

# Leadership and motivation

Manmohan Joshi



MANMOHAN JOSHI

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# LEADERSHIP AND MOTIVATION

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# 1 THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

An organisation is made up of groups of people. An essential part of management is coordinating the activities of groups and directing the efforts of their members towards the goals and objectives of the organisation. This involves the process of leadership and the choice of an appropriate form of behaviour. We can say that:

*"A leader has to be a person who has the ability to exercise a positive influence over the thoughts, behaviour and activities of other people, and who is able to direct the thoughts, behaviour and actions of those other people towards a common goal or objective".*

This is precisely what a contemporary leader must do. Their managerial functions involve planning, organising, coordinating and controlling the activities of subordinates, and directing their efforts towards the achievement of a common objective. To successfully perform these functions, a manager must motivate the subordinates within their sphere. This will encourage them to perform their tasks well and willingly, and in the most economical ways, in the interests of the organisation and their own best interests.

Like any other leader, a manager must be able to make decisions on ways to overcome problems and on courses of action to be taken, and they must initiate – that is, lead – the necessary action. Often that involves putting into practice – implementing decisions made by others.

## 1.2 MEANING OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership might be interpreted in simple terms, such as 'getting others to follow' or 'getting people to do things willingly' or interpreted more significantly as 'the use of authority in decision making'. It is interpersonal influence which is exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process towards the attainment of a specified goal. It is often associated with the willing and enthusiastic behaviour of followers. Since leadership is an inspirational process, a leader influences long-term changes in attitude. It doesn't necessarily take place within the hierarchical structure, and many people operate without role definition.

We can say that:

*“Leadership is related to motivation and the process of communication through which one person influences the behaviour of the other people. The process of leadership is not separable from the activities of groups. Effective leadership is a two-way process”.*

### 1.3 TYPES OF STYLES OF LEADERS

A number of different types or styles of leader have been identified, some of which parallel Weber’s (1968) ideas on leadership and organisation. It is important not only to recognize the different styles of leadership, but also to consider the practical difficulties which can arise from each of the various styles.

Weber was most interested in the bureaucratic organisation, and it is very probable that the organisation you work for – be it a factory or a bank, or a bus company or an insurance corporation – is ‘bureaucratic’ in the way Weber used the term.

While dealing with the concept of leadership, Weber stated that there were three different kinds of belief that people had about orders and the giver of orders.

They are:

- Obedience was justified because of the nature of the persons giving the orders: holy, sacred or charismatic (for example, a religious or military leader, a prophet or a king);
- Obedience was justified because of reverence for the past; people have always done things this way before;
- Obedience was justified because the person giving the order was acting in accordance with a set of rules already in existence and agreed upon.

Weber identified three categories of leaders, and the organisation types which are to be found with such leaders. They are:

- Charismatic
- Traditional
- Bureaucratic

### 1.3.1 CHARISMATIC LEADERS

A leader of this type gains influence from their personality strengths. Examples of such people have occurred throughout history and in countries all around the world throughout the centuries, such as Alexander, Julius Caesar, Napoleon Bonaparte, Adolf Hitler, Winston Churchill, Mahatma Gandhi, Nelson Mandela, to name but a few.

Very few people possess the exceptional qualities of charismatic leadership required to transform all those around them into willing followers. Another feature of charismatic leaders is that their personal qualities or traits which project themselves in leadership cannot be acquired by training; such traits can only be modified by training and experience.

### 1.3.2 TRADITIONAL LEADERS

The position of a leader of this type is inherited by birth; it is a position which we can say arises, in practice, from a mere accident of birth; it is passed down from one member of a family to another – often, but not always, from father to son or daughter. This encompasses, for example, the leadership embodied in a ruler such as a king or queen, or a tribal chieftain.

Because of its very nature, few people can aspire to this type of leadership; and in fact, birth alone is no guarantee of the ability to be a leader. History has repeatedly shown, for example, that the son of a strong leader might turn out to be a weak leader; inherited genes do not guarantee inherited leadership ability. Although it is commonly said that a traditional leader succeeds to the position, in reality success as a traditional leader is far from certain.

Except, perhaps, in relatively small family businesses, there are likely to be few opportunities for traditional leadership in practical business situations today.

### 1.3.3 APPOINTED LEADERS

The influence of this type of leader arises directly out of their position; this encompasses the situations of most managers and supervisors. This is like Weber's bureaucratic type of leadership, in which legitimate power springs from the nature and scope of the position of the post holder within the hierarchy.

The problem with appointed leadership is that – although the powers of a particular supervisory, managerial or administrative position might be defined – the appointee to that position might simply not be capable of exercising authority. That might be because the person appointed has a weak personality. For example, they might lack confidence or might lack adequate training, or might be inexperienced, and so on.



## 1.4 OTHER STYLES

### 1.4.1 SITUATIONAL LEADERS

The influence exerted by such a leader arises from being in the right place at the right time, for example, a person who takes charge at the scene of an accident.

This type of leadership is generally too temporary to be of value in business. What is needed in a business organisation is a person capable of assuming and making a success of a leadership role in a variety of situations over a sustained period of time. There are exceptions, of course, for example, when a top executive is brought in to resolve a particular problem, such as declining sales, which is often referred to as being 'trouble shooting'.

### 1.4.2 FUNCTIONAL LEADERS

A functional leader secures their position by virtue of what they do, rather than what they are. In other words, functional leaders adapt their behaviour to meet the competing needs of a particular situation at a given point in time.

## 1.5 LEADERSHIP IN THE WORKPLACE

It is important to understand that leadership is something more than just personality or accident or appointment. It is an activity which is intimately linked with behaviour. It is essentially a human process which is found in all organisations. Leadership in the workplace might be defined as being:

*"A dynamic process in a group whereby one individual influences others to contribute voluntarily to the achievement of group tasks in a given situation".*

The following need to be considered about the above definition:

- Leadership must be a dynamic process – and not a static one. It must be adapted to circumstances and situations. This implies that a range of leadership styles is preferable to any one style.
- The role of a leader is to direct the group – the system of subsystem – towards group goals or organisational goals. In an informal grouping those goals will have been agreed upon by the group itself; in a formal grouping, within an organisation, the goals will have been set mainly, if not exclusively, by senior executives outside the group.

- The style of leadership and the reactions of the members of the group will be influenced greatly by the situation or work environment concerned, such as the task(s) to be performed, by external pressures, and so on.

We can say that:

*“For success in a work situation, a leader needs to possess a variety of personal qualities, such as skills, knowledge of the work to be performed, experience, as well as the right personality. Simultaneously, their subordinates need training to develop the requisite skill, they might need experience, and they will need to be appropriately motivated.”*

Those factors – together with people and tasks and timings – are all ‘variables’; they might exist to a greater or lesser degree in different people, and in different situations in which different tasks are to be performed at different times.

For example, an experienced sales representative – however successful they might have been selling on their own – might not make an effective sales or marketing manager. They might simply not possess the ability – the leadership qualities – to be able to plan, organise, coordinate and control the activities – related to sales – of a group of other people; and they might not be able to motivate them to do – to sell – as well as they can themselves do.

## 1.6 THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

The concept of leadership has fascinated thinkers for millennia. But it is only in comparatively recent times that attempts have been made to put forward theories of leadership.

## 1.7 TRAIT THEORIES

The scientific study of leadership began with focus on the traits of effective leaders. The basic premise behind trait theory was that effective leaders are born, not made. The debate was usually led by practising managers who were strong characters in their own right. In large part, their successes were due to their personal qualities, and it is perhaps not surprising that the earliest studies undertaken into leadership focused their attention on the qualities required by leaders. Leader trait research examined the physical, mental and social characteristics of individuals. In general, these studies simply looked for significant associations between individual traits and measures of leadership effectiveness.

This approach:

- Focuses on person in the job and not on the job itself; and
- Gives subjective judgment in determining 'good' or 'successful' leader.

However, the list of possible traits is too long and there is not always agreement on the most important. Moreover, the trait theory offered no explanation for the proposed relationship between individual characteristics and leadership. It also did not consider the situational variables that might moderate the relationship between leader traits and measures of leader effectiveness.

By 1950 over 100 studies of this kind had been undertaken. But it is claimed that even the number of 'common' traits or characteristics identified by researchers was only 5 per cent of the total. In practice, it has proved to be an impossible task to identify the particular traits or characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders. However, it is a fact that intelligence, energy and resourcefulness are traits or characteristics which are most commonly identified in leaders.

## 1.8 STYLE THEORIES

Interest in the 'human factor' at work was stimulated by the researchers of the human relations school and was then taken up by psychologists. This led logically to an interest in leadership as an activity – as an aspect of behaviour at work, rather than of personal characteristics which are, or need to be, possessed by leaders. The premise of this stream of research was that the behaviour exhibited by leaders is more important than their physical, mental or emotional traits.

Particularly since the 1950s, several theories about the style of leadership – or management – have been put forward. They have tended to be expressed in terms of authoritarian versus democratic styles, or people-orientation versus task-orientation. In some cases, despite acknowledged inconsistencies in the actual theories themselves, style theories have led to the development of improved techniques of training for leadership.

### 1.8.1 AUTHORITARIAN VERSUS DEMOCRATIC

- ✚ **Authoritarian or dictatorship style:** This leadership style can be defined as coercive style forcing people to act as they are told. According to Allais (1995),

dictatorship is seen as a style in which a leader retains as much power and decision-making authority as possible. It is leader-centred and cares less about the followers.

Where dictatorship reigns, if the members of staff react, their reactions are taken personally and emotionally. The dictatorship leadership style, therefore, can be equated to authoritarian or autocratic leadership style. This leader uses punishment rather than reward to discipline the staff and they call for more things done their way. They do not care about other people's feelings.

To summarize, the dictatorship leadership style generally does not allow workers to think for themselves. This style is also an easy alternative for those leaders who do not want to spend their time working through people. If a dictator decides to work through people, they direct, coerce and control closely.

- ✚ **Democratic or participative style:** The democratic leadership style, which is also participative by nature, is popular among the leaders because it is people-oriented. If there is a decision to make, all matters are discussed by the entire group. The leader only facilitates input. They use the decisions of the members to enrich their own. This style is involved in most, if not all, activities. However, the leader makes it clear that if staff cannot come to a conclusion, they retain the right to do so.

Under this style of leadership, members of staff are always well informed about what is taking place at the workplace. Both delegation and genuine teamwork are practised in order to achieve results together. Mullins (2004) explains a democratic leadership style as implying that the job will be done automatically if interpersonal relationships are on a sound footing.

This is a team leadership style in which a leader integrates concern for production with concern for people. Teamwork is emphasised and it is goal-oriented.

To sum up, the democratic leadership style emphasises the group and leader participation in the achievement of goals and objectives of the organisation. The democratic leader derives power and authority from their followers. They, on the other hand, operate by tapping skills and ideas from the organisation members, remembering to delegate responsibility to them. But this leader has the authority to make the final decision even if all members do the ground work leading to that decision.

