Chapter I

INTRODUCTORY
INTRODUCTION

Motivation is highly complex as it is related to human behaviour. Organisations, being social systems, heavily depend on the motivational levels of their employees for fulfilling the common purposes. However, the complexity of the concept of motivation in terms of its understanding and practice has been increasing day by day with the changes in knowledge and technology. Thus, motivation has become a challenging task to management. In order to overcome the problems of motivating people there has been a greater demand for its understanding. Towards this, the concept of motivation has been explored and theorized by social and behavioural scientists in different dimensions. As a result many theories found their place in the literature on the concepts of motivation and leadership.

Incidentally, even there has been an overlapping between the concepts and theories of motivation and leadership creating confusion between them. Yet, the fact remains that the motivation represents to an unmet need which creates stimulus driving towards achieving the state of satisfaction. The duty of the leader is to fulfill the employee needs and influence them towards a common objective. This chapter attempts to examine different theories of motivation and leadership.
MEANING AND DEFINITIONS OF MOTIVATION

Human motivation touches upon the dimensions of both the leadership and personality. What is motive and what isn't, is indistinguishable. The term motivation is derived from a Latin word "Movere" meaning "to move". Thus, anything which moves an individual into action to actualize something is a motive. Daniel Goleman in his book, "Emotional Intelligence" writes, that "Every emotion is a motive". "All emotions are, in essence, impulses to act, the instant plans for handling life that evolution has instilled in us. The very root of the word 'emotion', is 'to motere'. The Latin verb 'to move', plus the prefix 'e' – is to connote the 'move away' suggesting that a tendency to act is implicit in every emotion". In essence it moves people into action. He points out that the word "Emotion" is derived from the Greek words for 'to' and 'motion'. Emotion means "to move", 'not to think and then move'; just 'to move'. In the light of this meaning, it can be concluded that any need, desire, aspiration, idea, ideal, thought, feeling and urge that can drive to detract an individual to generate energy - physical (Body), emotional and intellectual (Mind) and spiritual (Spirit) and spend (Annihilate) for a desired result is a motive. This meaning is evident from the concept of motivation which conveys that it is a process that starts with a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates a behaviour or drives that aims at a goal or incentive.

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In the words of V.H. Vroom\(^1\) "the term motivation refers to a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisations among alternative forms of voluntary activity".

According to Berelson and Steinner\(^2\) motivation is viewed, "as an innerstate that energizes, activates and directs the behaviour of individuals towards certain goals".

In the words of W.G.Scott\(^3\), "motivation means a process of stimulating people to action to accomplish desired goals".

According to D.E. McFarland\(^4\), "motivation refers to the way in which urges, drives, desires, aspirations, strivings, needs direct control, or explain the behaviour of human beings".

Jones\(^5\) defined, "how behaviour gets started is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped, and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while all this is going on".

According to Craig Pinder\(^6\), "work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an

\(^3\) William G.Scott, 'Organisation Theory', Homewood, III: Richard D. Irwin, 1977, P. 75
individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and
determine its form, direction, intensity and duration”.

According to J.L. Gray and F.A. Starke, “motivation is the
result of processes, internal or external to the individual, that arouse
enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action”.

Fred Luthans, defines “motivation is a process that starts with
a physiological or psychological deficiency or need that activates
behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or incentive”.

Obviously the above stated definitions cover all stages shown
in the motivation process.

At different stages in the evolution of management thought,
managers have subscribed to different classifications, approaches,
models and theories of motivation. According to their evolved order
(1) the traditional model, (2) the human relations model, and (3) the
human resource model have been recognised, analysed and
researched.

Applications”, Merrill Publishing Co., Columbus, 1988, P.104.
P.231.
1. **THE TRADITIONAL MODEL**

The traditional model of motivation is associated with F.W. Taylor and the scientific management school. This school held that an important aspect of the manager's job was to make sure that workers perform their repetitive tasks in a more efficient way. This perspective assumed that workers were essentially lazy and that managers understood the worker's jobs better than the workers did. Workers could only be motivated by financial reward and had little to contribute beyond their labour. In many a situation this approach was proved to be effective.

2. **THE HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL**

Elton Mayo and other researchers found that the social contacts of employees at work were also important and that the repetitiveness of the tasks was responsible factor in reducing motivation. Mayo and others also opine that managers could motivate employees by acknowledging their social needs and by making them feel useful and relevant. As a result, employees were given some freedom to make their own decisions on the job.

In the human relations model, workers were expected to accept management's authority because supervisors treated them with consideration and were attentive to their needs. The intent of managers, however, remained the same to have workers accept the work situation as established by managers.
3. **THE HUMAN RESOURCE MODEL**

McGregor and Maslow and other researchers such as Argyris and Likert, criticized the human relations model as being simply a more sophisticated approach to the manipulation of employees.

From a human resources perspective, the managers should not induce workers to comply with managerial objectives by attracting them with high wages, as in the traditional model or manipulate them with considerate treatment, as in the human relations model. Instead, managers should share responsibility for achieving organisational and individual objectives, with each person contributing on the basis of his or her interests and abilities.

**THEORIES OF MOTIVATION**

There are several approaches to the study of motivation. A perusal of the theories will help to understand the nature of motivation better. The major classification of motivation theories, cover (1) ‘Content theories’ which focus on the ‘what’ of motivation; (2) ‘Process theories’ which focus on the ‘how’ of motivation; and (3) ‘Reinforcement theories’, which focus on the ways in which behaviour is modified.

