UNIT 8 LEADING AND MOTIVATING

Objectives

The objectives of this unit are to:

- introduce various leadership styles
- familiarise you with various theories and styles of leadership
- create an awareness that leadership is a process of shared influence on the work group
- understand significance of motivation
- understand various theories of motivation

Structure

8.1 Introduction

8.2 Leadership Styles

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8.1 INTRODUCTION

In giving the input on leadership styles and influence process to you, we presume your main aim is to understand and improve your style of functioning as a leader.

To start with, you must have clear idea as to what is meant by leadership. Leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives. As you can see, this process is a function of the leader, the followers and the situation. There may not be any particular organisation in our mind, when we talk of leadership. In any situation where you are trying to influence the behaviour of another individual or group, leadership is operating. Thus each one of us tries leadership. at one time or the other,

whether our activities are centred around a business, educational institution, hospital, political organisation, Government organisation or a family. As part of this process, one who attempts to influence the behaviour of others becomes a potential leader and the persons he is attempting to influence are the potential followers. This may happen irrespective of the fact that the leader may be their boss or a colleague (associate) or a subordinate or a friend or a relative. In other words through a style of functioning he/she influences attitudes and expectations, which in turn encourage or discourage the follower's activity or achievement, enhance or diminish the follower's commitment to the work, etc.

In our day-to-day life, we come across instances of how people are influenced by the activities or word of a person who is trying to lead them. We always make judgments about the leaders of our own office. In our mind, we make a difference between a good leader and a bad one, by judging his style or way of functioning and his influence on others. Hence, in understanding the phenomenon of leadership, we must first understand the various styles of the leaders.

Having established plans, controls, and an appropriate structure to achieve the organisational objectives, the manager now has to get his people to work. Motivation is that desire or feeling within an individual which prompts him to action. Every individual has needs, desires and drives, which we collectively call motives and which channelise all his or her behaviour and action towards achievement of some objectives. The manager's role is to influence each individual's behaviour and action towards achievement of common organisational objectives.

A great deal of research has been conducted in this area and there are many theories of motivation. It is not possible to explain all these theories here and we shall only briefly explain the various factors that can act as motivation.

Money is the most commonly used motivating factor in the form of salary, bonus, incentives, commissions and rewards. Salary or wage is of course the primary motivation, and the poorer the economic background of an individual the greater the motivational value of money. However, once a basic salary or wage is assured, to motivate people to work that little bit extra, achieve that ten per cent higher sales figure, incentives and commissions come in handy. Most sales organisations pay salary plus incentives to their sales people. The incentives may be calculated on the basis of individual or team results, and may be linked to a sales target. Similar incentives can be offered to the production department. However, performance linked rewards are difficult to compute in areas such as finance, personnel, and administration where work output cannot be easily measured. A percentage of total profits can be distributed to these departments as incentive.

Man does not live by bread alone is an old saying. Man is a social animal and seeks recognition and status in society through his work. The status or position which an individual enjoys in the organisation, the number of people who work for him, the non-monetary benefits and perks which he enjoys are important motivational factors. In fact sometimes these are more important than the actual take-home pay packet.

Gupta started his career as a salesman in a medium sized company manufacturing and marketing stereo systems. Because of his analytical ability, capacity to work hard and achieve results, Gupta soon rose to be the area sales manager of North India. The owner of the company relied a great deal on Gupta's judgement and always consulted him on every important matter. Gupta was making good money, performing well and enjoyed the great confidence of the owner, yet he felt that there was no power or position in his job which could give him a better status in society. Therefore, when the opportunity arose, Gupta joined an American multinational as Divisional Manager, selling scientific laboratory glassware. It was the glamour, the power, and the status which the job conferred on him that motivated Gupta to join. However, two years with the multinational were enough for Gupta to realise that he had no authority to take any independent decisions and he was not deriving any satisfaction from his job. Gupta quit his job and went hack to his previous employer. Thus satisfaction at work is an important motivating factor.

The lesson from Gupta's story is that the same individual will be motivated by different factors at different stages of his career. Generally as you move up the organisation to more important positions, the importance of money and monetary benefits as motivating factors decreases and intangible factors such as job satisfaction, confidence of the boss, good relationship with the boss, the status and respect commanded in the organisation, etc. become more important.

The physical working environment in which a person works also has tremendous motivational force. A pleasant, noise-free, well-lit room with comfortable temperature, and proper facilities of telecommunication, secretarial assistance, canteen, transport, etc. is always conducive to work.

Different individuals are motivated by different factors. This is because each individual in the organisation comes from a different socio-economic, cultural, religious, educational and family background, and each of these has a role in determining the degree to which he can be motivated by different factors.

In most Western countries, a great deal of emphasis is laid on leisure and individuals may be motivated to take up that job which affords greatest opportunity for leisure.

The manager's concern is to find a set of common factors which can motivate all his people coming from diverse and different backgrounds and working at different levels of management. The manager's task will be greatly simplified when he understands that motivational factors are present in, and can be used, in design of work, **rewards,** work **environment,** work **relationships** and work **content.** All monetary benefits and non-monetary advantages such as free medical cover, company car and driver, club membership, etc. are part of the work reward and are important motivators.

Work environment as a motivating factor, first and foremost, refers to the status of the organisation for which a person works and the mere fact of his working in that organisation gives him that status. Harvard University has the

reputation of being amongst the best in the world and anyone who has graduated from Harvard is generally perceived to be at least above average, is not excellent. The actual physical factors present in the work environment also act as motivators.

Relationships developed at work, with the boss, colleagues and subordinates have an important motivating influence. The more congenial, friendly and supportive are these relationships, the greater their positive motivational value. In contrast, strained relationships which create tension and unhappiness are serious enough reasons for people to leave jobs which in all other respects seem very comfortable and attractive.

The design and content of the actual work to be done is in itself an important motivational factor. An element of freedom to experiment with new ideas within the parameters of the job fulfils the creative urge in every individual. Freedom to take decisions and assume responsibility for the results are factors which enhance an individual's self-confidence and feeling of self-esteem. The more such factors can be built into the job, the greater would be the job satisfaction of the individual performing the job. A happy, satisfied worker is a productive worker and a great asset to any organisation. If an individual is himself associated with designing the content and objectives of his job, there are greater chances. that he will work his utmost to fulfil these objectives. This is the approach known as Management by Objectives (MBO) and has tremendous motivational potential.

The manager has not only to motivate his people but also provide them with leadership. To that extent every manager is a leader. A manager has to inspire and influence his people to willingly work towards achieving the organisational objectives.

Much research has been conducted in this field and different studies have emphasised different aspects in attempting to answer the question `What makes an effective leader'? When put in a situation of leading, you must remember it is a role that your are performing, but that your personality has an important influence on your performance as does the situation in which you are expected to perform.

To be an effective leader, a manager must have a pleasing physical personality, ability to get along with people, qualities of honesty and integrity and be an excellent speaker. To command respect of others one must excel at one’s basic job whether it is operating a lathe machine or managing the finances of a large company. The leader must first set an example by own actions rather than by just making speeches. The actions must communicate to the people that he/she belongs to them. Only when one generate this feeling of oneness will be able to inspire confidence among people.

Secondly, a manager-must remember that he/she is only playing a role. However, to be able to perform effectively, the role demands that the manager be perfectly objective in all the judgements and decisions, and be guided only by the organisational objectives and have no other considerations. For a leader the interests of people are of paramount importance and come first while personal benefits, take second place.Thirdly,

the role must be moulded according to the unique situation in which the manager is placed. In our society, great emphasis is laid on personal relationships and contacts and managers are perceived to be father figures and are expected to have a paternalistic attitude towards their workers. In contrast, in the West, especially in countries with a British colonial past, the relationships between manager and worker is only confined to the work. There, if a manager were to adopt a paternalistic approach, would be totally ineffective. A manager who usually follows a consultative, participative approach, seeking the opinions and consensus of subordinates before implementing any decision, in a crisis situation may adopt a very authoritarian approach and effectively manage the situation.