- ✚ **Douglas McGregor (1987):** He postulated management ideas as contained in "Theory X" and "Theory Y". Using human behaviour research, he noted that the way an organisation runs depends on the beliefs of its managers. "Theory X" gives a negative view of human behaviour and management that he considered to have dominated management and leadership theory. It also

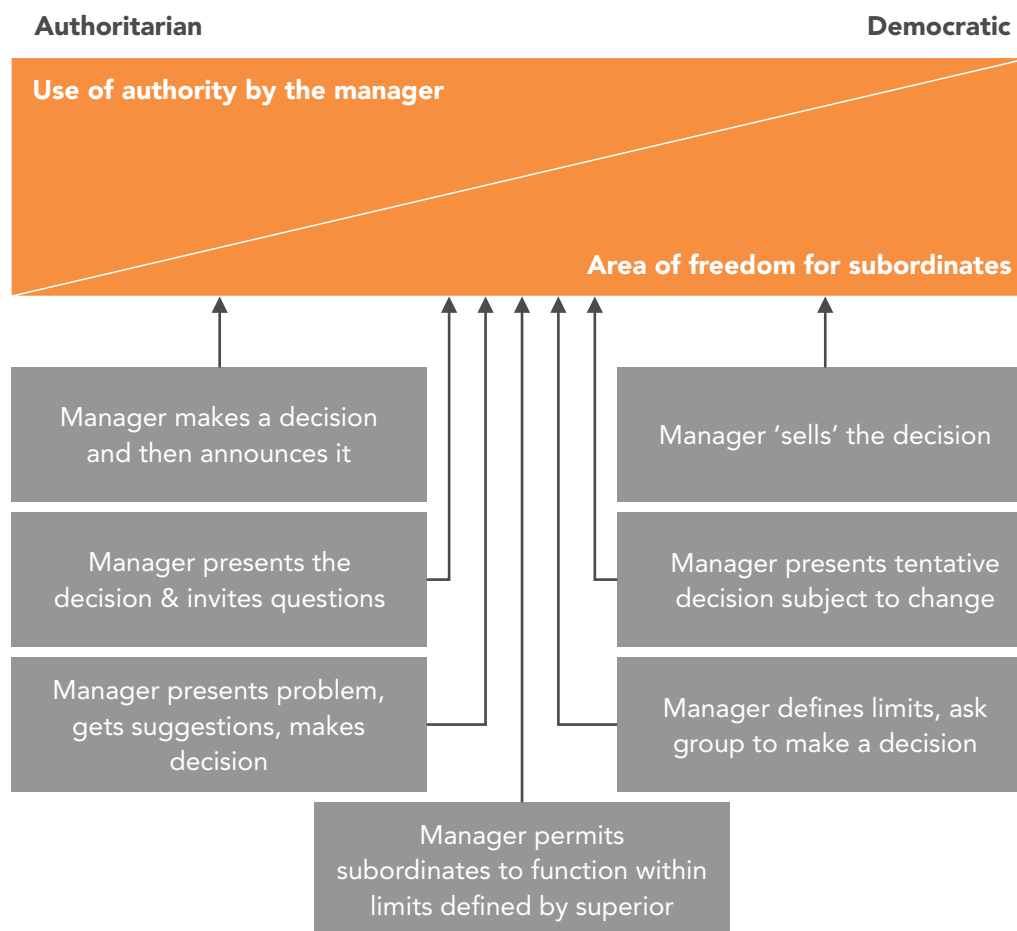
assumed that most people are basically immature, need direction and control, and are incapable of taking responsibility. They are viewed as lazy, dislike work and need a mixture of financial inducements and threats of loss of their job to make them work ('carrot and stick mentality'). Consequently, "Theory X" manager, who exercises an authoritarian style of leadership, is tough, autocratic and supports tight controls within a punishment-reward system.

McGregor's "Theory Y", the opposite of "Theory X", argues that people want to fulfil themselves by seeking self-respect, self-development, and self-fulfilment at work as in life in general. This theory paints a positive picture of people at work. It asserts that work is as natural as play or rest, average human being learns to accept as well as seek responsibility, and their work is not dependent on threat of punishment.

Consequently, "Theory Y" manager uses the democratic style of leadership; they are benevolent, participative and believe in self-controls.

These contrasting styles of leadership stem from the assumptions made about people, which formed the original basis of McGregor's "Theory X" and "Theory Y". (*For more detail see 5.3*)

- ✚ **Likert's management systems:** Rensis Likert (1961) talked about four management systems:
  - **The exploitative-authoritative system:** This is the extreme example of the authoritarian style.
  - **The benevolent-authoritative system:** This is basically a paternalistic style.
  - **The consultative system:** This shows greater democracy and teamwork.
  - **The participative-group system:** This is the ultimate democratic style.
  
- ✚ **Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1958) model:** They presented the model of a 'progression' of leadership styles, ranging from authoritarian behaviour at one end of the scale, to a democratic behaviour at the other end, as illustrated in Fig. 1/1 below:



**Fig. 1/1** Tannenbaum and Schmidt's 'progression' of leadership styles

The different approaches to leadership style imply that managers have a basic choice of style – between being either authoritarian or being democratic. Furthermore, the implication is that the 'ideal' – the best – style is a democratic one. However, whatever the theorists might advocate, a simple 'either/or' choice is unlikely to exist very often – if ever – in practice. There are many factors which can influence the leadership style which is half adopted in a particular working situation. Indeed, in some situations an authoritarian style of leadership might be more effective than a democratic style, while in other situations a democratic style might be more effective.

A serious flaw in these theories is that they tend to over-emphasise the behaviour of the leader, while downgrading – perhaps even ignoring – the other variable elements of leadership: skill, knowledge, training and personality, for example.

Furthermore, the assertion that a democratic style of leadership is generally more likely to be effective is open to question, and even to criticism. The assertion might, perhaps, apply to some industrialised nations, but there is no reason why it should be equally effective in other national cultures.

## 1.8.2 PEOPLE VERSUS TASK ORIENTATIONS

There are several approaches which utilise these two leadership variables – people and task:

- ✦ **Michigan Studies:** Rensis Likert (1961) has described the ‘Michigan Studies’ which involved the analysis of a number of variables between managers of high-productivity groups and managers of low-productivity groups. The aim of this research was to ascertain whether any significant differences between the two groups could be identified, which might then provide clues to leadership behaviour. In many respects, such as age, marital status, etc., there were no identifiable differences between the managers of the two groups – those of high and low productivity. One such significant difference was that:
  - Those managers in charge of high-producing groups tended to be employee-oriented; while
  - Other managers tended to be production-oriented and yet they were low-producing groups.

The employee-oriented managers paid more attention to relationships at work, exercised less direct supervision, and encouraged employee participation in decision making. The production-oriented managers were more directive and more concerned with task needs than with people needs.

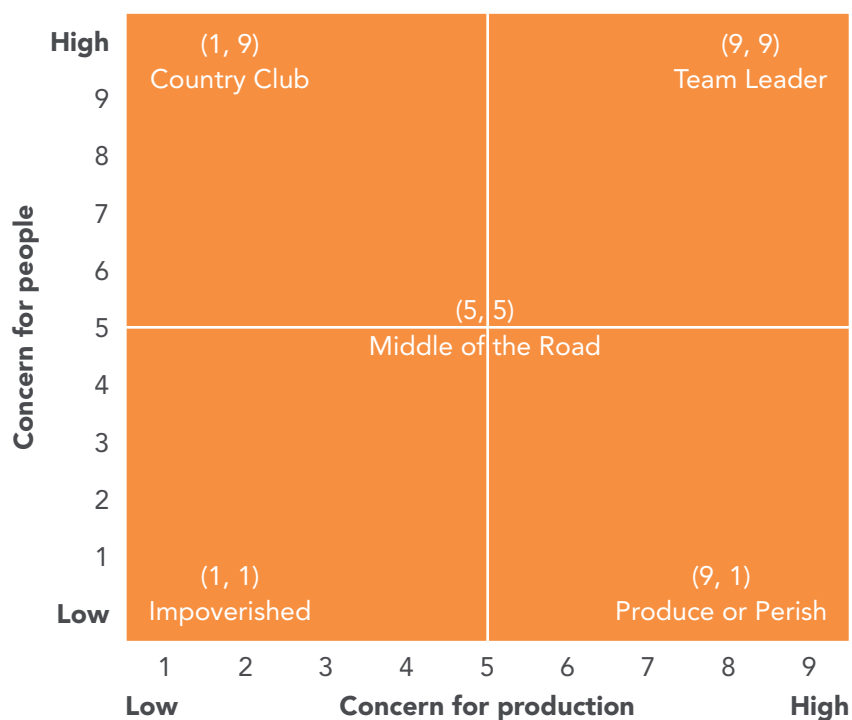


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- Ohio Studies:** These studies were also undertaken in an attempt to describe leadership behaviour. The basis of the initial research was a questionnaire of some 150 items concerning 'leader behaviour'. Two distinct groupings of behaviour emerged from the analysis of the responses to the questionnaire. Behaviour was essentially relationship-oriented or was considerate of employees' feelings – known as 'consideration'. Behaviour which appeared to be concerned primarily with the organisation of the work processes, including communication channels, allocating tasks etc., was described as being 'initiating structure'. The Ohio researchers concluded that the two dimensions of 'consideration' and 'initiating structures' were separate dimensions. It was shown that it was possible for the same supervisor or manager to score highly on both dimensions.
- Managerial Grid:** One concept based largely on the behavioural approach to leadership effectiveness was the 'Managerial Grid' developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1964). The Grid combines 'concern for production' with 'concern for people' and presents five alternative styles of leadership. Using the axis to plot leadership 'concern for production' versus 'concern for people', Blake and Mouton defined the following leadership styles:



**Fig. 1/2** Blake and Mouton Managerial (Leadership) Grid

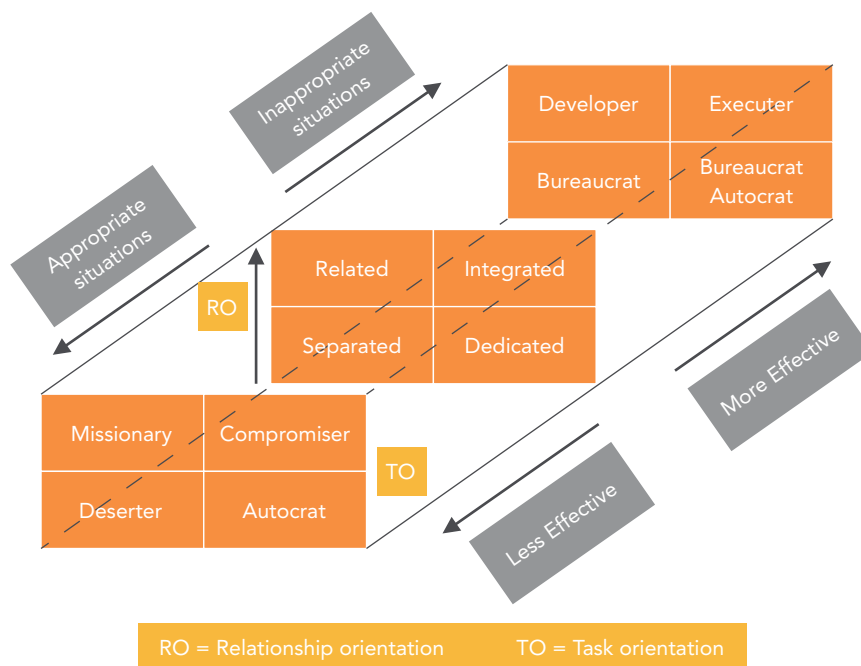
- Country Club Leadership – Low Production/High People (1, 9):** This style is most concerned about the needs and feelings of members of the leader's team. These people operate under the assumption that as long as team members are



happy and secure then they will work hard. What tends to result is a work environment that is very relaxed and fun but where production suffers due to lack of direction and control.