1. **CONTENT THEORIES**

Maslow's need hierarchy theory, Herzberg's two factor theory, Alderfer's ERG theory and McClelland's achievement theories are classified as content theories. One of these are familiar to managers
because these authors have strongly influenced the management field and have affected the thoughts and actions of practicing managers.

2. **PROCESS THEORIES**

The process theories of motivation are concerned with answering the questions of how individual behaviour is energized, directed and maintained. This section examines Victor Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam's equity theory, Porter and Lawler's performance satisfaction theory.

3. **REINFORCEMENT THEORIES**

Reinforcement theories advocated by B.F. Skinner and others, are also often called behaviour modification or apparent conditioning. These theories deal with how the consequences of past actions influence future actions in a cyclical learning process. In this view, people behave the way they do because, in the past, they learnt that certain behaviours were associated with pleasant outcomes and that other behaviours were associated with unpleasant outcomes. Because people usually prefer pleasant outcomes, they are likely to avoid behaviours with unpleasant consequences.
The following are some of the classifications by different
groups by different authors

Lee⁹ classified motivation theories as:

  a. Needs theories (Maslow, McClelland, Atkinson etc.,)
  b. Work environment and work characteristics theories (Herzberg,
     Hackman and others)
  c. Expectancy/Path goal theories (Vroom, Georgopoulos, etc.,)
  d. Economic theories (Lawler, Porter and others)

Handy¹⁰ classified motivation theories

  a. Satisfaction theories (Maslow, Roethlisberger, Dickson,
     McGregor, Herzberg, etc.,)
  b. Incentive theories (Vroom, Llawler, Porter, etc.,)
  c. Intrinsic theories (Maslow, Likert, McGregor, Argyris, etc.,)
  d. Motivational calculus theory (Handy)

From the above all important classifications the following
theories are explained.

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⁹ Lee, J.E.A. "The Gold and the Garbage in Management Theories and

¹⁰ Handy, Charles B. "Understanding Organisation", Harmondsworth, Penguin
Books Ltd., PP 7-9, 1981.
HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

A need hierarchy of five levels by A.H. Maslow\textsuperscript{11} has gained wide attention. He hypothesized that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of five needs. These needs are:

a. Physiological : Includes hunger, thirst, shelter, sex and other bodily needs.

b. Safety : Includes security and protection from physical and emotional harm.

c. Social : Includes affection, sense of belonging, acceptance and friendship.

d. Esteem : Includes internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement; and external esteem factors such as status, recognition and attention.

e. Self actualization : The drive to become what one is capable of becoming; includes growth, achieving one's potential, self-fulfillment.

As each of these needs becomes substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. A substantially satisfied need no longer motivates. So if you want to motivate someone, according to Maslow, you need to understand what level of hierarchy that person is currently on and focus on satisfying those needs at or above that level.

He separated the five needs into higher and lower order. Physiological and safety needs were described as lower-order and social, esteem and self-actualization as higher order needs are satisfied internally (within the person) whereas lower order needs predominantly satisfied externally (by such things as money, wages, union contracts and tenure). The conclusion to be drawn from Maslow's classification is that in times of economic plenty, almost all permanently employed workers have their lower-order needs substantially met.

Maslow\textsuperscript{12} himself stated that the theory seems, for most people, to have a direct personal subjective plausibility. Yet it still lacks experimental verification and support, I have not yet been able to think of a good way of putting it to the test.

HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR MODEL

Another proposition that has become popular with scholars and practitioners is Herzberg's\textsuperscript{13} dual factory theory. In brief, the theory propounds that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction operate on two separate dimensions. The hygiene or maintenance factors which includes pay, status, work conditions, job security and relations act as a curb on job dissatisfaction.


\textsuperscript{13} Herzberg, F. et.al., "The Motivation to Work", New York, John Wiely & Sons, PP 7-17, 1959.
The motivating factors are intrinsic ones such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, the content of work and the possibility of personal growth. These are the factors which contribute to job satisfaction. The empirical data in support of the theory present evidences by Brayfield and Croket\textsuperscript{14}.

After reviewing the empirical evidences to test out Herzberg's theory, Dunnett, Campbell and Hackel\textsuperscript{15} come to the conclusion that the theory is an oversimplification of the relationships between motivation and satisfaction and the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The distinct and the dual categorization between dissatisfiers and motivators as spelled out by Herzberg cannot claim universal application because personal motivation is often complicated by the concreteness of organisational climate found in India. The interplay between dissatisfiers and satisfiers does not make it conceivable that these two categories will make distinct entities with separate identities.


ERG THEORY

Clayton Alderfer\textsuperscript{16} of Yale university has reworked Maslow's need hierarchy to align it more closely with the empirical research and labeled as ERG theory.

He argues that there are three groups of core needs - existence, relatedness and growth, hence the label: ERG theory. The existence group is concerned with providing our basic material existence requirements. They include the items that are physiological and safety needs.

The second group of needs are those of relatedness - the desire we have for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied and they align with Maslow's social need and the external component Maslow's esteem classification. Finally, Alderfer isolates growth need - an intrinsic desires for personal development. These include the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included under self-actualization.

Besides substituting three needs for five in contrast to the hierarchy of needs theory, the ERG theory demonstrates that (1) more than one need may be operative at the same time, and (2) if the gratification of a higher-level need is satisfied, the desire to satisfy a lower-level need increases.

