In the present era of high growth and productivity, managerial performance becomes the most important aspect of organizational behaviour. Various multinational companies are spending huge amounts in order to motivate their employees so as to extract maximum efficiency from them.

3.1 Managerial Styles and Managerial Performance:

The classic leadership studies and the various leadership theories discuss various managerial styles, which yield optimum performance in different situations. Fiedler’s contingency model of leadership effectiveness (1967) states a relationship between leadership style and favourableness of situation. A task directed style yields optimum performance in a very favourable or unfavourable situation whereas a human relations style is effective in a situation that is neither favourable nor unfavourable.

Evans and House (1970, 1971) stated the four styles of leadership – directive, supportive, participative and achievement oriented were effective in different types of situations. The characteristics of the situation are dependent on the personal characteristics of the subordinates and the environmental pressures and demands facing the subordinates.

Schriesheim and De Nisi (1981) studied task dimensions as moderators of the effects of instrumental leadership: A 2 sample replicated test of path-goal leadership theory. The results showed that task variety was a positive moderator of the leadership satisfaction relationship, whereas task feedback and opportunity to deal with others would be negative moderators.
Vecchio, (1987), examined the situational leadership theory. In this study measures were taken on supervisory style, follower maturity, performance, satisfaction with supervision and equality of leader member exchange. A Variety of statistical tests were conducted to test the prescription for effective supervision contained in situational theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1982). According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), the maturity level of the subordinates indicates whether the manager will adopt the telling, selling, participating or delegating style of leadership. Results show that the theory holds only for certain kinds of employees. More recently hired employees need and appreciate greater task structuring from their superior, than employees who have been working for a longer time.

Srivastava, and Sharma (1992), studied the relationship between managerial effectiveness and leadership style. Results showed a significant relationship between managerial effectiveness and low task and low relationship leadership behaviour. Executives and supervisors don’t differ on managerial effectiveness but there are significant differences in their leadership styles.

Eden (1992) conducted a study, Leadership and Expectations: Pygmalion effects and other self-fulfilling prophesies in organizations. This study states that raising manager expectations regarding subordinate performance boosts subordinate performance. Leadership is key moderator through which manager expectations influence subordinate self-efficacy, performance expectations motivation effort and performance. The behaviour, which comprises the Pygmalion leadership styles, are described. Besides creating one on one performance expectations, managers can assert their leadership by creating productive organization vide self fulfilling prophecies, such as fostering high expectation culture and fighting negative stereotypes.

Howell and Avolio (1993) studied transformational and transactional leadership, locus of control and support for innovation and their effect on performance. Results show that 3 transformational leadership measures are associated with high locus of control and significantly and positively predicted performance. Transactional leadership measures were negatively related to
performance whereas transformational leadership behaviour and performance were moderated by level of support for innovation.

Kellar and Dansereau (1995), studied leadership and empowerment: A social exchange perspective. This study proposed that receipt of negotiating latitude and support of self worth from superiors empowers subordinates by increasing their perceptions of control. Subordinates perform in accordance with supervisory preferences and thus reciprocate. Additionally superiors who utilize empowering leadership practices are predicted to be viewed as fair by subordinates.

Royster (1997) studied the impact of leader resources and situational variables on perceived leadership effectiveness (police officers). The results showed that police officers are likely to increase their perceived and actual effectiveness by taking actions to increase perception of their expertise, group support and democratic style of leadership and lower the perceptions of task complexity.

Thomas (1998) studied the development of managerial effectiveness through performance management. The results of the study showed that the leadership style within the organization was essential for achieving organizational effectiveness. The culture of the organization must support organizational and individual effectiveness. Alignment of individual performance and organizational goals can produce successful outcomes.

