CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will focus on the literature review for the study and will discuss the following points: general introduction, differences between leadership and management, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model which focuses on the task and relationship behaviours of leaders and the maturity level of employees, leadership styles as used in organisations, motivation theories as used in organisations, and the applicability of the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model to the organisation under investigation.

2.1   Introduction

Organisations of one form or another are an essential part of our society and serve many important needs, for instance the need for employment.   They compete openly to gain a competitive advantage over others and to reach their core objective, which is enhancing productivity and profitability.   Given the reality of surviving in the present turbulent times and keeping abreast of business challenges, effective leadership is needed in organisations. "Management is more usually viewed as getting things done through other people in order to achieve stated organisational goals.   The manager may react to specific situations and be more concerned with solving short-term problems" (Mullins, 1996: 247). In the changing organisations of today, it is not so much a matter of achieving organisational goals and maintaining the status quo, but of getting ordinary people to do extraordinary things in the face of adversity – to the long-term benefit of the individual (employee), the industry (work itself) and the organisation (employer).   This is what constitutes effective leadership.

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As there is a clear shift from management to leadership here, we need to distinguish between the two and to highlight the importance of leadership over management.

2.1.1 Differences between leadership and management

Zaleznik quoted in Mullins (1996: 247) outlines the differences between leadership and management as follows:

- Managers tend to adopt an impersonal or passive attitude towards goals. Leaders adopt a more personal and active attitude towards goals.
- In order to get people to accept situations, the manager continually co-ordinates and balances in order to reach compromise between conflicting values. The leader creates excitement in the work and develops choices that give substance to images that excite people.
- In their relationships with other people, managers maintain a low level of emotional involvement. Leaders have empathy with other people and give close attention to what events and actions mean.
- Managers see themselves more as conservators and regulators of the existing order of affairs with which they identify, and from which they gain rewards. Leaders work in, but do not belong to, the organisation. Their sense of identity does not depend upon membership or work roles as they search out opportunities for change.
- Management is viewed in terms of planning, organising, directing and controlling the activities of the subordinate staff. Leadership, however, is concerned more with communicating with, motivating, encouraging and involving people.

Based on these differences between leadership and management, it is evident that leadership in one way or another leads to win-win situations in organisations. Leadership takes into consideration human factors as well as output factors, unlike management which is mainly concerned with output
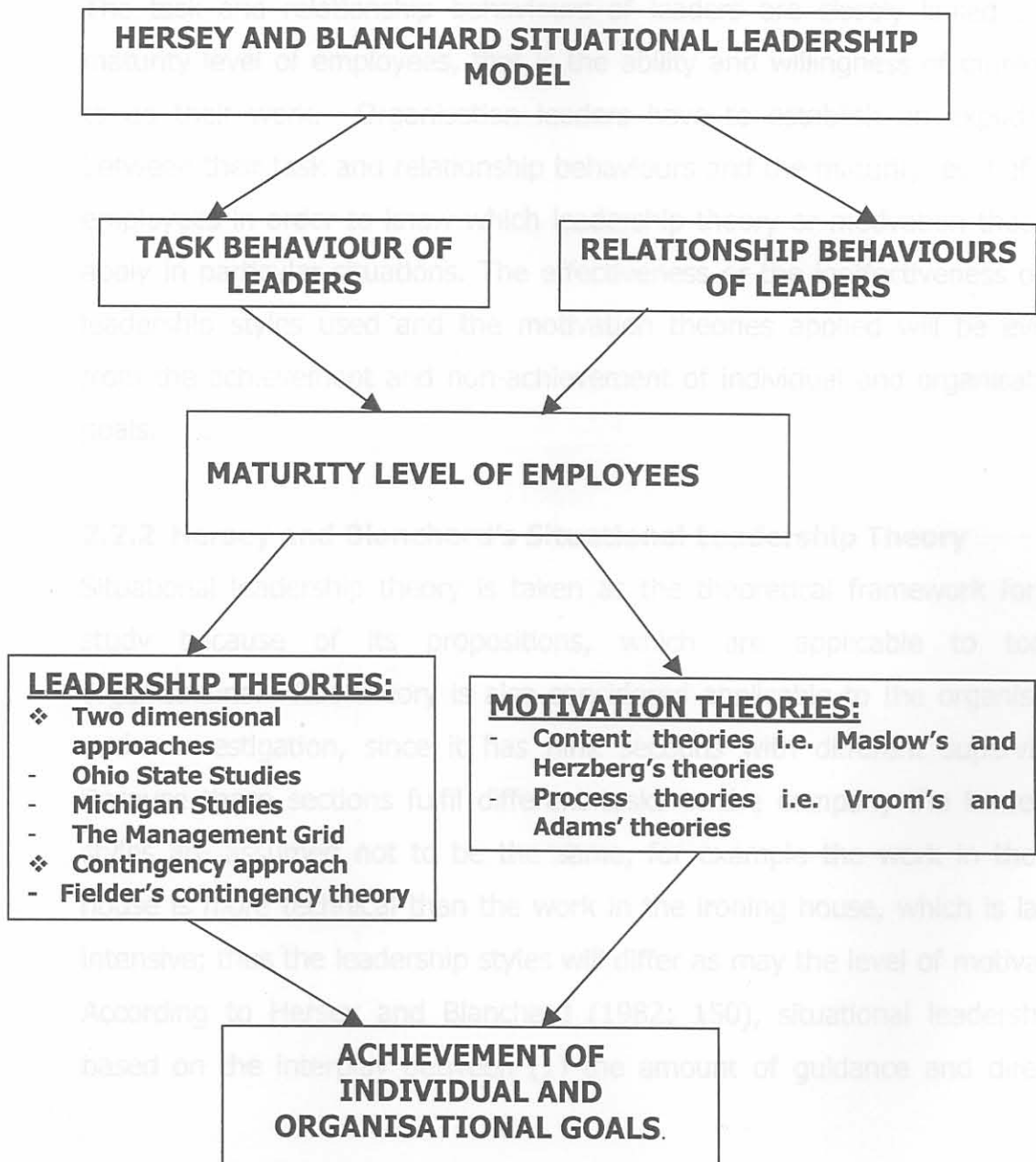
factors, that is organisational goals. According to Christenson et al. (1982: 155), output factors are the end result in an organisation. They indicate to what extent the organisation is achieving its objectives. In a business organisation, output factors include (1) productivity, (2) quality, (3) profitability, and (4) cost-effectiveness. Human factors reflect the state of human resources in an organisation. They indicate how well people are working together and how satisfied they are with their work. Human factors include (1) morale, (2) amount and type of communication, (3) level of motivation, (4) commitment to objectives, and (5) level of interpersonal and intergroup conflict. It needs to be emphasised that output and human factors are crucial, as they jointly determine the success of the organisation. Christenson et al. (1982: 156) maintain that "if a leader is unable to work with and through people to achieve output factors, the organisation (or at least part of the organisation) will not accomplish its goals. Similarly, if a leader fails to attend to human factors, communication breakdowns and disagreements are likely to result. In addition, motivation will decrease, and absenteeism and turnover may become a problem. Eventually, such problems are likely to have a negative impact on output factors. That is likely to result in lower levels of performance, higher costs, and poorer quality of work over time".