ACHIEVEMENT THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Shortly after world war II, a group of psychologists led by David C. McClelland\textsuperscript{17} of Harvard University began to experiment with TAT (Thematic Appreciation Test), has identified three types of basic motivating needs. He classified as Need for power (n/FWR), Need for affiliation (n/AFF), and Need for achievement (n/ACH).

McClelland\textsuperscript{18} also distinguishes between social power and personal power, depending on the intention of and the purpose for, the use of power. He has sought to establish that the strength of need achievement is the source of entrepreneurial efforts and, as such, such efforts have a direct correlation with economic development. While examining the data presented by McClelland and his colleagues in support of the theory, Lee\textsuperscript{19} has quoted with approval from Atkinson et.al\textsuperscript{20}.

McClelland\textsuperscript{21} admits that, some people who have a compelling drive to succeed are striving for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success. They have a desire to do something better or

\textsuperscript{17} David C. McClelland, "The Achievement Motive", New York : Apple, on Century – Crafts, 1953.
more efficiently than it has been done before. This drive is the achievement need.

The corporate leadership studies in the contemporary USA by Kanter\textsuperscript{22}, Peters\textsuperscript{23}, Menzies\textsuperscript{24} indicate that more than need achievement, the issue of power, the position in an organisation, and the Achilles Heel caused by uncertainty and unpredictability of business situations put demands on corporate leadership which cannot be understood or explained by need achievement theory.

The third need isolated by him is affiliation. It can be viewed as the desire to be liked and accepted by others. Individuals with a high affiliation motive strive for friendship, prefer cooperative situations rather than competitive ones, and desire relationships involving a high degree of mutual understanding.


VROOM'S VALENCE EXPECTANCY THEORY

Prominent Vroom's model is built around the concepts of value, expectancy and force. According to Vroom, valence means strength of an individual's preference to a particular outcome. Another factor in determining the motivation is expectancy, that is, the probability that a particular action will lead to the outcome.

The rubric of expectancy, path/goal models of V.H. Vroom, is prominent proposition is that a highly motivated producer would desire a reward he visualizes as a result of effort put in and that if he had worked hard enough to produce the result he would have received the reward expected. In this model extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are not differentiated. The motivation to perform at a key level is determined by the person's belief concerning the probability. This belief is conditioned by the person's self-esteem as well as by his previous personal and observed experience in similar and identical situations.

According to Henemen and Schwab, opine that empirical research on expectancy indicates that despite the promise of the Vroom model there are a number of unanswered questions such as


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our lack of knowledge of the variety of goals carrying positive value in
work situations for different actors as also the differences in strength
which lead to the choice of one goal over another.

**EQUITY THEORY**

The theory owes its origin to several prominent theorists like
Festinger, Heider, Homans, Jacques, Patchen Weick and Adams. But
Adams\(^28\), further researched, and formulated this theory which was
labeled as Adam's equity theory.

According to Adam's\(^29\) theory individuals compare their job
inputs and outcomes with those of others and then respond so as to
eliminate any inequalities.

One of the problems is that people may over estimate their own
contributions and the rewards others receive. Certain inequities may
be tolerated for sometime by employees\(^30\). But prolonged feelings of
inequity may result in strong reactions to an apparently minor
occurrence. Again, it is difficult to assess the perceptions and
misperceptions of employees. Hence Dunham\(^31\) commented that,

\(^{28}\) Stacy Admas J, "Towards an Understanding of Inequity", Journal of
Robbins, S.P., Organisational Behaviour : Concepts and Controversies;

\(^{29}\) Ibid., PP 422-436, 1963

\(^{30}\) Richard A. Cosier and Dan R. Dalton, "Equity Theory and Time: a

\(^{31}\) Dunham, R.D., "Organisational Behaviour", Richard D. Irwin, Illinois, PP
although easily understood the theory is complex and difficult in applications.

**PORTER AND LAWLER MODEL OF MOTIVATION**

Layman W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler\textsuperscript{32} have derived a substantially more complete model of motivation and have applied it in their study primarily to managers. They propose a multivariate model to explain the complex relationship that exists between job attitudes and job performance.

The elements of this model is (1) effort (2) performance (3) rewards (4) satisfaction

Lawler\textsuperscript{33} believes that motivation to perform is conditioned by the perceived consequences of good performance and also by the person's estimate of the probability that effort can be converted into successful performance. A more limited application of the expectancy theory to productivity movement has been calculated by Georgopoulos et.al.,\textsuperscript{34} with a concept of path-goal. The contemporary organisational realities are so dynamic that such a one-factor approach can have a limited explanatory value.


Handy proposes that motivational calculus is the heart of the problem. Calculus, according to him, is broader than the term "effort" which has been used by Lawler and it has three components: (a) the strength of a need; (b) the expectancy that will lead to a particular result; and (c) the instrumentality of that result in meeting the needs. Thus, there are components of strength, expectancy and instrumentality which constitute the calculus motif. Handy goes on postulating the source of calculation that can emanate from the unconscious as well as from the conscious and, as such, he acknowledges the role of the unconscious in the motivational map unlike many other management theorists.

There is also a reference to the role of self concept or the ego-ideal in the motivational paradigm. All in all, Handy is of the view that each individual possesses a motivation calculus mechanism while engaged in an activity. Handy's proposition does not offer an insight which is new to the previously propounded motivational literature. There are many variables like intra-specific and inter-specific to an economic organisation in relation to its business environment and socio-economic and cultural contexts.

THEORY 'X' AND THEORY 'Y'

Douglas McGregor\textsuperscript{36} proposed two distinct views of human beings: one basically negative, labelled as theory 'X', and the other basically positive, labelled as theory 'Y'.

