UNIT 3 - MOTIVATION

MEANINING OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is simply the process of encouraging employees to voluntarily give their best in the job so that the performance goals are achieved effectively. It is a drive that moves people to do what they do. Motivation involves identifying and influencing people's behaviour in a specific direction. It actually works with the individuals' desire, energy and determination and stimulates them to realize the predetermined goals.

Some words whch go with motivation:

- Desire
- want, wishes
- aims, goal
- needs and drives
- motives, incentives

Motivation is a term used to describe those processes both institictive and rational, by which people seek to satisfy their basic drives, perceived needs and personal goals which triggers human behaviour

Therefore motivations is a process and a drive

Motivation may be defined as keeness for a particular behaviour or simply willingness to work in order to achive a predetermined reward or goal.

Motivation is a product of needs, drives or motives, which is basically the driving force within a person.

It is inner state that enersises, activates or directs behavior towards achieving a goal.

Motivation is a process that starts with ***physiclogical*** or ***psychogical*** deficiency or ***need*** that activates a behaviour or a ***drive*** that is aimed at a ***goal*** or an ***incentive.***

Therefore motivation lies in the meaning of interelationship between

- need
- drive
- inceintive

Need: Created whenever there is a physiological or psychological imbalance e.g. when the body is deprived of food

Drive: it is a deficiency with direction – actions which provide an energising thrust towards reaching an incentive

e.g need for food translates to hunger (drive)

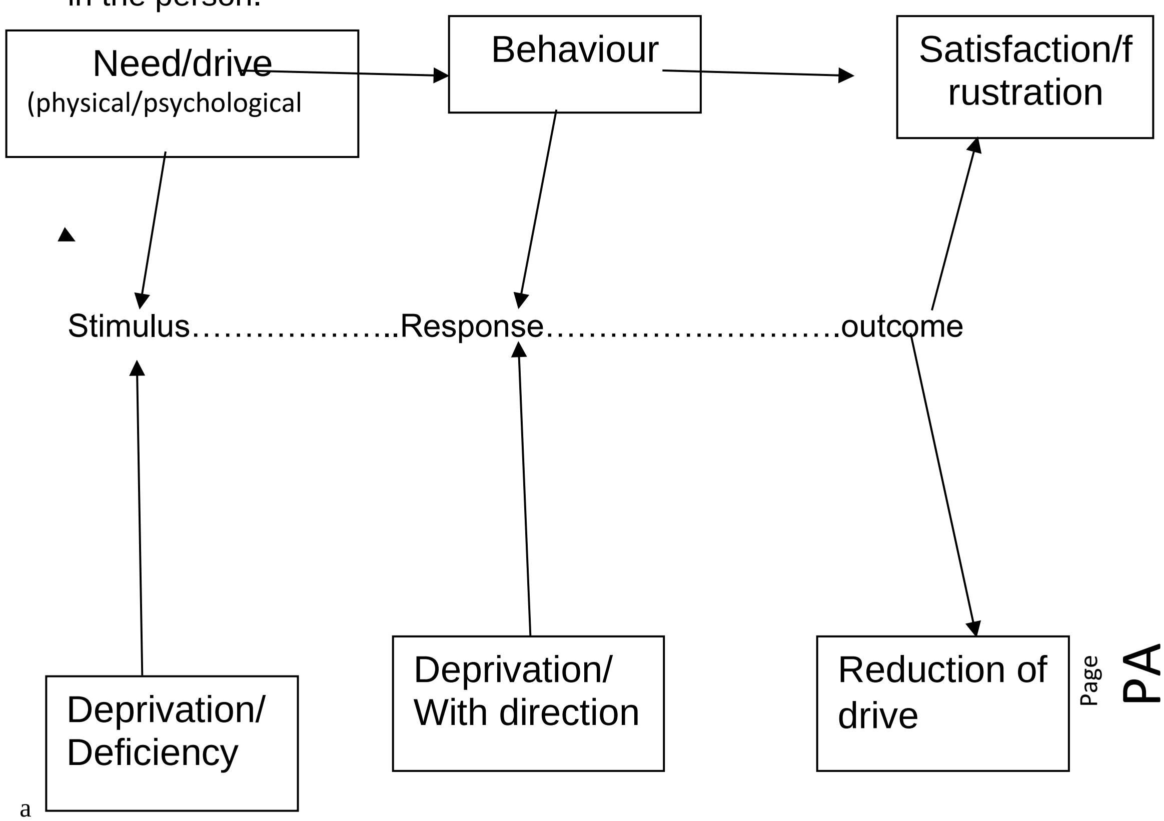
need for friends translates to a drive for affliation

incentive: anything that allievates the need and reduces the drive, restores the physiological or psychological balance

Model of motivation

A simplified model of motivation would look like below

The need is created when there is a psychological or physiological imbalance in the person.



- A stimulus - e.g. Hunger (physical) or desire for company (social/psychological) ………. give rise to a response (some kind of behaviour) ………which leads to an outcome…. (Either satisfaction or frustration
- Motives may or may not be clear to individual
- But as manages we need to understand the motives of each individual actions because how we understand others will influence our attitude and behaviour towards them
- For example, if somebody is hardworking and reliable, we treat them with respect – but it might not have been what they wanted (not the motive/need)
- As managers we need to understand the drive/need
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WHAT IS A NEED - what creates the need? - Schein's classification of needs

Schein propounded a classification of managers' assumption about people based on a review of earlier approaches of motivation. His classification follows a broadly chronological pattern as follows:

Rational- Economic

Human motivation has its roots from the need for self-interest and the maximization of gains as the prime motivations. According to Schein, this view places human beings into two categories:

1. The untrustworthy, money- motivated, calculative masses
2. The trustworthy, more broadly motivated, moral elite whose task is to organizes and control the masses

Social model

Views people as predominantly motivated by social needs – the need for personal relationship. This is drawn heavily on the conclusions of Hawthorne studies. The implications for managers is that emphasis on attending to people's needs over the task will lead to greater productivity as well as higher morale.