- **Produce or Perish Leadership – High Production/Low People (9, 1):** Also known as authoritarian or compliance leaders, people in this category believe that employees are simply means to an end. Employee needs are always secondary to the need for efficient and productive workplace. This type of leader is very autocratic, has strict work rules, policies, and procedures, and views punishment as the most effective means to motivate employees.
- **Impoverished Leadership – Low Production/Low People (1, 1):** This leader is mostly ineffective. They have neither high regard for creating systems for getting the job done, nor for creating a work environment that is satisfying and motivating. The result is a place of disorganisation, dissatisfaction and disharmony.
- **Middle-of-the-Road Leadership – Medium Production/Medium People (5, 5):** This style seems to be a balance of the two competing concerns. It may first appear to be an ideal compromise. There is a problem in this, though. When you compromise, you necessarily give away a bit of each concern so that neither production nor people need are fully met. Leaders who use this style settle for average performance and often believe that this is the most anyone can expect.
- **Team Leadership – High Production/High People (9, 9):** According to Blake and Mouton model, this is the pinnacle of leadership style. These leaders stress production needs and the needs of the people equally highly. The premise is that employees are involved in understanding organisational purpose and determining production needs. When employees are committed to, and have a stake in the organisation's success, their needs and production levels coincide. This creates a team environment based on trust and respect, which leads to high satisfaction and motivation and, as a result, high production.

✚ **The '3-D Theory':** Reddin (1983) took the Blake and Mouton Grid a stage further and introduced a three-dimensional perspective to it. The extended Reddin-Grid is able to consider aspects of the circumstances in which leadership is exercised, as well as accounting for the 'concern for people' (RO = Relationship-orientation) and 'concern for production' (TO = Task-orientation).



**Fig. 1/3** Reddin 3-D Grid

Reddin describes the central grid as a set of basic styles which are available in the light of the relationship orientation (RO) and task orientation (TO). This can be described as follows:

- **Related:** The manager who is 'high on people' and 'low on task' has this basic style.
- **Developer:** It is a related style that is used appropriately.
- **Missionary:** It is a helpful related style which is used inappropriately.

Reddin's ideas have not been validated by research. While they are useful for the purposes of management development, they are not an authoritative answer to the question of what constitutes effective leadership.

## 1.9 CONTINGENCY THEORIS OF LEADERSHIP

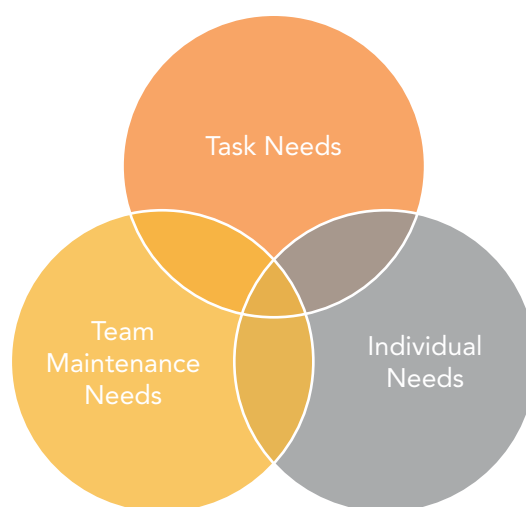
Contingency theories of leadership stress that the leader's behaviour in relation to task, group and individual needs must be related to the overall situation and has, therefore, to be adaptive – that is, it should be flexible and be capable of being modified to meet the particular circumstances.

### 1.9.1 FUNCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

John Adair (1979) developed the concept of functional leadership and promoted that leadership is more about appropriate behaviour than of personality or being in the right place at the right time. He asserted that:

*“The effectiveness of the leader is dependent upon three areas of need within the group: the need to achieve common task, the need for team maintenance, and the individual needs of group members”.*

This aspect is shown in Fig. 1/4 below.



**Fig. 1/4** Interaction needs within the group.  
Source: Adair, J., 'Action-centred Leadership,' as cited in Sue Harding & Trevor Long, Gower, 2008.

- **Task needs:** They involve defining group tasks, planning the work, controlling quality.
- **Team maintenance needs:** They involve inculcating team spirit, setting standards, effective communication.
- **Individual needs:** They involve looking after personal needs, rewards, conflict resolution.

#### 🚩 TASK, TEAM AND INDIVIDUAL FUNCTIONS

- **Task functions:** They involve:
  - Achieving the objectives of the workgroup;
  - Defining group tasks;
  - Planning the work;
  - Allocation of resources;
  - Organisation of duties and responsibilities;

- Controlling quality and checking performance;
- Reviewing progress.
- **Team functions:** They involve:
  - Maintaining morale and building team spirit;
  - Encouraging cohesiveness of the group as a working unit;
  - Setting standards and maintaining discipline;
  - Training the group;
  - Appointment of sub-leaders.
- **Individual functions:** They involve:
  - Meeting the needs of the individual members of the group;
  - Attending to personal problems;
  - Giving praise and status;
  - Reconciling conflicts between group needs and needs of the individuals;
  - Training the individual.

The action by the leader in any one area of need will affect one or both areas of need. The ideal position is where complete integration of the three areas of need is achieved. In any work group the most effective leader is the person who sees that the task needs, the needs of the group and those of the individual are adequately met. The effective leader elicits the contribution of members of the group and draws out other leadership from the group to satisfy the three inter-related areas of need.

### 1.9.2 FIEDLER'S THEORY OF CONTINGENCY

F.E. Fiedler (1967) was the first theorist to explicitly use the term 'contingency'. He named his leadership model 'the leadership contingency model'. In his view, group performance is contingent upon – or dependent upon – the leader adopting an appropriate style in the light of relative favourableness of the situation.

According to Fiedler, the three most important variables in determining the relative favourableness of the situation are:

- Relations which exist between the leader and group members;
- The degree of structure in the task;
- The power and authority of the position.

The three situational variables can produce several possible combinations of situation. The conditions most favourable to the leader are when:

- They have good relations with the group members;
- They have a powerful position; and
- The task is highly structured.

By comparison, the conditions least favourable to the leader are when:

- They have poor relations with the group members;
- Their position carries 'positional power'; and
- The task is relatively unstructured.

Fiedler sees the two main choices of leadership style as being between 'relationship-motivated' and 'task-motivated'. By applying those styles to the range of situations possible, Fiedler found that task-motivated leaders tended to perform most effectively in situations which were either very favourable or very unfavourable. Relationship-motivated leaders, he found, tended to perform most effectively in situations that were immediate in terms of favourableness.

Perhaps the major value of Fiedler's theory is its attempt to distinguish and evaluate the key situational variables which influence the role of the leader in different circumstances.

## 1.10 PATH-GOAL THEORY

The path-goal theory of leadership suggests that the performance of subordinates is affected by the extent to which it satisfies their expectations, as given below:

- **Dynamic leadership:**
  - Giving specific directions;
  - Expecting subordinates to follow.
- **Supportive leadership:**
  - Friendly and approachable;
  - Concern for subordinates' needs.
- **Participative leadership:**
  - Consulting subordinates;
  - Evaluating their suggestions before deciding.
- **Achievement-oriented leadership:**
  - Setting challenging goals;
  - Seeking improvement in performance;
  - Confidence in their ability.

## 2 GROUPS AND GROUP BEHAVIOUR

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

In organisations employees do not work alone. They always do so in a group in the workplace, recreation club or in carrying out union activities. The behaviour of group is different from the behaviour of individual members because every individual has their own beliefs, values, ambitions and aspirations. Some people are satisfied in obeying while others behave like leaders.

According to Coleman (1990):

*“Groups, like individuals, have structural, integrative and operative characteristics in physical and social settings. Like individuals they strive to maintain themselves and resist disintegration and to grow and develop their potentialities. Like individuals, too, they may solve their problems in either task-oriented ways, and if their problems are beyond their resources – or believed to be – they may show evidence of strain, decomposition and pathology”.*

### 2.2 GROUPS IN ORGANISATIONS

The study of groups in work situations has been an important activity of behavioural scientists since the investigations of the Hawthorne researchers. The experiments conducted by Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger during the period 1920 to 1930 on the various groups of workers at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company have created a revolution in determining that the informal groups play a major and dominant role in determining the productivity, quality, human and industrial relations scenario in organisations. *(For further details see 4.1)*

The most important factors in the behaviour of groups have been found to be:

- The size of the group;
- Its leadership;
- The nature of the task;
- The working environment;
- Individual roles;

- The cohesiveness of the group;
- Group norms; and
- Methods of motivation of the members.

## 2.3 WORKGROUPS

Workgroups come into being as the result of growth and specialisation within an organisation. Specialisation involves not only the breaking down of the organisation into functions, but also the formation of groups to support the tasks – or groups of related tasks – performed within those functions.

In different organisations ‘workgroups’ might be called a ‘team,’ or a ‘section’, or a ‘department’. Sizes too differ. A workgroup may vary in size from two members upwards. Whatever its name or its size, a workgroup is basically:

*“A collection of individuals, contributing to some common aim under the direction of a leader, and who share a sense of common identity”.*

Although groups or teams have always been a central part of organisations, they are gaining increasing attention as important organisational asset. Professionals rarely work alone. They work with their colleagues and managers. Accordingly, managers are concerned with creating effective teams or workgroups that make real contribution to quality products and/or services and thus ensuring success of the whole organisation.

In most work situations, the majority of tasks are undertaken by groups and teams, rather than by individuals. It has been observed that workgroups outperform individuals when tasks are being done require skills, judgement, and experience. Workgroups are more flexible and responsive to changing events than are traditional departments or other forms of permanent groupings. Workgroups have the capability to quickly assemble, deploy, re-form, and disband.

## 2.4 TYPES OF GROUPS

Several types of groups may be found in organisations. However, they can be broadly classified into two groups:

- **Formal or ‘official’:** They are formed by the management to perform certain tasks in order to achieve organisational goals.

- **Informal:** These are the groupings which are formed by the employees themselves according to their own needs. These types of workgroups have also been found to be very effective in the pursuit of organisational goals.

## 2.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF WORKGROUPS

One of the most obvious characteristics of a workgroup is that they are composed of two or more people in social and work-related interaction. In other words, the members of a workgroup must have some influence on each other. Workgroups must also possess a structure. Although workgroups can change, and often do, there must be some stable relationships that keep members together and functioning as a unit. To be a workgroup, a greater level of stability would be required. Another characteristic of workgroups is that members share common interest or goals. Finally, to be workgroups, the individuals involved must perceive themselves as a group. Groups are composed of people who recognize each other as members of this group and can distinguish from non-members.