When Lee Iaccoca, took over the management of Chrysler Corporation, USA, it was an ailing automobile giant. To bring it out of the loss making situation, Iaccoca inspired tremendous confidence and loyalty in workers by setting personal example of great hard work and accepting only a token wage. Under this leadership the company was soon able to turn its losses into profits.

Political leaders such as Gandhi who commanded the respect of millions of people are a model for managers to learn from. Gandhi's leadership style was so finely turned to the moods of the people and the situation that his every word was law for the common man. His actions and life-style made the people feel he belonged to them.

Activity A

How do you evaluate your boss as a leader on account of his personality, role play, and tuning to the requirements of the situation?

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Activity B

Briefly describe a situation in which you excelled as a leader. What do you think were the contributing factors to this performance?

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8.2 LEADERSHIP STYLES

The word style is the way in which the leader influences followers. Let us have a look at the various studies that help us to understand the leadership styles.

Hawthorne Studies

Mayo and Roethlisberger did a series of studies from 1924 to 1932 in an electricity company, at Illinois, in USA. These studies are known as Hawthorne Studies.

One phase of these studies aimed at finding out if changes in illumination, rest period and lunch breaks can affect the productivity of the workers. It was found to the surprise of the researchers that less light, shorter and fewer rest periods and shorter lunch breaks resulted in increased productivity. And once all these changes, were eliminated and the normal working conditions were resumed, it was also seen that the workers' productivity and the feeling of being together went up. The increase in productivity was attributed to the attitude of workers towards each other and their feeling of togetherness. In addition, attention paid to the workers by the researches made them feel important which resulted in improvement in their work performance. This is known as Hawthorne effect. These findings made Mayo and Roethlisberger conclude that a leader has not only to plan, decide, organise, lead and control but also consider the human element. This includes social needs of being together and being recognised for the work interaction of the group members with each other and their well being. A good leader ought to keep the above aspects in his style of working with people and supervising their work.

Theory X and Y

McGregor (1960) categorised leadership styles into two broad categories having two different beliefs and assumptions about subordinates. He called these Theory X and Theory Y. The Theory X style of leaders believe that most people dislike work and will avoid it wherever possible. Such leaders feel they themselves are a small but important group, who want to lead and take responsibility, but a large majority of people want to be directed and avoid responsibility. Therefore, this style of leadership exercises strong controls and direction and wherever necessary punish people if they do not do the work. If people do the work as desired, they may even get monetary or other rewards. Theory Y leaders assume that people will work hard. and assume responsibility if they can satisfy their personal needs and the objectives or goals of their organisation. Such leaders do not sharply distinguish between the leaders and the followers in contrast to Theory X style. They feel that people control themselves within rather than being controlled by others from outside such as a leader or a manager or a supervisor.

An effective leader needs to examine carefully own ideas about the motivation and behaviour of subordinates and others, as well as the situation, before adopting a particular style of leadership.

Iowa Leadership Studies

In 1939 Lippitt and White under the direction of Lewin, did a study on three different styles of leadership in the task performance of ten-year old boys in three groups. The authoritarian leader of the group was very directive. He did not allow any participation. He was concerned about the task and told the followers what to do and how to do it. He was friendly while praising the performance of the individual member and was impersonal while criticising the individual member. In the other group, the democratic leader encouraged discussion with the group and allowed participation in making decisions. He shared his leadership responsibilities with his followers and involved them in the planning and execution of the task. The **laissez-faire** leader of the third group gave complete freedom to the group and did not provide any leadership. He did not establish any policies or procedures to do the task. Each member was let alone. No one attempted to influence the other.

The researchers selected boys of the same intelligence level. Each group did the same task of making paper masks or model air-planes or murals or soap carvings. The room used by the three groups remained the same. The three group leaders assumed different styles as they shifted every six weeks from group to group. The researchers under the direction of Lewin, who did several studies on groups, were trying to see how different styles of leadership could change the satisfaction, frustration-aggression levels of the individuals. One definite finding was that nineteen out of twenty boys like the democratic leadership style. That kind of a leader never tried to boss over them, yet they had plenty to do. The only boy who liked the authoritarian style of leadership happened to be the son of an army officer. It was also observed that seven out of ten boys preferred the **laissez-faire** leader to the autocratic one as they preferred confusion and disorder to strictness and rigidity present in the autocratic style. Boys under the latter style exhibited more of aggressive, hostile and indifferent behaviour as compared to their counterparts under other styles of leadership. They either showed hostility or cracked jokes about hostility towards others. Others belonging to the democratic style of leadership showed less aggressive and more indifferent behaviour when brought under the autocratic style of a leader. Even under the **laissez-faire** style of the leader, boys committed more aggressive acts than the ones under the democratic style.

Of course, a study on ten year old boys in making paper masks or soap carving, etc. cannot be compared to leader behaviour of adults with complex jobs. But like the studies of Mayo and Roethlisberger, the studies by Lewin, Lippitt and White are a pioneering effort in understanding leadership styles from the point of scientific methodology. They also throw light on how different styles of leadership can produce different complex reactions from the same or similar groups.

Michigan Studies on Leadership Styles

Likert (1961) at University of Michigan Survey Research Centre identified two major styles of leadership orientations-employee orientation and production orientation. The employee oriented style of the leader emphasises

the relationship aspect of the jobs of the individual. Such a leader takes interest in every one and accepts the individuality and personal needs of the individual. He/She has complete confidence and trust in all matters in subordinates. The subordinates feel free to discuss things about their jobs with their superior. Subordinates were asked for ideas and opinions and always tries to make constructive use of them.

The production oriented style of the leader emphasises production and technical aspects of the job. Subordinates or employees as are looked at tools to accomplish the goals of the organisation. Work, working condition and work methods are tried to be understood better in his style of the leadership orientation. Likert related these orientations to the performance of the employees. It showed that the employee oriented style brought high-producing performance compared to production-oriented style. Of course, the satisfaction of employees was not directly related to productivity in Likert's study.

Ohio State Studies on Leadership Styles

Stogdill (1957) at the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University initiated a series of researches on leadership in 1945. He, along with his colleagues, studied leader behaviour in numerous types of groups and situations by using a Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The studies were conducted on Air Force Commanders and members of bomber crews, officers, non-commissioned personnel, civilian administrators in the Navy Department, manufacturing supervisors, executives, teachers, principals and school superintendents and leaders of various civilian groups. They did not have any satisfactory definition of leadership. They also did not think leadership is synonymous with `good' leadership. The LBDQ was administered in a wide variety of situations and surprisingly two dimensions of, leadership continually emerged from the study: one is **`consideration'** and the other is **'initiating structure'**.

Consideration reflects the extent to which individuals are likely to have job, relationship characterised by mutual respect for subordinates, ideas and consideration of subordinates, feelings. You may like to describe it as the behaviour of the leader indicating friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and his group members.

Initiating structure reflects the extent to which individuals are likely to define and structure their roles and those of their subordinates towards goal attainment. In other words, it is the behaviour of the leader which deals with the relationship between himself and the work-group and tries to establish well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication and method of procedure.

Examples of observed behaviour of the leader under consideration and initiating structure are as follows:

Activity C

Consideration	Initiating Structure
The leaders finds time to listen to group members to members ( )	The leader assigns group particular tasks ( )
The leader is willing to make change ( )	The leader asks the group members to follow standard rules and regulations ( )
The leader is friendly and approachable ( )	The leader lets group members know what is expected of them ( )

In the above example of items check how frequently as a leader you engage yourself by marking A(Always), O(Occasionally) or N(Never), against each one of the items in the box given at the right hand side of each statement. This may help you to know your own style of leadership.

