interdisciplinary approaches to the problems at hand through multi media, multi-method would solve the complex problem of human behaviour more effectively and more satisfactorily. Recent advancement of science and technology have helped the researchers to develop new tools and methods for measuring human motivations which would help a lot to the selection committee to select a good manager and an efficient worker.

In the modern world of materialistic value, perhaps the significance and scope of need motivation have undoubtedly enlarged.
The significance of the need motivations and their scope have been outlined as under:

(1) The findings of this study are immensely useful to policy makers and planners of the industrial schemes, entrepreneur behaviour, management development programmes and organizational behaviour.

(2) The results are significant to the Board of Directors, Top-management and other Executives or Managers in planning, forecasting, designing and executing their human resources and in organizing various technical and management training programmes for the refinement and development of man-power at their disposal.

(3) The results on the present study reveal the relative significance of need for approval motivation and need affiliation for managers and workers, as well as power and achievement for managers rather than workers. These achievement and power motivation facilitates the managers and directors of various firms and industries to insightfully manage the man-power of their organization.

(4) It has been seen that a person with a higher need achievement motivation could exceed his counterpart in a related academic performance. From this point of view the present study has a direct bearing upon
the need motivation of the managers and workers. The knowledge of differential level of need motivation of the employees of various categories would promote confidence among managers, planners, and decision makers, in designing a realistic and meaningful industrial projects and programmes. The results on n Power, n Aff. and n Approval are also useful to industrial personnel in different ways in organizing and staffing their skilled and unskilled man-power, and in mobilizing, regulating and maintaining effectively their roles and duties. Thus, the results have a direct bearing upon the structural and functional aspects of industrial productivity, management development and organizational behaviour.

In this world each and every persons is dependent on others by some or the other means. Here in this industrial set up it has been seen that the managers are dependent upon the workers, and the workers are dependent upon the managers up to some extent. But mostly the managers are more independent than the workers, because these managers are goal setters, risk takers and decision makers, which the managers have to overcome.

The next Chapter deals with "Review of Relevant Literature" on need motivations and Cognitive styles.