CHAPTER-III
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter constructs a theoretical outline of the research work. The theoretical framework of a study provides a basic structural foundation on which the entire research work is based. Related theories give a fair idea of the conceptual work done in past in that area and scope of theorizing further concepts in that field. Previous work and theories can be substantiated or rejected in accordance with the analysis and conclusions of the study.

In this study, theories related to media professionals, Quality of Work Life, Organisational Commitment and Leadership Styles have been included. The categorization of theories has been done systematically on the basis of various theoretical approach propounded by researchers.

3.1.1 Theories Related to Media Professionals

There are several theories in the field of mass communication that are related to the effects of media usage, media effect on audiences and media consumption. However, there is comparatively lesser study in the area of work life of media professionals in India.

*Hierarchy of Influences Model:* There are several factors which influence the thinking and working style of a journalist. The hierarchy of influence model takes into account multiple factors that influence the working of these professionals. The model studies how the influence at one level can interact with that at another level in the hierarchy of organisational set-up. This model organizes these factors that influence the media content (*Reese, 2007*).

There are various approaches through which this model is understood. Broadly these are classified into five categories including individual factors, routine (in the organisation), institutional factors, organisational factors and ideological or socio-cultural (*Shoemaker & Reese, 1996*).

These approaches are related to the influence on the media content. The first approach, for instance, is related to the psychological or individual factors that influence an individual’s
work. This approach is communicator-centered and takes into account personal, political and professional factors. In short the factors are media workers’ attitude and socialization that influence the content.

The second approach indicates that the media content is related to the routine followed by that media organisation. The argument in this approach is that the content delivered by media workers’ is inspired by the nature of work in that organisation.

Another approach is that the social institutions have an impact on the media content. This approach emphasizes that the crucial influence on media content is of factors outside the organisation. These include cultural, political and economic forces. It also takes into account that market factor implying that what the audience needs, media is delivering content on similar lines.

One approach is the role of ideology in bringing out the media content and maintaining the status quo. This approach moots that the media content is designed to suit those who are powerful or have a status in the society, the media content is to suit their interest. This is the major driving force that decides influence on media content.

3.1.2 Theories on Leadership Styles

Leadership theories that were devised quite early were concentrating on what constituted an effective leader. These theories did not touch upon the aspect of the functioning of this leader and also how he could effectively lead (Armandi, Oppedisano, & Sherman, 2003).

Trait Theories: It was in the 1920’s and 1930’s that the researchers began exploring the qualities of a leader. The trait theories had a major flaw, as researchers later pointed out. This was the lack of attention on the actual relationship of this leader with his subordinate or people working under him and in his team. So this interaction aspect was lacking as well as the circumstances and conditions in the team or organisation.

It was the adequacy of the trait theory that lead to situational theory in the context of leadership studies in past. This theory establishes that there can be no best way to manage an organisation. It propounded that managing and leading an organisation effectively is contingent upon give situation.
Davis (1984) summed up the four key traits of a leader. These were intelligence, inner innovation and achievement drives, social maturity and breadth and human relations attitudes.

*Path-Goal Theory*: This theory says that leadership can be explained considering several variables in the environment. It defines leadership in context of this interaction of the leader with factors at work place.

Rue & Byars (1986) pointed out that relationship oriented means that for the leader qualities like mutual trust, respect, human relations between him and his subordinates, friendship have a significant place. Task oriented implies that for this leader or manager getting the job done or achieving goal, scheduling work and inserting appropriate criticism in style of his functioning is important. This theory also identifies certain forces or variables in that situation which bring moderation in the effect and influence of the leader on the productivity and the satisfaction level of the subordinates working under him, as pointed out by House & Dessler (1974).

Leaders who are effective have skills to handle and react in different situations, they also have the ability to get used to different situations to bring increase in psychological state of their subordinates. This in turn increases the level of motivation and automatically the job satisfaction and eventually the achievement of the collective goal. Leaders compliment the environment at work place to provide their subordinates with the required guidance, direction and appreciation or rewards for desired performance (House & Dessler, 1974).

Path-goal theory also makes a difference between the behavior of leader as relationship oriented and task oriented.

Tannenbaum & Sachmidt (1973) pointed out that leaders who are successful comprise those who can understand people in their organisations better and act accordingly. Leadership behavior has been broadly divided into two components- one is employee orientation (relationship) and other is task (production) orientation and these two types are further branched out into styles of these leaders.