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Self-actualization model

Individual needs for self-actualization is the prime motivator

The implications to managers here is that people need challenge, responsibility and autonomy in their work if they are to be motivated

Complex model

Presupposes that understanding people motivation is a complex business in which interrelated factors are at work

Managers in this situation need to be sensitive to a range of possible responses to employees' motivation against the different work and team environment

This Schein classification helps to relate the major approaches to organizational behaviour and motivation, the basis of which is that motives are directed towards *desired ends* (social, economic, self-actualization etc) and the behaviour that is selected consciously or sometimes instinctively towards the achievement of these ends

CLASSIFICATION OF MOTIVE

Human motives can be classified into two;

- Primary motives
- Secondary motives

Primary motives

- Primary needs are mainly physiological/biological and unlearned. They include need for food, water, clothing and shelter, sleep, sex and other material concerns

Secondary motives:

- Are mainly psychological and learned. And they include belongingness, power prestige, competence recognition and achievement.

- For organizational behaviour, as the society develops economically and becomes more complex, the primary motives give way to secondary motives in motivating behaviour

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The theoretical approaches to motivation can be classified into there:

1. **The content theories – which go as far back as early 1900**
2. **Process theories**
3. **Contemporary theories**

Historical Development

Content Theories

1900 – Scientific management theories (Fredrick Taylor which emphasized wages and incentives as motivators

1940s – Hawthorne Studies (Elton Mayo) emphasizes working conditions and need for affiliation as motivators

1950s/1960s - Maslow's Hierarchy of needs Theory
Douglas McGregor Theory X and Y
Herzberg two factor theory
Alderfer Expectancy, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory

Process Theories

1960s Vroom Expectancy Theory
Porter Lawler Performance/satisfaction model

Contemporary Theories

Stacy Adams equity Theory of work motivation

1961 McClelland Achievement Motivation model

D.C. McClelland Achievement Motivation Theory

While many psychologists have studied common factors in human motivation, others have focused on differences between individuals. One such researcher is

McClelland of Harvard University. He and his team drew attention to three set of needs in particular as follows:

- **The need for achievement (n-Ach)**
- **The need for power (n-Pow)**
- **The need for affiliation, or belonging (n-Aff)**

McClelland isolated the n-Ach as key human motive and that is influenced strongly by personality and environment

> *Achievement may be defined as the degree to which persons wishes to accomplish challenging goals succeeds in competitive situation and exhibit desire for feedback regard performance*

He concluded that n-Ach is developed more by childhood experiences and culture background than by purely inherited factors. Hence the importance of management by supervisors training and designing jobs to increase achievement motivation

Persons with high need for achievement tend to have the following characteristics:

1. *Want to do better than the competitors – highly competitive*
2. *Moderate risk takers*
3. *Need for immediate feedback. these people prefer activities that will provide immediate feedback e.g. mechanical work rather than research work, sales rather than marketing*
4. *Satisfaction with accomplishment: accomplishing a task is intrinsically satisfied in itself without necessary accompanying material rewards – want money for what it can buy and not for its own sake*
5. *Preoccupied with the task: higher achievers tend to be totally preoccupied with the task until they are successfully completed. They cannot stand to leave a job half-finished and are not satisfied with themselves until they give maximum effort.*
6. *They are dedicated, committed and hence sometimes unfriendly, braggers*
7. *The like attaining or surpassing a difficult goal and are exited when solving difficult and complex problems*
8. *Are innovative – enjoy developing better ways of doing things*

9. *Can exercise personal responsibility*

Need for Power

Characteristics

- Need to influence others
- Control others
- Being in possession of authority
- Gaining control if information
- Defeating the opponent

Need for affiliation

- Being likely by many people
- Being accepted as part of a group
- Working with people who are friendly
- Maintain harmonious relationship and avoid conflict
- Participating in pleasant social activities

Need for security

- Have a secure job
- Be protected against loss of income
- Protection again illness and disability
- Protection against physical harm or hazardous condition
- Avoid task with a risk of failure or blame

Need for status

- Having the right car
- Wearing the right clothes
- Working for the right company
- Having a degree from the right university
- Living in the right neighborhood
- Belong to a certain club

MASLOW'S HERARCHY NEED THEORY:

Drawing mainly form humanistic psychology and clinical experience, Abraham Maslow outline on overall theory of motivation He said that a person's motivation could be arranged in hierarchical manner.

He believed that ***once a given level of need is satisfied, it no longer serves to motivate. The next level needs to be activated in order to motivate an individual. Once the needs at the lower level are satisfied, those at the next higher level emerge and demand satisfaction***.

There are five levels in his hierarchy of needs:

Basic or Physiological Needs

- These are the needs which must be satisfied to maintain life. The basic needs include need for food, water, air and shelter.

Application: These needs are unlearned (primary) these needs can be met by providing basic salary or wage and safe working conditions.

Safety or Security Needs

- Once the physiological needs have been met, the needs at next higher levels, safely needs emerge.
- Need for a stable environment relatively free from threats
- This includes emotional as well as physical safety
- Safety needs include desire for protection from physical danger, quest for economic security, performance for familiar rather than the unfamiliar, and desire for an orderly predictable world.

Application: Safety needs can be met by job security, joining trade union and fringe benefits such as insurance or medical scheme, severance pay, pension plans.

Social Needs /love and belongingness

- When physiological and safety needs have been met, social needs the next level become important motivators.
- Need related to affectionate relations with others and status within the group

- These needs include the desire to belong, to be accepted, to give and receive friendship and affection.

Application: Social needs are met by compatible formal and informal work groups, friendship at work, joining clubs, societies and social groups

Ego or Esteem Needs

- Once physiological, safety, and social needs are satisfied**,** the esteem needs assume priority.
- Self-esteem needs can be broken into two categories. The first category reflects our need for competence and achievement or success. This can be satisfied intrinsically.
- The second category of esteem needs include the desire for reputation, prestige and recognition from others.