Martin (1999) conducted a study to explore the relationship between leadership style, formal education, managerial experience and project manager effectiveness. This exploratory study surveyed 373 project managers along with their respective administrative and project supervisors from a single matrix managed organization, which was thought to represent a uniform corporate culture. The results showed that leadership style affected managerial effectiveness. Educational background did not show any relation with managerial effectiveness. An intriguing result was the negative relationship between length of experience and project manager effectiveness.
Van Scotter, Motowidlo and Cross (2000), collected evidence from 2 samples of Air Force mechanics supporting the hypothesis that contextual performance affects employees' career advancement and rewards over time. Results of hierarchical regressions controlling for experience showed task performance and contextual performance each predicted systemic rewards. Each facet explained separate variance in promotability ratings over 2 years. In both samples, contextual performance explained separate variance in informal rewards but task performance did not. Task performance explained incremental variance in career advancement 1 year later but contextual performance did not. Analyses using correlations corrected for unreliability suggest these results cannot be attributed to measurement error. Contextual performance still explained separate variance in informal rewards, and task performance explained distinct variance in career advancement a year later.

Johnson (2001) in his study evaluated the extent to which supervisors consider task and contextual performance by using relative weights to statistically describe the relative importance of specific dimensions of each type of performance to overall performance ratings. Within each of 8 job families in a large organization, each of 4 dimensions of contextual performance made not only a unique contribution but also a relatively important contribution to the overall evaluation. Evidence also supports the adaptive performance dimension of handling work stress as an aspect of contextual performance and job-task conscientiousness as an aspect of both task and contextual performance.

But there is a lack of evidence to show how the managers adopting different styles differ in contextual and task performance and this needs further investigation.

The target studies on the basis of which the present study has been formulated are as follows:
3.2 Integrative Complexity: Managerial Styles and Managerial Performance

The empirical evidence available shows a positive relation between integrative complexity and managerial skills.

Many times managers have to carry out negotiations. And as negotiation is interactive, the similarities or differences in integrative complexity of both communication partners ultimately determine the effectiveness of negotiation. It was found out by Pruitt & Lewis (1975) that negotiations are more likely to result in mutually beneficial outcomes when the negotiators are both high in integrative complexity. Higher integrative complexity is also a factor affecting interpersonal communication (Sillars & Parry, 1982), and negotiation and conflict resolution are highly dependent on effective communication between participants. Integrative complex thinkers are good listeners even to points of view they find distasteful.

Streufert, Streufert and Denson (1985) studied the effect of cognitive complexity on visual motor task performance and they found that more cognitive complex persons outperform their less complex counterparts. They identify more creative solutions to problems and are cognitively self-directed. The mere fact that the other people are doing something or that an authoritative person says to do it, is not good enough reason for the integrative complex to do it; as a result, they display greater independence of judgement under social pressures (Harvey, Hunt and Schroder, 1961; Schroder et al, 1967; Streufert and Swezey, 1986, Tetlock, 1979, 1983, 1984).

In their book ‘Behavioural Complexity and the Development of Effective Managers’, Hooijberg and Quinn (1992) say that behaviorally complex managers are more effective.

Various studies have been undertaken to show how people with high integrative complexity adapt their thoughts and attitudes to integrate various viewpoints. Also people exhibiting lower integrative complexity are more likely to endorse violence. When subjected to environmental stressors, people start to
think more concretely, more black and white, with lower integrative complexity (Schroder, et al., 1967), because of the cognitive load associated with environmental stressors. But different studies show varied results.

Lower integrative complexity is associated with reduced effectiveness of conflict resolution, increased other-directed attributions for blame in conflicts (Sillars & Parry, 1982), and with more extreme views on capital punishment (de Vries & Walker, 1987). More specifically, a curvilinear relationship was found in which higher integrative complexity was associated with moderate positions toward capital punishment, and lower integrative complexity is associated with extreme positions (pro and con) on capital punishment.