Hersey & Blanchard (1972) stated that Path-goal theory assumes that when it comes to the age and education as variables, increase in levels of leaders lead to rise of relationship between leader and subordinate. This simply means that subordinates with higher level of experience are more satisfied with leaders who value relationship orientation more.
Situational Leadership Theory: Hersey & Blanchard (1996) propounded the situational leadership theory. This stated that the leaders should adapt their style in accordance with the follower’s development style or maturity. Observing the extent to which the follower is willing to perform the desired tasks and keeping in view their competence, the leader must adapt his or her style. When the level of maturity is low then high task is applicable.

In this case the leader may apply low relationship style as well to get desired results.

On the flipside if the level of maturity is high among the subordinate of the follow in that case a leader can follow the path of low task. In this context a high relationship works best for effectiveness.

Other Models of Leadership: The theory of complex responsive process (CRP) was propounded by Stacey, Griffin, & Shaw (2000). This was an alternate to the dominant systems theories. The insight provided by this theory is in contrast to system theory which focused on the conditions that were needed to improve performance at work place and changes that were needed.

Conger & Kanungo (1998) devised a model to describe the charismatic leadership style. This model propounded that dominance and charisma were born out of perfect attunement between the follower as well as the leader. Often the two terms- charisma and transformational leadership are used as synonyms in leadership studies.

House & Shamir (1993) integrated all the charismatic leadership theories of past. Weber’s charisma concept was the central theme in this integration.

Bass (1985) came up with the transactional-transformational leadership model that was developed on the earlier views of Burns. Bass (1985) also described four components of the second type of leaderships, which was transformational leadership. The first component was intellectual stimulation, the second was individual consideration, third was inspirational leadership and lastly the idealized influence. Intellectual stimulation is that skill of the leader to motivate his subordinates or followers to think creative and resolve problem. Individualized consideration meant that the leader was someone who provided support and encouragement to his followers in order to empower them. In this context individual orientation and the developmental orientation were the two dimensions of individualized consideration. Inspirational leadership implied that transformational leaders inspire the members of the team or their subordinates to create greater emotional attachment. This was
also done to create a greater identification with the goal of that leader by setting personal examples. Idealized influence refers to charisma of the leader who will promote his followers commitment to utilize their full potential. This can be considered quite similar to charismatic traits of a leader.

Transformational leadership was first studied by Weber and later in detail by Burns (1978) who proposed these two forms of leadership- transactional and transformation. According to him transactional leadership was the traditional form of leadership. The transactional-transformational model of leadership came to existence when in 1970’s a shift was being observed in the leadership studies. It revolved around the leader-subordinate exchange relations. In this traditional form of leadership the employee or the subordinate got rewards as per lower order needs. These were received in return for obeying the leader’s instructions or the expectations. However in the transformational leadership style, the leader motivated his subordinates to pursue higher-order goals. Instead of self-interest here the subordinates were encouraged to achieve higher goals for the benefit of the organisation.

The key charismatic leadership theories (House, 1977) were leader centric. They constituted both positive and negative consequences of charismatic leadership in context of leader’s personality or behavior.

Pinder & Pinto (1974) in their study concluded that young managers were more autocratic. They were inclined to making independent decisions. The middle aged leaders believed in consulting the group and were better at inter-personal skills at work.

Vroom & Yetton (1973) found that autocratic style is important as far as achieving the common goal is concerned. Even if the leader is relationship oriented in his approach, an autocratic style ensures that the organisation’s objectives are achieved. These researchers also gave a contingency model describing that a leader should be both autocratic and participative. A leader must vary his style in accordance to the situational factors.

Yet another set of researchers focused on the situation and conditions at workplace to theorize leadership styles. Reddin (1970) suggested that these styles can be best judged and categorized when the specific situations are taken into consideration. He identified four ineffective and four effective styles of leadership. These included- democratic, developer, bureaucratic and benevolent as the effect parameters. The ineffective style included compromiser, missionary, autocratic and deserter as characteristics.
White & Lippit (1960) categorized leadership styles into three sub categories including autocratic style, democratic style and the Laissez faire style. The democratic style revolves around the democratization of the work place which is more people oriented and this style is starkly different from an autocratic style of leadership where the crucial policy making is leader’s responsibility.