Taking human factors into consideration means that the way employees are led comes under scrutiny. The way in which employees respond to different leadership styles also indicates the extent of followership. Weihrich and Koontz (1993: 437) maintain that the essence of leadership is followership. In other words, it is the willingness of people to follow that makes a person a leader. Moreover, people tend to follow those whom they see as providing a means of achieving their own desires and wants – this is what constitutes worker motivation.

It is therefore appropriate to discuss Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, which describes the relationship between leadership styles and worker motivation in organisations in given situations. We will also use this model to determine whether one of the basic aims of the study was achieved, that is to explore the relationship between leadership styles and worker motivation and the tendency of certain leadership styles to elicit certain work behaviours from employees, as proposed in the model.

2.2   Guideline for interpreting the literature review

HERSEY AND BLANCHARD SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL

TASK BEHAVIOUR OF LEADERS

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOURS OF LEADERS

MATURITY LEVEL OF EMPLOYEES

LEADERSHIP THEORIES:
- ❖ **Two dimensional approaches**
- **Ohio State Studies**
- **Michigan Studies**
- **The Management Grid**
- ❖ **Contingency approach**
- **Fielder's contingency theory**

MOTIVATION THEORIES:
- **Content theories i.e. Maslow's and Herzberg's theories**
- **Process theories i.e. Vroom's and Adams' theories**

ACHIEVEMENT OF INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANISATIONAL GOALS.

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2.2.1 Background

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model proposes that there is no single best leadership style in organisations but instead that the leadership style to be employed should be guided by the particular situation. The task behaviour of the leader (the extent to which a leader provides direction for people with regard to the tasks to be done) and the relationship behaviour of the leader (the extent to which a leader engages in a two-way communication with employees) will be considered.

The task and relationship behaviours of leaders are closely linked to the maturity level of employees, that is the ability and willingness of employees to do their work. Organisation leaders have to establish an explicit link between their task and relationship behaviours and the maturity level of their employees in order to know which leadership theory or motivation theory to apply in particular situations. The effectiveness or the ineffectiveness of the leadership styles used and the motivation theories applied will be evident from the achievement and non-achievement of individual and organisational goals.