An individual thinking with low integrative complexity will like certainty and rules, will tend to see the world as dichotomous, and make rapid judgments about the world. Lower integrative complexity may thus lead to initiation of violence. Supporting this assertion is a recent analysis of political speeches across time periods and cultures, which found a reduced level of integrative complexity in speeches delivered in times leading to the initiation of violent conflict (Conway, et al., 2001). A person using higher integrative complexity, on the other hand, will tend to find richness in ambiguity, and see a multidimensional array of stimuli in the world (Tetlock, Peterson, & Berry, 1993). Higher integrative complexity might be required for successful negotiation and nonviolent conflict resolution. In resolving conflicts, individuals low in integrative complexity are more likely to resort to competitive actions like war, and more likely to use violence when frustrated (Conway, et al., 2001).

A study by Suedfeld and Bluck (1993), showed different results as to how integrative complexity changes with significant life events. In this study, one positive and one negative significant life event were identified in the biographies of 30 famous people. Random samples of correspondence from periods 1-2 yrs before, during, and 1-2 yrs after each selected event were scored for integrative complexity. The current data showed a substantial increase in the complexity of letters written around the time of negative life events. This was followed by a
decrease to around-baseline levels in letters written during the post event period. There were no significant changes associated with positive life events.

Research has revealed a good deal about both the situational determinants and judgmental and behavioral consequences of integrative complexity. Little is known, however, about people who are prone to think in integratively simple or complex ways. Tetlock, Peterson and Berry (1993) in their study fill this gap by drawing on data collected during in-depth assessments of MBA candidates. Integrative complexity was correlated with a broad range of self-report, observer-rating, semi projective, and managerial-simulation measures. Results revealed a more complex pattern of correlates than one would expect from the flattering theoretical portrayals of integrative complexity. On self-report measures, complex persons scored higher on openness and creativity and lower on social compliance and conscientiousness. On personality-observer ratings, they emerged as narcissistic and somewhat antagonistic. On managerial-observer ratings, complex persons emerged as higher on initiative and self-objectivity. On semi projective measures, complex persons scored higher on power motivation. The integrative complex manager is reminiscent of creative architects, scientists, and writers who participated in previous assessments over the past 3 decades.

Feist (1994) investigated integrative complexity towards research and teaching in a sample of scientists (99 full professors of physics, chemistry, and biology; aged 37-82 yrs). Findings from objective, observer, peer, and self-report data suggest that although scientists who think complexly about research are seen by others as hostile and exploitative, are rated by peers as eminent, and have their works frequently cited. Whereas scientists who think complexly about teaching are seen by others as warm and gregarious but are not well cited by their peers.

McGill, Johnson and Bantel (1994) explored the effects of cognitive complexity and conformity on manager's adaptive performance in a turbulent environment. The results supported an overall positive effect of cognitive complexity on performance.
In a study by Mayer (1997) cognitive complexity in group performance and satisfaction were studied and the results indicated that groups consisting of cognitively complex members outperformed groups consisting of non-complex members.

According to Thibodeau (1999) those who are high on authoritarianism demonstrate less cognitive complexity than low authoritarians in their environmental problem solving.

Harrison (1999) studied cognitive complexity and empathy as predictors of leadership style in an urban college student population and it was found that cognitive complexity alone and cognitive complexity and empathy combined were statistically significant predictors of leadership style.

Thus, in the light of the above studies, it can be concluded that the effect of integrative complexity on contextual and task performance needs to be investigated. How does integrative complexity affect the adoption of different managerial styles, the style range and adaptability also needs to be explored.

On the basis of the above studies it may be hypothesized that:

1. In managers, integrative complexity is positively related with their
   a. task performance (self rated) (Streufert, Streufert and Denson, 1985);
   b. task performance (superior rated) (Streufert, Streufert and Denson, 1985).

2. In managers, integrative complexity is positively related with their
   a. contextual performance (self rated) (Tetlock, Peterson and Berry, 1993);
   b. contextual performance (peer rated) (Tetlock, Peterson and Berry, 1993).
3. In managers, integrative complexity is positively related with their leadership style adaptability (Tetlock, Peterson and Berry, 1993).

3.3 Motives: Managerial Styles and Managerial Performance

Motives are important predictors of managerial performance and managers high on different motives will have different styles of working.