We have all spent a great deal of time working in groups. Some of these groups seem to work very well together, and we sense that the group is able to accomplish something that none of the individuals could have accomplished on their own. In these cases, group members tend to identify with the group and may even surprise themselves in what they are able to accomplish individually when working within the group. Other workgroups, however, seem to function less effectively. In other cases, group members hate spending time in the group and often feel that they could accomplish the task, or at least their part of the task, much more efficiently if they were left on their own.

Thus, the characteristics of a workgroup can be summarised as follows:

- A workgroup can involve as few as two people.
- A workgroup is not a mere aggregate of individuals.
- A workgroup's success depends on the interdependent and collective efforts of various group members.
- Group members are likely to have significant impact on one another as they work together.

## 2.6 GROUP NORMS AND GROUP COHESIVENESS

Tuckman (1965) devised a useful way of looking at the development of groups. He saw groups as 'moving' through five key stages of development. They are:




- **Stage 1 - Forming:** finding out about the task, rules and methods, acquiring information and resources; relying on the leader.
- **Stage 2 - Storming:** internal contact develops; members resist the task at the emotional level.
- **Stage 3 - Norming:** conflict is settled, cooperation develops; views are exchanged and new standards (norms) are developed.
- **Stage 4 – Performing:** teamwork is achieved, roles are flexible; solutions are found and implemented.
- **Stage 5 - Adjourning:** the group disperses on the completion of the task.

### 2.6.1 GROUP NORMS


In this context ‘norms’ are common standards of social and work behaviour which are expected from individuals in the group. Group norms can be seen to develop at stage 3 in Tuckman’s analysis. Once such norms have been developed, there are strong pressures on people to conform to them. Norms are influenced by organisational factors, such as management policies and styles, rules and procedures.

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Norms are also influenced by one or more employees – whose standards might or might not coincide with those of the official organisation, for example, when a group itself decides to operate to a certain level of output over a given time, regardless of targets set by management.

From management's point of view, the ideal situation is when the official norms of the group coincide with the official norms of the organisation. Clearly part of the leadership role of any manager is to secure this harmony within their own group.

### **2.6.2 GROUP COHESIVENESS**

The term 'group cohesiveness' refers to the ability of the group members to work together in unison. It also applies to the ability of a group to attract new members to it. Tuckman's analysis shows that cohesiveness develops over time; a newly-formed group has little cohesiveness.

A very cohesive group will demonstrate strong loyalty to its individual members, and strong adherence to its established norms. Individuals who cannot or will not accept those norms are expelled from the group.

Several factors can encourage cohesiveness to develop within a group, including:

- The size of the group; a small size is generally more cohesive than a larger one;
- Common social features, such as age, race, social status;
- Similarity of the work being performed;
- The structure of tasks and the work-flow system;
- The leadership style of the manager/supervisor;
- The prospect of rewards;
- Threats – real or perceived – from outside the group;

In general, there are three main reasons why people develop into clearly-knit groups:

- Because of things they have in common;
- Because of pressures from outside the group; and
- Because of their need to fulfil their social and affiliation needs.

## **2.7 GROUP DYNAMICS**

Group dynamics refers to the ways in which members of the group interact with each other, and the effect of the whole group as a whole on its members.

Cartwright and Zander (1953) have enunciated the following principles of group dynamics:

- In order to be an effective medium of change the group members must have a strong sense of belongingness to the group.
- The more attractive the group is to its members the greater is the influence that the group can exert on its members.
- Strong pressure for changes in the group can be established by creating a shared perception by members of the need for change.
- Information relating to the need for change and plans for change must be shared by all people in the group.

## 2.8 IMPORTANCE OF WORKGROUPS

Group work is extremely important to quality and organisation effectiveness. The organisational improvements processes, such as Total Quality Management (TQM) and Process Re-engineering heavily rely on workgroups.

Workgroups are particularly good at combining talents and providing innovative solutions to possible unfamiliar problems. The wider skill and knowledge set of workgroups has an advantage over that of the individual. The range of skills provided by its members and the self-monitoring, which each workgroup performs, makes it a safe recipient for delegated responsibility. Even if a single person could decide a solution for a problem, there are two main benefits in involving the people who will carry out the decision. First, the motivational aspect of participating in the decision-making process will clearly enhance its implementation. Second, there may be factors, which the implementer understands better than the single person who could supposedly have decided alone. Finally, if each workgroup becomes trained, through participation in group decision-making, in an understanding of the organisation's objectives and work practices, then each will be better able to solve work-related problems in general.

## 2.9 GROUP EFFECTIVENESS

The question of group effectiveness has to be considered in at least two dimensions:

- Effectiveness in terms of task accomplishment; and
- Effectiveness in terms of the satisfaction of group members.

Management's official view of effectiveness is more concerned with output, efficiency and other benefits, than with satisfying the needs of individuals. By comparison, an individual's view of effectiveness is more concerned with personal success in their role and personal satisfaction from being a member of a group. True effectiveness is achieved when the needs and expectations of the organisation are one and the same as the needs and expectations of the individual – its employees.

McGregor (1987) provided a perceptive account of the differences between ineffective and effective groups. A summary of the most important features which he noted is as follows:

<b>The Ineffective Group</b>	<b>The Effective Group</b>
1. The atmosphere is tense or is one of boredom.	1. The atmosphere is informal and relaxed.
2. There is no clear, defined common objective	2. The group task and/or objective is clearly understood by all members, and there is common commitment to it.
3. Leadership is imposed and is exercised without question.	3. Leadership tends to be shared as appropriate and is not always exercised by the same person.
4. Discussion tends to be dominated by just one person, or just two or three people, and it is often irrelevant to the situation.	4. Most or all the members participate in discussions which – concerning an agreed situation – tend to be relevant and informative.
5. Members tend to be disinterested in other people's opinions and tend to not listen to one another.	5. Members listen to each other and respect each other's opinions.
6. Simple majorities are enforced as adequate basis for decisions which affect the group, which minorities have no alternative but to accept.	6. Most decisions are reached by consensus with a minimum of formal voting.
7. Due to apathy, conflict is either avoided, or develops.	7. Any conflict is not avoided but is brought into the open and dealt with constructively.
8. Personal feelings are masked or hidden, and any voiced criticism is considered an embarrassment.	8. Ideas, views and opinions are expressed freely and openly.
9. Members of the group avoid any discussions about the behaviour of individuals or the group.	9. The group examines its own progress and behaviour.

The major influences on group effectiveness can be seen to fall into two major categories:

- Immediate constraints, such as group size, the nature of the task, the skills of members, and environmental factors.
- Group motivation and interaction.

The primary difference between the two categories is that the first represents things that cannot be changed in the short term, while the second represents behaviour that has the potential to be changed in the short-term, as explained below.

### 2.9.1 IMMEDIATE CONSTRAINTS

The four particularly influential constraints are:

- **Group size:** Small groups tend to be more comprehensive than the larger ones. Small groups tend to encourage full participation. Large groups tend to contain a greater diversity of talent.
- **The nature of the task:** The production system employed – including the type of technology used – has a major impact on workgroups. For example, high-technology plant might require workers to be dispersed into isolated ones and two, which cannot form into satisfactory groups. When group tasks are concerned with problem solving, with decision making or with creative thinking, different talents might be required from different members, as well as a variety of leadership styles. A further task-related aspect is the time factor; for example, urgency tends to force groups to be task and action-oriented.
- **Membership:** It is not possible to change quickly the personalities involved, the variety of knowledge possessed and the skills available in the group. A knowledgeable group, skilled at group working, is much more likely to succeed in the allocated task, than is an inexperienced group. Equally, a group containing a wide range of talents tends to be more effective than a group with a narrow range of talents.
- **Environmental factors:** These include physical factors, such as working proximity, the layout of the premises – factory or office or other. In general, close proximity aids group identity and loyalty, while distance reduces group identity and loyalty. Other environmental factors include the traditions of the organisation, and leadership styles. Formal organisations tend to adopt formal group practices. Autocratic leadership styles prefer group activities to be directed. More participative styles prefer greater sharing within groups.

These immediate constraints establish the parameters for the operations of the group. If the expectations and behaviour of the members fall within those parameters, the group

will tend to perform very effectively. In contrast, if the expectations and behaviour of the members do not fall within the parameters, the chances of the group succeeding in its objectives will be slight.

### **2.9.2 GROUP MOTIVATION AND INTERACTION**

The level of motivation within the group – that is, ‘group motivation’ – will be a decisive factor in its effectiveness (or otherwise). High motivation can result from members’ perception of the task, and their various roles in performing it, as being of importance. The setting of standards of performance is essential to group motivation, together with adequate and timely feedback of results; to be effective, group members have a need ‘to know’. Individual members of the group also need to feel satisfied with their membership of the group.

Absence of any or all of these features tends to result in low motivation of the group as a whole. The extent of group interaction will depend mainly on factors such as leadership, individual and group motivation, and the existence of appropriate rules and procedures. The key to success in leadership is for a manager or supervisor – taking the total situation into account – to gain the best ‘mix’ of attention to task and attention to people.

The ability of the leader of a group to obtain the commitment of their team to achieving the task – what is called ‘team spirit’ – will result in a high degree of collaboration. When interaction is high, people tend to be more open, and more comfortable in performing the task.

Any group needs some form of guidance – often referred to by ‘modus operandi’ – as to the method of operation to be adopted. In some cases that might be laid down by a few simple rules and procedures. In contrast, in formal committees quite complex procedures might apply in order to encourage or to control interaction.

The above discussion is essentially about actual behaviour within a group. Such behaviour is part of a dynamic, constantly changing process within the group, which can be influenced by individuals in response to issues that have occurred while performing the task. Therefore, even when the immediate constraints impose tight restrictions on behaviour, the group can still be effective if its members can be motivated to work together to achieve their objectives.

# 3 TEAMS AND TEAM BUILDING

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

For the successful functioning of an organisation it is essential that the managers devote sufficient time and effort to promote the spirit of team work. No individual can do the work all alone and effectively too. Building a strong team of employees for various responsibilities ought to be the prime objective of managers. The task is not as easy as it seems.

We can say that:

*“It is easy to get the players but getting them to play together is the hardest part, but with a clear vision and sustained efforts it can be done. Moreover, team work is the fuel that allows common people to attain uncommon results”.*

According to Adair (1979), a team is more than just a group with a common aim. His view is that a team is a group in which the contribution of each individual is seen as being complementary to the contributions of other members. Collaboration – that is, ‘working together’ – is the keynote of a team activity. Adair suggests that the test of good – an effective – team is:

“Whether.... its members can work as a team while they are apart, contributing to a sequence of activities than to a common task, which requires their presence in one place and at one time”.

There are several key variables which determine the relative effectiveness of groups achieving their goals and in satisfying the needs of their members. These variables have to be addressed if there is to be any chance of building an effective and successful team.

