

Motivation

The word Motivation derives from the Latin word “Movere”. The Latin word “Movere” means “To move”, “To drive” or “To drive forward” etc. **Motivation** can be defined as stimulating, inspiring and inducing the employees to perform to their best capacity. **Motivation** is a psychological term which means it cannot be forced on employees. It comes automatically from inside the employees as it is the willingness to do the work.

Joe Kelly defined Motivation as “Motivation is a process where by needs instigate behavior directed towards the goals that can satisfy those needs.”

According to W. G. Scot, “Motivation means a process of stimulating people to action to accomplish the desired goals.”

Features of Motivation

1. **Motivation is a psychological phenomenon.** Motivation is an internal feeling which means it cannot be forced on employees. The internal feelings such as need, desire, aspirations etc. influence human behavior to behave in a particular manner. For example, desire to have a new house, respect and recognition etc.
2. **Motivation produces goal directed behavior.** Motivation induces people to behave in such a manner so that they can achieve their goal. Motivated person need no supervision or direction. He will always work in desired manner. For example of a person has a motive to get promotion so he will work efficiently to get promotion.
3. **Motivators can be positive as well as negative.** To motivate employees managers use various motivators. Some motivators are positive and some are negative few examples of positive motivators are promotion, increment, bonus, respect, recognition etc. if employee does not improve his performance with positive motivators then manager uses negative motivators such as warning, issue o memo, demotion, stopping increments etc. sometimes fear of negative motivators also induces person to behave in a desired manner.
4. **Motivation is a complex process.** Motivation is a complex and difficult task. In order to motivate people a manager must understand various types of human need. Human needs are mental feelings which can be measured accurately. If manager measures them accurately then also every person uses different approaches to satisfy his need. Some get satisfied with monetary incentives, some with non-monetary, some with positive and some with negative motivators. So it is not possible to make generalization in motivation.
5. **Motivation is a dynamic and continuous process.** Human beings are ever-changing. Human needs are unlimited and go on changing continuously. Satisfaction of one need gives rise to another so managers have to continuously perform the function of motivation.

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory:

It is probably safe to say that the most well-known theory of motivation is Maslow's need hierarchy theory. Maslow's theory is based on the human needs. Drawing chiefly on his clinical experience, he classified all human needs into a hierarchical manner from the lower to the higher order.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Abraham Maslow formulated Maslow's hierarchy of needs, explaining that a person is motivated after specific requirements are fulfilled. He divided human necessities into divisions and explained that when the needs of a particular level are satisfied, a person gets motivated to achieve the needs of the next level.

This is one of the most followed and referenced theories of motivation because of the clear concept. The hierarchy of needs as explained in theory is –

- **Physiological:** Physiological needs are the most basic forms of needs of humans. These include basic necessities to live, such as food, water, and shelter.
- **Safety:** After getting basic necessities, every human strives for safety to prevent the uncertainty of life. These needs include protection from dangers, threats, and deprivation.
- **Social:** After being confident of safety from all factors, humans need social acceptance in affiliation, friendship, association, etc.
- **Self-esteem:** After getting social approval, humans strive for self-esteem in the form of respect and recognition from society.
- **Self-actualization:** Self-actualization is the highest level of motivating factors for humans. In this category, humans look for opportunities for learning, growth, personal development, and creative work to feed their enthusiastic souls and needs.

2. Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg's theory is divided into two sections; one being hygiene factors and the other being motivating factors. Hygiene factors are the fundamental factors necessary for every organization for the employees to work with motivation. Driving factors, on the other hand, are the extra factors that bring in the extra push for employees to put in extra effort to outperform and deliver results for the company.

Types of Motivational Theories of Management

1. Maslow's hierarchy of needs

- Physiological
- Safety
- Social
- Self-esteem
- Self-actualization

2. Herzberg's two-factor theory

Hygiene factors -

- Company policy and rules
- Salary
- Administration
- Supervision
- Working condition
- Interpersonal relations
- Job security

Motivating factors -

- Growth in your career
- Achievements
- Responsibility
- Recognition
- Type of work
- Advancement

3. McClelland's theory of needs

- Achievement
- Affiliation
- Power

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Both of these factors run hand-in-hand in a company. Hygiene or motivating factors alone in a company cannot motivate the employees to perform at their peak and bring significant results.