Achievement motivation and performance have a significant and positive correlation. There is a strong positive relation between high achievement motive and high levels of performance and executive success (McClelland, et al., 1953; Atkinson, 1958; McClelland, 1961 and Atkinson and Feather, 1966).

Greenberg (1977) reported that high achievers tend to respond to criticism in a better way and improve their performance more than low achievers do. In India Mishra and Gupta (1994) in a study of performance as a function of employee’s motivation and job involvement found that motivation and job involvement both were significantly related to performance.

Thus research literature has shown that achievement striving is associated consistently with job performance (Bluen et al., 1990, Helmreich, Spence and Pred, 1988). Further people who are high on achievement motive prefer co-operative efforts rather than competitive individualistic efforts (Johnson, Maryama, Johnson, Nelson and Skon, 1981). This has a bearing on the study of relationship of managerial styles and motives.

In a study by Turban and Keon (1993) it was found that subjects who were high on achievement motive were attracted to organisations that rewarded performance.

Phillips and Gully (1997) studied integrated ability, goal setting, self efficacy and multiple personality traits into a common framework that explains and predicts individual performance. A mediational model was tested by using lisrel 8. They found that self efficacy and achievement motive were positively
related to goal level which was positively related to performance in combination with ability and self efficacy.

Whereas affiliation motive is concerned, Shipley and Veroff (1952) suggested a 2 factor theory of affiliation motive according to which it is a function of two sub dispositions – the approach motive (pleasure of acceptance) and the avoidance motive (pain of rejection). Throughout the history of affiliation motive scores, investigators have suspected that it represents primarily a fear of rejection for a variety of reasons. Individuals high on affiliation motive act in various ways to avoid conflict and competition, as if they feared negative feedback from others. Furthermore a number of investigators have reported that individuals with high affiliation motive are less popular (Shipley and Veroff, 1952, Atkinson, Heyns & Veroff, 1954; Crowne & Marlowe, 1964). The explanation given for this has been that individuals high on affiliation motive are anxious about their relations with others, fear disapproval and spend time seeking reassurance from others, which makes them unpopular.

The approach or the positive component of affiliative motive is the intimacy motive. Intimacy motive is a recurrent preference or readiness for experience of warm, close and communicative interaction with other persons (Mc Adams, 1980). The center of intimacy experience is the sharing of ones thoughts, feelings and inner life with other human beings (Mc Adams, 1989). Thus there is a contrast between the affiliation motives and the intimacy motive. Mc Adams (1980), found that those who have a strong intimacy motive are judged to be more warm, sincere, appreciative and loving, less dominant and self centered, whereas none of these characteristics is as strongly associated with the person who are high in affiliation motive scores.

Thus intimacy is the capacity in terms of one's basic human need for sharing one's innermost self through closeness and connection (Mc Adams, 1985, 1989). According to Prager (1995), intimacy is predictive of highest level of satisfaction, love and trust as well as primary reward of closeness. She also suggested that intimate relations have 2 dimensions –
Review of literature...

a) Positive affect – feeling of pride, warmth & affection

b) Perception of understanding i.e. feeling that one is liked, accepted and understood by the other.

Young adults high in both the intimacy motive and affiliation motive regard themselves as more gentle, loyal, contented & realistic than subjects low in these motives. In contrast, subjects high only on affiliation motive regard themselves more often as unselfish, cooperative, sociable and thoughtful. Many of these characteristics involve doing things for others.

Thus such people think that they go out of their way to be nice to others. Whereas those who are high on intimacy motive do not have this opinion of themselves. In fact they have a negative view of themselves as tactless, touchy and cowardly. The implication is that they have high standards about their relationship with others and therefore are more likely to regard themselves as having less empathy for others. In contrast, individuals high on affiliation motive are not so sensitive towards others feelings.

Individuals with strong affiliative motives perform better on tasks that do not involve affiliative content if the incentive in the situation is shifted from achievement to affiliation. During task performance if affiliation motive is aroused by the cooperation incentive, then those high in affiliation motive perform better at the task.