## 3.2 TEAMS AND SYNERGY

Effective teams provide synergy as they:

- Provide an environment to manage talent;
- Provide security so members feel free to take risk;
- Establish positive group norms that encourage openness and flexibility;
- Produce more creative solutions to problems;
- Help in balancing out individual shortcomings; and
- Provide mutual support that encourages team members to reach their potential.

### 3.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE TEAM WORK

Research suggests that the characteristics of effective teamwork are:

- Clear objectives and agreed goals;
- Openness, not confrontation;
- Support and trust;
- Cooperation, not conflict;
- Good, proven procedures;
- Appropriate leadership;
- Regular review;
- Individual development;
- Good inter-group relations.

### 3.4 FACTORS FOR EFFECTIVE TEAM WORK

There are a series of factors that seem to be essential for effective teamwork:

- Team members must be chosen for their skills, not their personality;
- The team needs to get off to a good start – setting the right tone is essential;
- The tone should not be too casual – teams perform better when challenged, so a sense of urgency needs to be imparted;
- The team should agree on clear rules for group behaviour and norms, and meet often, both formally and informally.

Adair (1979) has also emphasized the importance of the careful selection of team members. The key factors here for individuals are:

- Technical or professional competence;
- The ability to work as a team player; and
- The possession of desirable personal attributes, such as willingness to listen, flexibility of outlook, and the capability to give and accept trust.

### 3.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGH PERFORMANCE TEAMS

The teams that are able to demonstrate high levels of performance are the ones that have been carefully nurtured.



They:

- Set high output, high quality targets and achieve them;
- Gain a high degree of job satisfaction;
- Cooperate well with one another;
- Have leaders who are well-respected for the example they set;
- Are well-balanced with respect to the roles people play in relation to their skills;
- Have a high degree of autonomy;
- Learn quickly from their mistakes;
- Are client/customer oriented;
- Have high problem-solving skills;
- Regularly review performance; and
- Are motivated.

### 3.6 ATTRIBUTES OF HIGH PERFORMANCE TEAMS

High performance teams are easily recognizable by the following attributes they have:

- Participative leadership;
- Shared responsibility;
- Aligned on purpose;
- High communication;
- Future focused;
- Focused on task;
- Creative talents; and
- Rapid response.

### 3.7 MANAGEMENT AND TEAM SKILLS

Belbin (1981) carried out long-term research into management team skills. The results showed that any manager's team behaviour fell into one or more of eight fairly distinct team roles:

- **Chairman:** This role involves an individual who can control and coordinate the activities of the other team members, who recognizes their talents but is not threatened by them, and who is concerned with what is feasible rather than what is exciting or imaginative.
- **Shaper:** This is another leader role, but one in which the role-holder acts more directly to shape the decisions and thinking of the team members.

- **Innovator:** This type of person provides creative thinking in a team, even though concern for good ideas might overshadow their sensitivity to other people's needs.
- **Monitor/Evaluator:** The strength of this role lies in the holder's ability to analyse issues and suggestions objectively.
- **Company worker:** This role provides for implementation of ideas through the role-holder's ability to 'translate' general ideas and plans and to get them put into practice, that is, to implement them.
- **Team worker:** This role meets the needs of the team for cohesiveness and collaboration because these role-holders tend to be perceptive of people's needs and adept at supporting individuals.
- **Resource Investigator:** A person in this role looks for resources and ideas outside the team with the aim of supporting the team's efforts.
- **Completer:** This is an individual whose energies are directed primarily to the completion of the task, and also harnesses anxiety and concern towards getting the job done on time and to a high standard.

Individual managers are likely to be predisposed to behaving in one predominant role, even though they might show tendencies towards others. The dominant role is closely linked to particular reasoning abilities and personality characteristics but is also affected by the priorities and processes of a particular manager's job.

An effective team is one which is likely to have a range of roles present in its make-up. Belbin concluded from his studies that the 'ideal' team would be composed of one chairman (or one shaper), one innovator, one monitor/evaluator, and one or more company workers, team members, resource investigators or completers.

However, as ideal conditions rarely exist in practice, managers have to build their teams from among the people they have available, and to encourage a greater degree of role flexibility. However, a manager can benefit from understanding the distinctions between the roles, and by making an assessment of the role-strengths of their own subordinates. A manager who knows what to expect – as well as what to not expect – from colleagues, is better equipped to be able to head off and to avoid potential tensions within the group, or even a group breakdown.

### 3.8 TEAM RECOGNITION

When employees are asked what type of recognition they want most, it is not always money. More often, it is knowing they are valued and appreciated. When people feel valued, they

are more positive, productive, innovative, and upbeat. In order to ensure this, a manager could choose from among the following ways to reward excellence:

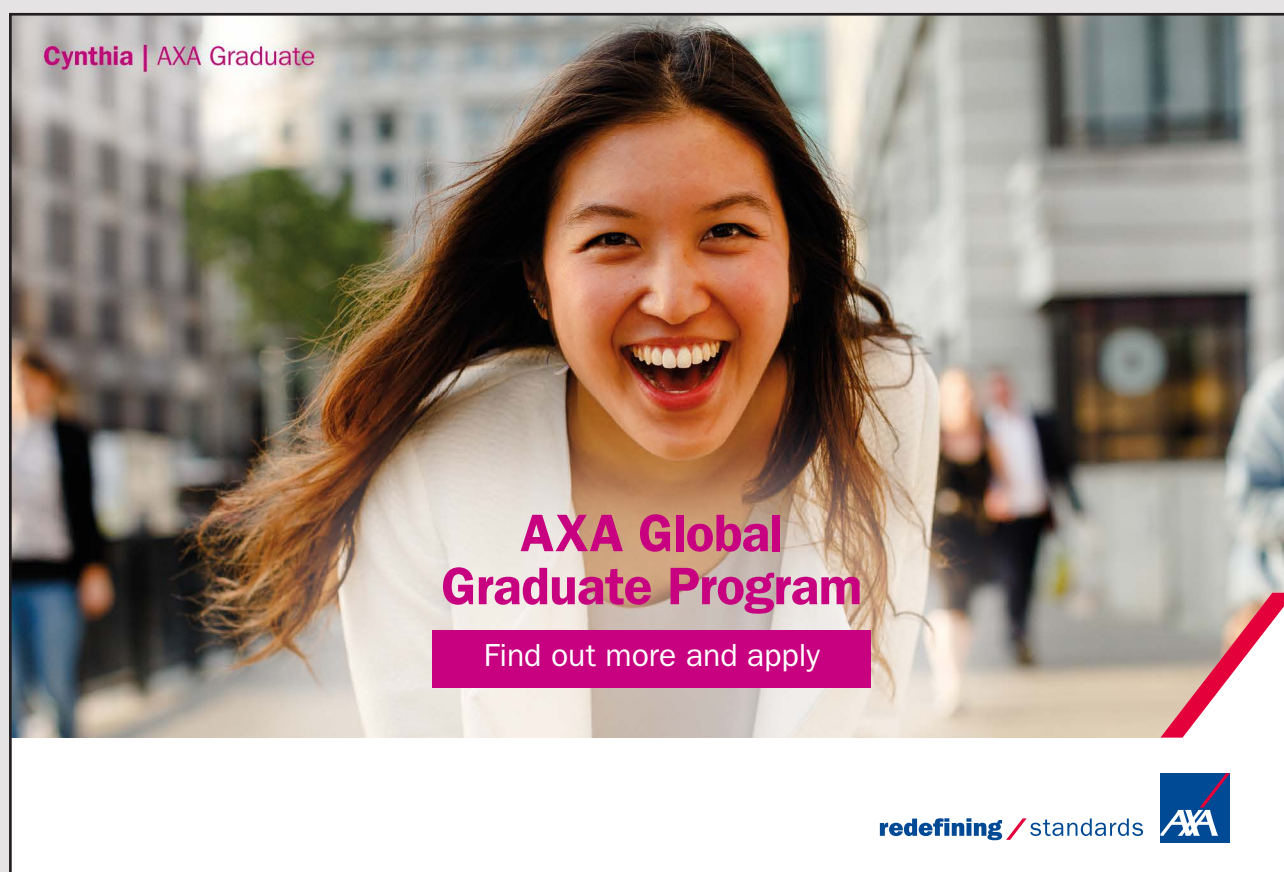
- **Company-wide recognition:** Post a note on the bulletin board, send a company-wide email, recognize someone in the company newsletter, organise a luncheon or dinner. Recognition in front of peers encourages other teams to perform at peak efficiency.
- **Hand-written note:** Send a hand-written note to each team member expressing appreciation and include a copy of the note in the employee's performance file.
- **Time off:** If a team finishes a project ahead of time and on budget, give each member time off. It can be a discretionary day or even a few hours. In this way people can go to the beach on a sultry or summer day or watch a cricket/football match instead of calling in sick.
- **Draw from a gift bag:** Have each team member draw from a gift bag that can include dinner for two at a restaurant, a gift card, or even cash. When you put chain restaurants and chain stores in the hopper, virtual workers can participate as well.
- **Applaud their efforts:** At a staff meeting, recognize accomplishment by giving the team a round of applause – even a standing ovation.
- **Elect the team to a 'Wall of Fame':** Post the team photo on a wall designed for high achievers.

## 4 MOTIVATIONAL THEORIES

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Industrial psychology is a fairly recent applied science, dating only from about 1900. It was concerned originally with matters such as fatigue at work, accident proneness, high labour turnover, and similar worker-related industrial problems. An example is the research undertaken by people such as Elton Mayo and Mary Parker Follet.

In the 1920s more attention was sought to be given to individuals and their unique capabilities in the organisation. A belief was that the organisation would prosper if the workers prospered as well. Human resources departments were added to organisations. The behavioural sciences played a strong role in helping to understand the needs of workers, how the needs of the organisations and its workers could be better aligned. This prompted the development of many other approaches some of which focus on psychological and social aspects of life in a work situation. Elton Mayo and Mary Parker Follet are recognized for experimenting on these two aspects, which they did in Hawthorne plant of Western Electric Company in Chicago in the later part of 20<sup>th</sup> century. The prior thought was that pleasant



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physical conditions like heating, good furniture and lighting were the factors contributing to satisfying outcomes in organisations. Later, these were proved not to be the only factors. Psychological factors like job satisfaction and attitudes were also seen as important. Mary Parker Follet studied human behaviour in a workplace and came up with four principles.

They are:

- Involving direct contact between those involved;
- Commencing as early as possible;
- Being continuous; and
- Being concerned with all the various elements in the work situation.

These steps show concern for both production and people. The results of these experiments showed that group dynamics and social makeup of an organisation were an extremely important force for or against higher productivity. This outcome caused the call for greater participation of the workers, greater thrust and openness in the working environment, and a greater attention to teams and groups in the workplace. While Taylor's (1911) inputs were the establishment of the industrial engineering, quality control and personnel departments, the human relations movement's greatest impact came in what the organisation's leadership and personnel department were doing. The seemingly new concepts of 'group dynamics', 'team work', and 'organisational social systems', all stem from Mayo's work in mid-1920s.