The factors as described in theory are –

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- Salary
- Administration
- Supervision
- Working condition
- Interpersonal relations
- Job security

Motivating factors –

- Growth in your career
- Achievements
- Responsibility
- Recognition
- Type of work
- Advancement

3. McClelland's theory of needs

McClelland gave three straight-forwards motivating factors that apply to everyone irrespective of their age, location, gender, or other factors. The theory states that the reason for motivation for any particular individual will be one of the three factors based on their personal life experiences.

These factors are –

- **Achievement** – Humans are motivated to a significant extent by achievement. Accomplishing specific tasks that are high in competition and a lot of efforts are required to fulfill those tasks, which amounts to a feeling of achievement. This is the sole reason for motivation for a lot of human beings.
- **Affiliation** – Affiliation and social connection is a significant need for humans. Social acceptance and recognition is a significant factor of motivation for some people.
- **Power** – The power to have control over situations or people is a significant motivating factor. People with the motivation of power tend to work hard to achieve positions of power and authority, which grants them control and a sense of satisfaction.

Vroom's theory of expectancy

Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation says that an individual's motivation is affected by their expectations about the future. In his view, an individual's motivation is affected by –

- **Expectancy:** Here the belief is that increased effort will lead to increased performance i.e., if I work harder then it will be better. This is affected by things such as:
 - Having the appropriate resources available (e.g., raw materials, time)
 - Having the appropriate skills to do the job
 - Having the required support to get the job done (e.g., supervisor support, or correct information on the job)
- **Instrumentality:** Here the belief is that if you perform well, then the outcome will be a valuable one for me. i.e., if I do a good job, there is something in it for me. This is affected by things such as:

- Clear understanding of the relationship between performance and outcomes – e.g., the rules of the reward ‘game’
 - Trust in the people who will take the decisions on who gets what outcome
 - Transparency in the process decides who gets what outcome
- **Valence:** is how much importance the individual places upon the expected outcome. For example, if someone is motivated by money, he or she might not value offers of additional time off.

$$\text{Motivation} = V * I * E$$

The three elements are important when choosing one element over another, because they are clearly defined:

- **E>P expectancy:** our assessment of the probability that our efforts will lead to the required performance level.
- **P>O expectancy:** our assessment of the probability that our successful performance will lead to certain outcomes.

5. McGregor's theory X and theory Y

Theory X and Theory Y were first explained by McGregor in his book, "The Human Side of Enterprise," and they refer to two styles of management – authoritarian (Theory X) and participative (Theory Y).

Theory X: Managers who accept this theory believe that if you feel that your team members dislike their work, have little motivation, need to be watched every minute and are incapable of being accountable for their work, avoid responsibility and avoid work whenever possible, then you are likely to use an authoritarian style of management. According to McGregor, this approach is very "hands-on" and usually involves micromanaging people's work to ensure that it gets done properly.

Theory Y: Managers who accept this theory believe that if people are willing to work without supervision, take pride in their work, see it as a challenge and want to achieve more, they can direct

their own efforts, take ownership of their work and do it effectively by themselves. These managers use a decentralized, participative management style.

Alderfer's ERG Theory

C. P. Alderfer, an American psychologist, developed Maslow's hierarchy of needs into a theory of his own.

His theory suggests that there are three groups of core needs: **existence (E)**, **relatedness (R)**, and **growth (G)**. These groups are aligned with Maslow's levels of physiological needs, social needs, and self-actualization needs, respectively.

Existence needs concern our **basic material requirements for living**, which include what Maslow categorized as physiological needs such as air, **sleep, food, water, clothing, sex and shelter** and **safety-related needs** such as health, secure employment, and property.

Relatedness needs have to do with the importance of **maintaining interpersonal relationships**. These needs are based in social interactions with others and are aligned with Maslow's levels of **love/belonging-related needs** such as friendship, family and sexual intimacy and **esteem-related needs** such as gaining the respect of others.

Growth needs describe our **intrinsic desire for personal development**. These needs are aligned with the other part of Maslow's esteem-related needs such as self-esteem, self-confidence, and achievement and **self-actualization needs** such as morality, creativity, problem-solving and discovery.

Alderfer is of the opinion that when a certain category of needs is not being met, people will redouble their efforts to fulfil needs in a lower category.

Maslow's theory is very rigid and it assumes that the needs follow a specific and orderly hierarchy and unless a lower-level need is satisfied, an individual cannot proceed to the higher-level need i.e., an individual remains at a particular need level until that need is satisfied.