The management action of directing human beings in the organisation, according to McGregor\textsuperscript{37}, involves certain assumptions, generalisations and hypothesis relating to human behaviour and human nature is based on a certain grouping assumptions and that he or she tends to mould his or her behaviour towards subordinates.

Under theory 'X', the four assumptions held by managers are:

a. Employees inherently dislike work and, whenever possible, will attempt to avoid it.

b. Since employees dislike work, they must be coerced, controlled or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.

c. Employees will avoid responsibilities and seek formal direction whenever possible.

d. Most workers place security above all other factors associated with work and will display little ambition.


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

a. Employees can view work as being as natural as rest or play.

b. People will exercise self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the objectives.

c. The average person can learn to accept, even seek, responsibility.

d. The ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population and is not necessarily the sole province of those in management positions.

McGregor held to the belief that theory Y assumptions were more valid than theory X. Therefore, he proposed such ideas as participation in decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations as approaches that would maximise and employee's job motivation.
REINFORCEMENT THEORY

Psychologist B.F. Skinner of Harvard developed an interesting but controversial technique for motivation. This approach, called positive reinforcement or behaviour modification, holds that individuals can be motivated by proper design of their work environment and praise for their performance while the punishment for poor performance produces negative results.

Skinner and his followers do far more than praise good performance. They analyse the work situation to determine what causes workers to act the way they do, and then they initiate changes to eliminate troublesome areas and obstructions to performance. Performance improvements are rewarded with recognition and praise. Even when performance does not equal goals, ways are found to help people and praise them for the good things they do.

This technique sounds almost too simple to work, and many behavioural scientists and managers are skeptical about its effectiveness. However, a number of prominent companies have found the approach beneficial.

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It emphasizes removal of obstructions to performance, careful planning and organising, control through feedback, and the expansion of communication.

GOAL-SETTING THEORY

Edwin Locke⁴⁰ placed a Goal Setting Theory a heavy emphasis on internal states. He is the major theorist and researcher in this area, he began his analysis by arguing that there are two cognitive determinants of behaviour: values and intentions (goals). A value is something the individual acts to gain or keep. Intentions are goals that individuals seek to attain in order to satisfy their desires or emotions.

Specific hard goals produce a higher level of out put than does a generalised goal of "do your best". The Specificity of the goal itself acts as an internal stimulus. Even individuals trying for goals so high, though rarely reach it, perform better than those who are attempting to attain easy goals.

A person's goal of performance will, according to Locke, help a manager to predict the person's future performance and satisfactions. Thus, he argues that all other theories of motivation, are insufficient unless they include a goal-setting dimension.

LEADERSHIP

Leadership means many things to many people. This is due to the changing environment of leaders in different roles in different functions in different settings starting from leadership of the family to the top positions in organizations. However, the essentials of leadership are the same to all leaders in all positions. Nevertheless, due to the variation in the skills required, roles played, functions performed, issues tackled and the relationships promoted, different leaders have had different perceptions of leadership. As such, several attributes have been made both for the success and failure of leadership in the form of properties and processes or traits and styles of leaders. Further, even these attributes cannot provide a totally satisfactory guidance for the success of leadership. Hence, theoreticians and practitioners of leadership have gone to the extent of developing the 'contingency approach', which emphasizes that there is 'No single best way'. The functions, roles, variables, power, influence, success, effectiveness of leaders, and leadership in general discussed by different writers, researchers and practitioners are discussed in the following passages.
MEANING AND DEFINITION

There are as many definitions of leadership as there are scholars who have attempted to analyze and understand the concept, but there is no universally accepted definition of it.41

The word 'leader' stems from the root *leden* meaning 'to travel' or 'show the way'. It has been derived from the verb "to lead." This also implies "to advance," "to expel," "to stand out," to guide and govern the actions of others. A leader is a person who leads a group of followers.

But, the understanding, developing, predicting and managing the behaviour of leaders is still an enigma, despite the fact there are about 33,000 articles and books have been written about so far in 20th century.

Definition of leadership that is general enough to accommodate these many meanings and specific enough to serve as an operationalisation of the variable. However, there is a certain underlying unity among the various conceptualizations made in this area.

Ivancevich, Szilagyi and Wallace⁴², define Leadership as "the relationship between two or more people in which one attempts to influence the other toward the accomplishment of some goal or goals."

In the words of Keith Davis⁴³, "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." In the words of Koontz O' Donnell⁴⁴, "Leadership is the ability to exert interpersonal influence by means of communication towards the achievement of a goal." Leadership is defined by Paul Hersey and K.H. Blanchard⁴⁵ as "the process of influencing group activities towards the accomplishment of goals in a given situation."

Robbins⁴⁶ defines Leadership as "the ability to influence a

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group towards the achievement of goals." According to G.R. Terry\textsuperscript{47}, "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."

According to \textit{Management Guru}, Peter F. Drucker\textsuperscript{48}, "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."

Different scholars have focused on multiple aspects of leadership like: the presence of a particular influence relationship between two or more persons (Hollander and Jullian\textsuperscript{49}, 1969); directing and coordinating the work of group members (Fiedler\textsuperscript{50}, 1967); actions that focus resources to create desirable opportunities (Campbell\textsuperscript{51}, 1991); the leaders job is to create conditions for the team to be effective (Ginnett\textsuperscript{52}, 1996); etc.