One can do this exercise by observing and judging the behaviour of the leader in a work situation.

Scientific Manager's Style

Taylor (1911) stressed the best way of doing a job. He emphasised the importance of having management and labour work in harmony to maximise profits. The basis of scientific management was technological in nature. It was felt that the best way to increase output was to improve the techniques or methods used by workers. Therefore, profit can be maximised by using a systematic and scientifically based approach to the study of jobs. Taylor was not trained as a manager He relied on scientific study of time and movement spent and used for a job to improve the performance of the worker. According to the scientific managerial style, management of a work organisation must be divorced from human affairs and emotions and people have to adjust to the management and not management to the people. Once jobs are recognised with efficiency in mind, the economic self-interest of the workers could be satisfied through various incentive work plans such as piece rate . system of payment, etc. The leader is assumed to be the most competent individual in planning and organising the work of subordinates according to Taylor's principle of scientific management.

Various studies reflecting different styles of functioning of a leader have been stated above, which highlights how the leader simultaneously pays attention to the:

a) task to be accomplished by the group, and

b) needs and expectations of the group and its individual members.

Exactly how the leader goes about attending to these two functions is a matter of one's leadership style. Many theories have been suggested by the researchers regarding which leadership style is most effective. Even the

above two functions can have different descriptions for different leaders. But in course of time every leader develops a particular style which reflects his own ideas and perspectives on the relative importance of task and people.

We should now consider in what ways we can enrich the understanding of various styles of leadership by making ourselves familiar with some important theories of leadership.

8.3 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Trait Theory

This theory as described by Kelly (1974) attempts to classify what personal characteristics such as physical, personality and mental, are associated with leadership success. Trait theory relies on research that relates various traits to the success of a leader. A lengthy list of traits has been made to describe an effective leader in terms of certain characteristics. A broad classification of six categories of traits are given below:

i) Physical characteristics of the leader, such as age, height, weight.

ii) Background characteristics-education, social status, mobility and experience.

iii) Intelligence-ability, judgment, knowledge.

iv) Personality-aggressiveness, alertness, dominance, decisiveness, enthusiasm, extroversion, independence, self-confidence, authoritarianism.

v) Task-oriented characteristics-achievement needs, responsibility, initiative, and persistence.

vi) Social characteristics-supervisory ability, cooperativeness, popularity, prestige, tact, diplomacy.

These characteristics according to some people are considered valid indicators of successful leaders, but if you compare leaders by various physical personality and intelligence traits, you may find very little agreement on these. Some findings point out to the fact that leaders are intelligent individuals. But they do not provide any clue as to whether leaders are brighter than their followers or are as close to them in intelligence. Again, some of the personality traits are overlapping with each other. Therefore, you need to be cautious in stating, personality or any other characteristic as a cause of successful leadership. You must ask the questions: Who is a successful leader? Is he far superior physically? Is he far brighter? Is he more mature as a person? Is he more motivated to achieve his goal? Does he have more consideration for his followers? etc. Some of the traits may describe a successful leader but predicting successful leaders on the basis of traits alone is not a correct approach. The followers have a significant effect on the job accomplished by the leader. Trait theory completely ignores the followers and the situations that also help a leader to be successful. Secondly, we should also weigh in our own mind, which of the objectives, `confident' or independent' or intelligent' is relatively more important in becoming a, successful leader. You may observe one or all the above traits as important in

a successful leader whereas your friend may feel that an enthusiastic, aggressive and authoritarian person is a good leader. To be more objective, traits of the person as well as demand of the situation together determine the effectiveness of the leader.

Group and Exchange Theories of Leadership

These theories as reported by Hollandder and Julian (1969) state that the leader provides more benefits or regards than burden or costs for followers who help him achieve the goal of the organisation. There must be a positive exchange between the leader and followers in order for group goals to be accomplished. The leader can give rewards to his followers in the form of praise or pay increase or promotion for accomplishment of the group goal or task. This has positive impact on attitudes, satisfaction and performance of the followers. In return, they respect the leader and give due regard for the status and esteem and believe in the heightened influence. As you are already aware, that a leader emphasises initiating structure when followers do not perform very well, increases emphasis on consideration when the followers do a good job. In return, the perception of followers of his being an effective leader increases. Hence the leader and the followers mutually affect each other.

Social Learning Theories

This theory by Bandura (1977) states that there is a continuous reciprocal interaction between person, environment and behaviour as shown in Figure 1.

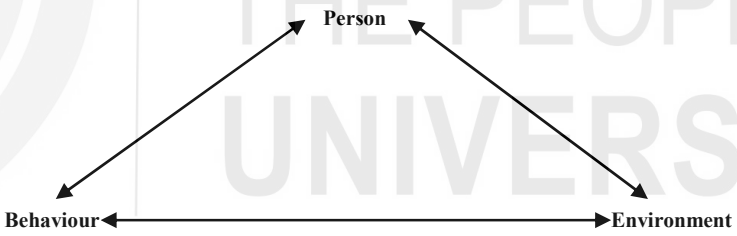


Fig. 1: Reciprocal determinism in Social Learning

Person and environment function in conjunction with the behaviour itself and reciprocally interact to determine behaviour. A person, through his actions, produces the environmental conditions that affect behaviour in a reciprocal fashion. The experience generated by behaviour also partly determines what a person becomes and can do. This in turn affects the subsequent behaviour. The theory is called social learning theory because, individuals learn in an environment in the process of interacting with each other- which is a social process. You will appreciate the application of this theory in understanding the behaviour of a leader and the continuous reciprocal interaction between the person (leader's cognitions) and environment (including subordinates and their needs, experiences, objectives in the organisation, abilities, skills, energy performance, etc. known as contingencies that regulate their

behaviour). Thus a social learning approach to leadership can be shown in Figure 2.

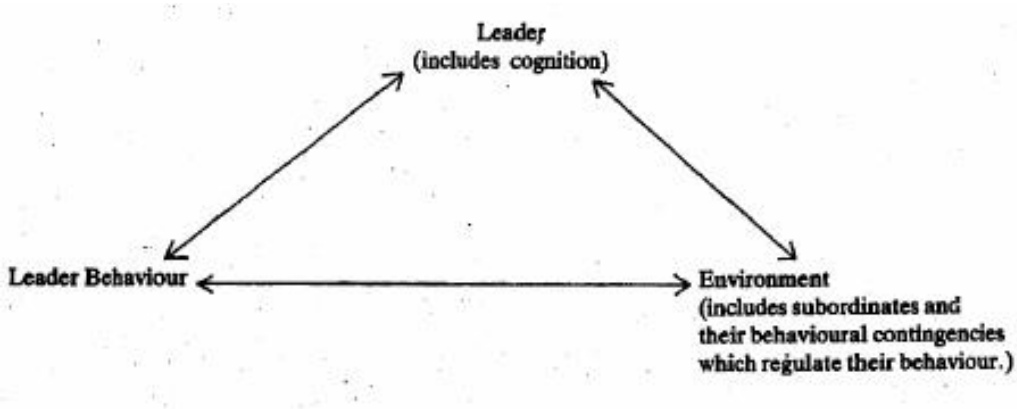


Fig. 2: A Social Learning approach to leadership

The three aspects of this theory of leadership assume that the leader knows how behaviour is controlled by various needs, situations and experiences that undergoes. The leader works with the subordinates to discover what those needs situations and experience. The leader and the subordinates jointly attempt to discover ways in which they can manage their individual behaviour to produce mutually satisfying as well as organisationally productive outcomes. In this approach, the leader and the subordinates have a negotiable and interactive relationship. They are' continuously aware of how they can modify or influence each other's behaviour by giving the rewards or holding back the performance respectively.