Application: Ego or self –esteem needs can be met by promotion or merit pay increase, high status job title, less direct supervision, delegation of authority.

Self-Actualization or Self-Fulfillment Needs

- Self-actualization or self-fulfillment is the highest level in the hierarchy. These are the individual needs for realizing his or her own potential for continued self-development and creativity.
- It is a feeling of accomplishment and of being satisfied with one's elf or become the best one is capable of becoming.
- Self-actualization is the persons motivation to transform self-perception into reality
- *Application*: Self – actualization needs can be met by challenging jobs, creative tasks, advancement opportunities, and achievement in work. Realization of ones potential.

According to Maslow***, people tend to satisfy their needs systematically stating with basic physiological needs and then move up the hierarchy.***

Until a particular group of needs is satisfied, a person's behaviour will be dominated by them

Thus, a person who is hungry will not be motivated by safety or affection needs.

Maslow later modified this argument by stating that ***there was an exception to this rule in respect to self-actualization – for this level it seems that satisfaction of one need gives rise to further need for realizing ones potential***

DOUGLAS MCGREGOR THEORY X AND THEORY Y:

McGregor saw two different set of assumption made by managers about their employees – X and Y

Theory X

- Regards employees as being inherently
- Lazy – the average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can
- Because of the laziness, most people require coercion and control, direction, threat with punishment to get the work done
- Avoid responsibility
- Has relatively little ambition and only seeks security

Theory Y

This theory sees people in a more favourable light

- Employees are seen as liking work – which they see as natural as rest or play
- Work is seen as a source of satisfaction
- Employees do not have to be controlled or coerced so long as they are committed to the organisation objectives. Employees will exercise self-control and self-direction to achieved objectives
- Under proper conditions, they will not only accept but also seek responsibility
- Employee exercise imagination and ingenuity at work

In real life, a bred of the two is likely to provide the best prescription for effective management

HERZBERG'S MOTIVATION- HYGENE THEORY (TWO FACTOR THEORY) 1959

Herzberg conducted a motivational study on about 2000 accountants and engineers employed by firms around Pittsburg, Pennsylvania
The interviews focused on satisfactory and dissatisfactory feelings about the job (experiences)
The interviewees were asked two questions:

1. When did you feel particular good about your job – what turned you on?
2. When did you feel exceptionally bad about your job – what turned you off?

Following the interview, Herzberg and his team came up with the conclusion that:

- Certain factors tend to frequently lead to job satisfaction and other facts led frequently to job dissatisfaction.
- The factors leading to satisfaction were called **motivators**
- Those giving rise to dissatisfaction were called **hygiene factors**

According to Herzberg, there are two factors that are associated with employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The two factors are called hygiene factors (dissatisfies) and Motivators (satisfiers)

The study showed that good feelings (motivators) were associated with job **experience and job content**. For example an accounting supervisor felt good about being given the job to install new computer equipment

The most important **motivators** or satisfiers that emerged were

- Achievement
- Recognition
- The work itself
- Responsibility
- Advancement -Opportunity for advancement or professional growth

As noted, these factors are intimately related to the **content of work** i.e. with the i**ntrinsic** challenges, interest and individual responses

Satisfiers are those benefits above and beyond the basic elements of the job. Satisfiers tend to enhance motivation Commitment and loyalty of employees.

Hygiene Factors

The study showed that bad feeling were associated generally with the surrounding environment or peripheral aspects of the job – the **job context.** Fore example the boss/subordinate relationship

The most important hygiene factors to emerge were

- The company policy and administration
- Supervision – the technical aspects
- Salary
- Interpersonal relationship – with supervisor
- Working conditions

From this analysis, Herzberg concluded that

1. Job satisfaction is related to job content (motivators)
2. Job dissatisfaction is related to job context (hygiene factors)

The term hygiene refer to (as it does in health) factors that are preventive

In Herzberg theory, hygiene factors are those that prevent dissatisfaction, but do not make a positive contribution to employees wellbeing (at least not in a lasting way)

3. Motivators can bring about positive satisfaction whereas hygiene factors can only prevent dissatisfaction. i.e. if motivators were absent form the job, the employees is likely to experience real dissatisfaction

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However, if the hygiene factors are provided, they will not in themselves bring about substantial job satisfaction

- Hygiene factors do not act as motivators but when they are withdrawn, they create dissatisfaction and may result in lower productivity.
- Employees take hygiene factors for granted as part of the job. Hygiene factors include company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, salaries and fringe benefit, status and security.
- Hygiene factors are not intrinsic part of the job, but are related to the conditions or the working environment under which the job is performed.

ALDERFER ERG THEORY

Similar to Herzberg and Maslow

Alderfer formulated a needs category model of motivation,

Like Maslow and Herzberg, he felt that there is value in categorizing needs and that there is a basic distinction between lower-order needs and higher- order needs

Alderfer identified three groups of core needs

1. Existence Needs
2. Relatedness needs
3. Growth needs

Existence – concerned with survival (physiological well-being)

Relatedness needs – stresses the importance of interpersonal, social relationship

Growth needs – related to individual intrinsic desire for personal development

Unlike Maslow, the ERG needs do not have a strict line of demarcations

Unlike Maslow also, he does not contend that the lower needs must be fulfilled before a higher-level need becomes motivation or that deprivation is the only way activate a need

According to ERG theory, a person's background or cultural environment may dictate that the relatedness needs will take precedence over unfulfilled existence needs and the more the growth needs are satisfied, the more they will increase in intensity.

ERG theory says that when a higher order growth needs are stifled or cannot be met due to personal circumstance, lack of ability or some other factors, the individual is likely to regress back to lower order needs and feel these needs more strongly

For example, if a person cannot move up the corporate ladder and is stuck in a job he does not like, the individual is likely to emphasize social relationship both on and off job and become more interested in pay and benefits

This Alderfer calls **frustration- regression** relationship

Whereas Maslow emphasis is on **satisfaction- progression** relationship in which a person moves up the hierarchy after a lower – order need is met

Relationship between Maslow Herzberg and Alderfer Theories

Maslow	**Herzberg**	**ERG**
Self actualization		
	Motivators	**Growth**
Esteem		
Love/belongingness		**Relatedness**
Safety	**Hygiene**	**Existence**
Physiological needs		

PROCESS THEORIES

Content theories attempt to identify what motivates people at work

Process theories on the other hand are concerned with the cogntive anticedents that go into mativaion of at work. They study the process involved in work motivation.

