Working Paper

MOTIVATION, LEADERSHIP, AND HUMAN PERFORMANCE

By

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Motivation, Leadership, and Human Performance

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Introduction

Chronic organizational inefficiency caused by poor employee performance in both public and private sector organizations has posed serious challenge for management professionals, social planners and administrators. Two major factors that are often singled out by organizational psychologists to account for poor employee performance and the resulting inefficiency in organizational operations are (a) low work motivation among organizational members and (b) lack of dynamic organizational leadership.

In view of the critical importance of both work motivation and organizational leadership for understanding the bases of organizational performance, these topics have assumed a central position in organizational behaviour research for more than half a century (Fiedler & House, 1988; Kanfer, 1990). In India, research in the area of work motivation has gained more popularity among scholars and has continued for a longer period of time than research in the area of organizational leadership (Ganesh & Rangarajan, 1983; Ganguli, 1971; Padaki, 1988; Rao, 1981; Sinha, 1981). As Ganesh and Rangarajan (1983) observed: ".... leadership as a theme has emerged in the 1970's" (p.358) whereas motivation research as existed in earlier decades.

This review attempts to critically examine and integrate the work of Indian scholars on the topics of motivation and leadership in organizations during the last decade (1983-1993). Because of the centrality of these topics, the literature on them is vast and diverse in content and focus. Length limitation imposed on this review does not permit an exhaustive coverage of the literature. Therefore, the review does not pretend to be complete and all inclusive. It includes selected materials through a sampling of psychologists and management scholars from various institutions in India and their published books and papers in various scholarly journals. Some unpublished reports and doctoral theses have been included because of their valuable contributions to the areas of work motivation and leadership research.

In reviewing the relevant literature in the Indian socio-cultural context, the chapter identifies different streams of research, evaluates the substantive contents explored within each stream, and suggests the directions such research should take in future with a view to making research in these topic areas more contextually relevant and innovative. Before one discusses the major research streams in each of the two areas of motivation and leadership, their contextual relevance and future directions, one needs to have a conceptual framework that can provide an overall perspective on the various research issues identified later in this review. Such a framework shall help interpret motivation and leadership research that otherwise appear too diverse and apparently unrelated.

Developing an integrative framework

Low productivity in an organization may be the result of poor performance of both its rank and file employees and management. The term performance here, refers to one's manifest behaviour at work (see Misra & Kanungo, 1994, for a distinction between the terms 'productivity' and 'performance'). Poor employee performance or dysfunctional work behaviour which results from poor work motivation or poor ability or both may lead to low productivity. Likewise, poor management performance or dysfucntional supervisory or leadership behaviour produces undesirable performance behaviour among subordinate employees which in turn results in low productivity. Low performance of individual employees is thus determined by two sets of major factors: one internal and the other external to the employees. The internal set of factors responsible for poor performance refers to low job ability and/or low work motivation of employees. The external set of factors refers to poor managerial/supervisory and leadership support system practices. Examples of poor leadership/supervisory support system in India are noticed in the form of poor recruitment, placement, and training practices leading to low capability of job holders (Kanungo & Misra, 1985) and inflexible, arbitrary and performance non-contingent reward system practices leading to low work motivation (Kanungo, 1990). This analysis implies that low or high productivity in an organization has to be explained in terms of both employee characteristics (work motivation and performance capability) and management practices (supervisory and leadership support system). However, one needs to recognize the influence of one set of additional overarching factors. Both employee characteristics and management practices in an organization is influenced by the socio-cultural context within which it operates. Therefore, any meaningful analysis of the linkage of productivity to motivation, leadership, and performance has to take into account the influence of the socio-cultural environment (Mendonca & Kanungo, 1990). Figure 1 presents the framework discussed above.

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Figure 1 : Framework to Linking Motivation and Leadership Domains
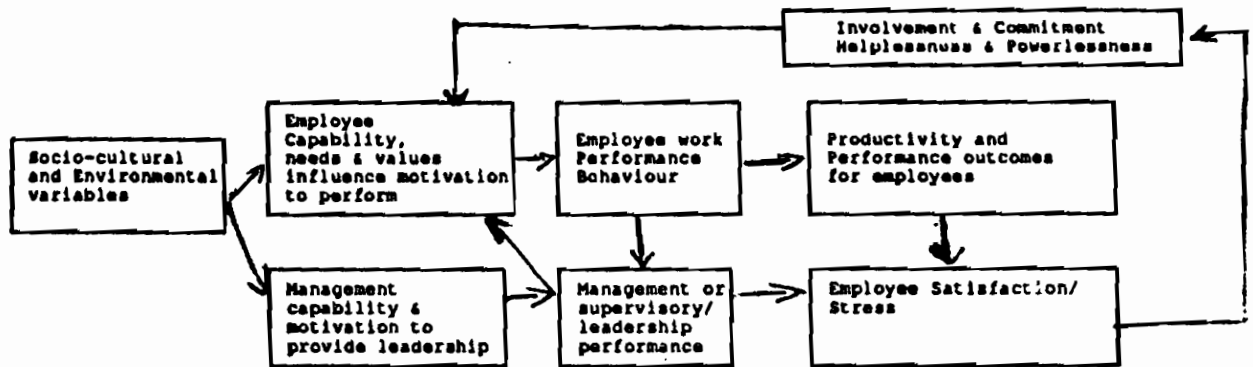
The framework provides the rationale for research into work motivation and leadership areas. It emphasizes the centrality of these topics in OB research. It links them to outcome variables such as employee performance, which, in turn, results in certain performance outcomes (e.g. salary, recognition, etc.) for the employees and productivity output for the organization. Outcomes from the employees' performance behaviour and the way supervisors deal with them generally lead to either positive affective experiences of employees such as job satisfaction, high morale or negative affective experiences of dissatisfaction at work and job stress. Such affective experiences form the basis of employees' job involvement and organizational commitment beliefs, which in turn influences employees' motivation to perform. The framework is intended to assist both researchers and practitioners to comprehend the organizational reality and assess the value of organizational behaviour research and practice reviewed here.