Table 3.1.2 Leadership Styles categorization done by White & Lippit, 1960

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Autocratic Leadership Style</th>
<th>Democratic Leadership Style</th>
<th>Laissez Faire Style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The leader determines the policies</td>
<td>Group discussions and decision encouraged, all this is assisted by the leader</td>
<td>Total autonomy to the group or individuals in the team to make decisions and leader has least participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The authority will dictate the techniques to be used and the activities</td>
<td>General steps for the group are provided, technical advice given by leader in the form of two or more options to be selected by group</td>
<td>Leader provides the required material and makes it clear that material will be provided on request (does not participate in work discussion)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader dictates the task for each member</td>
<td>Members free to work with whomsoever they chose, hence decision left to group</td>
<td>Complete non-participation of the leader in work allocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When it comes to praise and criticism of members, personal discretion used</td>
<td>Objectivity and fact mindedness used in praise and criticism of members</td>
<td>Infrequent and spontaneous comments on activity of members, no attempt to praise or criticize otherwise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ohio State University’s Research on Leadership Styles: In 1940’s and 1950’s a series of research were conducted on leadership at Ohio State University (Shartle, 1956) and eventually an instrument was developed to measure the effectiveness of a leader in the organisation. This was the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) which categorized leader’s behavior in two aspects- consideration and initiating structure (Stogdill, 1977).

The current research on media professionals also utilizes this questionnaire, developed by Halpin 1957 at Ohio State University, to evaluate leadership styles of leaders in the context of media industry in India.
Consideration was termed as extent to which leader’s behavior towards subordinates is characterized by mutual trust, mutual respect and support for subordinates ideas, a climate of rapport and a two way communication between them (relationship orientation).

Initiating structure (task orientation) is the extent to which the leader is defining and structuring his role in the set up. This also includes his ability to structure the role of his subordinates.

*Leadership Studies in Indian Context:* A leadership model called the Yoga-Vedanata model was developed by Chakraborty & Chakraborty (2004). This model was propounded from the Indian values and states that the Vedanta frames the law and acts a guide and the yoga provides the leaders with the direction and strength. This model is based on the twin pillars of purification of emotions (PE) and clarity of intellect (CI).

Dayal (1999) mentioned several socio-cultural aspects in India which hinder the development of leaders in the context of Indian organisations. These include the joint family culture; dependency; greater importance to roles than relationships; little urge to become somebody; organisations are merely employing and not developing people; more emphasis on loyalty than performance from subordinates.

Another Indian model of enlightened leadership was propounded by (Sharma, 1998) combining the Indian Guna Theory (Satva guna reflecting balance and equilibrium, Rajas guna reflecting action and expansion and Tamas guna symbolizing inertia or resistance to action) coupled with the western management theories. This theory was suggested that enlightened leaders created transformational rewards.

Yet another model was propounded by Khandwalla (1990) who focused on entrepreneur leaders. He named it PI model, where P was ‘pioneering’ efforts that enable the leader to achieve path breaking accomplishments and I stands for ‘innovative’ abilities or qualities which enable the leader to transform the status quo.

Khandwalla introduced a set of skills which were required in an entrepreneur leader. These included proclivity for innovation, a kind of sensitivity about system and structure, desire for challenge, problem solving skill, resource and support mobilization, achievement drive and a desire to be topper through performance.
**Sinha (1974)** developed an indigenous leadership theory which fits in the Indian context. According to this in the Indian organisational set up one particular style was most suitable for leaders and this was nurturing style. This style is task oriented in which there are structured expectations of the leader from his team members or subordinates.

*Leadership in context of the Media Industry- Scope of further investigation:* In context of leadership in various industries and specific to certain sectors, researchers have been of the opinion that new theories and approaches are required to address differences in various sectors and industries (Pinnington, 2011).

Leadership in context of the media organisations has been studied by several scholars in the West including Polansky & Hughes in 1986, Nielsen & Pate in 1989 and Louis in 1997 however leadership in reference to the changing culture in news organisations and newer challenges in media are yet to be empirically investigated (KÜNG, 2006).

In order to develop theoretical constructs that reflect day to day concerns of managers in organisations, those frameworks are needed that bring together the insights from different disciplines (Schultz & Hatch, 2005).

In a study Argyris (1974) described how downward communication at a top newspaper organisation was a source of conflict and inefficiency. Certain factors like problem-solving, decision making and implementation in this organisation were factors supporting ineffectiveness and these factors were greater than those supporting effectiveness.

The present research on media professionals in India focused on the role of leaders as editors/coordinators/seniors in the editorial section of the news organisation. These could be senior editors or team leaders of city or regional editions of newspapers and newsmagazines.

The leadership style of these editors and coordinators and its impact on the subordinates, who most often include reporters, photo-journalists, sub-editors and designers was studied. Particularly in the context of Indian media, the leadership style of editors was not studied before.

### 3.1.3 Theories Related to Quality of Work Life

Even as a host of models and theories have been proposed by American researchers and European Commission too has laid down factors of Quality of Work Life, in South Asia however, the concept is yet to be worked upon thoroughly (Sinha, 2012). Researchers opin
that this is particularly true for India, where Quality of Work Life is yet to be understood and implemented in proper sense.