As attention became increasingly focused on the fields of personnel and personnel management, techniques for the selection and training of new employees were developed, using IQ tests and various Aptitude tests.

That stage was followed by a shift of interest towards the roles of managers and management in the organisation - the interaction between managers and the managed, and the causes and results of conflicts that existed between them.

This phenomenon was studied by organisational psychologists who concluded that there is – or can be – a genuine conflict between a human being and their job of work, between the satisfaction of:

- The needs of the individual worker; and
- The needs of the employing organisation.

However, despite the diverse ideas put forward by various psychologists, there is some common ground between them, in that they believe that:

- People have needs, and consequently, motives for doing things;
- These needs and motives, therefore, do affect people's behaviour, and their behaviour can be explained;
- There can be a conflict between the goals of the organisation and the goals of people working for those organisations;
- The way to avoid such conflict in practice is not by offering bribes to the workers, nor is it by offering them massive welfare programmes, but is by changing the very structure and goals of the organisation to accommodate people's personal goals.

## 4.2 THEORIES AND THEORISTS

Several theories of motivation have been propounded. Given below is one of the significant theories.

## 4.3 CHRIS ARGYRIS

Chris Argyris (1976) has studied how the personal development of the individual is affected by the kind of situation in which that individual works.

### 4.3.1 INDIVIDUAL POTENTIAL

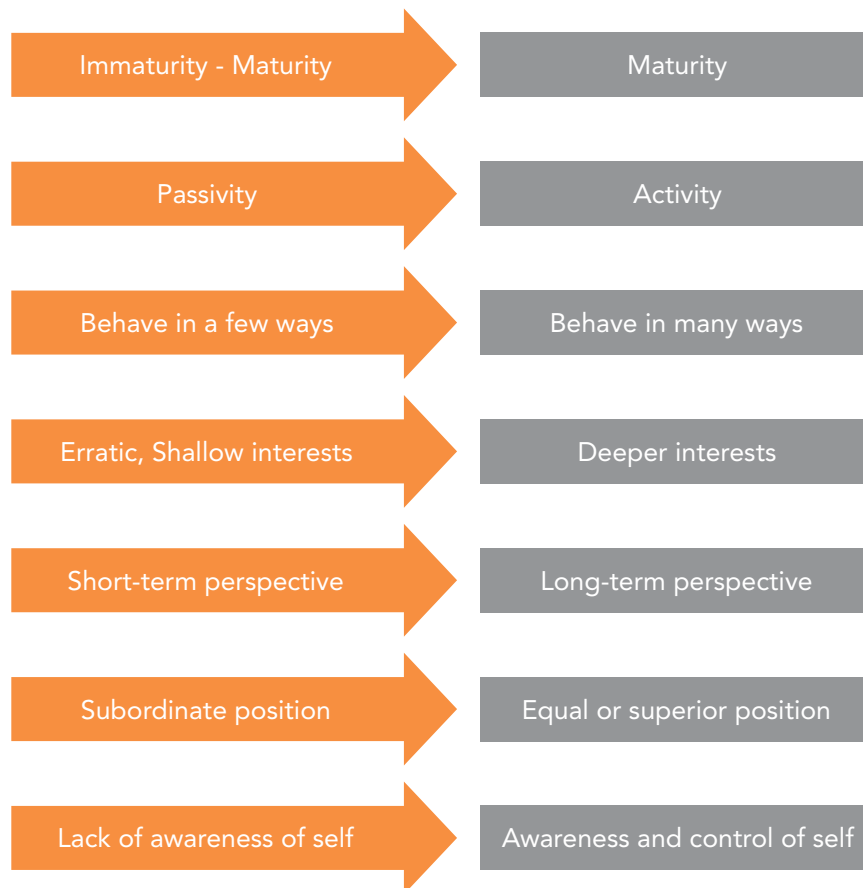
Argyris claims that everyone has potential which, given the right environment, can be developed. He advocates that the development of each person's potential not only benefits the individual but also those around him, including the organisation to which they belong.

According to Argyris, these are the aspects of the situation which need to be considered:

- The development of the individual to 'maturity';
- The degree to which people have developed 'social skills', that is, how well they relate to each other;
- The character and structure of the organisations for which they work.

### 4.3.2 THE PROCESS OF MATURITY

Argyris propounded 'Immaturity-Maturity Theory'. He set out seven different ways he imagines people and their personalities change and develop during the period from their childhood to maturity.



**Fig. 4/1** below depicts his Immaturity-Maturity Theory.

He claims that the development of 'growth' to maturity is normal, but anything which interferes with it - or stops it - is harmful. But really 'mature' people, he claims, will want to develop not only themselves but other people as well.

### 4.3.3 THE FORMAL MANAGED ORGANISATIONS

The ideal structure is one in which there is order everywhere, and a place for everything. Four principles of Fayol (1930) can be singled out as being important to those responsible for planning the structure of an organisation. They are:

- **Specialisation of jobs:** This implies that employees are engaged in performing specialised specific tasks for which they have been trained.
- **A chain of command:** This means a hierarchy of officials to control, direct and coordinate all the subsystems of the organisation, which will have been split up – by specialisation – into separate sub-units and jobs. Inevitably, the more authority is exercised the higher ‘upwards’ in the hierarchy is a person’s position.
- **Unity of direction:** Industrial and administrative efficiency should increase if each sub-unit has one single activity designed and planned to achieve a specific end.
- **Span of control:** The number of subordinates reporting to a manager/supervisor should be limited depending on the complexity – or otherwise – of tasks and the skills and experience of those subordinates.

It is also to be understood that the impact made by any organisation upon any individual depends upon the organisation and upon the individual. For example, if a relatively ‘mature’ person who is employed in a formal organisation – such as an assembly line – they are placed in a situation in which:

- They have little control over their working environment;
- They are expected to be passive, dependent and subordinate;
- They use only a few minor abilities or skills repeatedly; and
- They are expected to be productive in the efforts they expend.

This situation – as per Argyris’s claims – can only lead to trouble for both the individual and the organisation. A mature person is being asked to behave in a less than mature manner. Although this is a hypothetical situation, it does describe with reasonable accuracy the work situation of a great many people today.

#### 4.3.4 SOCIAL SKILLS

It has been observed that in a wide variety of work situations, interpersonal skills are not developed, in both workers and their managers/supervisors. People do not relate properly to each other, with the result that mutual mistrust abounds. People are less than honest, and do not take into account other people’s feelings. Job commitment is missing, and a worker concentrates only on their immediate surroundings, and are ignorant of the connection between what they do and the activities of the organisation as a whole.



### 4.3.5 THE PROCESS OF CONFLICT

The organisation is a system reacting with its employees. We find that:

- There is lack of balance between the needs of mature individuals to develop and to use their skills, and the demands of a formal organisation which limit those very needs. The root causes of conflict are therefore inherent.
- As a result, there will be frustration, failure, short-term outlooks – not long-term outlooks – and conflict. Moreover, workers' frustrations are compounded by worries such as:
  - If they leave their current employers, can they get other jobs?
  - Even if they do secure alternative jobs, will their work situations be any better?
- Under certain conditions the degree of frustration, failure, short-term outlooks and conflict will tend to increase:
  - As individuals become more mature;
  - The further 'down' the hierarchy is a person's 'station';
  - As management controls increase (and in practice that will happen as soon as conflict and trouble manifest themselves, only making matters worse!)
  - As jobs become more specialised and humdrum.
- The nature of the principle (Fayol type) causes subordinates to experience competition and rivalry with each other, to focus on their own departments and to lose sight of the 'whole'.
- Employees react to the situation by creating informal activities, such as:
  - Daydreaming, aggression, vagueness etc;
  - Becoming apathetic and uninterested in the job;
  - Slowing down, restricting output, making errors;
  - Creating their own groups, unions, staff associations, etc;
  - Becoming interested only in more money;
  - Seeking transfer or promotion;
  - Seeking other employment and leaving.
- The way in which an employee adapts, helps them to cope with the situation and helps them to come to terms with the organisation.
- The changed behaviour has a cumulative and increasing effect on the organisation.
- Management will react to the changed behaviour, and certain reactions will tend to increase the conflict.

The total effect will be that the business will find it harder to maintain a given output without spending considerably more money on increased staff, on more equipment, and so on.

### 4.3.6 SOLUTION

To cope with the conflict situation, the organisations need to do what Argyris suggests:

*"It is not the individual who must change; it is, in fact, the organisation which must change".*

Argyris further suggests that management must:

- Strive to achieve the full development of individual worker's potential;
- Allow for a more widespread involvement of subordinates, and let them express their ideas and feelings;
- Ensure that 'job enlargement' takes place in order to use people's abilities more fully.

# 5 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Motivation is the will to act. What we call ‘motives’ are the reasons why people act in certain ways. Motivation is a prime factor that contributes to the success and survival of organisations.

According to Shartle (1956), “motivation is the reported urge or tension to move in a given direction or to achieve a certain goal”.

Jucius (1975) states:

*“Motivation is the act of stimulating someone or one’s own self to get a desired course of action, to push the right button to get desired action”.*

Filippo (1961) has rightly said that “motivation is the process of attempting to influence others to do your will through the possibility of gain or reward”.

The process of motivation is applicable to all cadres of employees – workers, supervisors, managers – and in all walks of life. Nobody works properly without adequate motivation. Motivation is not only overt but also covert in nature.

To ensure that the aspect of motivation is systematically planned and implemented it has been studied by researchers and management thinkers who have propounded various theories of motivation.

## 5.2 ABRAHAM MASLOW

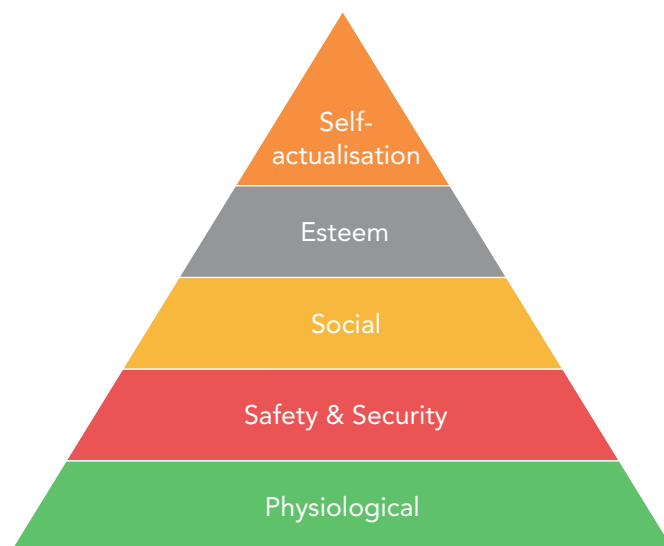
Management, and others, had for many years searched for an explanation of why people – and specifically workers – behave as they do, and more particularly, had looked for an answer to the question: “Why do people work?” Indeed, we could ask why people work at all, and of those who do work, why some people work more enthusiastically or reliably than do others. In any group of people doing the same job, some do it well, some do it badly, some do it grudgingly, and others do it willingly. This is true of workers whether they are labourers or secretaries, salespeople or managers.