EQUITY THEORY

- Based on the work of Stacy Adams
- Attempts to explain the influence of such feelings like **fairness, equity**, and how they serve as powerful stimulus to increase or decrease effort and hence employee's behaviour
- Adams equity theory assumes that **people will strive to restore equity if they feel an imbalance exists**
- Basic to equity theory is the belief that **employees continuously monitor the degree of equity or inequity that exist in their working relations by comparing their own outcomes and inputs with these of another highly similar person**
- In the context of equity theory, **outcomes are anything that employees view as being provided by their jobs or the organizations**. Outcomes include pay, office with space, access to clean washrooms, use of company car tec.
- **Inputs include all the contributions that a person makes to the employment relationship**
- Example of inputs include personal effort, years of service, education, prior work experience, training etc
- Generally speaking, inputs is anything that persons believe he or she should be compensated for

Examples of inputs and outcomes

Inputs	**Outcomes**
Effort Education	Salary Fringe benefits

Training	Travel allowance
Experience	Number of subordinates
Loyalty	Autonomy
age	Titles
	Status symbols
	Job assignment
	Time off
	Opportunity for overtime

Adams contends that **individuals will estimate the rationof outcomes to inputs.**

But this ratio is only of partial importance

Each person also calculates a similar ratio of another person whom he or she judges to be in similar position. This second person is called **the comparable other**

Adams predicts that an employee will be relatively satisfied if his or her won ratios of outcome to inputs are equivalent to the ratio of comparison other

The condition may be summarized as follows

Outcome A = outcome B

Input A input B

If person A feels that his ratio is ether lower or higher than person B, he should experience a sense of inequity. The magnitude of this feeling will be proportional to the size of the gap between the two ratios

Feeling of inequity produces a psychological tension that requires reduction

If person A is under compensated in comparison to B(ratio of A is less than that of B) , he may need attempts to restore equity by working on the four components in the two ratios:

Outcome A < outcome B

Input A input B

1. He may increase his own outcomes by asking for a raise
2. He may decrease his won input by being less productive'
3. He may decrease person Bs outcome by persuading his boss to alter B's pay
4. He may increase B's input by pressuring him or her to work harder

If person B is undercompensated in a comparison to person A (ratio of A is greater than that of B), equity theory predicts that person A will experience guilt and will attempt to restore equity by altering one or more of the four components of the two ratios.

Outcome A > outcome B

Input A input B

1. Person A may attempt to reduce his won outcomes
2. Orr increase persons B's outcomes by appealing to his boss for an adjustment
3. Person A may increase his inputs by exerting greater effort on the job
4. Person A may help person B to decrease her input, perhaps by couching him/her in how to work for efficiently

If the four components of the ratio cannot be altered and if the magnitude of inequality is substantial, person A would be force to choose another course of action. She/he might:

1. Alter his perception of the situation so that the inequity no longer seem unjustified, saying for example "I deserve to earn more money because I work harder than most people
2. Leave the field by quitting or obtaining a transfer
3. Choose a different comparison other, someone whose ratio provides a less uncomfortable contrast;

In essence, equity theory focuses on the issue of distributive justice

Distributive justice may be defined as the fairness of the amount of reward as perceived by the reward recipient, and as compared against the amount of reward given to another

Another aspect of perceived fairness that is actually not part of equity theory per se in the notion of procedural justice. This type of justice may be defined as the fairness of the manner (or method) by which rewards are allocated, again as perceived by the recipient of the reward. procedural justice, a somewhat independent issue from distributive justice focuses on the way in which allocation decisions are made, rather than on the results of the decisions.

Vroom Expectancy Theory (V. H. Vroom – 1960)

Attempts to explain work motivation in terms of anticipated rewards

This theoritical model assumes that people make rational decisions based on ecomomic realities

A key point of his theory is that an iindividuals behavior is formed not on objective reality but on his or her subjective perception of that reality

The core of the theory relates to how a person perceives the relationships between three things

- Effort
- Perfomance
- And reward

Vroom focused especially on the factors involved in stimulating an individual to put effort into something, since this is the basis of motivation.

He concluded that there were three such factors, each based on the individual's person perception of the situation. These were:

Expectancy ie. The extent to which the indiducal **perceives** or **beliefs** that a particlua act will produce a partilcur outcome

Instumentality, i.e.e the extent to which the individual **perceives** that effective perfomance will lead to desired reward

Valence i.e. the strength of the belief that attractive rewards are potentially avaialble. The strength of an individual prefence for a partialur outcome/reward (how attractive is the reward)

In order for the valence to be ***postive,*** the person must prefer attaining the outcome to not attainig it

A valence of ***zero*** occurs when the individual is indfferent towards the oucome

A valence is ***negative*** if the individual prefers not to attain the outcome to attaining it.

This approach to the concept of human motivation emphasis the psychological *mechanims* that triggers effort.

The basic model is illustrated below

Perception that effor will leade to effective perforamnce (expectancy)		Individual charactristics	Extrinsic reward
Perception that effective performnce will lead to reward (insturmentality)	**Effort**	**Performance**	**Reward**
Perception that reward will be attractive (valence)		**Role perception**	**Intrinsic reward**

According to Vroom, the three facors **– expectancy, instrumentality and valence** – combine together to creat a driving force (FORCE) which motivates the individual to put efferot to achieve a level of perfomance and obtain reward at the end

Vroom suggests that FORCE was a multiple of Expectancy and Valence (encompassing instumentality) in the formular

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F = valence x expectancy

Indivdual characteristics

Vroom says that effort alone may not necessariey lead to perfomance, other factors are involved such as individual charactristics . these include:

- Personality
- Knowledge
- Skills
- Attitudes

Role perception

The way the indidual perceives his role will also lead to perfomance.