\textsuperscript{48} Peter Drucker, \textit{Practice of Management}, Allied publishers, New Delhi, 1970, p.159.
The common characteristic that can be found in many of the definitions is the 'influence', exerted by the leader. That is, he tries to influence the behaviour of others in a specific direction.

FUNCTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Many theorists of leadership have classified the several functions of a leader and attached to him many roles. Often an overlapping can be seen among the different classifications.

In order to understand the process of leadership it is necessary to analyze the functions and responsibilities of leadership. These functions require different emphases in different situations according to the nature of the groups. A leader's position in the same group may also change over a period of time. It is possible, however, to list a range of general functions which are served by the leader. A useful summary is provided by Krech\textsuperscript{53} who has identified fourteen functions.

1. The leader, as a planner, decides the ways and means by which the group achieves its both short-term and long-term ends through proper action and proper planning.

2. The leader, as an executive, is a top coordinator of group activities and an overseer of the execution of policies.

3. The leader, as a policy-maker, establishes the group goals and policies.

4. The leader, as an expert, is a source of information and skills.

5. The leader, as a representative is the official spokes-person for the group, the representative of the group and the channel for both outgoing and incoming communications.

6. The leader, as a controller of internal relations, determines specific aspects of the group structure.

7. The leader, as purveyor of rewards and punishment, exercises controls over the group members by the power vested in him to give rewards and impose punishments.

8. The leader, as arbitrator and mediator, controls inter-personal conflict within the group.

9. The leader, as exemplar, is a role model for members of the group, setting an example of what is expected.

10. The leader, as a symbol of the group, enhances the group unit by providing some kind of cognitive focus and establishing the group as a distinct entity.

11. The leader, as a substitute for individual responsibility, relieves the individual member of the group from the necessity of, and responsibility for, personal decision.
12. The leader, as an ideologist, serves as the source of beliefs, values and standards of behaviour for individual members of the group.

13. The leader, as a father figure, serves as focus for the positive emotional feelings of individual members and the object for identification and transference.

14. The leader, as a scapegoat, serves as a target for aggression and hostility of the group, accepting blame in the case of failure.

Herbert G. Hicks\textsuperscript{54} refer to the following as the 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. Fixing objectives: A manager often personally fixes the objectives for his organization. He must see to it that the organization has always specific and suitable objectives before it.

4. Catalysing: In organizations some force is required to start or accelerate their movement. A leader is expected to be a catalyser and provide such a force.

5. Providing security: In organizations the personal security of followers is very important. A true leader can provide a large measure of security by maintaining a positive and optimistic attitude towards them even in the face of adversities.

6. Representing: A leader is usually treated as the representative of his organization.

7. Inspiring: In organisation many persons work more productively in organizations when their leader makes them feel that the work they do is worthwhile and important.

8. Praising: Managers can help to satisfy the needs of their assistants and fellow employees by sincerely praising them for the work they do.
LEADERSHIP ROLES

Henry Mintzberg offers a number of interesting insights into the nature of managerial roles. He concludes that managers play ten different roles, which fall into three basic categories: interpersonal, informational and decision roles. As every manager must be a leader, the roles suggested by Mintzberg for managers are relevant to leaders also.

Interpersonal Roles

There are three interpersonal roles inherent in the manager's job. They are roles of figurehead, leader, and liaison, which involve dealing with other people.

First, the manager is often asked to serve as a figurehead—taking visitors to dinners, attending ribbon-cutting ceremonies, and the like. These activities are typically more ceremonial and symbolic than substantive.

The manager is also asked to serve as a leader—hiring, training, and motivating employees. A manager who formally or informally shows his subordinates how to do things and how to perform under pressure is leading them. Finally, the manager has a

liaison role to play, which often involves serving as a coordinator or link between people, groups, or organizations.

Informational roles

The three informational roles of the manager identified by Mintzberg flow naturally from the interpersonal roles: the roles of monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson, which involve the processing of information. The process of carrying out these roles places the manager at a strategic point to gather and disseminate information. As monitor, the manager actively seeks information that may be of value to the organisation. He questions his subordinates, and is receptive to unsolicited information. As disseminator of information, he transmits relevant information to others in the workplace. When the roles of monitor and disseminator are viewed together, the manager emerges as a vital link in the organization's chain of communication. The third informational role as spokesperson focuses on external communication. The spokesperson formally relays information to people outside the unit or outside the organisation.

Decisional roles

Mintzberg identifies four decisional roles: entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. All of them primarily relate to making decisions. First, the manager has the role of entrepreneur, the voluntary initiator of change. His second role as disturbance handler is initiated not by him but by other
individuals or groups. The manager responds to his role as *disturbance handler* by handling such problems as strikes, copyright infringements, and energy shortages, etc. In his third decisional role as *resource allocator*, the manager decides how resources are to be distributed, and with whom he or she should work most closely. A fourth decisional role is that of *negotiator*. In this role the manager enters into negotiations with other groups or organizations as a representative of the company.

**LEADERSHIP SKILLS**

Some researchers have mixed the skills with the traits resulting from the development of human relations by a leader with the subordinates.

According to Harold Koontz⁵⁶, 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 ability to use power effectively and in a responsible manner, (2) the ability to comprehend that human beings have different motivation forces at different times and in different situations, (3) the ability to inspire followers, and (4) the ability to act in a manner that will develop a climate conducive to responding to and arousing motivations.

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Katz\textsuperscript{57}, in his classic study of managers identifies three important types of managerial skills: technical, interpersonal, and conceptual. Diagnostic skills are also prerequisites to managerial success.

**Technical skills**

These are the skills necessary to accomplish or understand the specific kind of work being done in an organization.