Whereas, according to Alderfer's theory, if a higher-level need is aggravated, an individual may revert to increase the satisfaction of a lower-level need. This is called frustration-regression aspect of ERG theory. ERG theory is very flexible as Alderfer perceived the needs as a range/variety instead of perceiving them as a hierarchy i.e., an individual can work on growth needs even if his existence or relatedness needs remain unsatisfied.

For e.g., when growth needs aggravate, then an individual might be motivated to accomplish the relatedness need and if there are issues in accomplishing relatedness needs, then he might be motivated by the existence needs. Hence in this manner, frustration or aggravation can result in regression to a lower-level need.

Leadership

Leadership is a process by which an executive can direct, guide and influence the behavior and work of others towards accomplishment of specific goals in a given situation. Leadership is the ability of a manager to induce the subordinates to work with confidence and zeal.

Leadership is the potential to influence behaviour of others. It is also defined as the capacity to influence a group towards the realization of a goal. Leaders are required to develop future visions, and to motivate the organizational members to want to achieve the visions.

According to Keith Davis, "Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it towards goals."

Characteristics of Leadership

1. It is a inter-personal process in which a manager is into influencing and guiding workers towards attainment of goals.
2. It denotes a few qualities to be present in a person which includes intelligence, maturity and personality.
3. It is a group process. It involves two or more people interacting with each other.
4. A leader is involved in shaping and moulding the behaviour of the group towards accomplishment of organizational goals.
5. Leadership is situation bound. There is no best style of leadership. It all depends upon tackling with the situations.

Importance of Leadership

Leadership is an important function of management which helps to maximize efficiency and to achieve organizational goals. The following points justify the importance of leadership in a concern.

1. **Initiates action-** Leader is a person who starts the work by communicating the policies and plans to the subordinates from where the work actually starts.
2. **Motivation-** A leader proves to be playing an incentive role in the concern's working. He motivates the employees with economic and non-economic rewards and thereby gets the work from the subordinates.
3. **Providing guidance-** A leader has to not only supervise but also play a guiding role for the subordinates. Guidance here means instructing the subordinates the way they have to perform their work effectively and efficiently.
4. **Creating confidence-** Confidence is an important factor which can be achieved through expressing the work efforts to the subordinates, explaining them clearly their role and giving them guidelines to achieve the goals effectively. It is also important to hear the employees with regards to their complaints and problems.
5. **Building morale-** Morale denotes willing co-operation of the employees towards their work and getting them into confidence and winning their trust. A leader can be a morale booster by achieving full co-operation so that they perform with best of their abilities as they work to achieve goals.
6. **Builds work environment-** Management is getting things done from people. An efficient work environment helps in sound and stable growth. Therefore, human relations should be kept into mind by a leader. He should have personal contacts with employees and should listen to their problems and solve them. He should treat employees on humanitarian terms.
7. **Co-ordination-** Co-ordination can be achieved through reconciling personal interests with organizational goals. This synchronization can be achieved through proper and effective co-ordination which should be primary motive of a leader

Following are the main roles of a leader in an organization :

1. **Required at all levels-** Leadership is a function which is important at all levels of management. In the top level, it is important for getting co-operation in formulation of plans and policies. In the middle and lower level, it is required for interpretation and execution of plans and programmes framed by the top management. Leadership can be exercised through guidance and counseling of the subordinates at the time of execution of plans.
2. **Representative of the organization-** A leader, i.e., a manager is said to be the representative of the enterprise. He has to represent the concern at seminars, conferences, general meetings, etc. His role is to communicate the rationale of the enterprise to outside public. He is also representative of the own department which he leads.
3. **Integrates and reconciles the personal goals with organizational goals-** A leader through leadership traits helps in reconciling/ integrating the personal goals of the employees with the organizational goals. He is trying to co-ordinate the efforts of people towards a common purpose and thereby achieves objectives. This can be done only if he can influence and get willing co-operation and urge to accomplish the objectives.
4. **He solicits support-** A leader is a manager and besides that he is a person who entertains and invites support and co-operation of subordinates. This he can do by his personality, intelligence, maturity and experience which can provide him positive result. In this regard, a leader has to invite suggestions and if possible implement them into plans and programmes of enterprise. This way, he can solicit full support of employees which results in willingness to work and thereby effectiveness in running of a concern.
5. **As a friend, philosopher and guide-** A leader must possess the three dimensional traits in him. He can be a friend by sharing the feelings, opinions and desires with the employees. He can be a philosopher by utilizing his intelligence and experience and thereby guiding the employees as and when time requires. He can be a guide by supervising and communicating the employees the plans and policies of top management and secure their co-operation to achieve the goals of a concern. At times he can also play the role of a counselor by counseling and a problem-solving approach. He can listen to the problems of the employees and try to solve them.