Managerial Grid Theory

Leaders can be oriented towards both tasks and persons. This theory by Blake and Mouton (1978) has a popular application of both task and person orientation. According to this theory leaders are most effective when they achieve a high and balanced concern for people and for tasks. Each leader can be rated somewhere along each of the axes from 1 to 9 depending on his orientation as shown in Figure 3.

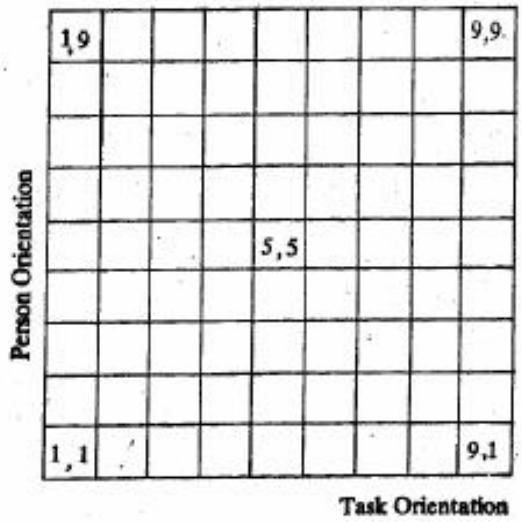


Fig. 3: Interaction between Person and Task orientations

Although there can be 81 possible combinations you should try to understand the 5 types that are shown in the diagram. These will give you a basic understanding of the theory, on which you can base your other combinations.

1. The (9, 1) leader is primarily concerned about the task or production and is concerned with responsibility to see that the work is completed and is called a Task-Management leader.
2. The (1, 9) leader is primarily concerned for people and only incidentally concerned with production. The leader's major responsibility is to establish harmonious relationships among subordinates and to provide a secure and pleasant work atmosphere and is called as Country Club Management leader.
3. The (1,1) leader is concerned with neither production nor people and tries to stay out of the way and not become involved in the conflict between the necessity for production and the attainment of good working relationship and is called as Impoverish Management leader.
4. The (5,5) leader reflects a middle ground position and is called as Middle of the Road Management leader and seeks to compromise between high production and employee satisfaction.
5. The (9,9) leader is extremely concerned about the task and also the people and is concerned to see that the work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a'common stake' in organisation; purpose leads to relationship of trust and respect and is called a Team Management leader.

Activity D

Read the following statements/examples and mark for yourself, the ones that are applicable to you -as a leader of the group.

		Mostly	Sometimes	Never
1	Asking the members to set the pace of their work	( )	( )	( )
2	Settling conflicts of the group	( )	( )	( )
3	Tolerating delay and uncertainty at work	( )	( )	( )
4	Talking to the group in the presence of outsiders	( )	( )	( )
5	Working hard for promotion	( )	( )	( )
6	Assigning members with specific tasks	( )	( )	( )
7	Deciding how a thing should be done	( )	( )	( )
8	Allowing members to work the way they think is best	( )	( )	( )
9	Urging the work group to compete with others	( )	( )	( )
10	Refusing to explain the action taken by you	( )	( )	( )

Contingency Theory of Leadership

Regarding this theory Fiedler (1967) states that a leader may become effective if the situation is favourable in three ways. These are: good leader-member relations showing acceptance of the leader by the group; details of the task spelled out to the leader's position; and a great deal of authority and power is formally attributed to the leader's position. With these three favourable situations and the style of functioning, a leader will be effective.

When the situation is very favourable or very unfavourable to the leader, the task-oriented leader is effective. When the situation is moderately favourable to the leader the person oriented leader is effective.

Example (of moderately favourable situation to person-oriented leader) A leader with good interpersonal relationships may be developing a new policy that will have great impact on the work group. The situation is relatively vague but moderately favourable. The task is not very well defined and the leader-member relation is good. The leader is likely to be effective as he would like to consult the members and consider their thoughts and ideas. When the new policy gets approved, the situation becomes more favourable.

Path-goal Leadership Theory

This theory by House (1971) states that the leader smooths out the path towards goals and provides rewards for achieving them.

As a leader, you should understand the needs of the people and their desire to work or behave in a way that accomplishes goals that satisfy those needs. This theory is based on a situation of the above kind. If you know the need of the person and the desire to work and is able to accomplish the work, you can reward to make the person feel happy and satisfied. In essence, you are doing three things: One, you are motivating the members of the group by clarifying the path to personal rewards that result from attaining work goals. You have thus `fixed' on the job and made to see that the Person performance can lead to positive or negative rewards. Two, you have already made the path-goal clear to the member and also told about what the job requires. You need not say too many things about the job as this may decrease the interest in the work and deter the performance. Three, you must offer the reward to the member of the group who actually accomplishes the task. Your reward may be a praise or increase in the pay or promotion of the member to a higher position. Your judgment about the desirability of the member to a higher position is crucial. Your judgment about the desirability of the member's effort and the goal helps you to decide whether a reward can be given.

It is very important for the leader to know every member as a person, in order to use a style to get the best out of the member. For example, a task-oriented leader is preferred by a highly achievement-oriented member, whereas a person-oriented leader is preferred by a person who needs a good deal of affiliation with others. Similarly it does good for the leader to know each situation to adjust his style of functioning for better results. With a clear task on hand, members feel satisfied if the leader is supporting them. They may not show a lot of output, but they are satisfied. On the other hand with a less

clear or more vague task on hand, member show more output, if the leader directs them to work better. The member in this situation may not be very satisfied.

In most of the Indian work settings, it is usually observed that members are quite dependent on the leader or the superior. They also are quite conscious of their status, but have very little commitment to work. Singh (1980) suggests that the leader who is task-oriented and nurtures the dependence of members on him is most effective in dealing with such members. He or she can get the work done in his nurturant task style from the members of his group. To a great extent, he knows characteristics of the members' work group, that he or she utilises in making the leadership style effective and getting the work done.

From the above discussions, it is clear that a leader is a person who has ability to persuade others to get the work done. You must have seen a person having the title of a leader. He/ She may be very popular, but map not have the ability of leadership. Many leaders try to become popular by agreeing with everyone, thus avoiding any kind of conflict. Their influence on the subordinate or members of the work group may not be very lasting. There are leaders, who by virtue of their ability to exercise authority and power show better influence on members. It is therefore necessary for you to understand the authority of a leader and his sources of power, which help him to exercise influence on the subordinates.

8.4 MODERN THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Charismatic Leadership Theories

Charismatic leadership is a throwback to the old conception of leaders as being those who "by the force of their personal abilities are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers." Although the charismatic concept, or charisma, goes as far back as the ancient Greeks and is cited in the Bible, its modern development is often attributed to the work of Robert House. On the basis of the analysis of political and religious leaders,

House suggests that charismatic leaders are characterized by self-confidence and confidence in their associates, high expectations for associates, ideological vision, and the use of personal example. Followers of charismatic leaders identify with the leader and the mission of the leader, exhibit extreme loyalty to and confidence in the leader, emulate the leader's values and behaviour, and derive self-esteem from their relationship with the leader. Bass has extended the profile of charismatic leaders to include superior debating and persuasive skills as well as technical expertise and the fostering of attitudinal, behavioural, and emotional changes in their followers.