Example

Tthe prospects of a promotion could be seen by a newly appointed employee as attractive (valence) but his expectancy to gaining the promotion could be low, if he perceives that promotion is attained only primarily on the length of service.

In this situation, perfomance will not be perceived to give reward, so effort on that direction will not e seen worthwhile

In a any case, effort does not neccessariy lead to effective perfomance , if the individuall has insufficient knowledge or skills OR if his perception of his role does not equalte with that of his superior

Other factors which are not shown may affect perfomance e.g. constraints of the job, organisational calture. Effort, therefore, does not always result in effective perfomance. .

It is also true that effective perfomance may not always lead to rewards anticipated by the individual.

Nevertheless on both counts, it is not the reality which spurs on the individual,, but the prospects of effective pefomancee and/or desirable reward. It is the individualsl perception of the situation that is vital part in this theory

Rewards

Rewards may be put into two catogories:

- intrinsic
- Extrinsic rewards

Intrinsic

Rewards gained from fulfilling high level personal needs such as self- esteem and personal growth. Are within the contol of the individuall

Extrinsic rewards

Provided by organisaion. Outside the control of the individual e.g. promotions, pay etc

Several researchers have suggested that the rewards associated with intrinsic factors are more likely to be perceived as producing job satisfaction. The extrinsic rewards are less likely to come up to the individual expectations.

Conclusion

The main features of Expectancy theory are:

1. It takes comprehensive view of the motivation process
2. It indicates that individuals will only react when they have a reasonable expectancy that their behaviour will lead to the desired outcomes
3. It stresses the importance of individual perception of reality in the motivation process
4. It implies that job satisfaction follows effective job performance rather than the other way round
5. It has led to the development in work redesign where emphasis has been laid on intrinsic job factors such as variety, autonomy, task identity and feedback
6. Individual l barriers should be removed for motivation to lead to performance i.e. ability, skills, knowledge
7. Managers should recognise that in a way, employees calculate expectancies regarding future employment possibilities when seeking to leave a company and more importantly, often sees a connection between performance and reward and invites less effort in groups or team situation

8. Intrinsic rewards have gained more significance way

Porter - Lawler Model

This is an extension/refined Vroom model. Porter Lawler model increases the variables in Vroom model

Lyman Porter and Edward E. Lawler starts with the premises that motivation (effort or force) does not equal to satisfaction or performance

Motivation (force) / = satisfaction (performance)

They said that **motivation, performance and satisfaction** are all separate variables and related in different ways from was originally designed

As shown in the model:

Starting with the left-hand side of the model

- The expected value of a reward (1) combines with the expectations that effort will result in a reward (2)
- These two influences determine the level of effort (3) that an employee exerts
- Effort, however does not simply or easily convert into performance (or accomplishment)

- The employee's ability (4) and role perception (5) interact in determining the level of performance/accomplishment (6)
- Unless a person has a minimum level of ability and the correct understanding of just how to perform a job, his or her effort will not yield an acceptable level of performance
- Performance may or may not be linked to reward intrinsic/extrinsic (7a,b) in a given situation; hence the wavy lines between reward and performance
- Employee expectation of what is equitable (8) in the way of reward is influence by the awareness of his or per own performance

- Perception of equity or inequality interact with the rewards actually received to determine the level of satisfaction (9)
- The model includes two feedback loops.
    a. The first links satisfaction to subsequent estimates of the value of the rewards – if an employee feels that the reward received for past performance are not particularly satisfying, he or she will diminish future efforts
    b. The second feedback loop runs from the performance –reward linkage to the expectations that future efforts will result in reward – here again, the employee's future effort will be influenced by his or per past experiences

Conclusion

The following checklist, derived from the model suggests that successful managers should:

1. offer valued rewards
2. Create perception that effort will lead to reward
3. Design jobs that so that effort lead to his performance
4. Hire qualified employees
5. Train employees in the correct manner for performing their tasks
6. Design task so that performance is measurable
7. Design reward systems so that reward s are tied to performance
8. Ensure that rewards are view as fair as equitable

Leadership Traits

Leadership theories that attempt to identify the common traits possessed by successful leaders. These traits included:

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- Adaptable to situations
- Alert to social environment
- Ambitious and achievement oriented
- Assertive
- Cooperative
- Decisive
- Dependable
- Dominant (desire to influence others)
- Energetic (high activity level)
- Persistent
- Self-confident
- Tolerant of stress
- Willing to assume responsibility

However, the list is ever growing and no definitive list is possible

Leadership Styles and Behaviours

A different perspective to trait theory for leadership is to consider what leaders actually do as opposed to their underlying characteristics. A number of models and theories have been put forward to explore this.

T. McGregor (1906-1964) postulated that managers tend to make two different assumptions about human nature. These views he explored in his theory X and theory Y:

Theory X

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he or she can.

2. Because of this human characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organisational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

Theory Y

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.

2. External control and threat of punishment are not the only means for brining about effort toward organisational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept responsibility but to seek it.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination. Ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organisational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed I the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilised.

Other studies were carried out to identify successful leadership behaviours, including studies at Ohio State University and Michigan University, following on from this research two studies of particular note were by Gary M. Yukl and by Robert Blake and Jane Mounton.

Ohio State University Research

A series of studies at the University indicated that two behavioural dimensions play a significant role in successful leadership. Those dimensions are:

Consideration – (friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth)

Initiating Structure – (organises and defines relationships or roles, establishes well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs done.)

University of Michigan Research

Studies carried at the university revealed two similar aspects of leadership style that correlate with effectiveness:

Employee Orientation – (the human-relations aspect, in which employees are viewed as human beings with individual, personal needs)

Production Orientation – (Stress on production and the technical aspects of the job, with employees viewed as the means of getting the work done.