One set of explanations is, of course, that each person has different levels of ability, skill or expertise, or has had training different from their fellow workers. A poorly trained operator could turn out bad work, for example. Explanations of these kinds cannot cover every case, however. The answer is that different work performances often reflect different levels of 'motivation', or ambition, energy, drive and commitment to work.

However, the problem of what motivates people to work, or to do anything at all, is not an easy one to answer. Maslow attempts to solve it with his theory of the 'Hierarchy of Human Needs'.

The theory by Abraham Maslow (1943) argues that individuals are motivated to satisfy a number of different kinds of needs, some of which are more powerful than others. Maslow argues that until these most powerful needs are satisfied other needs have little effect on an individual's behaviour. In other words, we satisfy the most powerful needs first and then progress to the less powerful ones. As one need gets satisfied, and therefore, less important to us, other needs come up and become motivators of our behaviour.

Maslow represents propensity (being more powerful than others) of needs as a hierarchy in Fig. 5/1 below. The most powerful needs are shown at the bottom of the pyramid, with powerfulness decreasing as one makes progress upwards.



**Fig. 5/1** Maslow's hierarchy of needs

- **Physiological needs:** Although in Maslow's 'hierarchy' a person's physiological needs are at the lowest level, they are not the least important. Physiological needs include all the basic needs necessary for the support of a human being as an 'ongoing system': air, water, food, the need to sleep, clothing, shelter. They are characterised

by the fact that they can identify them separately; and because when a need has to be satisfied a particular part of the body is 'signalled'.

Examples:

Lack of air	>	chest
Thirst	>	mouth/throat
Hunger	>	stomach

Maslow says that undoubtedly a person's physiological needs are the most important of all. Survival of the individual and the race are paramount. For example, a soldier lost in a desert during a war would be more concerned about where their next drink or their next meal was coming from, and where to find shade; rather than worrying about promotion, or their application for a loan or paying a tax bill!

According to Maslow, when one set of needs is satisfied, other – and 'higher' – needs emerge, and these now dominate human behaviour. And once the second group are more or less satisfied, again newer, and still 'higher' needs emerge, and so on.

This is what Maslow means by saying that basic human needs are organised in a hierarchy. Satisfaction of a particular need means it is no longer important to a person for the time being, and only unsatisfied needs motivate people to take action.

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- **Security/Safety needs:** If and when a person's physiological needs are satisfied, a new set of needs emerges – the security or safety needs. People in most societies prefer a safe, orderly and predictable environment, and if even they might not show it on the surface, they have a greater liking for things which are familiar to them, rather than things with which they are unfamiliar.

Safety needs are great motivators. While societies can be galvanized into action by danger or threats of danger, for example, a war, the security of a steady job, a permanent home, insurance policies, a steady income to keep home and family free from eviction or ill health or other dangers, are important needs.
- **Social needs:** People, in general, prefer to live in groups – groups which are often larger than their immediate families. Even in quite primitive societies a person might have belonged to different groups simultaneously. An average person, today, might be a member of two or more of:

  - a family;
  - a workgroup;
  - a leisure group, such as a social club, a football team, an art class;
  - a political group, such as an organised political party, school's parent-teacher association;
  - an informal group – people who meet in a restaurant, or a group of friends.
- **Ego/Esteem needs:** Most people not only want to belong, but they also want to be respected as a person, to achieve status in a group. This does not mean that all people want to be leaders. Many people are content to remain behind the scene, but even they like praise and the approval and esteem of others.

Adler (1924) stressed our needs for reputation, recognition, attention, importance and appreciation. Satisfaction of these needs has two dimensions:

  - Group respect; and
  - Self-respect, confidence, the need to be able to hold one's head up high.
- **Self-realization Needs:** From management's point of view, self-realization needs are probably the key needs in Maslow's explanation. Even if a person is well-fed, has a secure income and has fellow human beings to relate to and to be respected by, they can still become dissatisfied – restless even – if they are not doing all that they are both capable of, and like doing.

While all 'self-actualization' activity – the form originally used to describe this highest need, but later replaced by the term 'self-realization' activity – is not in itself creative, much creative work stems from the desire of individuals to satisfy this need.

The entire emphasis here is on the need for people to develop their whole personality, to grow and to make the best use of their abilities, and to respond to challenges.

This message has been repeated by later writers, who have suggested the importance of redesigning jobs to make them:

- less repetitive,
- more challenging, and
- more demanding of skill and endeavour.

### 5.2.1 MASLOW'S OWN COMMENTS

Maslow makes the following significant comments:

- Some creative people are motivated by the self-actualisation need, despite or in spite of the fact that others of their needs are not satisfied. For example, an ambitious person might be prepared to go hungry or to go without warm clothes in order to be able to pay the cost of training.
- Some people may have very low levels of aspiration if their life experience has been limited. For example, a poor person might be satisfied if they secure an alternative job which earns them sufficient to ensure a regular supply of food, clothing, etc.
- Satisfied needs lead to new wants. The new wants continue even when the lower level needs suddenly become unsatisfied. For example, an unemployed manager might still go to expensive restaurants or go to sports club even though they have no money coming in and are practising economies in other directions.
- Some people have high ideals, religious views or values, which they will maintain against public opinion. The need to maintain their values outweighs any other need.

Hence there are exceptions to the general theory, which have to be taken into account by managers and administrators.

### 5.2.2 FRUSTRATION OF NEEDS

Any need which is not satisfied – at whatever level – leads to problems. One of them is that the next set of needs below the unsatisfied level becomes even more important – and human beings will make extraordinary attempts to ensure that satisfaction is safeguarded at this lower level of needs. This happens, for example, when a frustrated person at the self-actualisation level becomes preoccupied with status and tries to get others to admire or to esteem them. Another example is when a person who is excluded from a group, retires into themselves.

### 5.2.3 NEED MIX

An important premise of the need hierarchy is that as one need is basically fulfilled the next most important need becomes dominant and dictates individual behaviour. This theory cannot be viewed as an all-or-nothing framework. We should regard the hierarchy as useful in predicting behaviour on a high or low probability basis.

## 5.3 DOUGLAS MCGREGOR (1901 – 1964)

McGregor is best known for his theories in which he attempts to analyse the behaviour of people at work. In his ‘Theory X’, McGregor sets down what he believed managers have felt about the workers of whom they were in charge, and also what he considers were managers’ traditional beliefs about workers’ attitudes to work.

In ‘Theory Y’, he states what he feels is a much more realistic explanation of workers’ motives, and of their general behaviour. He recommends that managers should change their ways and adapt appropriate management techniques.

### 5.3.1 "THEORY X"

‘Theory X’ gives a negative view of human behaviour. It also assumes that most people:

- are basically immature,
- need direction and control,
- are incapable of taking responsibility,
- are viewed as lazy,
- dislike work.
- need a mixture of financial inducements, and
- need to be given threats of loss of their jobs to make them work (‘carrot and stick’ mentality).

It is important to remember that it is a theory, and that it reflects attitudes by management in general, not necessarily by individual managers – in McGregor’s opinion – materially influenced in wide sectors of industries.

‘Theory X’ is the management viewpoint, the opinion of the industrial elite. In this case, the image is created of a clever, dynamic, go-ahead manager regarding, even perhaps with some pity, the indolent, indecisive workers, the ‘average’ human beings.



However, one thing is certain. If we were to treat people as if they were dumb, rebellious, easily led, lazy oafs – and if we felt the need to control them and force them into submission – they might even come to believe that they are inferior. And, furthermore, sooner or later those people will almost certainly rebel against such treatment.

And if workers do rebel, the manager is reinforced in their ‘Theory X’ beliefs about them as workers. The more workers rebel, the more a manager is confirmed in their notions about these workers, and they react by enforcing more control and applying more discipline. Managers who tend to hold views similar to those expressed in ‘Theory X’, are called ‘Theory X’ managers.

### 5.3.2 “THEORY Y”

‘Theory Y’, the opposite of ‘Theory X’, argues that people want to fulfil themselves by seeking self-respect, self-development, and self-fulfilment at work as in life in general. The six basic assumptions of ‘Theory Y’ are:

- Work is as natural as play or rest;
- Effort at work need not depend on threat of punishment;
- Commitment to objectives is a function of rewards associated with their achievement.
- The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility;
- High degree of imagination, integrity and creativity are not restricted to a narrow group but are widely distributed in the population;
- Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentials of the average being are not properly utilised.

The managers, whose assumptions fall closer to ‘Theory Y’, will tend to encourage their people to develop and utilise their capabilities, knowledge, skills and ingenuity in trying to accomplish the organisational objectives.

‘Theory Y’ advocates what we nowadays call ‘participative management’. That is the situation in which workers join in decision making under the leadership of their immediate boss. Obviously, there are difficulties with this, for example, managers who cannot or will not accept the concept, managers who rebel against such ideas, and workers who do not want to join in.

But so quickly has progress been made in recent years that managers and administrators in many countries are already considering the next step: the situation in which management decision making, or parts of the process, is handed over to the workforce, or to their elected representatives.

# 6 MOTIVATING

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The process of motivation is one of five functions of management. Today it is concerned with the provision of the correct and varied stimuli or influences which encourage people to work well and willingly – in their interests, as well as the interests of the organisations by which they are employed.

## 6.2 NECESSITY FOR MOTIVATION

Daniel Katz (1964) claimed that there are three basic types of behaviour essential for an organisation if it were to function properly and effectively, as follows:

- People must be encouraged to enter the system – the organisation – and to remain within it. Labour turnover and absenteeism can be costly and dysfunctional if they get out of control – but physical attendance by workers alone is not enough.
- People must do their appointed jobs in a dependable fashion. If organisations are to function, they have to rely on a continuous, fairly stable pattern of relationships over a period of time.
- People must, on occasion (and depending on the job) be innovative and exhibit spontaneous activity in achieving organisational objectives which go beyond that which is laid down for them to do.

Any motivation enquiry carried out for an organisation must try to find the factors which will influence or stimulate individuals to devote time and energy to any or all of those types of behaviour.

### 6.2.1 MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

Motivational factors which influence the employees can be divided into two categories – financial and non-financial.

They are:

- **Financial:**
  - Pay
  - Interest-free loan

- Housing
- Subsidised canteen facility
- Uniforms
- Overtime wages
- Leave travel allowance
- Medical facilities
- Transport
- Education subsidy for children
- Recreational facilities, etc.
- **Non-financial:**
  - Recognition
  - Appreciation
  - Humane treatment
  - Higher responsibilities
  - Challenging job
  - Encouragement
  - Job security, etc.

### 6.2.2 ADVANTAGES OF MOTIVATED EMPLOYEES

There are a number of advantages if the employees are motivated.

Motivated employees:

- Perform well and achieve targets;
- Need less supervision and guidance;
- Motivate others in the organisation;
- Are creative and innovative; and
- Attempt to solve problems.

### 6.3 BASIC MODELS OF MOTIVATION

In order to understand the basic models of motivation we need to examine the following factors:

- **Equilibrium:** The term 'equilibrium', in this case, is used to describe the normal, optional physical conditions for the wellbeing of people who have different needs and drives arising at different times. The existence of an unsatisfied need leads to

disequilibrium. In turn, disequilibrium stimulates activities by a person and leads to changes in their behaviour to restore the situation, that is, to try to regain equilibrium.