Charismatic leaders will produce in followers' performance beyond expectations as well as strong commitment to the leader and his or her mission. Research indicates that the impact of such charismatic leaders will be enhanced when the followers exhibit higher levels of self-awareness and self-monitoring, especially when observing the charismatic leaders'

behaviours and activities and when operating in a social network. House and his colleagues provide some support for charismatic theory and research finds a positive effect on desirable outcomes such as cooperation and motivation, and recent conceptualization proposing that alternative forms (personalized versus socialized) are relevant to successful implementation of mergers and acquisitions. However, as with the other leadership theories, complexities are found and more research is needed. For example, one study that assessed charismatic leader behaviours, individual level correlates, and unit-level correlates (outcomes) in the military yielded only limited support for the theory's propositions and led the researchers to conclude that greater sensitivity to multiple constituencies of leaders is needed in theories and studies focused on charismatic leadership. Also, extensions of the theory are being proposed. For example, Conger and Kanungo treat charisma as an attributional phenomenon and propose that it varies with the situation. Leader traits that foster charismatic attributions include self-confidence, impression-management skills, social sensitivity, and empathy. Situations that promote charismatic leadership include a crisis requiring dramatic change or followers who are very dissatisfied with the status quo. For example, a study in a university setting revealed a situation in which a charismatic leader was able to successfully implement a technical change, but at the same time suffered through major political turmoil, which appeared to be side effects of the technical change.

This suggests that studies of charismatic leadership must be considered in the context in which the leader operates, and the nature of the task or work being performed should be included in the analysis.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Many years ago James MacGregor Burns identified two types of political leadership: transactional and transformational. The more traditional transactional leadership involves an exchange relationship between leaders and followers, but transformational leadership is based more on leaders' shifting the values, beliefs, and needs of their followers.

More recently, the "charisma" characteristic of transformational leadership has been changed to "idealized influence." This was done to not confuse transformational with charismatic leadership, which Bass treats as different theories. Although there are a number of contrasts between the two theories, the major differentiators are how followers are treated. Key to transformational leaders is that they seek to empower and elevate followers(i.e., develop followers into leaders) while charismatic leaders may try to keep followers weak and dependent on them (i.e., instill personal loyalty to the leader rather than developing them to attain ideals).

In contrast to transactional leaders that behave in one of the ways Avolio notes that transformational leaders characterized by *idealized leadership, inspiringleadership, intellectual stimulation,* and *individualized consideration* represent a cluster of interrelated styles aimed at the following:

1) Changing situations for the better

2) Developing followers into leaders

3) Overhauling organizations to provide them with new strategic directions

Inspiring people by providing an energizing vision and high ideal for moral and ethical Conduct.

On the basis of his research findings, Bass concludes that in many instances (such as relying on passive management by exception), transactional leadership is a prescription for mediocrity and that transformational leadership leads to superior performance in organizations facing demands for renewal and change. He suggests that fostering transformational leadership through policies of recruitment, selection, promotion, training, and development will pay off in the health, well-being, and effective performance of today's organizations.

A meta-analysis of 39 studies found that the transformational behaviours of charisma (idealized influence), individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation were related to leadership effectiveness in most studies, but, except for the contingent reward behaviours, the transactional leadership styles did not enhance leadership effectiveness, and this more positive impact of transformational over transactional leadership has held through the years. For example, a recent meta-analysis of 87 studies found transformational leadership related (.44) to the composite of desired outcomes (follower job satisfaction, follower leader satisfaction, follower motivation, leader job performance, group or organizational performance and rated leader effectiveness). However, in this meta-analysis, contingent reward transactional leadership also related (.39) to the same composite of outcomes, and transformational leadership failed to significantly predict leader job performance.

Servant Leadership

A leadership approach coined by Robert K. Greenleaf (1970) in which the leader has a desire to "serve *first*" and leads in such a way that those being served "become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants." Servant leadership exhibits an approach that is more humanistic and relationally oriented. The development in humanistic approaches to leadership is taking more progressive steps currently. Servant leaders lead because they want to serve others and they practically set examples before giving directions. The focus of servant leadership is on others rather than upon self and on understanding of the role of the leader as a servant. As a part of normative theory servant leadership emphasize the relationship of leaders and followers to each other and the importance of values on the process of leadership.

Servant leadership has not received as much attention as other leadership theories in the literature, but in recent years interest in it by the business organizations has grown. Servant leaders focus more on concern for their followers by creating conditions that enhance followers' well-being and functioning and thereby facilitate the realization of a shared vision. Spears (1998) read the book on servant leadership by Greenleaf and then he briefed

the characteristics of a servant leader. The ten characteristics mentioned are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. Lastly, the motivational drivers in servant leadership include valuing people, developing people and building community, displaying authenticity and sharing leadership.

Substitutes for Leadership

Because of dissatisfaction with the progress of leadership theory and research in explaining and predicting the effects of leader behaviour on performance outcomes, some of the basic assumptions about the importance of leadership per se have been challenged over the years. One alternative approach that received attention proposed that there may be certain "substitutes" for leadership that make leader behaviour unnecessary and redundant, and "neutralizers" that prevent the leader from behaving in a certain way or that counteract the behaviour. These substitutes or neutralizers can be found in subordinate, task, and organization characteristics. For example, crafts persons or professionals such as accountants or software engineers may have so much experience, ability, and training that they do not need instrumental/task leadership to perform well and be satisfied. Those employees who don't particularly care about organizational rewards (for example, professors or musicians) will neutralize both supportive/relationship and instrumental/task leadership attempts. Tasks that are highly structured and automatically provide feedback substitute for instrumental/ task leadership, and those that are intrinsically satisfying (for example, teaching) do not need supportive/relationship leadership. There are also a number of organizational characteristics that substitute for or neutralize leadership.

Authentic Leadership

Although there are a number of newly emerging theories such as servant leadership, political leadership, contextual leadership, e-leadership, primal leadership, relational leadership, positive leadership, shared leadership, and responsible leadership, in these times of unprecedented challenges facing organizational leaders, we (Avolio and Luthans and our colleagues working with the Leadership Institute at the University of Nebraska) believe that authentic leadership is a needed approach. Drawing from Luthans's work on positive organizational behaviour and psychological capital, and Avolio's work on transformational and full range leadership, recently proposed a specific model of authentic leadership development.

Authenticity has its roots in ancient Greek philosophy ("To thin own self be true") and descriptive words include genuine, transparent, reliable, trustworthy, real, and veritable.

Positive psychologists refer to authenticity as both owning one's personal experiences (thoughts, emotions, or beliefs, "the real me inside") and acting in accord with the true self (behaving and expressing what you really think and believe). *Authentic leadership* in organizations can be defined as:

A process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development. The authentic leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical, future oriented, and gives priority to developing associates to be leaders.

Abusive Leadership

Abusive leaders exercise power to serve their own interest by dominating and authoritative ways to achieve what they want. They manipulate others to gain their purposes. They want to win at any cost. Although they know how to show that they are loyal and working for the organization, actuality they are preoccupied to be numberone. Baron and Neuman (1998) explain that abusive behaviour is the behaviour which is harmful to others.

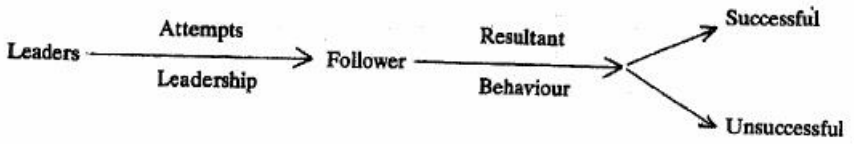
Ashforth (1994, 1997) defines petty tyranny as a manager's use of power and authority cruelly, erratically, and unkindly. He finds following six dimensions of a petty tyrant: behaving in an illogical and conceited manner; putting down subordinate; lacking kindness for other; forcing divergence ruling; discouraging inventiveness and using non-contingent penalty.