Motivation and Performance

In the organizational context, success in achieving work objectives depends largely on employee motivation to perform work-goal directed behaviour and develop congruent beliefs, attitudes and values. The conditions and process of motivating employees "account for arousal, direction, magnitude, and maintenance of effort in a person's job" (Katzell & Thompson, 1990, p.144). Effort initiation or arousal to perform on the job and to form congruent attitudes and beliefs, directing such effort to achieve work objectives, and sustaining the effort as long as it is functional will depend on appropriate assessment of (a) employee dispositions in terms of needs, and values, and (b) employee attitudes and beliefs based on expectations of meeting individual needs through organizational reward and support systems. // Most research in this area therefore, explores the needs and values of employees, their perceptions of organizational conditions that are designed to satisfy their needs, their job attitudes based on performance outcome experiences, such as satisfaction and stress, and

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consequent beliefs such as involvement, helplessness etc. The relationships among these motivational variables can be seen in Figure 1.

In trying to identify motivational factors that explain work performance in India, psychologists and management scholars have pursued both theoretical (e.g., Misra & Kanungo, 1994) and empirical (e.g., Chadha & Sahni, 1987) approaches. They have studied the influence of numerous personal (e.g., Kandwalla, 1988b), environmental and socio-cultural (e.g., D.Sinha, 1988), organizational (e.g., Dayal, 1992) and job (e.g., Menon, 1994) variables. Sometimes the motivational factors under study have been used as dependent variables or consequences of other factors (e.g., Reddy, 1989) and at other time as independent variable (e.g., Kanungo, 1986a, 1986b) having effects on employee behaviour and attitudes. Considering the diversity of approaches and multiplicity of variables studied, a review of research in the area of motivation can be organized in more ways than one. It is difficult to chose one best way of organizing and classifying all the research materials generated over the past decade. Instead of organizing the materials on the basis of methods, approaches, or variables, we preferred a thematic approach to classifying the contributions of various scholars. Our survey of literature suggested four major thematic streams. The central theme of one group of studies is to analyze the role of needs and values in work motivation. These studies consider needs and values as relatively stable individual dispositions. They explore the correlates as well as the socio-cultural antecedents and motivational consequences of such dispositions. This group of studies has been referred to as need-theoretic studies. The main theme of a second group of studies is to assess the affective outcomes such as, job satisfaction and job stress resulting from the performance of employees. Most of the studies belonging to this category are exploratory, but some of them are theory-driven. The implications of the equity theory of motivation in explaining job satisfaction are tested in the theory driven studies. A third group of studies mainly deal with the theory and measurement of employee beliefs pertaining to job and work involvement and organizational commitment. Finally, there are a number of studies that deal with the topics of helplessness and powerlessness in organizations, the negative facets of the involvement and commitment phenomena. Each of the four categories of studies are related in a way as shown in Figure 1 and are reviewed in the sections that follow.

Need-theoretic studies

To answer the question what motivates performance on the part of organizational members, the need-theoretic approaches identify specific needs and values, and analyze them as internal psychological states pushing the individual to action. Most studies of this type specify the

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Characteristics of such needs, their origin and development, and their implications for organizational behaviour and managerial practices.

In the context of Indian socio-cultural environment, with a history of traditionalism and a current concern for human and economic development, two needs stand out having special significance. They are the need for social achievement (Mehta, 1994) and the pioneering-innovative motive (Khandwalla, 1985). The conceptualization of both the needs are culturally congruent, and somewhat different from need constructs developed by the Western scholars. The formulation of these two need states was triggered by the observed limitations of the usefulness of the need for acheivement (nAch), construct (McClelland, 1961) in the Indian context.

From an analysis of the imagery of workers as reflected in their TAT stories, Mehta (1976) found that these people expressed a concern for social or group achievement. Such an urge to achieve collective goals and interests is different from the urge to achieve personal goals studied by McClelland. This need for social achievement motivates people not only to promote collective interests in the work situation but also to improve conditions and quality of life of the group outside their work context (Chandra & Mehta, 1984; Mehta, 1983, 1989, 1992). Mehta (1994) has identified a number of variables such as environmental deprivations and negative self-concept that act as constraints to the development of high need for social achievement. Mehta and several other scholars have recommended empowerment strategies directed at enhancing one's self and social efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988a; Dreze & Sen, 1989; Kanungo, 1992; Mehta, 1994) as the key to strengthening the need for social achievement.

Realizing the importance of change agentry in a developing country context, Khandwalla (1983, 1985, 1988a, 1988b, 1994) has identified a variant of achievement need critical for innovative and entrepreneurial behaviour. He named this as Pioneering Innovative motive, PI: As in the previous work of Pareek (1968) and Mehta (1976) on identifying and highlighting the role of the extension or altruistic motive and the social achievement motive in Indian organizations, Khandwalla's studies demonstrate the importance of the PI motive by providing both its conceptual base and operational measures. Although he reports high reliability and validity of the PI motive measure (Jacob, 1990; Khandwalla, 1994), these studies are exploratory attempts at establishing the psychometric properties of the PI motive measures. It is important that future studies in the area of need assessment use large samples and more rigorous statistical methods to estimate the reliabilities

l validities of the measures. Meier (1993) has suggested some recent advances in the psychological measurement field that could be profitably used in future need assessment studies.

Pursuing a need theoretic approach, Pareek (1983a, 1986, 1989, 1993) introduced the concept of role and role stress to explain the work-motivation dynamics in organizations. Pareek (1974) saw the need for introducing the concept of work roles to highlight the nature of the psychological interaction between the needs of the worker and the constraints and opportunities offered by organizations for the satisfaction of worker needs. Pareek (1987) has argued in favour of shifting the emphasis from motivating 'individuals' to motivating 'work roles'. He recommends designing the roles in a way that role expectations of workers and managers are integrated. According to Pareek, when expectations are integrated through supportive organizational climate, one achieves role efficacy. On the other hand, severe role-stress caused by unfavourable organizational climate contributes to demotivation of workers.