- **Human needs:** Any attempt to codify human needs is subjective and, in any case, such a list might vary from age to age, and from culture to culture. For Maslow, the significance is that the behaviour of anyone individual is dominated by the lowest – in the ‘pyramid’ – group of needs remaining unsatisfied. The highest need, however, is different. Increased satisfaction leads to increased need-strength. This theory – which is still largely untested in any organisational setting – has influenced management thinkers and managers ever since it was propounded.
- **Money:** Earlier theories depended on the notion that the need for money, that is, economic needs, were uppermost and followed on from the ‘carrot and stick’ approach of F.W. Taylor. Similarly, McGregor propounded ‘Theory X’, which is based on assumptions by managers that people have an inherent dislike of work, avoiding it where possible, with the result that they must be coerced and threatened with punishment to make them work; and that most people prefer to be directed, have little ambition and want security above all else. The implications of such a view were that:
  - Close supervision was necessary;
  - Tasks had to be made simple and easy to learn; and
  - Complex organisation and production structures had to be worked out.
- **Relationships:** After the ‘Hawthorne Experiments’ the emphasis shifted to the need for human relationships at work. Initially, the studies sought to examine effects on production of changes in the physical working environment. Later the results seemed to indicate that work itself – as an activity – held little or no meaning for workers. What emerged was an emphasis on Man as a ‘social animal’; relations with supervisors and peer groups were all-important. The result was an emphasis on keeping up morale, group incentive – as opposed to individual incentive – schemes, company journals, social clubs, sports teams, and so on.

## 6.4 RENSIS LIKERT

Likert (1961) theorised – in better known as ‘Michigan Studies’ – about high-producing and low-producing managers. According to his research, the former achieved not only the highest productivity, but also the lowest costs and the highest levels of worker motivation. By comparison, the latter produced higher costs and lower worker motivation.

A dominant theme of Likert’s theory is the importance of what he calls ‘supportive relationships’. He claims that management can achieve high performance when workers feel

that the members of their workgroup are 'supportive' of them; by that he means when workers experience a sense of personal worth and importance arising from belonging to the group.

Likert says that to motivate people we must explore these various management styles:

- **Exploitative-authoritative:** This is the situation in which power and direction come from the top 'downwards', when threats and punishment are common, when communication is poor, and when teamwork is non-existent. Productivity is mediocre.
- **Benevolent-authoritative:** This is similar to the foregoing, but permits some 'upwards' opportunity for consultation, and some delegation. Rewards – as well as threats – might be offered. Productivity is fair to good, but absenteeism and turnover are likely to be high.
- **Consultative:** This is when goals are set or orders are given after discussion with subordinates, when communication is 'upwards' as well as 'downwards', and when teamwork is – at least partially – encouraged. There is some involvement of workers as a motivator. Punctuality is good, and there are only mediocre levels of absenteeism and turnover.
- **Participative:** Likert claims that this is the 'ideal' system. In it the emphasis is on participation, leading to workers' commitment to the organisation's goals, in a fully cooperative way. Communication is good in all directions – up as well down and horizontally. Motivation comes from a variety of means. Productivity is excellent, and absenteeism and turnover are low.

## 6.5 FREDERICK HERZBERG

Herzberg (1959) made a study on 'satisfaction at work'. His study covered 200 engineers and accountants in Pittsburgh, USA, and he came out with 'Motivation – Hygiene Theory'. His study indicated that:

- When people were asked about what they felt to be good about their jobs, they talked about achievement, promotion, recognition, responsibility and the job itself.
- When people were asked about what they felt to be bad about their jobs, they talked about company policies, administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions.

According to this study, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not two sides of the same coin, but they are dissimilar and reflect different aspects of human nature. He identified these aspects as 'motivator' and 'hygiene' factors respectively:

- **Motivators:** According to Herzberg, typical job motivators are:
  - The degree of career achievement;
  - The intellectual challenge of work;
  - Recognition of work by others;
  - The actual value of the work;
  - The actual level of job responsibility; and
  - The opportunity for promotion.
- **Hygiene factors:** Herzberg identified hygiene factors as:
  - The restriction of management policies and procedures;
  - Technical/administrative aspects of supervision;
  - Salary structures;
  - Job conditions;
  - Relationship with management; and
  - Work environment.

Herzberg maintained that the absence of motivators does not lead to dissatisfaction, but merely to lack of job satisfaction. That can be avoided by the continual monitoring and maintenance of working conditions, using a medical analogy: by hygiene factors.

While it is necessary to get the ‘hygiene factors’ right, if management wants to motivate employees then it must – in Herzberg’s view – actually focus attention on their jobs. Management must provide a programme of ‘job enrichment’ (not merely ‘enlargement’ which is essentially a horizontal broadening) for workers which entails a vertical enlargement demanding a wider range of skills and, by inference, greater opportunity for growth. Therefore, management must:

- Remove some controls, while retaining accountability;
- Increase the accountability of individuals for their own work;
- Give a worker the workload with which they can reasonably be expected to cope;
- Give a person as much freedom as possible in their job;
- Make periodic reports directly available to the workers themselves;
- Introduce more and difficult tasks not previously handled;
- Assign individuals a range of specialised tasks enabling them to become experts.

Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory has been generally well-received by practising managers because of relatively simple distinction between factors including positive job satisfaction or those causing reduced job satisfaction. Herzberg suggests that physiological, social, and to some degree, esteem and self-actualisation needs can be satisfied with hygiene factors. The remainder of the esteem and self-actualisation needs can be satisfied with motivators.

## 6.6 PROCESS THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The motivation theories considered above have been labelled ‘content theories’ of motivation because they focus on the needs, or ‘triggers’ of human behaviour in the workplace. On the other hand, there are some ideas which focus mainly on the process of motivation rather than on its content; the theories tend to be called ‘process theories’ of motivation. The best known of these theories is what has been known as ‘Expectancy Theory’.

### 6.6.1 EXPECTANCY THEORY

It was developed by Victor Vroom (1964). This motivation formula is a simple yet powerful one that can be expressed as follows:

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{Valence} \times \text{Expectancy}$$

- **Expectancy:** A perception of the probability that a specific outcome will follow from a specific act is termed expectancy.
- **Instrumentality:** The extent to which the individual perceives that effective performance will lead to desirable rewards.



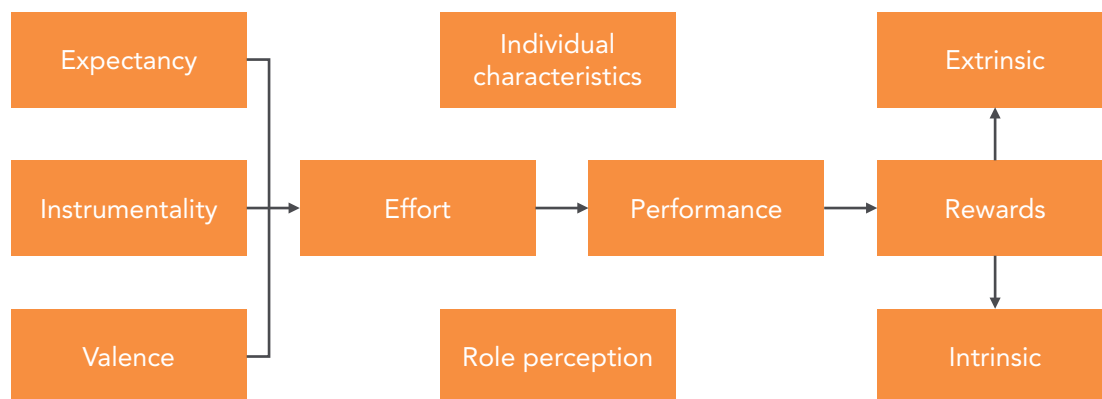



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- **Valence:** A person's preference for a particular outcome can be expressed as a valence. A person who feels attracted towards a goal will strive harder to achieve it.

Vroom has stated that the motivational force of an individual is a function of their valence and expectancy. This motivational model, unlike the Maslow and Herzberg models, stresses individual differences in motivation, and explains how goals influence individual effort. It made the managers to realise that motivation of subordinates will not improve their performance if their ability is low or perceptions of expectations are inaccurate.



**Fig. 6/1** Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The main features of Expectancy Theory are:

- It takes a comprehensive view of the motivational process.
- It indicates that individuals will only act when they have a reasonable expectancy that their behaviour will lead to desired outcomes.
- It stresses the importance of individual perceptions of reality in the motivational process.
- It implies that job satisfaction follows effective performance, rather than the other way around.
- It has led to developments in work redesign, where emphasis has been laid on intrinsic job factors, such as variety, autonomy, task identity and feedback.

### 6.6.2 HANDY'S 'MOTIVATIONAL CALCULUS'

Handy (1976) suggested that for any individual decision there is a conscious or unconscious 'motivational calculus'. This is an assessment by the person based on:

- The individual needs of that person;
- What that person is expected to do; and



- The 'E' factors at work in each situation. The 'E' factors are:
  - Energy
  - Excitement (in achieving)
  - Enthusiasm
  - Emotion
  - Expenditure (of time and money)

The degree of motivation to achieve the desired results depends upon the person's judgment of:

- Their strength of need;
- The expectancy that expending the 'E' factors will lead to a desired result; and
- To what extent the result will be instrumental in satisfying their needs.

Several factors are necessary if the 'calculation' – 'calculus' – is to be completed. The intended results have to be clearly stated so that the person knows exactly what is required, what will be the reward and how much 'E' will be needed. The actual results have to be clearly reported back, so that the person may know about the quality of the performance. They need this information in order to work out how well justified, or otherwise, was the level of 'E' expenditure, for reference in future calculations. This 'feedback' is also needed for building confidence and averting any risk of disaffection or hostility.

Moreover, the model emphasises the strong connection between individual needs and perceptions about likely outcomes, which could be positive or negative.

## 6.7 IMPACT OF MOTIVATION THEORIES

All motivation theories appear to approach motivation as a three-phased phenomenon composed of an individual's desire for something, their perception of the path that will lead to attainment or satisfaction of that desire, and their belief that following the path will ultimately reward them for their efforts. However, one cannot expect an organisation to satisfy the totality of an individual's needs during working hours.

It is the primary duty of employers to provide the right type of motivation to the employees to boost up the production. A motivated workforce means enhanced productivity in any organisation. It is for the leadership to understand the needs of the employees and the benefit of the organisation, and attempt to bring about a balance between the two. A leader who knows how and when to motivate their employees is a leader par excellence.

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He has presented papers at various national and international conferences under the auspices of UNESCO. He has also conducted various workshops for teachers, students, parents and administrators. The topics covered a wide area viz., Leadership and Team Building, Value Education, Administration Skills, Career Choice, Effective Decision Making in Administration, Effective Communication Skills, Interpersonal Relationships, Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation, Skills in Dealing with Managers, Secretarial Skills. He has also authored several books on different subjects.

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