Tepper (2000) defines abusive supervision as the perception of subordinates about the hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviour of their supervisors which does not include physical abuse. He feels that supervisors may not mean to cause harm and are forced to act abusively in order to achieve some other goal.

8.5 SUCCESSFUL VERSUS EFFECTIVE LEADER

As we have seen in the preceding discussions, leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives. It is the ability to persuade others to get something done. So the leader attempts to have some effect on the behaviour of another, which we call attempted leadership. The response to this attempt may or may not be successful. A basic responsibility of managers in any work organisation is to get the work done with and through people. The success of managers is measured by the output or productivity of the group they lead. Therefore, we should clearly distinguish between successful versus effective leader.

Fig. 4: Successful-Unsuccessful Leadership Continuum



In the above figure, A's attempt to influence B to do a certain job can be judged successful or unsuccessful. B does the job for the reason that A has position of power and he controls the reward and punishment, then A's attempted leadership is successful.

A's style of leadership may not be compatible with B's expectation and B is made hostile towards A and does the job only because of A's position power; then we can say A has been successful, but not effective. B does the job because A can punish him for not doing it or reward him for doing it. B's own needs are not being accomplished by satisfying the goals of A (the leader) for the organisation.

On the other hand, A's attempted leadership leads to a successful response and B does the job because he wants to do it and finds it rewarding, then we may say, A has both position power as well as personal power. B respects A, B is consistent with ' some personal goals and B sees personal goals as being accomplished by the job he does for A. We can then say A's leadership is effective.

We should try to understand the difference between success and effectiveness. Success has to do with how the individual or the group behaves. Effectiveness describes the internal state or predisposition of an individual or a group and is thus attitudinal in nature.

You may have noticed that individuals who are interested in success tend to emphasise their position power. They use close supervision of the work of their associates. If they have to be effective, they have to use their personal power as well as their general supervision.

Examples of successful and effective individuals can be noticed if one understands the underlying acceptance of the superior by the subordinate. In the examination hall, a certain kind of teachers fear that if they leave the hall for a while the students will indulge in copying and exchanging notes. There are yet another kind of teachers who leave the examination hall, but the students never behave differently.

Let us work at family level which is a less formal organisation. Parents can be successful and effective by using their position and personal power. The children easily accept the goals of the family as their own. Parents who use position power and a closer supervision, are likely to face a kind of revolt or disobeying attitude among their children not accepting the goals set by the parents for the family. With the absence of the parents, the whole house becomes topsy-turvy. This can never happen in 'a family where parents create a good deal of trust between them and the children by exercising their personal power of love and discipline. The children **in** the absence of parents do not behave differently than if their parents were there.

Leaders are successful, but ineffective when they have a short-run influence over the behaviour of others. They must try to be both successful and effective to have long-term influence for leading others towards productivity and developing the organisation as a whole. The most important conclusion from the above discussion is that the managers must understand their own abilities and their impact on others.

Activity E

Interview several people asking them to describe situations where someone's attempt to influence them was successful or unsuccessful

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8.6 MOTIVATION : MEANING AND DEFINITION

Motivation is the process of creating organisational conditions which will impel employees to strive to attain company goals. "Motivation represents an unsatisfiedneed which creates a state of tension or disequilibrium, causing the individual to move in a goal-directed pattern towards restoring a state of equilibrium by satisfying the need." According to Dubin, "motivation is the complex of forcesstarting and keeping a person at work in an organisation." Seen from the corporate perspective, motivation is the willingness to put forth effort in pursuit of organisational objectives.

Motivation refers to the willingness of individual members to set and accept challenging goals, and to take responsibility, their involvement in work, and their job satisfaction. It is a process which begins with a physiological or psychological need or deficiency which triggers behaviour or a drive that is aimed at a goal or an incentive.

The purpose of motivation is to create conditions in which people are willing to work with zeal, initiative, interest and enthusiasm, with a sense of responsibility, loyalty and discipline, and with pride and confidence in the most cohesive manner,so that the goals of an organisation are achieved effectively. Motivational techniques are utilised to stimulate employee growth. Motivation is a combination of many diverse elements which are rather difficult to define. However, two elements have been regarded as important: *(a)* understanding of the fundamental drives, urges, needs of the people which are subject to emotional stimulation or motivation, and *(b)* communication with people so that they may have a satisfactory stimulus to their urges.

Motivation is a function which a manager performs in order to get his subordinates to achieve job objectives. It is not merely a management process; there is anotherside to it — the individual being motivated. Psychologists call individual motivation a state of tension. The motivation of a group is as important as self-motivation. A group can be motivated by improving human relations and dealingwith people in a humane way, by developing the will to do, by encouraging involvement in their work, and by giving them an opportunity to improve their performance and by complimenting or praising them. Other important factors which motivate individuals include respect for individuality, good pay, opportunityto do interesting work, feeling that the job is important, a large amount of freedom on the job, and opportunity and self-

development. No firm can be productive without motivated employees.

8.7 MOTIVATING FACTORS

Some managers try to motivate employees through the use of rewards, punishments and formal authority. But, motivation is much more complicated than that. It involves ideas of family, team work, variety, growth, learning, salary,other benefits, and the like. Work in itself has become more important than the employer or the organisation. Executives today are interested in challenging assignments that involves application of one's mind. Risk involvement is appreciated and viewed as exciting so much so that easy jobs involving simpletasks and no risks are demotivating.

Workers, executives and managers today would like to have a 'say' in policies, the rules and regulations, the targets and other job-related issues. Employees do not enjoy a routine, monotonous role of being a cog in the wheel. They prefer taking risks, making decisions and delivering the goods. Need for individuality and for unique identity is felt strongly among young executives today.

Innovation and creativity have come to be crucial needs for executives today. They like to be listened to, for their suggestions and new ideas. They also enjoy implementing new, better and effective strategies to reach the goals of their team/organisation.

There is also the need for the job profile to suit one's aptitude — a software consultant who has aptitude for development but no inclination for teaching, if allocated as training faculty will not be motivated. Another consultant who enjoys teaching will be highly motivated when allocated as training faculty.

There is also the growing need amongst today's workers/executives for enriching one's skills, i.e., for individual development. Employees look forward to development of new skills rather than security of jobs in an organisation. Training and development programmes also provide a break from the daily routine and work pressure. In the absence of such activity, an employee feels demotivated and is unable to give his best to his employer. Today's employees, therefore, want to add value to themselves as they make valuable contributions to their organisations.

Just as employees have a need for challenging work involving risks, they also need to be forgiven for any mistakes made in the process. Employees feel motivated and perform better when mistakes are forgiven or ignored.

8.8 IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

Probably, no concept of human resource management receives as much attentionof academicians, researchers, and practising managers as motivation. The increased attention towards motivation is justified by several reasons.

1) *Motivated employees are always looking for better ways to do a job:* This statement can apply to corporate strategies, and to production workers. When people actively seek new ways of doing things, they usually find them. It is

the responsibility of managers to make employees look for better ways of doing their jobs. An understanding of the nature of motivation is helpful in this context.

2) *A motivated employee, generally, is more quality oriented:* This is true whether we are talking about a top manager spending extra time on data gathering and analysis for a report, or a clerk taking extra care when filing important documents. In either case, the organisation benefits, because individuals in and outside the organisation see the enterprise as quality conscious. A clear understanding of the way motivation work, helps a manager make his employees quality oriented.

3) *Highly motivated workers are more productive than apathetic workers:* The high productivity of Japanese workers and the fact that fewer workers are needed to produce an automobile in Japan than elsewhere is well-known.The high productivity of Japanese workers is attributable to many reasons,but motivation is the main factor.