Pareek (1983b) has developed questionnaire measures of work role stress. On these measures, high role efficacy has been found to go with low role stress (Sen, 1982), high sense of self-reliance (Surti, 1983; Sayeed, 1992), more goal-directedness and persistence in problem-solving behaviour (Surti, 1983). Role-efficacy is also related to supervisory behaviour (Gupta & Khandelwal, 1988) and participative organizational climate (Surti, 1983).

In his role motivation model, Pareek (1989) identifies six major needs of workers (achievement, affiliation, expert influence, control, extension, and dependency) relevant in the Indian context and twelve organizational climate dimensions. He also provides a matrix to diagnose the motivational climate of an organization. Pareek's model promises to be an enterprising scheme for both academics and practitioners. The model may have some heuristic value for the diagnosis of organizational climate responsible for the development of various needs, but it lacks precision in both conceptualization and operationalization. More rigorous work needs to be done before one can determine the scientific validity of the model.

Several studies (Rajsekehar & Reddy, 1991; Reddy & Venkateshwarlu, 1989; Ushasree 1989) on motivation have explored the linkages of demographic variables such as gender, age, experience, urban/rural etc. with work values of employees as measured by existing value inventory scales (e.g. Super, 1970). Both the concepts of needs and work values have motivational implications. Needs refer to internal drive states that initiate work behaviour. Work values represent cognitive beliefs or

mental states of preference for outcomes of work behaviour such as achievement, security, prestige, etc. Both internal needs and personal preferences of goals drive an employee to actions. However, the work value studies cited above are exploratory in nature and provide information of limited usefulness. Without any theoretical orientation, these studies have minimal impact on both researchers and practitioners in this area.

Satisfaction, stress, and equity studies

The flow chart presented in Figure 1 suggests that work motivation research can take different perspectives. Some researchers explore the roles of needs and values (as individual dispositions) to explain why workers perform the way they do, and others explore the roles of job attitudes and beliefs formed as a consequence of experiencing personal outcomes of one's performance to explain the motivational phenomenon. This section reviews the studies that deal with the correlates, causes and consequences of two important job attitudes: job satisfaction and job stress.

Continuing the past motivation research tradition in India (Ganesh & Rangarajan, 1983; Padaki, 1988) numerous studies on job satisfaction have appeared in the last decade. Most of these studies have examined the relationship of various demographic variables to job satisfaction. Some of the demographic variables studied are: age (Agarwala & Chadha, 1987; Chadha & Kaur, 1987; Gopikumar, 1983; Rajasekhar et al, 1991; Reddy, 1989; Ushasree, 1989b,c) education (Agarwala & Chadha, 1987), gender (Rajasekhar, 1991; Reddy, 1989; Rani & Reddy, 1990), tenure (Agarwala & Chadha, 1987; Chadha & Kaur, 1987; Reddy, 1989), social, professional and job status (Chadha & Kaur, 1987; Chandraiah & Ushasree, 1990; Rajasekhar & Reddy, 1991; Reddy 1988; Ushasree 1989b) and public/private sector of employment (Achamamba & Gopikumar, 1989; Chadha, 1989; Chadha & Rama, 1991; Chadha & Sharma, 1991).

Besides demographic variables, relationship of a number of personality and dispositional variables to job satisfaction has also been reported. The dispositional variables studied are: locus of control (Achamamba & Gopikumar, 1989; Chandraiah & Ushasree, 1990; Gopikumar, 1988; Rani & Reddy, 1989, 1990; Reddy, 1989), need strength (Singh 1988), self-regard (Gopikumar, 1993; Ushasree, 1989c), skill level (Reddy 1988), and adjustment level (Rani & Reddy, 1989).

As in the studies on job satisfaction cited above, a number of studies have explored the relationship of factors causing job stress such as role ambiguity and conflict to personal demographic and situational (task, organizational and occupation related) variables. Personal variables studied are

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age, education, tenure and personality dispositions (Ananda et al, 1990; Madhu & Ananda, 1989; Reddy & Ramamurti, 1989, 1990, 1991, 1992). Among situational variables, the role of task and feedback ambiguity and organizational factors such as formalization, centralization, control, division of labour and interpersonal climate have been studied (Anada Rao, 1990, 1992; Anada et al, 1990). Some studies have explored the relationship of job satisfaction to job stress and organizational climate variables (Mishra, 1988; Pandey, 1984; Sastry & Pandey, 1990). A few have also examined the relationship of role stress and satisfaction variables with mental health measures of blue collar as well as white collar employees (Ahmed & Razzack, 1983; Srivastava, 1988).

Departing from the correlational and atheoretical studies in this area, R. Singh (1975) tested the two-factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) wherein context and content factors on the job are presumed to produce qualitatively different effects on satisfaction of the respondent. He manipulated context and content factors in factorial design. Contrary to the prediction of the two-factor theory, the context and content factors produced qualitatively similar effects. So the author argued for the traditional theory and against the two-factor theory. The foregoing conclusion was further tested by Dalal and Singh (1986). In two experiments on engineering students, the authors demonstrated that the job factors are averaged together in job satisfaction of most of the individual subjects. They suggested a practical implication of their averaging result: They suggested that adding a minor fringe benefit, positive in itself, may actually decrease job satisfaction. Addition of any new job outcome to the set of already existing ones cannot be always expected to raise job satisfaction of each and every employee. If the new outcome is of moderate value, averaging it in would make the dissatisfied employees less dissatisfied but would make the satisfied employees less satisfied. Unless the new job outcome has its value higher than the value of other job outcomes already there, the introduced change may actually result in dissatisfaction among the previously satisfied employees.