Gary M. Yukl felt that there was a void in existing descriptions of leader behaviour. They did not provide specific guidelines for behaviour in varying situations. He and his colleagues isolated eleven leadership behaviours which fall into four broad categories

Building Relationships

1. Networking
2. Supporting
3. Managing conflict

Influencing People

4. Motivating
5. Recognising and rewarding

Making Decisions

6. Planning and organising

7. Problem solving

8. Consulting and delegating

Giving / Seeking Information

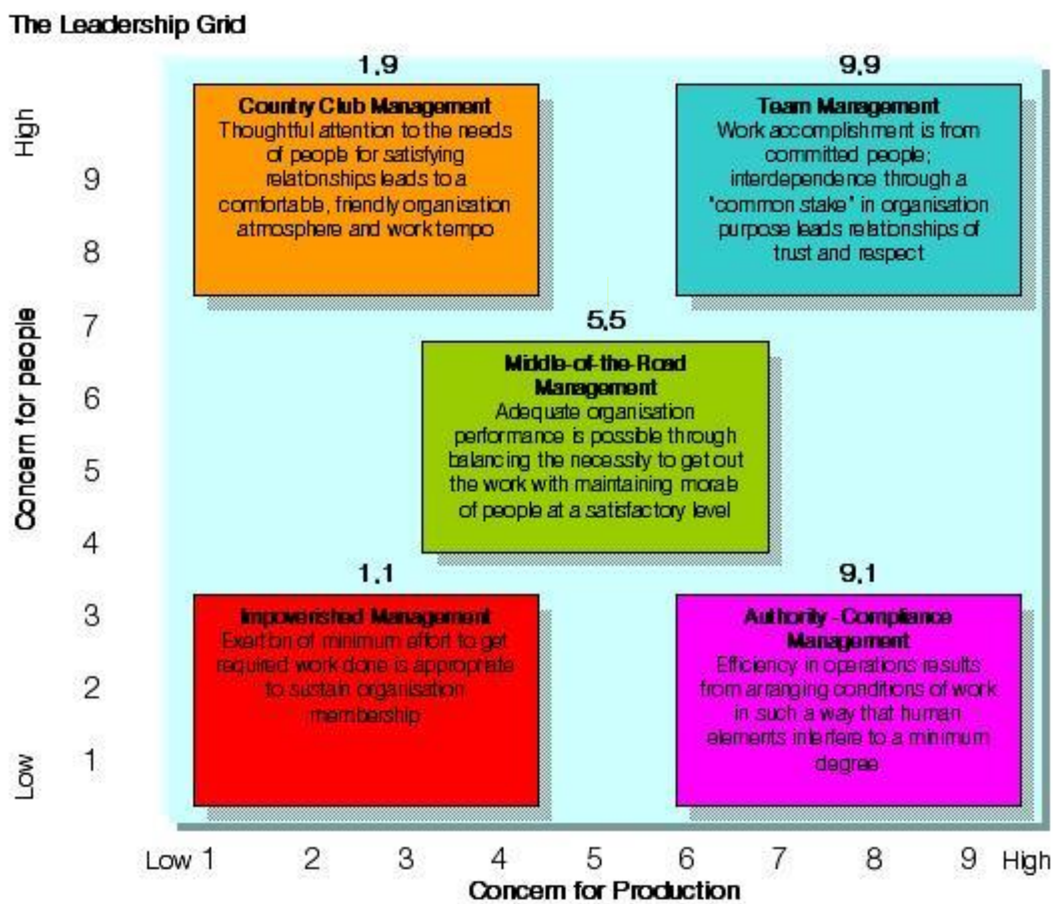
9. Monitoring operations and environment

10. Informing

11. Clarifying roles

The Leadership Grid

Robert Blake and Jane Mouton developed another theory called the Leadership Grid, focusing on production/relationship orientations uncovered in the Ohio State and Michigan University studies. They went a little further by creating a grid based on Leaders' concern for people (relationships) and production (tasks). It theory suggest there is a best way to lead people the 9,9 way.



The Major Leadership Grid Styles

1,1 Impoverished management. Often referred to as Laissez-faire leadership. Leaders in this position have little concern for people or productivity, avoid taking sides, and stay out of conflicts. They do just enough to get by.

1,9 Country Club management. Managers in this position have great concern for people and little concern for production. They try to avoid conflicts and concentrate on being well liked. To them the task is less important than good interpersonal relations. Their goal is to keep people happy. (This is a soft Theory X approach and not a sound human relations approach.)

9,1 Authority-Compliance. Managers in this position have great concern for production and little concern for people. They desire tight control in order to get tasks done efficiently. They consider creativity and human relations to be unnecessary.

5,5 Organisation Man Management. Often termed middle-of-the-road leadership. Leaders in this position have medium concern for people and production. They attempt to balance their concern for both people and production, but they are not committed.

9+9 Paternalistic "father knows best" management. A style in which reward is promised for compliance and punishment threatened for non-compliance opportunistic "what's in it for me" management. In which the style utilised depends on which style the leader feels will return him or her the greatest self-benefit.

9,9 Team Management. This style of leadership is considered to be ideal. Such managers have great concern for both people and production. They work to motivate employees to reach their highest levels of accomplishment. They are flexible and responsive to change, and they understand the need to change.

Contingency Approaches

Contingency theories propose that from any given situation there is a best way to manage. Contingency theories go beyond situational approaches, which observe that all factors must be considered when leadership decisions are to be made. Contingency theories attempt to isolate the key factors that must be considered and to indicate how to manage when those key factors are present.

The Hersey–Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

The situational leadership model of Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard explains how to match the leadership style to the readiness of the group members. The term model rather than theory is deliberately chosen because situational leadership does not attempt to explain why things happen (as a theory would). Instead, the situational leadership model offers some procedures that can be repeated. [1]

Leadership style in the situational model is classified according to the relative amount of task and relationship behavior the leader engages in. The differentiation is akin to structure initiation versus consideration. Task behavior is the extent to which the leader spells out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. It includes giving directions and setting goals. Relationship behavior is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multiway communication. It includes such activities as listening, providing encouragement, and coaching. The situational model places combinations of task and relationship behaviors into four quadrants. Each quadrant calls for a different leadership style.