Authority Vs Leadership

The authority exercised is a kind of legitimate power and people follow figures exercising it, because their positions demand so irrespective of the person holding the position. **Leaders in organizations and elsewhere may have formal authorities but they mostly rely on the informal authority that they exercise on people to influence them.** Leaders are trusted for their judgment and respected for their expertise, integrity etc and hence followed and not because they hold a certain position. For e.g. M.K. Gandhi for most part did not hold any official position to lead the Indian freedom struggle.

It is also important to understand that a formal authority and power emerging from it, might not always be able to influence people in the desired manner as; in times of crisis and difficulties people view it as coercion. On the other hand leadership tends to create followers out of free will and choice without forcing them to accept anything thrown their way. Authority rarely provides a scope for feedback, constructive criticism or opinions of the people on whom it is exercised however leaders provide ample platform to their followers to voice their thoughts and feedback.

When dealing with adults, the sole use of authority to direct and discipline them hardly works, leadership provides a better approach of sharing and involving thus building rapport with followers and creating long term relationships. Authority can hardly make people change their attitudes and behaviors with lasting effects and results however a leader inspires followers through self modeled ways and hence leadership displays greater effectiveness in addressing attitudes and behaviors of people.

Exercising authority sometimes limits the approaches to arrive at solutions for issues and problems while leadership encourages people to look beyond the obvious and think innovatively and sometimes emerge with radical solutions.

Apart from it, the biggest difference between the two as cited by Stephen R Covey is the moral authority held by leaders over the followers which is absent in the case of power from authority. Within the organizational setup when leaders also have moral authority on their subordinates by establishing a synchrony in their words and actions; the rest of the structure and processes of the organization also get aligned to it, thus creating a robust and transparent culture.

Authoritative way of working also encourages individuals to work in silos while in the organizations of today; the leaders need to have a complete picture and coordinate with other functions and departments as and when required. It is indeed difficult for managers and leaders to move out of their circle of authority and coordinate and interact with external people. However the need of the hour and the more effective approach to leadership and management is when leaders come out of their comfort zone and move from exercising authority on a small group to leading the entire organization.

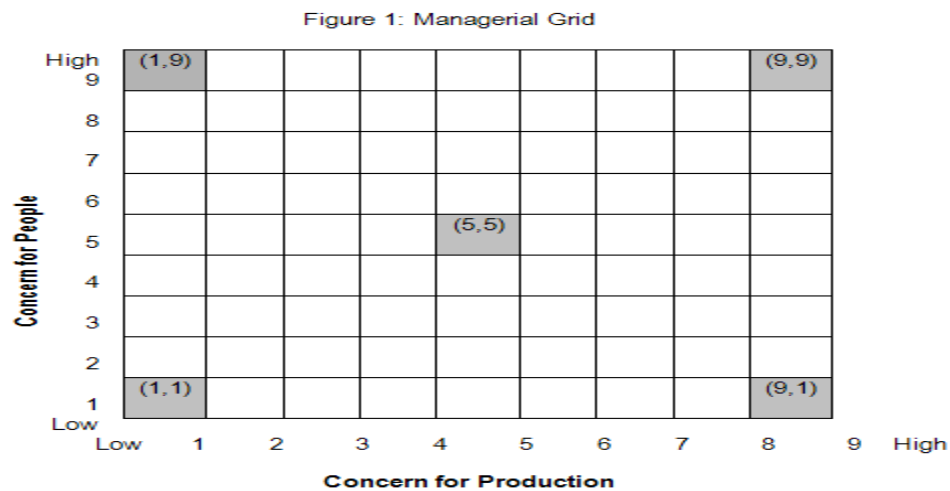
Individuals, who do not rely on authority but lead people, are the ones who enjoy the privilege of their ideologies and thoughts practiced by later generations long after they are gone. Even with individuals who held positions of responsibilities, the ones who actually led their people are the ones remembered and followed.

Theories of Leadership

Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The treatment of task orientation and people orientation as two independent dimensions was a major step in leadership studies. Many of the leadership studies conducted in the 1950s at the University of Michigan and the Ohio State University focused on these two dimensions.