With the exception of the above studies, most of the studies in the area of job satisfaction and job stress lack theoretical base. Naturally, therefore, the researchers cannot provide rationale for why the variables studied should or should not be related (e.g., Should tenure be related to job satisfaction? Under what condition it should or should not be related?). Sometimes it is argued that the "studies are useful to understand what the work force demands from the job. Based on this knowledge organizations can evolve strategies to motivate employees" (Padaki, 1988, p.24). Although valid and conclusive information on job satisfaction and stress can be useful to organizations to motivate employees, such information cannot be obtained when studies are not theory-driven.

An interesting example of theory-driven research in the area of satisfaction with job outcomes can be found in the works of Murphy-Berman et al (1984), Berman et al and Pandey and Singh (1989). These researchers have tested the implications of equity theory of motivation (Adams, 1965) to explain satisfaction with work outcomes in the Indian socio-cultural context. Equity theory suggests that satisfaction with outcomes is based on the proportionality between an individual's inputs (in terms of effort expenditure, actual performance and other relevant resources) and his outcomes. Following this equity principle, managers have been advised to motivate employees by dispensing rewards on the basis of employee's contribution to their jobs. The principle of equity has often been hypothesized as the only appropriate distributive justice principle (Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1978). This hypothesis has not been supported in the studies conducted in India. The Indian results suggest that socio-cultural factors play a significant role in determining the extent to which equity based reward distribution can explain satisfaction with outcomes. For instance, Murphy-Berman et al (1984) found that Indian respondents preferred reward distribution more on the basis of needs than on the basis of merit. American respondents behaved in the opposite way. Similar results were obtained in another study by Berman et al (1985), who explained the results in terms of the Indian cultural norms of protecting the weak and the needy. In yet another series of theory driven studies, R.Singh and his associates (Singh, 1983; Singh, 1988; Singh & Bhargava, 1985, 1986; Singh & Mehta, 1988; Srivastava & Singh, 1988) attempted to study how people integrate information about motivation and ability of a person when they predict his or her performance? Essentially, they were studying performance cognition among Indian subjects who were students as well as practising managers. These studies, in the main, consistently found substantial support for the well-known ratio rule (Adams, 1965) in the division of rewards. Interestingly, whereas managers always followed the theoretical ratio rule; studens sometimes followed the ratio rule and at other times difference rules were viable cognitive algebra for equity judgments (Anderson, 1981). In India causal beliefs about how motivation and ability determine performance are very sensitive to age, culture, and experience of the subjects as well as the nature and difficulty of the task. According to Singh, predictions by Indians generally conform to the egalitarian belief; those by Americans conform sometimes to the elitist belief and sometimes to the "Horatio Alger belief" that by trying hard anyone can succeed.

This type of research is very desirable for two reasons. First, it tests the cross-cultural validity of established theories of motivation. Second, it provides context-relevant guidelines for motivational practices.

Involvement and Commitment Studies

Kanungo (1982a, 1986a) suggested that employees' experience of need satisfaction at work results in the their perception of the future potential of work to satisfy salient needs which, in turn, creates the cognitive beliefs of involvement and commitment. Lack of satisfaction of needs through work behaviour however may result in the cognitive belief states of powerlessness and helplessness at work. Studies dealing with powerlessness and helplessness are reviewed in the next section.

Following the introduction and operationalization of the concept of job involvement by Lodahl and Kejner (1965), numerous studies and treatise (e.g. Misra 1978) have explored the causes, consequences, and correlates of the concept as a motivational variable. Lodahl and Kejner defined job involvement as both a form of psychological identification with the job and the experience of self-esteem need satisfaction on the job. The items in their questionnaire measure reflected both the meanings of the construct mentioned above. Kanungo (1982a, 1982b, 1983) questioned the construct validity of the Lodahl and Kejner definition and operationalization on the ground of confusing several issues. First, they confused the issues of intrinsic motivation and involvement by defining involvement in two ways. Second, they confused the issues of job satisfaction and involvement by including job satisfaction items in their measure. Job satisfaction is an end result attitudinal or affect variable and is a causal cognitive belief variable. Finally, they failed to distinguish between involvement in job and in work. The two contexts, the present job and work in general are different and distinct. In view of such construct validity problems associated with the earlier formulation of job involvement, Kanungo proposed for a reformulation (1981, 1982a) of the construct. He defined the construct of involvement as a cognitive belief state of psychological identification with a given context that results from the perception of the need satisfying potential of the context. Kanungo and his associates (Kanungo, 1982b; Kanungo & Misra, 1985; Misra et al, 1988; Misra, Ghosh & Kanungo, 1990) have tested the implications of the reformulated model and have developed sound psychometric measures of involvement in job, work, and family contexts using Indian samples.

Both Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Kanungo (1982a, 1982b) scales have been used by researchers working on job and work involvement during the last decade. For example, Chadha and his associates have used Lodahl and Kejner scale to explore the relationship between involvement and background characteristics such as age, qualification, tenure, salary, number of dependents, and distance of job from residence (Agarwala & Chadha, 1987; Chadha & Kaur, 1987; Sahni & Chadha, 1991). In another study, they examined the relationship of involvement to psychological variables such as tolerance for ambiguity, intrinsic motivation, locus of control and self-esteem (Chadha &

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Sahni, 1987).   Some other researchers (Achamamba & Gopikumar, 1990; Babu & Reddy, 1990; Gopikumar, 1988; Mathur & Mehra, 1991) have also used the Lodahl and Kejner scale in their studies on job involvement.   In view of the cosntruct validity problems associated the scale as stated earlier, the conclusions from the above studies are questionable.