4) *Every organisation requires human resource, in addition to financial and physical resources for it to function:* Three behavioural dimensions of human resource are significant to the organisation: (a) people must be attracted not only to join the organisation but also to remain in it; (b) people must perform the tasks for which they are hired, and must do so in a dependable manner; and (c) people must go beyond this dependable role performance and engage in some form of creative, spontaneous, and innovative behaviour at work. In other words, for an organisation to be effective, it must come to grips with the motivational problems of stimulating both the decision to participate and the decision to produce at work.

5) *Motivation as a concept represents a highly complex phenomenon that affects, and is affected by, a multitude of factors in the organisational milieu:* A comprehensive understanding of the way in which an organisation functions requires that increasing attention be directed towards the question of why people behave as they do, on their jobs.

6) *Yet another reason why increasing attention is paid towards motivation can be found in the present and future technology required for production:* Increased use of technology results in greater efficiency, higher productivity and better standard of living to the people.

8.9 MOTIVATING STEPS

Jucius has observed that the following steps be adopted in motivation:

a) ***Sizing Up:*** This involves ascertaining motivational needs. All employees need motivation but of varying kinds and in varying degrees.

b) ***Preparing a Set of Motivating Tools:*** This requires a selection of specific tools of motivation. An executive, from personal experience, from the experiences of others, and with the help of the personnel department, may draw up a list of devices that may motivate different types of people under different circumstances.

c) ***Selecting and Applying Motivation:*** The executive should decide the words,

the tone of voice and the gestures to be used and make necessary rehearsal for their proper use. Besides, it has also to be considered where and when motivation is to be applied. The place and timing for this purpose are important.

d) ***Feedback:*** This involves the finding whether an individual has been motivated; if not, some other device may be applied.

While establishing the steps of motivation, an executive should be guided by certain rules. According to Jucius, these rules are:

a) ***Self-interest and Motivation:*** People are by nature, selfish. When a person realises that his own interests are best served by the attainment of an organisation's goals, is likely to be motivated.

b) ***Attainability:*** It is necessary to establish goals that are attainable and when such goals are achieved, it leads to employee satisfaction. Unattainable goals frustrate people.

c) ***The Human Element:*** Motivation appeals to emotions and feelings. The executive, who is most successful as a motivator, can trace success invariably to the skill in dealing with peoples' feelings which can bring out the best in people because is makes them feel good, feel significant, feel worthwhile, and feel that they are growing.

d) ***Individual Group Relationship:*** Motivation must be based upon group aswell as individual-centred stimuli.

e) ***Managerial Theory:*** Management must base its motivational efforts on sound theory.

8.10 TYPES OF MOTIVATION

If a manager wants to get work done by employees, may either hold out a promise of a reward for them for doing work in a better or improved way or instil fear into them to do the desired work. In other words, may utilise a positive or negative motivation. Both these types are widely used by managements. Positive motivation includes praise and credit for work done, competition, pride, delegation of responsibility, appreciation, and pay. Positive motivation leads to a good team spirit, co-operation and feeling of happiness. Negative motivation is based upon force and fear. Fear causes persons to act in acertain way because they are afraid of the consequences if they don't. Fear motivation is a "push" mechanism. Imposition of punishment frequently results in frustration among those punished, and an unfavourable attitude to the job. Inspite of these demerits, negative motivation has been used to achieve the desired behaviour in some cases. There is no management which has not used the negative motivation at some time or the other. However, in recent years the trend has been towards the use of positive motivation.

Extrinsic motivation is concerned with external motivators which employees enjoy — pay, promotion, status, fringe benefits, holidays, retirement plans and health insurance schemes. By and large, these motivators are associated with financial rewards. Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is concerned

with the feeling of having accomplished something worthwhile, i.e., the satisfaction one gets after doing one's work well. Praise, responsibility, recognition, esteem, powerand status are examples of such motivation.

8.11 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

There is no shortage of models, strategies and tactics for motivating employees. All the theories can broadly be classified as content theories and process theories.

1. **Maslow's Theory of Hierarchy of Needs:** People go to work in order to satisfy their needs and aspirations. These needs are not constant but they change according to circumstances status, environment, society, groups, and so forth. From Prof. A.H. Maslow (1943), we have a theory of motivation where he identified a hierarchy of needs as shown below.

   Maslow argued that as one's need is met, then the individual moves on to the next need. First of all, the individual has the basic physiological needs such as food, shelter, clothing, and works in order to satisfy these needs. Once these needs are satisfied, the individual moves to a higher plane of needs. Secondly, an individual has safety needs such as security and protection — the need to provide a safe and secure physical and emotional environment, an environment that is free from threats to continued existence. Once these needs are met, the individual moves on to satisfy the third type of needs called "social needs" or "belongingness needs." These needs relate to one's desire for social acceptance and friendship. The fourth type is self-respect and self-esteem. The esteem needs focus on one's desire to have a positive image to receive recognition, attention and appreciation from others for one's contribution. The last type of needs are those of self-fulfilment and self-actualisation for realising the fullest stature. People who have become self-actualised are self-fulfilled and have realised their full potential. Self-actualisation is an individual's motivation to transform the perception of self into reality.

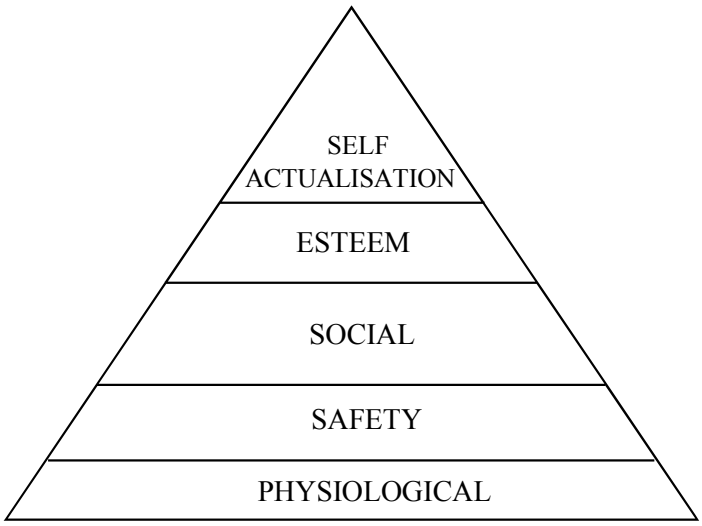

Figure 5

2) **McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y:** Prof. Douglas McGregor has presented two opposite sets of assumptions about employees. These have been represented by Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X represents standard bureaucratic and authoritarian attitude towards employees and is based on certain assumptions such as: (i) the average person dislikes work and, whenever possible, will avoid it; (ii) most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility and prefer to be directed; (iii) to get people to work, it is necessary to use strict control, threats, constant pressure, coercion, persuasion, and even punishment; (iv) most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organisational problems; and (v) people actually like to be directed and supervised very closely.

   McGregor drawing heavily on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, concluded that the "theory X assumptions about human nature, when universally applied, are often inaccurate and that the management approaches that develop from these assumptions may fail to motivate many individuals to work towards organisational goals." He observes: "Management by direction and control may not succeed because it is a questionable method for motivating people whose physiological and safety needs are reasonably satisfied and whose higher level needs are becoming predominant." He, therefore, developed an alternative theory of human behaviour called Theory Y. Theory Y assumes that people are not by nature lazy and unreliable. They enjoy work, show initiative and imagination in self-direction and self-control. Some assumptions of Theory Y are: (i) Work is a natural activity, like playing and rest, if the conditions are favourable. (ii) Close supervision and threats of punishment are not the only ways to get people to do things. (iii) Motivation occurs at the social esteem and self-actualisation levels, as well as at the physiological and security levels. (iv) People can be self-directed and be creative at work if properly motivated.