2.2.2 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Situational leadership theory is taken as the theoretical framework for this study because of its propositions, which are applicable to today's organisations. This theory is also considered applicable to the organisation under investigation, since it has nine sections with different supervisors. Because these sections fulfil different tasks in the company the leadership styles are assumed not to be the same, for example the work in the dye house is more technical than the work in the ironing house, which is labour intensive; thus the leadership styles will differ as may the level of motivation. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 150), situational leadership is based on the interplay between (1) the amount of guidance and direction

The above diagram shows the four leadership quadrants with a specific leadership style in each:

"Telling" is for low-maturity subordinates. People who are unable and unwilling (M1) to take responsibility for undertaking certain tasks are neither competent nor confident. In many cases, their unwillingness is a result of their insecurity regarding the particular task. Thus, a directive "telling" style (S1) that provides clear, specific directions and supervision has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level. This style is called "telling" because it is characterised by the leader's defining roles and telling people what, how, when and where to do various tasks.

"Selling " is for low to moderate maturity subordinates. People who are unable but willing (M2) to take responsibility for certain tasks are confident but lack skills at this time. Thus, a "selling" style (S2) that provides directive behaviour to reinforce their willingness and enthusiasm is probably the most appropriate for individuals at this maturity level. Through two-way communication and explanation, the leader tries to get the followers psychologically to "buy into" desired behaviours.

"Participating" is for moderate to high maturity subordinates. People at this maturity level are able but unwilling (M3) to do what the leader wants. Their unwillingness is often a function of their lack of confidence or insecurity. Thus, a supportive non-directive, "participating" style (S3) has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level. This style is called "participating" because the leader and follower share in decision-making, the main role of the leader being to facilitate and communicate. This style involves high relationship behaviour and low task behaviour.

"Delegating" is for high-maturity subordinates. People at this maturity level are able and willing or confident to take responsibility. Thus, a low-profile

"delegating" style (S4), which provides little direction or support, has the highest probability of being effective with individuals at this maturity level. Even though the leader may still identify the problem, the responsibility for carrying out the particular plans is given to these mature followers. They are permitted to run the show and decide on the how, when and where. At the same time, they are psychologically mature and consequently do not need above average two-way communication or supportive behaviour. This style involves low relationship behaviour and low task behaviour (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 153-154).

In employing different leadership styles, leaders in organisations must find a match between their styles and their task behaviours and relationship behaviours with their subordinates in given situations. For example the leader may apply the "telling" leadership style when working with an employee who has completed only Standard 6, while the leader may use a different style when working with an employee who has a post-school qualification. The amount of support given may also differ between the two employees because of their differences in education. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) are of the same view and maintain that while all the situational variables (leader, follower(s), supervisor(s), associates, organisation, job demands and time) are important, the emphasis in situational leadership is on the behaviour of the leader in relation to his/her followers. Furthermore, the Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory focuses on the maturity level of employees and the components of maturity.

- **Maturity level of employees**

According to situational leadership theory, there is no single best way to influence people. Which leadership style a person should use with individuals or groups depends on the maturity level of the people the leader is attempting to influence. The maturity of followers is also taken into account

in this model. Some benchmarks for maturity are provided for determining appropriate leadership style by dividing the maturity continuum in the below of the Hersey and Blanchard's leadership model into four levels: low (M1), low to moderate (M2), moderate to high (M3) and high (M4). The appropriate leadership style for each of the four maturity levels includes the right combination of task behaviour (direction) and relationship behaviour (support). Maturity is defined in situational leadership as the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 151). It has been argued that the key to effective leadership is identifying the maturity level of the individual or group one is attempting to influence and then applying the appropriate leadership style.

- **Components of maturity**

Hersey and Blanchard discuss the components of maturity as follows:

Achievement-motivated people have certain characteristics in common, including the capacity to set high but obtainable goals, concern for personal achievement rather than the rewards of success, and the desire for task-relevant feedback (how well am I doing?) rather than for attitudinal feedback (how well do you like me?). Organisations should be more interested in task-relevant feedback.

Education or experience is important for organisations. One can gain task-relevant maturity through education or experience or a combination of both. Education is defined as formal classroom learning, while experience involves what one learns on one's own or on the job.

Education or experience affects ability and achievement, while motivation affects willingness. The concept of maturity accordingly has two dimensions: job maturity (ability) and psychological maturity (willingness) (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 157). Thus the need for leaders to consider the components of maturity as they may be helpful in accelerating the desired behaviours.