Other studies used the Kanungo (1982a, b) scales.   Jayashree and Sahoo (1990) showed that androgynous people (both male and female) experience higher work involvement presumably because of greater flexibility in their sex-role behaviour.   This is an interesting variable worthy of further exploration with respect to its relationship to both work and job involvement.   Reddy and his associates (Babu & Reddy, 1990; Rajasekhar & Reddy, 1991; Reddy, 1989) reported a number of studies exploring the correlates of both job and work involvement.   Some of the correlates are demographic variables such as age, sex, education, marital status, salary, number of dependents, seniority and job status   Several individual disposition variables have also been explored as correlates. These variables are skill level (Reddy, 1988), locus of control (Rani & Reddy, 1989, 1990; Reddy, 1989), work ethic and religious orientation (Babu & Reddy, 1989).

Most of the studies of job and work involvement are largely exploratory in nature, without being theory-driven.   It appears that availability of measuring instruments drives research in India. But what is really needed is theory-driven systematic research that can identify specific conditions that cause job and work involvement and specific effects these belief states have on the effort and performance levels of Indian workers.

Over the last decade, one notices an increasing interest in studying organizational commitment as a motivational variable.   The interest has been generated and sustained by Balaji (1984, 1985, 1986, 1988, 1992a, 1992b) and his associates (Pandey, 1984; Sood & Balaji, 1992; Balaji & Sood 1992; Reddy, 1985).   Most of these studies are theory-driven and overall they represent a set of programmatic research into defining, measuring and relating organizational commitment to other personal and organizational variables as well as to other work beliefs and attitudes.   For instance, Balaji (1986) provided a critique of the work of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) on organizational commitment and questioned the validity of their instrument.   He then went on to define organizational commitment as an affective or attitudinal state rather than a belief state and developed an instrument to measure commitment in the Indian context.   This instrument has been utilized in several studies cited earlier.   A closer look at Balaji's commitment scale, however, indicates problems with its construct validity.   For instance, most of the items in his scale are belief rather than attitude

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statements (For example, the item "I feel that I am responsible for whatever happens to my organization - good or bad" is a belief statement. The item does not state whether I like or dislike being responsible for whatever happens to my organization (an attitude statement). It merely states that "I am responsible", which is a belief rather than an attitudinal statement. Furthermore, as Balaji himself recognizes, rigorous validation studies are needed before one can place confidence both in the measure itself and in the results of the studies using the measure.

Finally, one other promising area of research that was initiated but has not been pursued further is the study of 'work dedication' (Naganandakumar, 1986) as a motivational variable. Dedication to work as a construct belong to the same group of normative values such as work involvement/ alienation, commitment/dereliction and the like. Naganandakumar has done a very credible job of identifying and defining, theorizing and measuring the construct in the Indian context. Work dedication is viewed by him as a dispositional state of the employee to "volitionally engage in affectively unpleasant and non-rewarding but organziationally relevant behaviour being controlled by cognitions of doing what is appropriate for the organization" (p.73). He has also provided an instrument that requires further validation in future research. In fact, his work opens up a research gold mine for future exploration. The relevance of this research in the Indian socio-cultural context that places high value on duty and obligations cannot be over emphasized. This line of research in India can contribute toward developing indigenous theories about prosocial organizational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), organizational citizenship (Organ, 1988), and corporate altruism (Kanungo & Conger, 1993).

Helplessness and powerlessness studies

Involvement, commitment, dedication at work describe a set of positive belief states that enhance worker motivation to perform. However, there are conditions under which workers may hold negative beliefs such as helplessness and powerlessness in the work context. Studies dealing with these constructs as variables causing motivational deficits and passivity are reviewed in this section.

Nearly a quarter of a century has elapsed since Overmier and Seligman (1976) observed that dogs repeatedly exposed to inescaple electric shocks administered at unpredictable times eventually discontinued their efforts to escape even after the experimental situation was changed, making escape possible. Overmier and Seligman's explanation for the dogs' passive behaviours was: the dogs had learned that the shock was independent of (or non-contingent upon) their behaviour and that this expectancy transferred to new situations wherein shocks were, in fact, escapable and unavoidable, thus

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inhibiting adaptive escape responses and learning. This passive maladaptive response syndrome was termed "learned helplessness" (LH). When applied to humans, the LH hypothesis contends that individuals demonstrate emotional, cognitive, and motivational deficits when presented with uncontrollable events. The motivational deficit consists of retarded initiation of deliberate responses, the cognitive deficit consists of a subsequent failure to learn that actions can produce results, and the emotional deficit is the consequent depressed affect due to LH.

Considerable progress in theory and research exploring the LH phenomenon in humans has been made under the rubric of attribution theory. The attributional analysis of the LH model (Abramson, Seligman and Teasdale, 1978; Miller and Norman, 1979) contends that the degree to which LH is experienced by individuals is dependent on the attributions they make for the noncontingency between their responses and present outcomes. Furthermore, the extent to which expectations of present response-outcome noncontingency would be transformed into an expectation of future non-contingency depends upon combination of three categories of attributional dimensions: internal-external, stable-unstable, and global-specific. Most commonly, the cognitive states of helplessness are found to result from recurrent attributions of failure that are characterized as internal (resides in the person), stable (over time), and global (across situations).

Research in the Indian context, focussing on implications of the LH model for motivation and performance deficit, is recent and at an embryonic stage. Researchers have started to study the helplessness phenomenon in three distinct contexts: family, education, and work. Sahoo and his associates (Sahoo & Mohapatra, 1986; Sahoo & Sia, 1988; Sia, 1989) have identified origins of helplessness among children and adolescents in family socialization practices. In their studies they have developed helplessness syndrome among children.

In the context of education, Pestonjee and Reddy (1988) developed a 24-item scale to tap the variety of attributions made by students for noncontingent resposne-outcome situations. Singhal (1990) and Singhal and Kanungo (1992) explored the nature of LH as a cognitive disposition among university students in India and Canada, and tried to develop reliable and valid measures of LH in both countries. Several predictions derived from the original LH model with respect to the relationship of student helplessness to their emotional and motivational deficits concerning life at university were tested. Their helplesness measures were found to have acceptable convergent and discriminant validity.