According to McKeachie (1961), students with high affiliation motive worked harder & got better grades in a class room where the instructor was judged to be warm and friendly (e.g. taking personal interest in students, calling them by name and so forth). French (1956), stated that people high in affiliation motive prefer friends to experts as working partners. deCharms (1957) and Harris (1969) found that increasing affiliative incentives in the environment increased cooperative performance in a group more for those low in affiliation motive than for those high in affiliation motive. Thus people are very important for those high in affiliation motive. They act whenever possible to avoid conflict and avoid competition. Even while participating in a situation of international diplomacy,
individuals high in affiliation motive tend to be quite passive i.e. they carry out fewer conflicting or cooperative acts and tell fewer lies in newspaper reports (Terhune, 1968).

Men with high affiliation motive tend not to succeed in management. They spend more time with subordinates (Noujaim, 1968), but this leads to good interpersonal relations and becomes difficult for managers to take tough decisions. Mc Clelland and Boyatzis (1982) found that those high in affiliation motive tend not to get promoted to higher levels at AT & T. Small manufacturing firms or research & development firms headed by men high in affiliation motive tended to be less successful (cited in Mc Clelland and winter, 1969/1971).

Research shows varied relation between power motive and managerial performance. Mc keachie (1961) found that college students with high power motive scores compared with those with low scores received better grades in classrooms where student volunteering was common. However this was not true in other classrooms.

Browning and Jacob (1964) found that only at local level are politicians with high power motive scores are more likely to be successful than those who had low scores.

Veroff and veroff (1972) found that in social settings, where focus is on how successfully a person exercises influence, people with high power motives are not necessarily assertive. Where the focus is away from influence, then people with high power motive become particularly assertive.

Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) stated that task performance includes proficiency and motivation to perform one's own tasks effectively and contextual performance includes motivation to maintain good working relationships. Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) attempted to study interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance and the results show the need to redefine task performance to include motivational elements of jobs dedication. Correlation between performance ratings and individual differences
variables support distinguishing task performance from interpersonal facilitation but not from job dedication. Thus, task performance includes proficiency and motivation to perform one's own tasks effectively and contextual performance includes motivation to maintain good working relationships.

Najar (1999), studied personality and power and their interaction to enhance leadership effectiveness (LE). This research describes the relationship between the 5 factor model, resource power and LE. The 24 leaders in a trucking company were the participants of the study who completed the Hogan personality inventory (HPI) and a measure of resource power (Roberts resource power scale) supervision ratings of performance were used as a measure of LE. Results served each dimension of HPI to be positively related to overall score of RRPS certain dimensions of HPI were positively correlated with the measure of LE there was little relationship between RRPS scales and measure of LE.

Further, Thomas (1999) found that high power motive and achievement motive were related to delegating style of leadership and power motive was inversely related to the selling style of leadership.

The review of literature shows that further research is needed to delineate the motives that cause contextual and task performance. And what motivates a manager to adopt different styles of leadership also needs to be investigated.

On the basis of the above studies it may be hypothesized that:

Achievement motive is positively related with a manager’s
a. task performance (self rated) (McClelland, et al., 1953; Atkinson, 1958; McClelland, 1961 and Atkinson and Feather, 1966);
Intimacy motive is positively related with a manager's
a. contextual performance (self rated) (Mc Adams, 1980);
   b. contextual performance (peer rated) (Mc Adams, 1980).

3.4 Organizational Climate: Managerial Styles and Managerial Performance

A lot of research evidence has shown that organisational climate affects managerial performance.

Likert (1967) stated that different styles of organisational leadership are dependent on intervening variables like structure of organisation, communication and decision making in the organisation.

Whilst all researchers agree on the importance of the climate construct, there is no consensus as yet on the core dimensions of climate. Thus, Campbell and colleagues (1970) proposed four primary climate dimensions: individual autonomy, the degree of structure imposed on positions, reward orientation, and consideration, warmth and support.