Style 1—High task and low relationship. The "telling" style is very directive because the

leader produces a lot of input but a minimum amount of relationship behavior. An autocratic leader would fit here.

Style 2—High task and high relationship. The "selling" style is also very directive, but in

a more persuasive, guiding manner. The leader provides considerable input about task accomplishment but also emphasizes human relations.

Style 3—High relationship and low task. In the "participating" leadership style, there is

less direction and more collaboration between leader and group members. The consultative and consensus subtypes of participative leader generally fit into this quadrant.

Style 4—Low relationship and low task. In the "delegating" leadership style, the leader

delegates responsibility for a task to a group member and is simply kept informed of progress. If carried to an extreme, this style would be classified as free-rein.

The situational leadership model states that there is no one best way to influence group members. The most effective leadership style depends on the readiness level of group members. Readiness in situational leadership is defined as the extent to which a group member has the ability and willingness or confidence to accomplish a specific task. The concept of readiness is therefore not a characteristic, trait, or motive—it relates to a specific task.

Readiness has two components, ability and willingness. Ability is the knowledge, experience, and skill an individual or group brings to a particular task or activity. Willingness is the extent to which an individual or group has the confidence, commitment, and motivation to accomplish a specific task.

The key point of situational leadership theory is that as group member readiness increases, a leader should rely more on relationship behavior and less on task behavior. When a group member becomes very ready, a minimum of task or relationship behavior is required of the leader. Guidelines for the leader, outlined in Figure 5-3, can be summarized as follows:

Situation R1—Low readiness. When followers are unable, unwilling, or insecure, the leader should emphasize task-oriented behavior and be very directive and autocratic, using a telling style.

Situation R2—Moderate readiness. When group members are unable but willing or confident, the leader should focus on being more relationship-oriented, using a selling style.

Situation R3—Moderate-to-high readiness. Group members are able but unwilling or insecure, so the leader needs to provide a high degree of relationship-oriented behavior but a low degree of task behavior, thus engaging in a participating style.

Situation R4—High readiness. When followers are able, willing, or confident, they are self-sufficient and competent. Thus the leader can grant them considerable autonomy, using a delegating style.

The situational model represents a consensus of thinking about leadership behavior in relation to group members: competent people require less specific direction than do less competent people. The model is also useful because it builds on other explanations of leadership that emphasize the role of task and relationship behaviors. As a result, it has proved to be useful as the basis for leadership training. The situational model also corroborates common sense and is therefore intuitively appealing. You can benefit from this model by attempting to diagnose the readiness of group members before choosing the right leadership style.

Nevertheless, the model presents categories and guidelines so precisely that it gives the impression of infallibility. In reality, leadership situations are less clear-cut than the four quadrants suggest. Also, the prescriptions for leadership will work only some of the time. For example, many supervisors use a telling style with unable and unwilling or insecure team members (R1) and still achieve poor results. Research evidence for the situational model has been mixed. A major concern is that there are few leadership situations in which a high-task, high-¬relationship orientation does not produce the best results.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Several theories have and are being put forward to explain leadership effectiveness. Two of the most prominent leadership theories are Transformational and Transactional leadership theories. Since the late 1980s, theories of transformational and charismatic leadership have been ascendant. Versions of transformational leadership have been proposed by several theorists, including Bass (1985, 1996). Although most author agree that Transactional and transformational leadership are different in concept and in practice, many authors believe that transformational leadership significantly augments transactional leadership, resulting in higher levels of individual, group, and organizational performance. Others believe that Transactional leadership is a subset of transformational leadership. The objective of this paper is to use evidence in literature to give a comparative analysis of the two leadership styles. The paper will also outline and explain inherent weaknesses of the two styles and proffer areas where modifications are necessary.

Transformational Leadership

A transformational leader is a person who stimulates and inspires (transform) followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes.

He/she pays attention to the concern and developmental needs of individual followers; they change followers' awareness of issues by helping them to look at old problems in a new way ; and they are able to arouse, excite and inspire followers to put out extra effort to achieve group goals. Transformational leadership theory is all about leadership that creates positive change in the followers whereby they take care of each other's interests and act in the interests of the group as a whole. The concept of transformational leadership was introduced by James Macgregor Burns in 1978 in his descriptive research on political leaders, but its usage has spread into organisational psychology and management with further modifications.

Transformational leadership enhances the motivation, morale, and performance of followers through a variety of mechanisms. These include connecting the follower's sense of identity and self to the project and the collective identity of the organization; being a role model for followers that inspires them and makes them interested; challenging followers to take greater ownership for their work, and understanding the strengths and weaknesses of followers, so the leader can align followers with tasks that enhance their performance.

Warrilow has identified four components of transformational leadership style:

1) Charisma or idealised influence: the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways and displays convictions and takes stands that cause followers to

identify with the leader who has a clear set of values and acts as a role model for the followers.

(2) Inspirational motivation: the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is appeals to and inspires the followers with optimism about future goals, and offers meaning for the current tasks in hand.

(3) Intellectual stimulation: the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, stimulates and encourages creativity in the followers - by providing a framework for followers to see how they connect [to the leader, the organisation, each other, and the goal] they can creatively overcome any obstacles in the way of the mission.

(4) Personal and individual attention: the degree to which the leader attends to each individual follower's needs and acts as a mentor or coach and gives respect to and appreciation of the individual's contribution to the team. This fulfils and enhances each individual team members' need for self-fulfilment, and self-worth - and in so doing inspires followers to further achievement and growth.

Weaknesses of Transformational Leadership

Yukl (1999) has identified seven major weaknesses of Transformational leadership.

First is the ambiguity underlying its influences and processes. The theory fails to explain the interacting variables between transformational leadership and positive work outcomes. The theory would be stronger if the essential influence processes were identified more clearly and used to explain how each type of behaviour affects each type of mediating variable and outcome.