Building on the work of the researchers at these Universities, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1960s) proposed a graphic portrayal of leadership styles through a **managerial grid** (sometimes called *leadership grid*). The grid depicted two dimensions of leader behavior, **concern for people** (accommodating people's needs and giving them priority) on y-axis and **concern for production** (keeping tight schedules) on x-axis, with each dimension ranging from low (1) to high (9), thus creating 81 different positions in which the leader's style may fall. (See figure 1).



The five resulting leadership styles are as follows:

1. **Impoverished Management (1, 1):** Managers with this approach are low on both the dimensions and exercise minimum effort to get the work done from subordinates. The leader has low concern for employee satisfaction and work deadlines and as a result disharmony and disorganization prevail within the organization. The leaders are termed ineffective wherein their action is merely aimed at preserving job and seniority.
2. **Task management (9, 1):** Also called dictatorial or perish style. Here leaders are more concerned about production and have less concern for people. The style is based on theory X of McGregor. The employees' needs are not taken care of and they are simply a means to an end. The leader believes that efficiency can result only through proper organization of work systems and through elimination of people wherever possible. Such a style can definitely increase the output of organization in short run but due to the strict policies and procedures, high labour turnover is inevitable.
3. **Middle-of-the-Road (5, 5):** This is basically a compromising style wherein the leader tries to maintain a balance between goals of company and the needs of people. The leader does not push the boundaries of achievement resulting in average performance for organization. Here neither employee nor production needs are fully met.
4. **Country Club (1, 9):** This is a collegial style characterized by low task and high people orientation where the leader gives thoughtful attention to the needs of people thus providing them with a friendly and comfortable environment. The leader feels that such a treatment with employees will lead to self-motivation and will find people working hard on their own. However, a low focus on tasks can hamper production and lead to questionable results.
5. **Team Management (9, 9):** Characterized by high people and task focus, the style is based on the theory Y of McGregor and has been termed as most effective style according to Blake and Mouton.

The leader feels that empowerment, commitment, trust, and respect are the key elements in creating a team atmosphere which will automatically result in high employee satisfaction and production.

Advantages of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The Managerial or Leadership Grid is used to help managers analyze their own leadership styles through a technique known as grid training. This is done by administering a questionnaire that helps managers identify how they stand with respect to their concern for production and people. The training is aimed at basically helping leaders reach to the ideal state of 9, 9.

Limitations of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

The model ignores the importance of internal and external limits, matter and scenario. Also, there are some more aspects of leadership that can be covered but are not.

THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

In influencing the people in the organization towards the goals of the organization, there have been various approaches adopted by different set of leaders, as one model may not be suitable for different organizations with different set of objectives. Moreover, such models or theories of leadership also depend on the qualities that a leader inherit or display in managing her/his team. Some of the theories of leadership ranging from conventional theories to contemporary theories have been dealt with over here, the chief of them being the following:

Great Man Theory/Trait Theory Behavioural Theories

- Contingency/Situational Theories, • Transactional Theory of Leadership • Transformational Theory of Leadership

Great Man Theory/Trait Theory of Leadership

Some of the leaders in the history have always been identified as strong leaders based on the qualities or traits that they display. Leaders like Mahatma Gandhi, Indira Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher, Nelson Mandela, Narayana Murthy of Infosys, Apple's Cofounder Steve Jobs etc. has been identified, based on the traits that they displayed. For instance, when Margaret Thatcher was the prime minister of the Great Britain, she was regularly described as a confident, iron-willed, determined and decisive leader. Thus, the trait theories of leadership consider personal qualities and characteristics that differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2007). In the beginning, the assumption behind trait theory was that

„leaders are born and not made“. This concept was popularly known as the „Great Man Theory“ of leadership. The great man theory was originally proposed by Thomas Carlyle in 1949 and the assumption behind this theory is that „great leaders will arise, when there is great need“. The theory also assumes that a leader cannot be a normal person and they are different from the average person in terms of personality traits such as intelligence, perseverance and ambition. However, a proposition of „Great Woman“ finds no place, especially in leadership studies mainly due to the fact that gender issues were out of context, when the theory was proposed and moreover, it was only male members of the society who were into such research and such biasness was hardly realized by the people then. In the period of 1960s, various research studies were made on the traits of a leader and about 80 traits that a leader could display was identified. The trait theory assumes that leaders are born with inherited traits and good leaders have the right combination of traits. In 1974, Stogdill identified certain traits and skills that are essential for a leader, which are as follows:

Traits and Skills Traits Skills 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 to stress
- Willing to assume responsibility