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A study by Balakrishnan (1990) is by far the mot comprehensive to date in terms of its conceptual clarity, methodological rigour, and potential for research generation in the area of LH in organizations. Balakrishnan verified learned helplessness in executives and students. He not only constructed a reliable scale which parsimoniously measures the cognitive state of learned helplessness but also tested several hypotheses about the relationship of the cognitive state of learned helplessness with its antecedents, consequences, attributional explanations and related constructs. Furthermore, he identified demographic and organizational variables closely related to learned helplessness.

Three primary scales were developed: They were the learned helplessness scale, the belief of response outcome independence scale (antecedent of learned helplessness), and the emotional and motivational deficit scale (consequences of learned helplessness). The study indicated that learned helplessness is prevalent in organizations. The 13-item learned helplessness scale which emerged from the study had adequate reliability, and was multidimensional. Test of hypotheses revealed adequate criterion-related concurrent validity and convergent validity. The hypotheses about the relationship between learned helplessness and causal attributions did not get adequate support. Most demographic variables did not correlate with learned helplessness. Some aspects of the nature of work of executives had a significant relationship with learned helplessness. Most recently, Chawla (1994) has extended Balakrishnan's work to study the interaction between individual and work role characteristics vis-a-vis learned helplessness among bank managers.

Several researchers have theorized that the psychological state of helplessness at work is related to a sense of powerlessness and work alienation (Ashforth, 1989; Conger & Kanungo, 1988a; Kanungo, 1982b). Lack of control of desired outcomes through one's influence and performance (powerlessness) leads to helplessness which, in turn, leads to alienation. Conversely, perceived control and influence (feeling powerful and self efficacious) over outcomes eliminates helplessness and provides need satisfaction, leading to work involvement. For such hypothesized relationships, the 'powerlessness' construct has been explored as a motivational variable.

Conger and Kanungo (1988a) have provided an extensive list of variables that can lead to perceived powerlessness. In the Indian context, a beginning of research in this area is noticed. For instance, Singh (1989) observed that nationalization, lack of discipline among workers, and lack of an effective work culture can cause erosion of managerial authority, which in turn can result in perceived powerlessness among managers. Singh-Sengupta and Sinha (1991) suggest that authority to reward and punish can increase a manager's perception of being more powerful. Other factors related to

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perceived powerlessness among Indian managers are (a) defiant subordinates who are young and resit blind compliance, (b)lack of support from upper management, (c) manager's use of position and coercive power over subordinates (Singh-Sengupta, 1991), and underutilized middle level managements (Ramnarayan, 1993; Singh, 1991).

In the Indian context, the experiences of helplessness and powerlessness among the members of organizations are quite common. Understanding the nature of such a pervasive phenomenon is of critical importance, considering the crippling effect it has on motivation and performance. Future research efforts should be devoted to developing instruments to measure the phenomenon in different contexts, identifying the antecedent conditions that promote such psychological states, and developing appropriate strategies to reduce their impact on motivation and performance.

Leadership and Influence

Supervisory and leadership practices of managers can have significant influence on employee motivation, performance and satisfaction (see Figure 1). For this reason, leadership and supervision in organizations has been the focus of both theoretical and empirical analysis (e.g., Ansari, 1990; Hassan, 1989; Kanungo & Conger, 1992; Sinha, 1990; Singh & Bhandarkar, 1990). Although research in leadership and supervision has taken many directions, the most popular approach has been to focus on (a) leadership role behaviours or styles of leadership and (b) study of leadership as a social influence process. Studies of leadership role behaviours emphasize on identifying and measuring the various dimensions of leadership and superviosry behaviours and on specifying conditions under which these various forms of behaviour are effective. Studies of leadership as an influence process emphasize on various influence strategies and tactics that leaders use to induce follower compliance (with leader directives) and commitment (to achieve organizational goals). These two categories of studies in India are reviewed in the following sections.

Studies on Leadership roles/styles

Early classic laboratory studies of leadership behaviour in small groups (Bales & Slater, 1955; Lippitt & White, 1947) and later follow up field studies of supervision in organizations (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl 1989) have converged in identifying three major leadership role behaviours: Task role (initiating structure), social or people role (consideration or nurturance) and participative role (decision-centralization). A later development in leadership research in the last two decades has identified a fourth role-the chrismatic or transformational leadership role in organizations (Conger &

Kanungo, 1988b). Leadership research in India primarily centres around studying the nature of these five types of leadership roles.

Task, nurturant and participative leadership studies

The internal work culture of Indian organizations is characterized by employee preference for a personalized and dependent relationship with the leader. In this type of work context, Sinha (1980, 1984) argued that a nurturant-task leader is most effective in achieving task objectives. According to Sinha, a nurturant leader is one who shows consideration for subordinates, but a nurturant-task leader is one who makes his nurturance contingent on subordinates' task performance. Following this early formulation of the nurturant-task role, Sinha and his associates (Ansari, 1987; Hassan, 1985; Sinha 1984; Sinha et al, 1989; Sinha & Sinha, 1984) have reported a number of studies relating the nurturant-task role to participative and authoritarian styles of leadership. Furthermore, in a more recent work, Sinha (1990) has proposed a dynamic developmental perspective to explain the effectiveness of leadership styles in Indian organizations. According to this perspective, one objective of an effective leader is to create self-controlling autonomous work groups. In order to achieve this objective, the leadership roles progress gradually over a period of time from nurturant-task at the initial stage to participative at the end. Sinha (1990) has provided some evidence to substantiate this developmental model. However, the model requires further empirical validation. As Sinha (1990) himself has pointed out, external validity for the model must come from longitudinal studies in organizational settings.