(task behaviour) a leader gives, (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader provides and (3) the readiness (maturity) level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task, function or objective. Task behaviour is the extent to which a leader provides direction to subordinates: telling them what to do, when to do it, where to do it, and how to do it.   It means setting goals for them and defining their roles. Relationship behaviour is the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication with subordinates: providing support, encouragement, psychological help and facilitation.   It means actively listening to people and supporting them in what they do.   Leaders in organisations should accordingly employ task and relationship behaviours that stimulate employees to do their work willingly and thus contribute toward the achievement of individual and organisational goals.   This concept was developed to help prospective leaders, regardless of their roles, be more effective in their daily interactions with others.

Figure 4: Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory
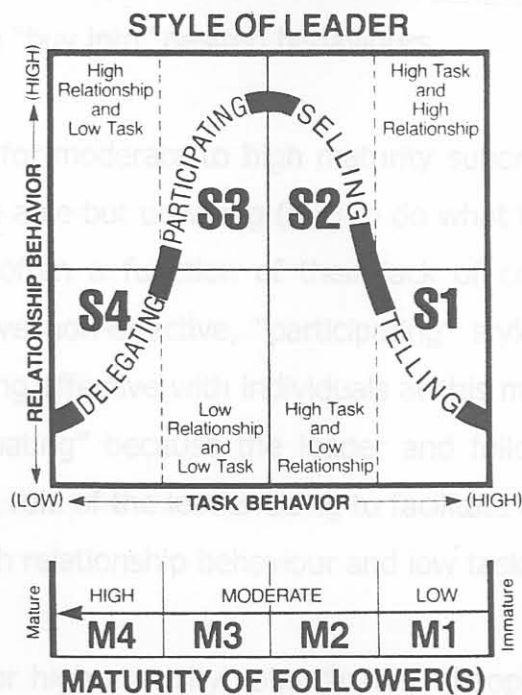
(Daft, 1995: 387)

In assessing the maturity of employees, leaders should evaluate their ability and willingness to work. Ability can be determined by examining past performance: Has the person done well in this area before, or has his/her performance been poor or non-existent? Does the staff member have the necessary knowledge to perform well in the area, or does he/she not know how to do what needs to be done? Willingness can be determined by watching a person's behaviour in a particular case: What is the person's interest level? Does he/she seem enthusiastic or apathetic? What is the person's commitment to the work in this area? Does he/she appear to enjoy doing the required tasks or merely anxious to get them over with? Is the person's self-confidence evident in this area or does he/she seem insecure? The person's maturity level gives a clue as to how he/she can be motivated in the specific area and which leadership style should be used with that specific individual. Determining employees' maturity level will help leaders in organisations decide which leadership theory or model and which motivational theory or model to apply when working with individual employees. This explains the need to consider different leadership theories as used in organisations and different motivational theories as used by leaders in working towards the achievement of individual and organisational goals.

2.3 Leadership styles as used in organisations

Different leadership styles are uniquely applied depending on the nature and goals of organisations, and the maturity level of employees. These approaches are discussed in order to establish the following:

- The initial studies that contributed to the development of different leadership styles in organisations.
- Which leadership styles are used in the organisation under question by considering these different approaches.

- Which leadership styles are effective or ineffective in motivating employees in organisations.

2.3.1 Two-dimensional approach

- **Ohio State University studies**

In 1945, a group of researchers at Ohio State University began extensive investigations of leadership, focusing on the study of leader behaviour. Their efforts uncovered many provocative insights and changed the conceptual foundation of leadership research from a trait-based approach to a behaviour base (Donnelly et.al, 1995:388). The studies identified two dimensions of leadership behaviour namely "consideration" and "initiating structure". These two dimensions described leadership behaviour in organisational settings. The researchers assessed how supervisors think they should behave in leadership roles. Leaders who scored high on the consideration dimension reflected a work atmosphere of mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas and consideration of subordinates' feelings. A low consideration score indicated that leaders were more impersonal in their dealings with subordinates.

Furthermore a high initiating structure score indicated that leaders structured their roles and those of subordinates toward the attainment of goals. They were actively involved in planning work activities, communicating pertinent information and scheduling work.

Daft (1995: 382) points out that consideration and initiating structures are independent of each other, which means that a leader with a high degree of consideration may be either high or low in terms of initiating structure. A leader may have any four styles: high initiating structure – low consideration structure; high initiating structure – high consideration structure; low initiating structure – low consideration structure; low initiating structure – high consideration structure. The Ohio State research found that the high

consideration structure – high initiating structure style achieved better performance and greater satisfaction than the other leadership styles. This study led to further studies in leadership like the Michigan studies on leadership.

- **University of Michigan studies**

Studies at the University of Michigan at about the same time adopted a different approach by comparing the behaviour of effective and ineffective supervisors. The most effective supervisors were those who focused on subordinates' human needs in order to "build effective workgroups with high performance goals". The Michigan researchers used the term employee-centred leaders for leaders who established high performance goals and displayed supportive behaviour towards subordinates. The less effective leaders were called job-centred leaders; they tended to be less concerned with goal achievement and human needs, and more concerned with meeting schedules, keeping costs low and achieving production efficiency (Daft, 1995: 382-383).