**Interpersonal skills**

The ability to communicate with, understand, and motivate both individuals and group.

**Conceptual skills**

These depend on the manager's ability to think in the abstract. Managers need the mental capacity to understand the overall workings of the organization and its environment, to grasp how all the parts of the organization fit together, and to view the organisation in a holistic manner.

**Diagnostic skills**

These are skills that enable a manager to visualize the most appropriate response to a situation. Successful managers have them.

Follow-up studies and related research have found skills similar to the ten above. Through statistical techniques, the results of various research studies were combined into the following four categories of effective leadership skills:

1. Participative and human relations
2. Competitiveness and control
3. Innovativeness and entrepreneurship
4. Maintaining order and rationality

LEADERSHIP VARIABLES

Every group of people that performs to its total capacity has some person as its head who is skilled in the art of influencing. This seems to be a compound of at least four major components: (1) to use power effectively and responsibly; (2) to comprehend that human beings have different motivational forces at different times and in different situations; (3) to inspire; and (4) to act in a manner that will develop a climate conducive to responding to and arousing motivations.

According to McGregor there are at least four variables involved in leadership. They are:

58. Ibid., p.11.
(1) Characteristics of the leader; (2) the needs, attitudes and other personal characteristics of the followers; (3) the characteristics of an organization, such as its purpose, its structure and the nature of the task to be performed; and (4) the social, economic and political environment.

POWER AND INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership influence depends upon the type of power that the leader can exercise over other people in his organization. The exercise of power is a social process, which helps to explain how different people can influence the behaviour of others.

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 is one of the keys to become an effective manager. Effective direction is not possible by managers unless they are effective leaders. The need for effective leadership would be evident if one looks into the comparative use of authority, power and influence by managers in any organization.

Power is the capacity of one party to influence other parties to act as it wants.\textsuperscript{61}

Henry Mintzberg's\textsuperscript{62} classic study of what managers do on the job fails to describe the influence tactics used. French and Raven\textsuperscript{63} propose that social power is used to influence others. They state that the bases of power include reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expertise power.

Seven influencing strategies have been proposed as particularly vital for practicing leadership roles\textsuperscript{64}. 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 organization;

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; and

vii) Sanctions: Using rewards and punishment.

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.

SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP VS EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

According to Koontz and O’ Donnell, “leadership” can be effective only when the following principles are complied with in the area of leading as it applied to managers:

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. The principle of maximum clarity and integrity in communications: Managerial leading should ensure that their communication is clear, and unambiguous so as to support

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understanding by the individuals for enabling them to achieve and maintain the co-operation that is required to meet the enterprise goals.

3. The principle of supplemental use of informal organization: In order to make the communication most effective, the manager should make the best use of informal organization as a supplement to the communication channels of formal organization.

4. The principle of motivation: Motivation is not a simple "cause and effect" process. Hence, managers who are keen on emerging as effective leaders should make the motivational programme very effective by

(a) carefully assessing the reward structure;

(b) looking upon it from a situational and contingency point of view;

(c) integrating it into the entire system of managing;

(d) understand correctly as to what motivates their individual subordinates;

(e) how and in what way these motivators operate; and

(f) most sincerely reflect such an understanding in carrying out their managerial actions.
THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership has been discussed, analysed and understood from several dimensions. The varied experiences of people involved in the process through changing times have provided different perceptions of the subject. Consequently theoreticians and practitioners have approached the subject from their own perspectives resulting in many theories of leadership. As a result leadership has come to mean different things to different people in different contexts. Though the idea of leadership has been known from times immemorial and practised, it is in the 20th century that it has been explored/studied in depth and theorized from many angles. Economists, sociologists, psychologists, political scientists, and anthropologists and others have been investigating into the subject.

In simple terms, leadership is the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a goal. It is essential to business, government and countless groups and organizations that shape the way we live, work and play. The source of influence may be formal, such as that provided by virtue of his position by the manager of an organization or informal as in other social and political organizations.

From the voluminous literature on leadership theories three basic approaches can be identified to explain what makes an effective leader.

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In the early twentieth century with the development of the Scientific Management Movement, increasing emphasis was laid on organisational leadership. F.W. Taylor initiated time and motion studies to analyse work tasks to improve performance in every aspect of organisational functioning. The most notable function of the leader under the Scientific Management or the classical theory was to enhance organisational effectiveness, while the primary aim of the leader was to improve organisational efficiency and not individual efficiency.

In the 1930's Taylor's emphasis was drastically modified by the Human Relations Movement that was initiated by Elton Mayo and his colleagues. Mayo emphasised that for an organization to enhance its effectiveness it has to take into account human feelings, attitudes and processes involving inter-personal interaction. Therefore, in the Human Relations School, the focus of the leader was not only on the development of the organization, but also on the growth of the individuals manning such an organization. The first approach seeks to find universal personality traits that leaders have and non-leaders do not have. The second approach tries to explain leadership in terms of the behaviour that a person is engaged in. The controversy of trait and behavioural theories have given lead to the contingency models of leadership.
Thus, the theories of leadership can be conveniently divided into three viz., (1) Trait theory (2) Behavioural theory (3) Contingency theory.

**TRAIT THEORY OF LEADERSHIP**

Early studies of leadership in the 1940s and the 1950s concluded that leadership is largely a matter of personality, a function of specific traits. The following are some of the studies that attempted to identify these traits:

Ordway Tead\(^{67}\) 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.

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Keith Davis\textsuperscript{68} 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 interests.