There are several studies that relate leadership roles to control or influence strategies on the one hand and organization and personal consequence variables on the other. For instance, Hassan (1987) related eleven leadership roles including task, nurturant and participative roles to modes of experiencing power in organizations. Singh (1990) related the influence strategies used by subordinates to authoritarian, participative and task-nurturant styles of leadership. Pandey and Singh (1986) related participative authoritarian and authoritative leadership roles to eight different control strategies and to organizational commitment and need satisfaction. Hassan (1990) explored the relationship of several personal (e.g. beliefs and preferences) and organizational (e.g., organizational control, job characteristics) variables to ladership styles. These types of studies dealing with the identification of correlates of leadership roles appear mostly exploratory in nature. However, the development of a more programmatic approach to link leadership styles to influence strategies has been attempted by Ansari and his associates (Ansari, 1988; 1990; Ansari, Kapoor, & Rehana, 1984; Ansari, Tandon, & Lakhtakia, 1989). Ansari (1990) essentially agrees with Sinha (1990) that within

the context of Indian work culture, the nurturant-task role is the most effective form of leadership behaviour and that a unidimensional authoritarian-democratic role behaviours is an inadequate model for predicting leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, Ansari provides a two-step causal model in which leadership style or role one adopts is the consequence of his/her bases of power and the antecedents of the influence strategies he/she uses. Ansari's work provides an initial attempt at developing a framework to study leadership influence process. He also provides some empirical evidence on the causes and consequences of leadership styles. This could easily trigger further validation studies and future theoretical debates on the issue.

Charismatic/tranformational leadership

Interest in the study of charismatic leadership in organziations is of recent origin (see Conger & Kanungo, 1988b for a comprehensive review of this literature). Earlier emphasis on the task, people and participative roles of the leader largely emphasized the supervisory and the maintenance (of status quo) behaviours of managers. Such emphases ignored certain core aspects of leadership behaviour such as bringing about organizational change through a leader's future vision, formulation and articulation of goals, and building trust and credibility in the minds of followers. It is these types of leader behaviour that comprise the charismatic leadership role (Kanungo & Conger, 1992). Kanungo & Conger (1994) has argued that since charismatic leadership in its essence is proactive, entrepreneurial, and change oriented, it is better suited to the needs for change in a developing country like India. Conger and Kanungo (1992, 1994) have developed questionnaire measures of the various dimensions of charismatic leadership. This type of measure can be adapted and used for diagnostic and training purposes in Indian organizations.

Research on charismatic leadership has been initiated in India through the efforts of Singh and Bhandarkar (1990). Recognizing the importance of transformational leadership in Indian organization, Singh and Bhandarkar have done a thorough job of identifying the transformational leadership styles and value profiles of these leaders in Indian organizations. They reported value profiles of these leaders from both leaders themselves (self perceptions) and their followers (followers' perceptions). Commonality of the two types of profiles attest to the criterion validity of their measures. Besides, in developing their approach to charismatic/ transformational leadership role in Indian organizations, they have organzied the role of the Indian socio-cultural context (e.g., such leadership role is viewed as a Karta role in Kutumb culture). Their study should serve as an example worth pursuing in the much needed context relevant future research in this area.

As stated earlier, charismatic/transformational leadership role is proactive and entrepreneurial in nature. In a developing country like India, this types of role is essential to the creation and building of institutions. Research to understand the nature of transformational leadership role in institution building is rarely reported. One exception is the work of Ganesh and Joshi (1985). Their analysis of Vikram Sarabhai's transformational leadership style in institution building led them to identify several guiding strategies such as networking, trusting and caring. These strategies translate into identifiable and multiple roles played by a leader trying to build an institution. One cannot overemphasize the importance of this type of work in the Indian context.

Studies on influence process and strategies

As mentioned earlier, our understanding of the leadership in organizations comes not only from the studies of leadership roles or styles but also from the studies of the phenomenon as an influence process. As Ansari (1990) pointed out, leadership should be studied not only as an undirectional influence process (i.e., leader influencing followers) but also as a reciprocal influence process (followers influencing leaders as well). Managers in their leadership roles use influence strategies to gain power over subordinates. Subordinates also use various strategies to influence managers occupying leadership positions. Thus the issue of influence strategies to gain power or control over others in organizations is intimately connected to the issue of leadership. In dealing with this issue, Ansari has identified seven sources or bases of power and ten different power or influence strategies. He has also distinguished between upward and downward influence strategies. In his model he tries to connect leadership styles (five of them) to both power sources and influence strategies. Unfortunately, Ansari does not deal directly with the nature of the influence process per se or the underlying psychological dynamics of the process. He only deals with the leader's perceptions of various styles, power sources and strategies.

Sinha and his associates (Singh, 1985; Sinha, 1986, 1990, 1994; Singh-Sengupta, 1990a,b; Singh-Sengupta,1990a,b; Sinha & Singh-Sengupta, 1991) have extensively studied the power-dynamics of superior-subordinate relationships in the Indian context. According to Sinha (1994), the presence of pervasive poverty in society, close and continuous social interaction among organizational members, hierarchical social structure and centralized authority structure in organization jointly contribute to a strong need for power among managers and a strong need for security among subordinates. These needs are manifested in a reciprocal influence process that is characterized by paternalism and nurturance on the part of supervisors and dependence and deference on the part of subordinates (also see Pandey, 1989; Virmani & Guptan, 1991).

Consideration of reciprocal influence process in superior-subordinate relationships, has led to a number of studies on a variety of influence strategies that superiors and subordinates use for gaining power and influence over each other. For instance, Ansari (1990) and Singh-Sengupta (1990a) have noticed that task oriented managers often use expertise, reason and personalized help as tactics for influence. While dealing with superiors, ingratiation techniques are very frequently used by subordinates (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Biswas, 1991; Singh-Sengupta, 1990a). But the use of the various influence strategies appears to be moderated by leadership styles, bases of power and organizational climate (Ansari 1990, Pandey & Singh, 1988; Singh-Sengupta, 1991; Sinha, 1993).