Tjosvold, Andrews, and Struthers (1992), conducted a study-Leadership influence: Goal interdependence and power. This research tested the view that goal interdependence and power may affect the kinds of attempts to influence that leaders make and it may also affect the success of these influence attempts. Results show that managers with cooperative goals and power relied on collaborative influence, influenced effectively and contributed to employee work and commitment. Thus successful managers empower their employees and are consistent with the contingency perspective in that the success of leader influence strategies depends on the relationship between manager and employer.

Mats (1992) conducting a study - Leadership as social integrative action: A study of a computer consultancy company. According to this study leadership is conceptualized as social integrative action. Such action is seen as a synthesis of
institutional and human relations oriented leadership. It is argued that leadership should be viewed as an expression of these values, virtues, norms and symbolic guidelines for understanding that are usually referred to as corporate culture.

Darling, (1992) studied Total quality management and the key role of leadership strategies. They examined attributes of successful leadership in organizations using a TQM approach. Interviews of more than 100 successful managers were taken and results show that successful managerial leadership in quality-oriented organizations is highly situational in its context and is based on 4 strategies. These strategies are true attention through vision meaning through communication, trust through positioning and confidence through respect.

Barrick and Mount (1993), studied the moderating role of autonomy on the relationship between big personality dimensions and supervision ratings of job performance. On the basis of data of 146 managers, results showed that 2 dimensions of personality conscientiousness and extraversion were significantly related to job performance. The validity of conscientiousness and extraversion was greater for managers in jobs high in autonomy compared with those in job low in autonomy. The validity of agreeableness was also higher in high autonomy jobs compared with how autonomy ones but correlation was negative.

Helode, (1994) studied leadership in industrial organizations and the grid approach in Indian context. He used the managerial grid measure to see whether govt. sector (GS) and private sector (PS) managers of industrial organizations in India differed in their concerns for production (CP) and concern for workers (CW) and whether subordinates of GS and PS managers differed in their perceptions of their respective managers concerns and whether manager’s concerns differed from their subordinates perceptions of those concerns. Both GS and PS managers showed more CP than CW and they did not differ in their CP. Govt. Sector managers showed more CP than PS managers. Both GS and PS subordinates perceived their managers as having greater CP. Govts. Subordinates underestimated PS subordinates overestimated their manager’s CW.
Brown and Leigh (1996), studied psychological climate and its relationship with job involvement, effort and performance. Results show that perceptions of motivating and involving climate were related to job involvement which in turn was related to effort. Effort was related to job performance. There was a modest but statistically significant effect of job involvement on performance which became non-significant when effort was inserted into the model, indicating the mediating effect of effort on the relationship.

Gellatly (1996), studied conscientiousness and task performance. The results showed that effect of conscientiousness on task performance is mediated by performance expectancy and goal choice. The purpose of this study was to examine whether the effect of big 5 factor of conscientiousness on task performance was mediated by performance expectancy, performance valence and goal choice. In the results the effects for performance valence were not observed.

Vona (1997) studied the relationship between visionary leadership and climates of innovation in organization work units. This descriptive study examined the relationship between visionary leadership and climates of innovation in organizational work units in a service industry. Relationships and differences existing among the 2 constructs and climates of innovation, creativity style, visionary leadership and research demographic data were identified. The TLP was used to measure leadership profile, KAI or kirton adaptation innovation inventory measured the individual cognitive creative style and team climate inventory measured the perception of climate. Result showed significant relationship between TLP and TCI scores, KAI and TCI scores, TCI and TLP scores, KAI and TLP scores.