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 realize that to accomplish tasks they must be considerate to others.

Studies identified some correlation between leadership and certain personality traits; for example a significant correlation was seen between leadership effectiveness and such traits as intelligence, supervisory ability, initiative, self-assurance and individuality\textsuperscript{69}. A definite correlation was observed in some cases between the traits of


intelligence, scholarship, dependability, responsibility, social participation and socio-economic status of leaders, as compared with non-leaders\textsuperscript{70}. But even these correlations between traits and leadership are not really pervasive. Most of the so-called traits are in essence the pattern of behaviour that one would expect from a leader, particularly in a managerial position\textsuperscript{71}.

In general, studies of leader's traits have not been a very fruitful approach to explain leadership. Not all leaders possess all the traits, and many non-leaders may possess most or all of them. Also, the trait approach gives no guidance as to how much of a particular trait a person should have to be a leader. Furthermore, the dozens of studies that have made do not agree as to what traits are leadership traits or what their relationships are to actual instances of leadership. Most of these so-called traits are really patterns of behaviour.

**BEHAVIOURAL THEORY OF LEADERSHIP**

When it became evident that effective leaders did not seem to have any distinguished traits or characteristics peculiar to them researchers tried to isolate the behaviours that made leaders effective. In other words, rather than try to figure out what effective leaders were, researchers tried to determine what effective leaders

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did - how they delegated tasks, how they communicated with and tried to motivate their subordinates, how they carried out their tasks, and so on. Unlike traits, however, behaviours can be learnt; if followed, therefore, that individual trained in appropriate leadership behaviours would be able to lead more effectively.\(^2\)

The following are the important studies, which come under the behavioural approach to leadership.

**THE LEWIN, LIPPITT AND WHITE STUDY**

One of the earliest attempts to delineate the dimensions of leadership behaviour was made by Lewin and others.\(^3\) This research, in addition to triggering off many other studies based on the same model, was also picked by managerial practitioners. As a result of their observations of the behaviour of a small group of children in a laboratory situation, the following three categories of leaders were identified.

a) **The authoritarian leader:** He himself makes all the decisions that relate to the group and is probably the only source of influence in the group's activities. His most effective technique in maintaining this leadership position is by withholding knowledge of goals, not sharing information required for the

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task, and not providing feedback to members on their progress.

b) **The democratic leader:** He makes decisions jointly with his subordinates, showing his power and influence with the group. The participative process, although time-consuming, effectively encourages each member's input and familiarity with the problem. The leader gains additional information from group members as well as a greater commitment to the decision than that would occur under authoritarian conditions.

c) **The laissez-faire leader:** He allows subordinates to make all the decision. His role becomes that of a general supervisor who establishes merely the broad policies and outline of things to be done and then delegates the implementation to his subordinates. As the term, 'laissez-faire' implies, such a leader is a figurehead and makes no contribution to the group goal attainment. No direction is given to the group members.

According to their study of Lewin and others, the democratic style of leadership is more effective than the other styles.

**OHIO STATE STUDIES**

The most comprehensive and replicated of the behavioural theories resulted from research that began at Ohio State University in the late 1940s. These studies sought to identify independent

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dimensions of leader behaviour. Beginning with over a thousand dimensions, they eventually narrowed the list down to two categories that substantially accounted for most of the leadership behaviour described by subordinates. They called these two dimensions as initiating structure and consideration.

The initiating structure refers to the extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his or her role and those of subordinates in the search for goal attainment. It includes behaviour that attempts to organize work, work relationships and goals. The leader characterized as high in the initiating structure could be described in terms such as, 'assigns group members to particular tasks'; 'expects workers to maintain definite standards of performance'; 'and emphasizes the meeting of deadlines'.

The Consideration is described as the existent to which a person is likely to have job relationships that are characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, and regard for their feelings. He shows concern for his follower's comfort, well-being, status and satisfaction. A leader high in consideration could be described as one who helps subordinates with personal problems, being friendly and approachable and treats all subordinates as equals.

Consideration and initiating structures were found to be uncorrelated and independent dimensions. They are separate behavioral categories and give rise to four types of leadership behaviour. Leaders may be
Low on consideration and low on structure;
Low on consideration and high on structure;
High on consideration and high on structure; or
High on consideration and low on structure.

MICHIGAN STUDIES

Leadership studies undertaken at the university of Michigan's Survey Research Center, at about the same time as those being done at Ohio State, had similar research objectives: to locate behavioural characteristics of leaders that appeared to be related to measure of performance effectiveness. Effective supervisors appeared to display four common characteristics:

1. Delegation of authority and avoidance of close supervision;
2. Interest and concern in their subordinates as individuals;
3. Participative problem-solving; and

The Michigan group came up with two dimensions of leadership behaviour which they labelled 'employee-oriented' and 'production-oriented'\textsuperscript{75}. Leaders who were employee-oriented were described as emphasize interpersonal relationships; they took personal interest in the needs of their subordinates and accepted

individual differences among members. The production-oriented leaders, in contrast, tended to emphasizing the technical or task aspects of the job keeping their main concern over accomplishing their group's task through the means of group members.

The conclusions arrived at by the Michigan researchers strongly favoured the leaders who were employee-oriented in their behaviour. Employee-oriented leaders were associated with high group productivity and higher job satisfaction. Production-oriented leaders tended to be associated with low group productivity and lower worker satisfaction.