3) **Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory:** A significant development in motivation research was made by Frederick Herzberg (1959) and associates who distinguished between motivational and maintenance factors in the work situation. Maintenance of hygiene factors are those which belong to the company policies and administration, supervision, inter-personal relations, working conditions, pay, job security, personal life, status. Herzberg propounds that these factors help in removing discomfort, dissatisfaction and discontent on the part of the employees but are not motivators as traditionally perceived by management. These potent dissatisfiers are called maintenance factors on the job because they are necessary to maintain a reasonable level of satisfaction in employees. They are also known as hygiene factors because they support employees' mental health. But in themselves, they are not motivators according to Herzberg and his team. The real motivators that primarily build strong motivation and high job satisfaction among employees are achievement, recognition, advancement, work itself, possibility of growth, and responsibility. According to Herzberg, the motivating factors are intrinsic to the job, while the maintenance and hygiene factors are extrinsic to it.

   According to Dumette, Campbell and Hakel (1967), Herzberg's Motivation Hygiene Theory has accomplished three important objectives:

1) It has discovered those features of job situation that make the difference between satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

2) Unlike the tradition of most previous research it emphasises those job features that lead to change in feelings towards the job.

3) It developed a taxanomy of job situations consisting of satisfying and dissatisfying features. Satisfying features which the employees would like to attain and the dissatisfying features that they would like to avoid.

Herzberg's theory has, however, been criticised by many authors. For example, Keith Davis has observed that a limited testing of the model on blue-collar workers suggests that some items normally considered as maintenance factors are frequently considered motivational factors by the blue-collar workers. Some authorities doubted whether the factors leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction are really different from each other. In less developed countries, it is likely that workers will designate some of the maintenance factors or hygiene factors as motivators, since they are yet tomeet some of their lower order needs.

4) **McClelland's Theory of Motivation:** McClelland's theory (1953) is quite extensive and involved. His contribution in developing the concepts of need for achievement and need for power is of great significance. According to him, two motives are innate, namely, striving for pleasure and seeking to avoid displeasure or pain. All the other motives are acquired.

According to him people can be classified into two broad groups — one small and the other large. Those falling in the small group are challenged by opportunities and are willing to work hard to achieve some goal. People in the large group, on the other hand, have less need of achievement and are not so challenged by opportunities.

Achievement-oriented people possess certain characteristics. They prefer a moderate degree of risk because they feel that their efforts and abilities will probably influence the outcome. In business, such people are successful entrepreneurs; and the organisation with many such people grows faster and is profitable.

McClelland differentiates between personal power and institutional or social power. Individuals high in need for personal power like to inspire subordinates and expect the latter to respect and obey them. Managers who are high in institutional power, however, tend to exert authority and influence so as to achieve the goals of the organisation rather than to gain any personal ego satisfaction.

5) **Vroom's Expectancy Theory:** Expectancy Theory, as applied to behaviour at work, has been formulated mainly by Victor H. Vroom (1964). It explains that motivation is a product of the values one seeks and one's expectations of the probability that a certain action will lead to those values. According to this theory, an employee's motivation is a force driving him to achieve some level of job performance. The force or effort depends upon the perception of the probability or likelihood of certain outcomes resulting from the efforts, as related to the value one places on these outcomes.

For example, if an employee believes that if one performs at a high level, willbe paid a higher income which is of value to him, then produce more. In achieving a high level of performance, one has the satisfaction which, in turn, influences future effort. The essence of this theory is that an employee performs a kind of cost-benefit analysis. If the estimated benefit is enough to justify the cost of greater effort one is likely to put in greater effort.

6) **Skinner's Behaviourist Theory:** The Harvard University Psychologist, Prof. Skinner (1953), has contributed a new concept of motivating people and the concept is variously called "behaviour technology", "behaviour modification" or "positive reinforcement." Prof. Skinner suggests that people perform better and gain better in psychological satisfaction on the job when they receive proper appreciation and praise for their good work.

7) **Likert's Employee-Centred Approach:** Rennis Likert (1961-67) believes that as organisations move from a highly exploitative autocratic system to a democratic style, they will meet the needs of human beings and become productive organisations. Likert and his colleagues conducted research at the University of Michigan, and came to the conclusion that "both human resources and capital resources need to be considered as assets requiring proper management." They also suggested that if a supervisor wants to motivate workers, one should be "employee-centred" rather than "job- centred."

8) **Argyris (1957-64):** He feels that organisations treat individuals in the system as children, assigned to them simple tasks, and create dependence in them by exercising too much control over them. This is dysfunctional to healthy humans and results in frustration and a lack of work role involvement. Argyris argues that by giving increased responsibility, a broader range of tasks, and independence, employees will reach their potential and increase their productivity. Thus, by treating individuals like mature adults, organisations can increase productivity while at the same time meet the needs of individuals for independence and growth.

9) **Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler (1968):** They came up with a comprehensive theory of motivation. If the reward to be obtained is attractive or of expected utility, then the individual will decide to put in the necessary effort to perform the job. If the expected reward is not so, it will lower one's efforts. In addition, the individual performing the job should also have accurate role perceptions. Role perceptions refers to the way in which peopledefine their jobs. We often hear managers say that the job is what the employee makes of it. Some people may take on additional responsibilitiesand expand the scope of their job. Others may avoid some aspects of their job and hence narrow its scope. Thus, people may perceive their roles differently.

   Porter and Lawler's model is of great significance to managers since it sensitises them to focus attention on the following to keep their employees motivated:

   1) Put the right person on the right job.

2) Carefully explain to employees what their role is, and make sure they understand it.

3) Prescribe in concrete terms the actual performance levels expected of the individuals.

4) Make sure that the rewards dispensed are valued by the employee. That is, find out what kind of rewards are appropriate and attractive to the employee and see if such rewards can be given to them.

10) **Goal-setting theory:** Goal-setting is one of the most effective and widely practised tools of motivation. Goals are the immediate or ultimate objectives that employees are trying to accomplish from their work efforts in organisations. Goals lead employees to compare their present performance with the goals laid down. When individuals succeed in reaching a goal, they feel competent and successful. Goals need to fulfil certain requisites if they were to impact employee behaviour. One requirement is that goals must be specific. Similarly, organisational support towards goal attainment supported by individual abilities and traits leads to goal realisation.

    Goal-setting theory is a very powerful technique of motivation. When used correctly, carefully monitored, and actively supported by managers, goal-setting can improve performance.

Activity F

Think of a person, who in the past did an excellent job of motivating you. Which of the following approaches did he use? Why?

a) Lower order or high order needs

b) Motivational or maintenance factors

c) ERG needs

d) Behaviour modification

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8.12 SUMMARY

In this unit you have learnt about leadership as a process of influence on others to work willingly for group objectives. You have also come across different leadership styles, such as Human relations style, theory X and Y styles, Authoritarian, Democratic and **Laissez-faire** style, Employee-orientation and Production-orientation styles, Consideration and Initiating Structure styles and Scientific Managerial styles. Styles have been related to various theories of leadership such as Trait theory, Group and Exchange theory, Social Learning theory, Managerial Grid theory, Contingency theory and Path-goal theory.

You have also learnt about the importance of motivation, followed by theories of Motivation. Thus it's learnt that leading and motivating aspects play an important role for a Manager.

8.13 SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST

1. To what extent various theories of leadership are likely to influence your leadership styles.
2. Is there any difference between a successful and an effective leader? Discuss.
3. Why motivation is a critical issue of interest to managers in organizations?
4. Discuss the salient features of Herzberg's Motivation-Hygience Theory and show its relevance to the Indian situation.
5. "Most people can be motivated with money." Discuss your views on this statement.

8.14 REFERENCES/ FURTHER READINGS

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