The organisational health model (Hart & Cotton, 2003), incorporates 10 core dimensions of organisational climate: supportive leadership, role clarity, participative decision-making, coworker interaction, appraisal and feedback, employee development, goal alignment, work demands, workgroup morale and workgroup distress.
Jehn and Shah (1997) used multiple methods to examine group processes (information sharing, morale building, planning, critical evaluation, commitment, monitoring, and cooperation) that mediate the effect of relationship level on group performance. The study uses a 2 by 2 experimental design, crossing relationship (friendship vs. acquaintance) as a between-subjects variable and task type (decision making vs. motor) as a within-subject variable. Fifty-three 3-person groups participated in the study, and data from 4 types of measurement were used to analyze the mediating processes between relationship level and task performance. Friendship groups performed significantly better than acquaintance groups on both decision-making and motor tasks because of a greater degree of group commitment and cooperation. Critical evaluation and task monitoring also significantly increased decision-making performance, whereas positive communication mediated the relationship between friendship and motor task performance.

Denver (1999) conducted a comparative analysis of leadership styles of executives in higher education and for profit corporations: A study of context and gender. The study focused on upper level executives at university of California and their counterparts in large for profit corporations. Over all the educators included deans, VCs, president and campus directors showed an interdependent style comprising of strategies which were team oriented and empowering of others, while corporate executives demonstrated a more independent style comprising of take charge and competitive strategies. Most important finding was that gender differences were not found and environment was the strongest predictor of leader’s achieving style.

A recent meta-analytic review (i.e., where different studies are adjusted with statistical procedures so that they can be added together) of 51 climate studies conducted over past 20 years found that organisational climate exerts robust effects over a range of people performance-related outcomes, across a wide range of work environments (Carr, Schmidt, Ford & DeShon, 2003).

But there is lack of research evidence showing how organisational climate affects contextual and task performance and this area will be further explored. In
the present study, managerial effectiveness will be studied in the light of contextual and task performance and the different styles adopted by managers. The aim is to discover the role of integrative complexity and motives in managerial performance and in the adoption of different managerial styles. How does organizational climate interact with integrative complexity and motives to lead to managerial effectiveness will also be studied.

3.5 Need of the Present Study:

The need of the present study is highlighted by the fact that the role of integrative complexity in managerial effectiveness has been relatively unexplored. There is lack of knowledge as how it contributes to contextual and task performance and further how it affects the adoption of various managerial styles.

How integrative complexity interacts with motives to lead to different managerial styles and different components of job performance will also be revealed. How organizational climate interacts with motives to lead to different managerial styles and different components of job performance will also be revealed. Thus this study will help to understand managerial effectiveness in a better way.

3.6 Aims and Objectives:

1. To study the relationship between integrative complexity and different components of managerial performance.

2. To study whether integrative complexity leads to adoption of a wider range of managerial styles.

3. To study how motives affect managerial performance and the adoption of different managerial styles.

4. To study how perception of organizational climate affects managerial performance and the adoption of different managerial styles.
5. To study the moderating effect of integrative complexity on the relationship of motives with managerial performance and managerial style adopted by the managers.

6. To study the moderating effect of organizational climate on the relationship of motives with managerial performance and managerial styles.

7. To study the relationship between motives and integrative complexity.

8. To study which managerial styles lead to contextual and task performance respectively.

3.7 Hypotheses

On the basis of review of literature the following hypothesis have been framed:

1. In managers, integrative complexity is positively related with their
   a. task performance (self rated) (Streufert, Streufert and Denson, 1985) (cf. pp 28);
   b. task performance (superior rated) (Streufert, Streufert and Denson, 1985) (cf. pp 28).

2. In managers, integrative complexity is positively related with their
   a. contextual performance (self rated) (Tetlock, Peterson and Berry, 1993) (cf. pp 28);

3. In manager’s, integrative complexity is positively related with their leadership style adaptability. (Tetlock, Peterson and Berry, 1993) (cf. pp 29).
4. Achievement motive is positively related with a manager’s
   a. task performance (self rated) (McClelland, et al., 1953; Atkinson, 1958; McClelland, 1961 and Atkinson and Feather, 1966) (cf. pp 33);

5. Intimacy motive is positively related with a manager’s
   a. contextual performance (self rated) (Mc Adams, 1980) (cf. pp 33);