- Clever (Intelligent)
- Conceptually skilled
- Creative
- Diplomatic and tactful
- Fluent in speaking • Knowledgeable about group task

In this section, four different behavioural pattern of leadership has been dealt with, which are as follows:

(1) Ohio State Studies One of the foremost studies that emanated on behavioural theories was the study made by Ohio State University in 1945 by E.A. Fleishman, E.F. Harris and H.E. Burt. The study narrowed the leadership behaviours into two categories, viz. initiating structure and consideration, under which the various leadership behaviours were clubbed. (i) Initiating Structure: Initiating structure refers to the extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his or her role and those of employees in the search for goal attainment. It includes behaviour that attempts to organize work, work relationships, and goals. A leader with initiating structure is generally task oriented, with focus on performance of employees and meeting of deadlines.

(ii) Consideration: As per „consideration“ category, a leader pays more attention to the employee of the organization rather than the task and shows concern for the well-being, comfort and satisfaction of employees. That is, a leader focuses on the relationships that are characterised by mutual trust, respect for employees“ ideas, and regard for their feelings. The two-factor conceptualization of Ohio Studies has been gaining wide recognition in recent times. (2) University of Michigan Studies Similar to the Ohio State University studies, research on leadership studies was also carried out by the University of Michigan“s Research centres, in 1946 by Rensis Likert and his associates. The study made an analysis of the relationship between leadership behaviours and organizational performances. Michigan Studies also identified a twofactor component, viz. „employee-oriented leader“ and „production-oriented leader“. (i) Employee-Oriented Leader: The concern of the employee-oriented leaders were more on the interpersonal relations with the employees and such leaders paid more attention on the needs of the employees and accepted the individual differences among members. (ii) Production-Oriented Leader: The production oriented-leaders paid attention to the technical aspects of the job or the tasks assigned to the employees, rather than on employees. Such leaders gave least importance to the group members, and

regarded the employees as only a means to achieve the ends, that is, the goals of an organization. It can be found that the two-factor conceptualization of the Ohio study is similar to the two way dimension of the Michigan studies. While the employee-oriented leadership can be compared with the „consideration“ component of Ohio studies, production-oriented leadership can be compared with „initiating structure“. While the Ohio studies considered both its components to be important for effective leadership, the Michigan studies gave supremacy to the component of „employee-orientation“ over „production-orientation“.

(3) The Managerial Grid Like the Ohio State studies and Michigan studies, the Managerial Grid theory of leadership was also based on the styles of „concern for people“ and „concern for production“. The Managerial Grid theory of leadership was proposed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964. This theory which is depicted in a graphical form is also known as the „Leadership Grid Theory“. The grid is a nine-by-nine matrix which outlines 81 different styles of leadership. The grid has 9 possible positions along each axis creating 81 different positions in which the leader“s style may fall.

Through the Managerial Grid, 5 kinds of Leadership Style was identified, which include the following:

- (i) Impoverished, in which there is low concern for people and production (1 by 1)
 - (ii) Country Club, wherein the concern for production is low, but for people is high (1 by 9)
 - (iii) Task, in which there is high concern for production and low concern for people (9 by 1)
 - (iv) Middle of the Road, where there is moderate concern for both the production and the people (5 by 5)
 - (v) Team, wherein there is high concern for both the people and production (9 by 9).
- Concern for People Concern for Production

This theory, thus offers a useful framework for conceptualizing and understanding the leadership styles. Though behavioural theories make its contribution in understanding leadership effectiveness, it cannot be considered as the utmost option, to determine the success of leadership. In other words, it cannot be said with utmost clarity that a leader depicting a certain kind of leadership traits and

behaviours are always successful. At times, the situational contexts play a strong role in determining the effectiveness of leaders.

5.5.2 Contingency/Situational Theories

Sometimes the success of a leader does not depend upon the qualities, traits and behaviour of a leader alone. The context in which a leader exhibits her/his skills, traits and behaviour matters, because same style of functioning may not be suitable for different situations. Thus the effectiveness of leadership also depends upon situations. Several research studies, when analyzing the reason for inconsistent results in differing conditions with the same leadership style, laid their focus on situational variables. This theory views leadership in terms of a dynamic interaction between a number of situational variables like the leader, the followers, the task situation, the environment, etc. Some of the noteworthy studies on situational contexts that gained wide recognition include Fiedler's model, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational theory, Leader-Member Exchange theory, Path-Goal theory and Leader-Participation model, which has been discussed over here.