- **Managerial grid**

Blake and Mouton of the University of Texas proposed a three-dimensional leadership theory they called the managerial grid, which incorporates some of the findings of the Ohio State and Michigan studies. The three-dimensional model and five of its major management styles are shown in the following diagram.

HIGH									
9	**1,9**								**9,9**

COUNTRY CLUB MANAGEMENT
Thoughtful attention to the needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

TEAM MANAGEMENT
Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a *"common stake"* in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

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5   **5,5**

MIDDLE OF THE ROAD MANAGEMENT
Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

3

IMPOVERRISHED MANAGEMENT
Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

AUTHORITY-COMPLIANCE
Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

1   **1,1**   **9,1**

LOW	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**

LOW   **CONCERN FOR PRODUCTION**   , **HIGH**
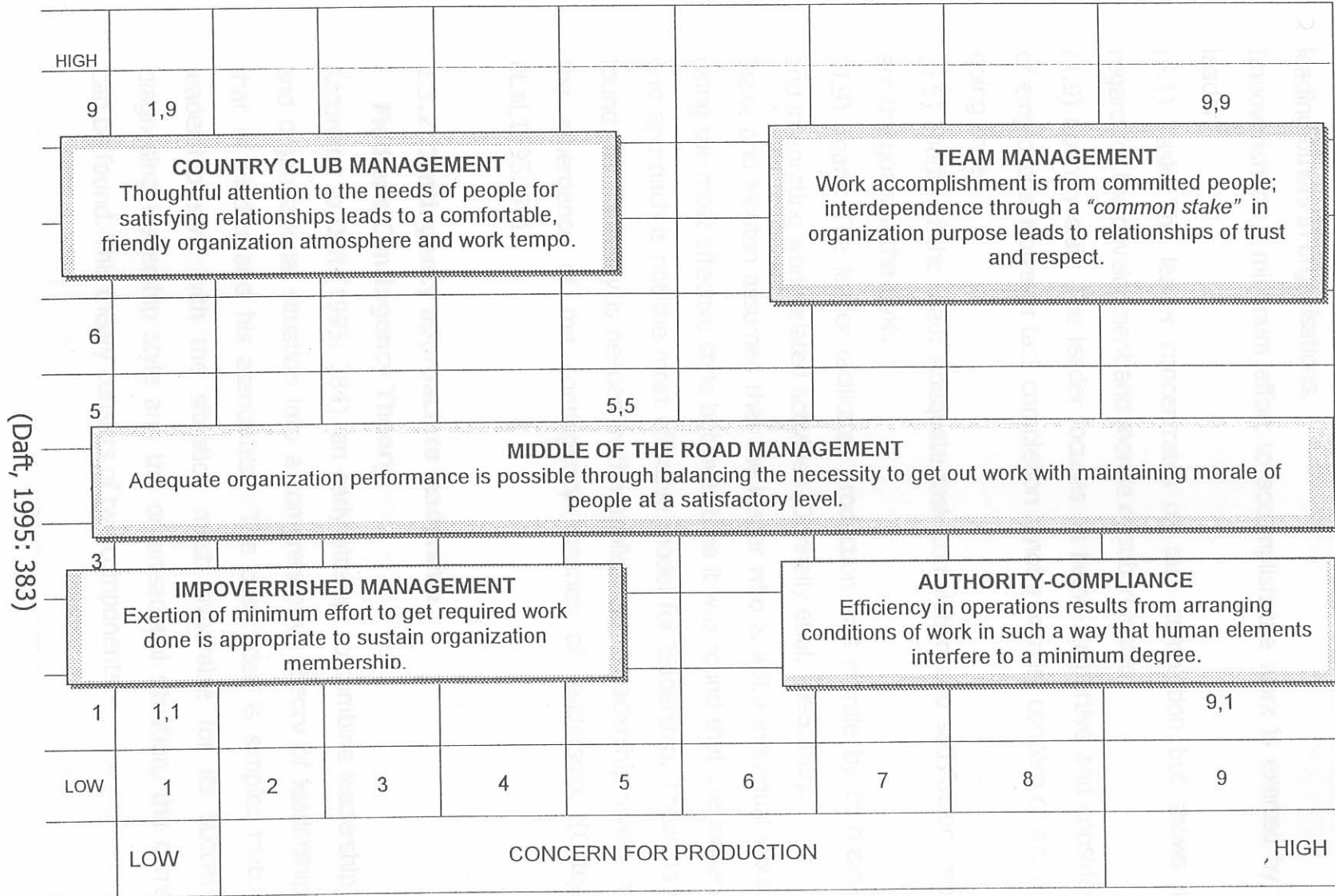
(Daft, 1995: 383)

Figure 5: Blake and Mouton's managerial grid

These five leadership styles are used to highlight different approaches to leading others in organisations.