**CONTINGENCY THEORY OF LEADERSHIP**

The disillusionment with the 'great man', trait and behavioural approaches to understanding leadership has turned the attention to the study of situations and the belief that leaders are the product of given situations. The contingency approaches to leadership attempt

1. To identify which of these factors is most important under a given set of circumstances; and

2. To predict the leadership style that will be most effective under those circumstances.

In this process several theories like Fiedler's Contingency Model, Vroom and Yetton Contingency Model, Path Goal Model, Life Cycle Theory, Tri-Dimensional Model and Learning Model have been
advanced though, all of them woven around the theme of 'No Best Way'.

**FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY MODEL**

One of the first leader-situation models was developed by Fiedler in his Contingency theory of leadership. Fiedler suggested that leadership behaviour is dependent upon the favourability of the leadership situation. There are three major variables which determine the favourability of the situation and which affect the leader's role and influence.

**Leader-Member relations** - the degree to which the leader is trusted and liked by the group members, and their willingness to follow the leader's guidance.

**The task structure** - the degree to which the task is clearly defined for the group and the extent to which it can be carried out by detailed instructions.

**Position power** - the power of the leader by virtue of his position in the organization, and the degree to which the leader can exercise authority to influence. For example: Rewards and punishments or promotion and demotions.

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Fiedler's work has been subjected to much criticism but it does provide a further dimension to the study of leadership. The best style of leadership will be dependent upon the variable factors in the leadership situation. Fiedler argues that leadership effectiveness may be improved by changing the leadership situation. Position power, task structure, leader-member relations can be changed to make the situation more compatible with the characteristics of the leaders.

**PATH-GOAL MODEL**

The Path-goal theory of leadership, espoused by House, and House and Dessler together is based on the belief that the individual's motivation is dependent upon the expectations that increased effort to achieve an improved level of performance will be successful, and the expectations that improved performance will be instrumental in obtaining positive rewards and avoiding negative outcomes.

It suggests that the performance of subordinates is affected by the extent to which the manager satisfies their expectations. The Path-goal theory hold that subordinates will see leadership behaviour

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as a motivating influence to the extent that it satisfies their expectations. Satisfaction of their needs is dependent upon effective performance; and the necessary direction, guidance, training and support, which would otherwise be lacking, are provided. House identifies four main types of leadership behaviour.

**Directive leadership** involves letting the subordinates know exactly what is expected of them and giving specific directions to them. The subordinates are expected to follow rules and regulations.

**Supportive leadership** involves a friendly and approachable manner, displaying concern for the needs and welfare of the subordinates.

**Participative leadership** involves consulting the subordinates and the evaluation of their opinions and suggestions before the manager makes the decision.

**Achievement-oriented leadership** involves setting challenging goals for the subordinates, seeking improvement in their performance and showing confidence in their ability to perform well.

Leadership behaviour is determined by two main situational factors: the personal characteristics of subordinates and the nature of the task.

- The personal characteristics of subordinates determine how they will react to the manager's behaviour and the extent to which they see such behaviour as an immediate or potential source of need satisfaction;
The nature of the task to the extent that it is routine and structured, or non-routine and unstructured.

Effective leadership behaviour is based, therefore, on both the willingness of the manager to help his subordinates and the needs of the subordinates for help. Leader behaviour will be motivational to the extent that it provides the necessary direction, guidance and support, helps clarify path-goal relationships and removes any obstacles, which hinder the attainment of goals. By using one of the four styles of leadership behaviour the manager attempts to influence subordinates' perceptions and motivation, and smooth out the path to their goals.

LIFE-CYCLE THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard have developed a situational theory of leadership. They call it the "Life-Cycle theory". This theory 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.

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Hersey and Blanchard considered task and relationship behaviour as either high or low and then combined them into four specific leadership styles: telling, selling, participating and delegating.

**THE TRI-DIMENSIONAL MODEL**

In his 3-D management styles theory, William J. Reddin\(^1\) has stressed the dimensions of effectiveness. In this model, the concept of leadership style is integrated with the situational demands of a specific environment. When the style of a leader is appropriate to a given situation, it is termed as effective. Conversely, when the style is inappropriate to a given situation, it is termed as ineffective. If the effectiveness of a leader’s behaviour style depends upon the situation in which it is used, it would follow that any of the basic styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. The difference between effective and ineffective styles often lies not in the actual behaviour of the leader but in the appropriateness of his behaviour to the environment in which it takes place. Thus, essentially, the third dimension in the leader behaviour style syndrome is the environment.

THE LEARNING MODEL OF LEADERSHIP

Argyris and his associate Schon recognize a dichotomy in leadership styles. Instead of emphasizing the contingent situations for effectiveness, they have advanced people-oriented style as a learning model and named their conceptual constructs as Model-I versus Model-II or theory-in-use versus theory espoused.

The two models have been differentiated in terms of governing values, action strategies, consequences on individual and his environment and consequences on learning and group effectiveness. Model-II is normative and ideal and supports that man by himself tends to keep on learning and growing and that his all-round growth is the primary value. But this model lacks supportive empirical evidence.

VISIONARY LEADERSHIP

Visionary leadership is the ability to create and articulate a realistic, credible, attractive vision of the future for an organization or organisational unit, which grows out of and improves upon the present. This vision, if properly selected and implemented, is so energizing that it "in effect jump-starts the future by calling forth the skills, talents, and resources to make it happen."

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SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Social learning theory of leadership can provide a model for the continuous, reciprocal interaction between the leader (including his or her cognitions), the environment (including subordinates/followers and macro-organisational variables), and behaviour itself.\(^{85}\)