(1) Fiedler Model Fred Fiedler was the first person to develop a comprehensive model for the contingency theory of leadership in 1967. The basic premise behind this theory is that, effective performance of an organization or a group of people in an organization highly depend upon the style adopted by a leader and the degree to which a situation gives control to the leader. In order to assess the style followed by a leader, Fiedler developed „Least-Preferred Coworker“ (LPC) scale, in which the leaders were asked to give their preference on the employee with whom they have least preference to work with. If the least preferred co- worker was described in favourable terms, such response was rated as 'relationship-oriented' and if rated in unfavourable terms, a leader was regarded as 'production-oriented'. However, in contrast, the response derived from such study did not show a clear cut picture, as some of the responses had a score in the mid range. Through such responses, it was difficult to classify a leader either as a relationship-oriented or a production oriented leader, as the scoring was neither high nor low. Fiedler's model thus illuminated attention on a new dimension of leadership studies. Thus through this study, it was suggested that, if a situation requires a task-oriented leader and the person in that leadership position is relationship-oriented, either the situation has to be modified or the leader replaced, if optimal effectiveness is to be achieved (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2007). Based on the results derived, Fiedler has identified three situational factors, viz. leader-member relations, task structure and position power, which determine leadership effectiveness. A brief discussion on such situational factors is as follows:

(i) Leader-Member Relations: The degree of confidence, trust and respect that members have on their leader;

(ii) Task Structure: The degree to which the job assignments are structured or unstructured;

(iii) Position Power: The degree of influence a leader has over power variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotions, and salary increases.

Fiedler's model evaluates the effectiveness of leadership, based on the degree of existence of the above mentioned situational factors. The degree varies from good to poor in leader-member relations, high to low in task structure and strong to weak in position power. According to Fiedler, a leadership is said to have more control of organizational situations, if the leader-member relations are good, task assignments are highly structured along with a stronger power positions. Similarly, the situations in an organization would be unfavourable, if the respect that members have for leaders is poor, with unstructured task assignments and weak position power.

Fiedler states that a task oriented leader performs better in situations that are very favourable to her/him and in situations that are very unfavourable. That is, when faced with a Category I, II, III, VII or VIII situation, task-oriented leaders perform better. Relationship-oriented leaders perform better in moderately favourable situations – categories IV through VI. In recent years, Fiedler has condensed these 8 situations down to 3. He states that task-oriented leaders perform better in situations of high and low control, while relationship-oriented leaders perform best in moderate control situations. However, one of the major drawbacks in Fiedler model is that the style adopted by a particular leader is fixed. It is assumed that a leader can follow only a particular style in any given situation and the theory suggests change of a leader to fit a situation. For instance, the assumption is that, if a situation in an organization is highly unfavourable, and the organization is led by a relationship oriented leader, the organization's performance could be improved by replacing the leader with one who is task-oriented. The other alternative suggested is to change the situation to suit the leader. That is by restructuring tasks or increasing or decreasing the power positions, the leader is expected to bring the situation under control. Though Fiedler's model offers useful propositions, the practical application of the theory is highly questionable. In practice, it is generally difficult to assess how good the leader-member relations are, how structured the task is, and how much position-power a leader has (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2007).

(2) Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory One of the path-breaking models that were developed in the leadership studies is that of the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), that was put forward by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard. The focus of this theory is laid on the followers and the readiness that followers show in accepting a leadership. The basic assumption behind this theory is that, it is the followers who accept or reject a leader and thus, effectiveness of a leader also depends on their followers. Thus, regardless of what a leader does, effectiveness of leadership depends upon the actions of the followers. By readiness, Hersey and Blanchard mean to say the extent to which people have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task set by the leader. In analysing the leader-follower relationship, the Situational Leadership Theory, equates the relationship with that of a parent and a child.

According to Hersey and Blanchard there are four types of leadership behaviour that varies from highly directive to highly laissez-faire, which again depends upon the ability and willingness of followers to perform a given task. According to SLT, if a follower is unable and unwilling to do a task, the leader needs to give clear and specific directions; if followers are unable and willing, the leader needs to display high task orientation to compensate for the followers' lack of ability and high relationship orientation to get the followers to „buy into“ the leader's desire; if followers are able and unwilling, the leader needs to use a supportive and participative style; and if the employee is both able and willing, the leader doesn't need to do much. However, in spite of the wide recognition and popularity that this theory has gained, it is said to have internal ambiguities and inconsistencies.