The establishment of the International Council for Quality of Work Life in 1972 was a step to record and document principles and efforts being made by organisations in this direction.

After its meeting in March 2005, the European Council decided to rework on the definition of Quality of Work Life, among other aspects related to work environment through revisions in Lisbon Strategy. In its Social Policy Agenda, it was agreed the Quality of Work Life considered both the existence of the paid employment as well as characteristics of the employment. It was assumed here that Quality of Work Life does not have a limited definition in the academic or literary aspect. The European Council considered certain dimensions for Quality of Work Life, which include- (1) Intrinsic Job Quality, (2) Skills, Life Long learning and Career Development, (3) Gender Equality, (4) Health and Safety at Work, (5) Flexibility and security, (6) Inclusion and access to the Labour market (7) Work Organisational and work-life balance, (8) Social dialogue and worker involvement, (9) Diversity and non-discrimination, (10) Overall work performance (Royuela, López-Tamayo, & Suriñach, 2007).

Yet another researcher, Bearfield (2003) evaluated Quality of Work Life using 16 questions and stressed that different concerns could be related to different groups, hence reasons for dissatisfaction among professionals needed to be considered too.

Certain researchers have argued that Quality of Work Life parameters could vary for different workers and different industries and work environment too. Ellis & Pompli (2002) specifically introduced a Quality of Work Life scale for nurses to measure their dissatisfaction. These include dimensions like poor working environment, workload, balance of work and family, shift work, lack of recognition, among others.

Certain other scholars laid emphasis on satisfaction of employees with job. Sirgy et al. (2001) for instance included factors like need satisfaction based on job requirements, work environment, supervisory behaviour, ancillary programmes and organisational commitment.

Baba & Jamal (1991) introduced some indicators for Quality of Work Life which included job satisfaction, job involvement, work role conflict, work role overload, job stress, organisational commitment and turn-over intentions.
Mirvis & Lawler (1984) proposed that Quality of Work Life was significantly associated with wage, hours of work and working conditions. He gave an idea of the basic elements to ensure good quality of work life. These included safe work environment, equitable wages, equal employment opportunities as well as opportunities for advancement.

Taylor (1979) gave a model which was different from theory based models. He included essential components like wages, work hours and work conditions. He ideated a number of additional parameters like individual power, employee participation in the management, fairness and equality, social support, use of one’s present skills, self-development, a meaningful future at work, social relevance of work and effect on extra work activities.

Hackman & Oldham Model (1976) gave certain dimensions of Quality of Work Life, which are more connected to psychological growth of employees. These needs identified by them to achieve high Quality of Work Life include- Skill variety, Task Identity, Task Significance, Autonomy and Feedback.

Quality of Work Life Theories in the Indian Context: Sinha & Sayeed (1980) suggested that Quality of Work Life has already made headway in India and although initially the focus was on sociological aspects but recently psychological aspects are being considered for overall Quality of Work Life measurement.


The inventory has been successfully used in India by Sayeed & Sinha (1981) as well as Anantharaman & Ravindranath (1982).

3.1.4 Theories Related to Organisational Commitment

Cheng et al. (2002) proposed a long-term commitment model which takes into consideration long term changes in the organisation. This model considers those components that stimulate commitment level of employee and management to satisfy stakeholders. The satisfaction of
employee and management resulting from favorable performance in the organisation will ensure
the commitment of the employees further to the organisation. The researchers found this
interdependence of commitment and satisfaction of employees and it was beneficial for the
organisation.

A host of researchers have concluded that affective dimension of commitment, that is- employee’s
willingness to stay in the organisation because he wants to, depends on generally positive
perception of management and organisation, like organisational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger,
2002). Much of this positive attitude is also to do with trust in the management (Pearce, 2003).
Commitment to the organisation is also triggered by climate at work and friendly practices (Guest,
2003).

Meyer et al. (2002) went further to find relation between three forms of commitment mentioned in
the three-component model with- affective, normative and continuous commitment as its
dimensions. The researchers found that these three forms of commitment are related to each other
and also distinguishable. These forms of commitment are related to job satisfaction, job
involvement and occupational commitment. Affective commitment was found to have strongest
and most favorable correlation with outcomes related to organisation and employee like attendance,
performance, stress and work-family conflict. Even as normative commitment was also associated
with desirable outcomes, although not as much as affective commitment. Continuous commitment
was negatively related to outcomes or productivity of the organisation.

Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) identified that employees can develop multiple work related
commitments and that commitment was a multi-dimensional construct. There is a considerable
amount of disagreement on commitment itself among researchers and literary definitions, on how
commitment affects behavior or how it is developed. Many scholars have opined that commitment
should have a basic and essential definition and outline regardless of which context it is used in.

Another interesting study was done to further research on three dimensional model of commitment.
Finegan (2000) studied the influence of personal and organisational values on affective, normative
and continuous commitment. The study revealed that affective commitment was highest when there
was resemblance between individual’s goal and those of organisation. This was not the case with
normative commitment.
Gaetner (1999) showed possibility of dimensions not predicting job satisfaction and organisational commitment both, which some parameters or determinants could be related more to commitment of employees, others could be pertaining job satisfaction alone.

Researchers have gone to the extent of proving empirically that organisational commitment and job satisfaction have an overall impact on the turnover of organisation (Gaertner, 1999). Among these leadership is a key factor to predict employee’s job satisfaction and commitment, apart from other characteristics.

When employees lack professional commitment, it can be anticipated that they intend to leave the organisation (Cohen, 1998).

Discretionary effort and employment continuance are the two factors of organisational commitment identified by Castells (1996) in the new organisations. Only when there is stability of employment, then the employee will give best to the organisation in terms of using his knowledge not just for his own benefit but for the organisation in totality. When there is stability in job, then it makes sense for individual to remain commitment to his work and organisation.

Campion et al. (1993) how conceptualizing work characteristic like training, assigning work, appraising performance could increase the awareness of Human Resource department employees in understanding their responsibilities regarding work. This also ensures that power is decentralized with subordinates, which is a positive indication for good functioning of work place.

Recent research supports and strengthens the three dimensional construct of professional commitment which is similar to organisational commitment concept given by Meyer et al. (1993). Accordingly the involvement of an employee could vary depending on the kind of attachment or commitment he has towards the organisation. Which form of predominant commitment is there in the employee decides his contribution to the organisation and willingness to stay. An employee which has more affective commitment, will keep up with developments in the occupation since he wants to remain with organisation with his own wish. This may include subscribing to trade journals, magazines or attending refresher programmes and conferences. However those who are connected with organisation due to continuance commitment may not be as inclined towards progressive activities or keeping themselves updated.

Hence, it was concluded by a host of researchers that affective commitment was largely influenced by organisation’s value system and that of the employee.
Affective commitment results in elevation of the job performance of employees, because they are in the organisation because they want to be there. Researches show that affective commitment results in greater willingness to stay in organisation but which factor is instrumental in retaining the employees was a difficult construct for the scholars (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993).

Certain researchers also differentiated between organisational identification and commitment towards organisation (Mael & Tetrick, 1992) since organisational commitment implies internalization of values. Employees tend to identify themselves with an organisation with greater salience for them. This results in greater affective commitment for them, which means they remain with the organisation because they want to.

A popular theoretical construct was given by Meyer & Allen (1991). They described three forms of organisational commitment as affective, normative and continuous commitment. The first one is when individual stays in the organisation because he wants to, the second (normative) type of commitment is when employees stays in the organisation because they need to and third, continuous commitment is when individuals feel they should stay with the organisation.

This is among the most popular theory for commitment and is called the three-factor model of Meyer & Allen (1991).

From the above conceptual framework it is seen that commitment is regarded as a positive employee response to progressive practices in the organisation like training, team work and schemes.

Organisational Commitment can be viewed from two different perspectives. One is from behavioral perspective and other is as an attitude. The first approach defines Organisational commitment as commitment of an individual towards the organisation due to financial aspect as a function of his/her age. In short, the individual stays with the organisation because it costly for him/her to leave it. In the second category, Organisational commitment is an attitude comprising three components- belief in organisation’s goals and values and its acceptance, willingness to exert effort on behalf of organisation and strong desire to maintain organisational membership (Blau & Boal, 1987).

Another model related to organisational commitment was proposed by Reichers (1985) which was a multiple constituency model that agrees upon multiple foci of commitment like work team,
supervisor, project group, colleagues and customers. A key aspect of research on human resource in companies revealed in 1920’s that commitment to the norms of work group were more likely to influence commitment that values of organisation as such.

Mowdey et al. (1982) predicted how job satisfaction varies more directly and instantaneously with changing working conditions than organisational commitment.

According to the bet theory (Becker, 1960), the third form of commitment- continuous commitment comes into play when employees feel that they now have a good hang of the profession and have acquired skills and expertise, have accumulated achievements and have a good retirement plan. This theory propounds that when employees recognize that the alternatives are limited in other organisations, they are likely to adjust and stay in their current organisation in order to avoid losing their privileges.