Secondly is the overemphasis of the theory on leadership processes at the dyadic level. The major interest is to explain a leader's direct influence over individual followers, not leader influence on group or organisational processes.

Examples of relevant group-level processes include:

(1) How well the work is organised to utilise personnel and resources;

(2) How well inter-related group activities are coordinated;

(3) The amount of member agreement about objectives and priorities;

(4) Mutual trust and cooperation among members;

(5) The extent of member identification with the group;

(6) Member confidence in the capacity of the group to attain its objectives;

(7) The procurement and efficient use of resources; and

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(8) External coordination with other parts of the organization and outsiders. How leaders influence these group processes is not explained very well by the transformational leadership theories. Organisational processes also receive insufficient attention in most theories of transformational leadership. Leadership is viewed as a key determinant of organisational effectiveness, but the causal effects of leader behaviour on the organisational processes that ultimately determine effectiveness are seldom described in any detail in most studies on transformational leadership. Transformational leadership theories would benefit from a more detailed description of leader influence on group and organisational processes.

Thirdly, the theoretical rationale for differentiating among the behaviours is not clearly explained. The partially overlapping content and the high inter-correlation found among the transformational behaviours raise doubts about their construct validity. For example, intellectual stimulation is operationally defined as causing a subordinate to question traditional beliefs, to look at problems in a different way, and to find innovative solutions for problems. The content is diverse and ambiguous. There is not a clear description of what the leader actually says or does to influence the cognitive processes or behaviour of subordinates.

Fourthly, Yuki identified omission of several transformational behaviour from the original transformational leadership theory which empirical evidence has shown to be relevant. Some of them include inspiring (infusing the work with meaning), developing (enhancing follower skills and self-confidence), and empowering (providing significant voice and discretion to followers).

Fifth is the insufficient specification of situational variables in Transformational leadership. A fundamental assumption of transformational leadership theory is that the underlying leadership processes and outcomes are essentially the same in all situations.

Sixthly, the theory does not explicitly identify any situation where transformational leadership is detrimental. Several studies have shown that transformational leadership can have detrimental effects on both followers and the organisation. Some believe that transformational leadership is biased in favour of top managements, owners and managers. Followers can be transformed to such a high level of emotional involvement in the work over time that they become stressed and burned out. Individual leaders can exploit followers (even without realising it) by creating a high level of emotional involvement when it is not necessary.

If members of an organisation are influenced by different leaders with competing visions, the result will be increased role ambiguity and role conflict.

Lastly, like most leadership theories, transformational leadership theory assumes the heroic leadership stereotype. Effective performance by an individual, group, or organization is assumed to depend on leadership by an individual with the skills to find the right path and motivate others to take it. In most versions of transformational leadership theory, it is a basic postulate that an effective leader will influence followers to make self-sacrifices and exert exceptional effort. Influence is unidirectional, and it flows from the leader to the follower.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional Leadership, also known as managerial leadership, focuses on the role of supervision, organisation, and group performance; transactional leadership is a style of leadership in which the leader promotes compliance of his followers through both rewards and punishments. Unlike Transformational leadership, leaders using the transactional approach are not looking to change the future, they are looking to merely keep things the same. These leaders pay attention to followers' work in order to find faults and deviations. This type of leadership is effective in crisis and emergency situations, as well as when projects need to be carried out in a specific fashion.

Within the context of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, transactional leadership works at the basic levels of need satisfaction, where transactional leaders focus on the lower levels of the hierarchy. Transactional leaders use an exchange model, with rewards being given for good work or positive outcomes.

Conversely, people with this leadership style also can punish poor work or negative outcomes, until the problem is corrected. One way that transactional leadership focuses on lower level needs is by stressing specific task performance.

Transactional leaders are effective in getting specific tasks completed by managing each portion individually. Transactional leaders are concerned with processes rather than forward-thinking ideas. These types of leaders focus on contingent reward (also known as contingent positive reinforcement) or contingent penalization (also known as contingent negative reinforcement). Contingent rewards (such as praise) are given when the set goals are accomplished on-time, ahead of time, or to keep subordinates working at a good pace at different times throughout completion. Contingent punishments (such as suspensions) are given when performance quality or quantity falls below production standards or goals and tasks are not met at all.

Qualities of Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders use reward and punishments to gain compliance from their followers. They are extrinsic motivators that bring minimal compliance from followers. They accept goals, structure, and the culture of the existing organization.

Transactional leaders tend to be directive and action-oriented and are willing to work within existing systems and negotiate to attain goals of the organization. They tend to think inside the box when solving problems and transactional leadership is primarily passive. The behaviours most associated with this type of leadership are establishing the criteria for rewarding followers and maintaining the status quo.

Within transactional leadership, there are two factors, contingent reward and management-by-exception. Contingent reward provides rewards for effort and recognizes good performance. Management-by exception maintains the status quo, intervenes when subordinates do not meet acceptable performance levels, and initiates corrective action to improve performance.

Comparison between Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Transactional	Transformational
1. Leadership is responsive 2. Works within the organisational culture. 3. Employees achieve objectives through rewards and punishments set by leader. 4. Motivates followers by appealing to their own self-interest. 5. Management-by-exception: maintain the status quo; stress correct actions to improve performance.	1. Leadership is proactive 2. Works to change the organisational culture by implementing new ideas 3. Employees achieve objectives through higher ideals and moral values. 4. Motivates followers by encouraging them to put group interests first. 5. Individualised consideration: Each behaviour is directed to each individual to express consideration and support.

Questions:

1. Critically evaluate the approaches to motivation with necessary examples.

2. Enumerate the factors influencing employee motivation in business organizations.

3. Explain Herzberg's two-factor theory with appropriate examples.

4. Explain Abraham Maslow's theory of need hierarchy. How does this theory help in motivating the employees?

5. Give a brief account of the equity theory of motivation.

6. Illustrate the managerial grid developed by Robert Blake with an example.

7. Examine Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model.