Impoverished: A minimum effort to accomplish the work is exerted by the leader.

(9.1) Task: The leader concentrates on task completion but shows little regard for the development and morale of subordinates.

(1.9) Country club: The leader focuses on being supportive and considerate of employees. However task completion is not a primary concern of this easy-going style.

(5.5) Middle of the road: Adequate task completion and satisfactory morale are the goals of the style.

(9.9) Team: The leader facilitates production and morale by co-ordinating and integrating work-related activities (Donnelly et.al, 1995:389).

Blake and Mouton assumed that the leader who is a 9.9 individual would be using the most effective style but over time it was found that the managerial grid approach is not the most effective model for leadership. Theorists later found that flexibility is needed in the application of leadership styles, hence the emergence of the contingency theories of leadership. (Gatewood et.al,1995: 501).

2.3.2 Contingency approach to leadership

- **Fiedler's Contingency Theory**

According to Daft (1995: 384), an early attempt to combine leadership style and organisational situation into a comprehensive theory of leadership was that of Fiedler and his associates. The basic idea is simple: match the leadership style with the situation most favourable for its success. By diagnosing leadership style and the organisational situation, the correct fit can be found. This theory consists of two components:-

a. Leadership style

According to Daft (1995: 384), the cornerstone of Fiedler's contingency theory is the extent to which the leader's style is relationship oriented or task oriented. A relationship-oriented leader is concerned with people. A task-oriented leader is primarily motivated by task accomplishment, which is similar to the initiating structure. Leadership style was measured with a questionnaire known as the least-preferred co-worker (LPC) scale. The LPC scale used by Fiedler has a set of 16 bipolar adjectives:

Open --guarded

Quarrelsome --- harmonious

Efficient --- inefficient

Self assured -- hesitant

Gloomy -- cheerful

If the leader describes the least preferred co-worker using positive concepts, he/she is considered relationship oriented, that is cares about and is sensitive to other people's feelings. Conversely, if a leader uses negative concepts to describe the least-preferred co-worker, he/she is considered task oriented, that is sees other people in negative terms and places greater value on task activities than on people.

b. Situation

According to Daft (1995: 384), leadership situations can be analysed in terms of three elements: the quality of leader-member relationships, task structure and position power. Each of these elements can be described as either favourable or unfavourable for the leader.

- Leader-member relations refers to the group atmosphere and members' attitude toward and acceptance of the leader. When subordinates trust, respect and have confidence in the leader, leader-member relations are considered good. When subordinates distrust, do not respect and have
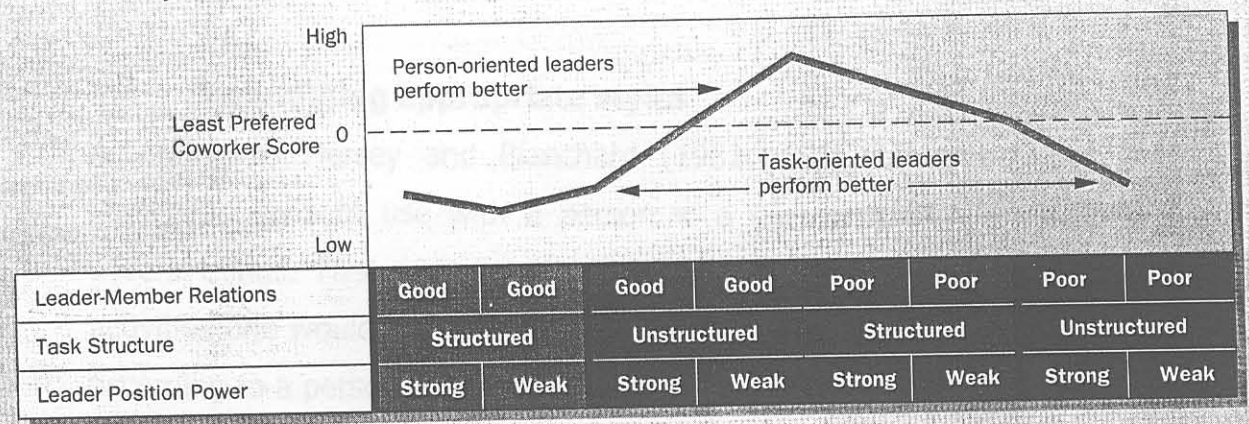
little confidence in the leader, leader-member relations are considered poor (Daft 1995: 384).