(3) Path-Goal Theory

Path-Goal Theory was developed by Martin Evans and Robert House in 1970-71, taking inputs from the concept of initiating structure and consideration of the Ohio State Studies and the Expectancy Theory of Motivation. The base behind Path-Goal theory is that effective leaders clarify the path to help their followers to move forward from their current position towards achieving the work goals. In this process, the leader reduces the roadblock that occurs in the path of the followers, and makes their journey easier. Thus, the essence of path goal theory is that, it is the leader's job to provide the followers with the information, support and other resources, necessary for them to achieve their goals (Robbins, Judge, & Sanghi, 2007). This theory identifies four types of leadership behaviour, viz. directive leader, supportive leader, participative leader and achievement-oriented leader. Unlike Fiedler, who assumes the leader to follow a fixed leadership style, the theory put forward by House, assumes the leader to be a flexible person, who can display different kinds of behaviours based on a given situation.

The four types of leadership behaviour, identified by Robert House are as follows:

- (i) Directive Leader: A directive leader clarifies the followers of the role expected of them, schedules the work to be done and gives the needed direction or guidance as to how to accomplish tasks;
- (ii) Supportive Leader: A supportive leader behaves in a friendly manner with the followers, and the main concern of the leader is placed on the needs of the followers, rather than on accomplishing the tasks;
- (iii) Participative Leader: A participative leader involves the followers in the consultation process and also gets the suggestions or views of the followers, before making a decision;
- (iv) Achievement-Oriented Leader: An achievement oriented leader set challenging goals for the followers and expects them to perform at their highest level. The above mentioned leadership styles under the path-goal theory is contingent upon two factors such as, characteristics of employees and environmental factors. While environmental factors include aspects such as task structure, formal authority system, work group, etc. employee characteristics include aspects like locus of control, experience, perceived ability, etc.

Group Dynamics

Gordon, who believes that for a collection of people to be called a group, the following four criteria must be met:

- (a) The members of the group must see themselves as a unit;
- (b) the group must provide rewards to its members;
- (c) anything that happens to one member of the group affects every other member; and
- (d) the members of the group must share a common goal.

Multiple Members Who Perceive Themselves as a Unit

The first criterion is that the group must have multiple members. Obviously, one person does not constitute a group (even if he is a multiple personality). Therefore, at least two people are necessary to form a group. To be considered a group, these two or more people must also see themselves as a unit. Thus, three individuals walking down the sidewalk would be considered a group only if they knew one another and were together. Eight separate customers shopping at a store would not be considered a group.

Group Rewards

The second group criterion is that membership must be rewarding for each individual in the group. In the next section, we will discuss the reasons people join groups, but for now it is important to remember that people will join or form a group only if it provides some form of reward. To demonstrate this point, imagine four students studying for an exam. If the four study in separate rooms and do not share information, they are not a group. Likewise, consider if the same four people sat at one desk in the library. If each person studies the book separately and never communicates with the other three, then the four still will not be a group because none of the individuals is rewarded by the others. But if none of the four would have otherwise studied independently, then the four students would be considered a group because being together was rewarding. Even though they did not talk with one another during their time in the library, the fact that they were together provided the structure for each of them to study.

Corresponding Effects

The third group criterion is that an event that affects one group member should affect all group members. That is, if something significant happens to one person and does not affect any of the other people gathered with her, then the collection of people cannot be considered a group. This requirement is called corresponding effects. For example, suppose five bank tellers work side by side, and one teller becomes ill and goes home. If the activities of the other four change as a result of one teller leaving, the five might be considered a group. But if the activities of the other four do not change after one teller leaves, then the tellers cannot be considered a group. Common Goals

The fourth and final criterion is that all members must have a common goal. In the teller example, if the goal of one of the tellers is to meet only young, single customers and the goal of another

teller is to serve as many customers as possible, the tellers are not considered to be a group because they work in different ways and for different reasons. Why do we care if a collection of people meets the technical definition of a group? The answer lies within your ability to change employee performance. Over the course of this chapter, you will learn many factors affecting group performance. If you apply what you learn, you will be effective in changing performance only if the collection of individuals is actually a group. Reasons for Joining Groups Assignment In the workplace, the most common reason for joining groups is that employees are assigned to them.

Dynamics is part of group behaviour. In industrial organisations, there are several groups, for example, group of workers, group of supervisors, group of managers, group of senior executives and trade unions.

These are all action oriented teams. The group as well as group behaviour is closely connected with the management.

Group behaviour or dynamics of the group includes qualities and personality traits of group members.