Among the various influence strategies studied in the Indian context, the strategy of ingratiation has received most attention. Pandey and his associates have not only identified the various components of ingratiating behaviours such as opinion conformity, self-enhancement, other enhancement, name dropping, etc. (Bohra & Pandey, 1984b; Pandey, 1981) but also systematically explored correlates, the antecedent conditions, and the effects of such behaviours on both the ingratiator and the target of ingratiation (Bohra & Pandey, 1984a, b; Kakkar & Pandey 1982; Pandey & Singh, 1986; Pandey & Singh, 1987). Studies by Bohra and Pandey (1984a, 1984b; 1986a) have identified several environmental conditions that are conductive to the use of ingratiating behaviour to gain influence. Other studies (Bohra & Pandey, 1986b; Kakkar & Pandey, 1982) have reported the effects of ingratiating behaviour on the target's reactions to the ingratiator. These studies are good examples of systematic and programmatic explorations into the nature of one type of influence strategy. Similar explorations into the nature of other influence strategies are called for in this area.

Developing future research agenda

In their 'state-of-art' review of organizational behaviour research in India, Ganesh and Rangarajan (1983) concluded:

> Most Indian studies are fragmented, narrow in conception and cross sectional. Most degenerate into pedestrain platitudes when, if at all, they address the 'why' of relationships that have been found.... Cumulative work is rare..... Theorizing is the exception rather than the rule" (p.370).

In another review of literature (between 1977 and 1984), Padaki (1988) observed two major shortcomings: (a) the absence of a clearly posited theoretical frame within which an investigation is

pursued ... and (b) their ad hoc nature, with neither a background of findings and insights to fall back upon, nor a follow-up leads provided.

Are these observations applicable to the studies covered in this review? The answer is both 'yes' and 'no'. Most of the studies on work motivation, particularly in the areas of job statisfaction, job stress, job and work involvement are adhoc, fragmented, and non-programmatic. They are exploratory without a theoretical base and largely cross-sectional. On the other hand, there are evidences of programmatic and theory driven research in the area of need-theoretic studies, commitment studies and helplessness/ powerlessness studies. Several studies on leadership and influence strategies appear programmatic and theory driven. On the basis of the literature during the last decade, one can conclude that research in India on motivation and leadership is beginning to reflect theory based programmatic flavour.

Ganesh and Rangarajan (1983) were disappointed with the lack of indigenous approaches to organizational behaviour issues in India and with a dependence of Indian researchers on theories and models developed in the West. The unhealthy state of research, they argued, can only be eradicated by making research contextually relevant and inventing "a future for itself and work toward it, rather than be left looking backward and outward at developments abroad for its guide" (p.371). This issue of outgrowing the alien Euro-American framework has also been recently emphasized by many other Indian scholars who have argued in favour of context-relevant and problem oriented research, and indigenisation of psychological theories (Kanungo & Jaeger 1990, Pandey, 1988; Sinha, 1990). How do the studies covered in this review stand the test of indigenisation? Here again, it appears that most of the research in the area of leadership and influence strategies will pass the test whereas most of the fragmented and non-programmatic exploratory research in the area of motivation will fail. But it is encouraging to see the emergence of indigenous frameworks in many areas of motivation and leadership research cited in this review.

In the preceding sections of this review we alluded to several potential areas of future research. We will briefly list them here.

1. Indigenous frameworks for understanding worker needs and values in the Indian context have to be developed. A good start in this regard is seen in research attempts devoted to the Pioneering Innovative motive and the social achievement motive. Similar attempts need to be made in the area of both power and affiliation motives. The behavioural manifestations

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of the power and affiliation motives and the psychological processes underlying their development in the Indian context have to be explored.

2. Future studies on work values have to be grounded in indigenous theories. Values-inventories have to be developed in the Indian socio-cultural context. What Indian workers value may be different from the norms and values of workers in the Western world.

3. Future research efforts in India must be directed to establish cross-cultural validation of several motivational theories and techniques developed in the West, such as goal-setting (Locke & Latham, 1984), expectancy (Lawler, 1973), job characteristic (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), etc.

4. Alienation and involvement should be studied in various organizational and social contexts such as, work, family, religion, politics, etc. How alienation and involvement in different work and non-work contexts are related to one another need to be explored. Implications of theoretical frameworks in this area (e.g., Kanungo & Misra, 1984) need to be tested in future empirical studies. Likewise future studies on organizational commitment should test various theoretical positions advanced in this area (e.g., Meyers & Allen, 1984).

5. Considering the importance of work values such as 'Dharma', 'Duty', 'Work Dedication' etc. in the Indian context, research attempts should be made to formulate conceptual frameworks to understand the motivation behind prosocial, moral, and citizenship behaviours in the Indian organizations.

6. In the area of leadership and influence process, programmatic studies should be conducted to (a) identify conditions that promote helplessness and powerlessness, among organizational members and (b) suggest strategies of empowering them to develop greater sense of perceived control.

7. Future research on leadership should extend the existing interest in task, nurturant and authoritarian roles in work contexts, to institution building, and charismatic/ transformational roles in work as well as other social context (e.g., religion, politics etc.).

Conclusion

In developing future research programmes in India in the areas of motivation and leadership, it would be useful if the researchers keep the following guiding principles in mind. First, research in order to be meaningful must be theory-driven. It should select variables for study based on sound theoretical rationale. It should say why variables under study are related on unrelated based on theoretical propositions. Second, research must be programmatic and not fragmented or isolated in relation to the body of literature on a given issue. Programmatic research implies exploring an issue in depth capturing the nature of the variables and establishing a nomothetic network for them. Third, research dealing with measurement of variables must demonstrate construct and criterion related validities. Explorations into the relationships of a given variable to other variables should not begin until the constructs and their measures have established reliabilities and validities. Finally, indigenous approaches to problems and measuring instruments developed in Indian context are the prerequisites for research in India. Following these guidelines in future research would not only improve the overall scientific standards of the studies reported on work motivation and organizational leadership in India but also provide a coherent body of knowledge that would promote our understanding of the phenomena and help practicing managers to improve the quality of work life of employees.

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