- Task structure refers to the extent to which tasks performed by the group are defined, involve specific procedures, and have clear, explicit goals. When task structure is high, the situation is considered favourable to the leader; when low, the situation is less favourable (Daft, 1995: 385).
- Position power is the extent to which the leader has formal authority over subordinates. Position power is high when the leader has the power to plan and direct the work of subordinates, evaluate it and reward or punish subordinates. Position power is low when the leader has little authority over subordinates and cannot evaluate their work or reward them. When the position power is high, the situation is considered favourable for the leader; when low, the situation is considered unfavourable (Daft, 1995: 385). Fiedler examined the relationship between leadership style, situational favourability and task performance, and came up with the following patterns:

Figure 6: Fiedler's Contingency Theory

How Leader Style Fits the Situation								
Leader-Member Relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Task Structure	Structured		Unstructured		Structured		Unstructured	
Leader Position Power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak

(Daft, 1995: 386)

According to this theory, task-oriented leaders are more effective when the situation is either highly favourable or highly unfavourable. Relationship-oriented leaders are more effective in situations of moderate favourability. Considerable research has been done on Fiedler's model, generating support for as well as criticism of his ideas. Criticism of the model includes its neglect of leaders who score in the middle on the LPC scale, the use of the LPC scale itself, the fact that many leaders can and do change their behaviours, and the relative lack of consideration given to other situational characteristics concerning followers. Nonetheless, Fiedler's Contingency Theory was one of the first to recognise the importance of the situation for leadership effectiveness, and it sensitised leaders to the ineffectiveness of the one-best way approach to leadership. On the other hand this theory was criticised in terms of its applicability to organisations. According to Donnelly et.al. (1995:392) factors like unions, technology, time and costs of changes must be considered. For example, a unionised company that has a highly routine technology and is currently faced with intense competition in new product development may not have the patience, time and energy to modify the three situational dimensions so that its leaders become more effective. However, Fiedler's theory provided a stating point for situational leadership research.

2.4   Determining appropriate styles

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982: 156), in determining which leadership style to use with a person in a given situation one should do several things. First, one should decide what areas of an individual or group's activities one would like to influence. In the world of work these areas vary according to a person's responsibilities.

Before managers can determine the appropriate leadership style to use with a particular individual, they should decide what aspect of that person's job they want to influence.

Once this decision has been made, the second step is to determine the ability or motivation (maturity level) of the individual in each of the selected areas.
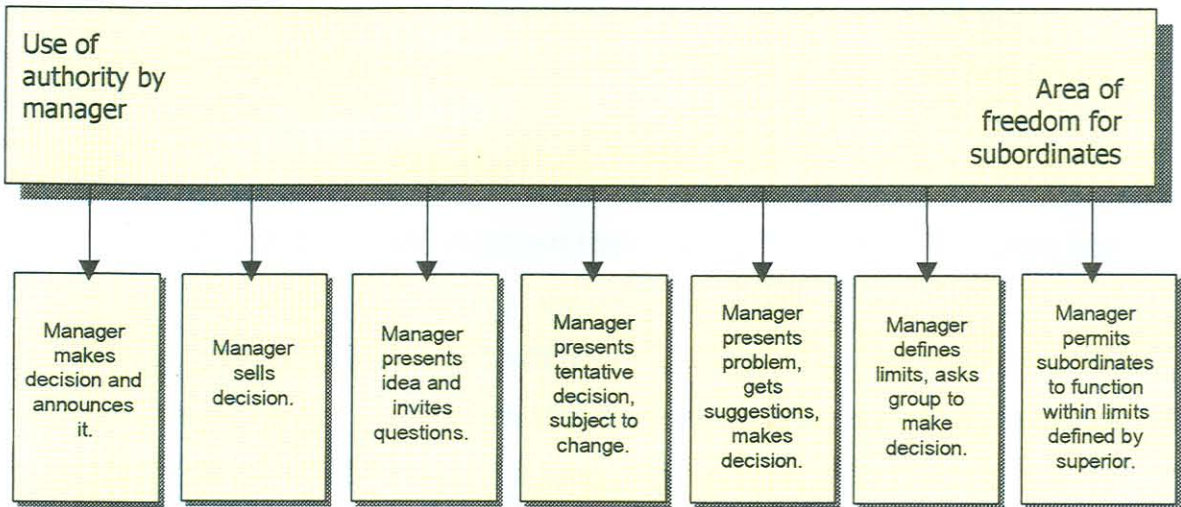
The third and final step is deciding which of the four leadership styles will be appropriate for this individual in each of these areas. Hersey and Blanchard's leadership model is appropriate in the firm under investigation as it has nine areas of operation within which different roles have to be fulfilled. Falke Hosiery has the following sections: knitting, auto assembly, manual house, quality department, greige store, dye house, courtesy, packing and dispatch. The different procedures used in each section call for different leadership styles for motivating workers. Leaders in the different sections should consider the ability and willingness (maturity) of their subordinates and then decide which leadership approach to apply. Various factors also influence the choice of a leadership style at a particular time. These factors are discussed below:

2.5   Factors that influence the choice of leadership style
2.5.1 Nature of workers
The nature of the particular workers is a major factor in determining the choice of leadership style. People are unique and they react differently to different leadership styles; leaders in organisations should therefore know their subordinates on an individual basis. The extent of subordinates' freedom also affects the way they function in organisations.

Figure 7: Leadership style and subordinate's freedom

Use of authority by manager						Area of freedom for subordinates
Manager makes decision and announces it.	Manager sells decision.	Manager presents idea and invites questions.	Manager presents tentative decision, subject to change.	Manager presents problem, gets suggestions, makes decision.	Manager defines limits, asks group to make decision.	Manager permits subordinates to function within limits defined by superior.

Rue and Byars (1995: 383)

The above diagram illustrates the relationship between a leader's behaviour (leadership style) and subordinates' degree of freedom. Rue and Byars (1995: 384) maintain that a leader's behaviour is acceptable to subordinates to the degree that they see it as a source of satisfaction now or as a step toward future satisfaction. Leader behaviour (leadership style) influences worker motivation when it makes the satisfaction of their needs contingent on successful performance; and when it provides the guidance, support and rewards needed for effective performance.

If workers are able and motivated to perform a particular job, they can be given extensive freedom. A participating or delegating style can be used, since the workers have the necessary abilities. They can be allowed to participate in determining what should be done and how it should be done. More involvement from the leader will be needed if the workers are not capable or motivated to do the job. If workers lack the ability to perform a specific task, more direction has to be provided. Considerable time needs to be spent on telling them what to do and explaining how the task should be performed. If workers are unwilling to accept responsibility for a job, fairly

close supervision is required. Clear instructions should be provided, follow-ups done and corrective action taken if necessary (Christenson et al., 1982: 165).

2.5.2 Amount of time available

Christenson et al. (1982: 165) maintain that when ample time is available any of the supervisory leadership styles may be used. When there is limited time, the leadership styles to be utilised will also be limited. The participatory style requires a lot of time for discussion to get everyone to agree on a course of action, but this will not be possible if time pressures are high. The consulting style is also time consuming as the supervisor has to get ideas and opinions from the workers before deciding on how to approach the task. The telling style is therefore appropriate when there is time pressure; it can be used with workers who are capable and motivated to perform the task.

2.5.3 What the leader wants to accomplish

Christenson et al. (1982: 166) say that if the job to be performed is complex and requires creativity, a delegating or participatory style may be the most effective. These styles allow discussion on the optimal use of workers' talents. If the workers do not have the abilities to handle complex jobs, the supervisor should adopt a more supervisor-centred style. He/She can use directing and consulting styles when jobs are specialised and routine, but with close supervision as some workers may dislike routine work. If they like routine work, the delegating style may be used.

2.5.4 The employer's expectations

The expectations of the employer and his leadership style can influence the style his subordinates use as supervisors. Directing and consulting styles are more supervisor-centred and can be used if workers lack the ability or motivation to perform a specific job, if time is limited to accomplish the task,

or if the employer expects a supervisory-centred style. The employer is probably the person who best knows the expectations of the overall organisation, which he/she should communicate to subordinates. Once workers know what is expected of them, their commitment and motivation may be enhanced. Maude (1980: 157) is of the same view and holds that "motivation is closely linked with communication. If success is to be continuous the employee must fully understand his job with relation to the group activity. An assembly worker may not worry about quality control or output figures – until he learns that he is assembling a vital component for an important order".

2.6   Studies on situational leadership

Recent research on leadership has revealed that the most effective executives use a collection of distinct leadership styles – each in the right measure, at the right time. According to Goleman (2000: 78), research done by consulting firm Hay/McBer, using a sample of 3 871 executives drawn from a database of more than 20 000 executives worldwide, takes much of the mystery out of effective leadership. The research identified six distinct leadership styles, each springing from different components of emotional intelligence. The styles, taken individually, appear to have a direct and unique impact on the working atmosphere of a company, section or team, and, in turn, on their financial performance. "And perhaps most important, the research indicates that leaders with the best results do not reply on only one leadership style, they use most of them in a given week – seamlessly and in different measure depending on the business situation" (Goleman, 2000: 79-80). The six styles of leadership are: (1) Coercive leaders who demand immediate compliance, (2) authoritative leaders who mobilise people toward a vision, (3) affiliate leaders who create emotional bonds and harmony, (4) leaders who build consensus through participation; (5) pacesetting leaders

who expect excellence and self-direction, and (6) coaching leaders who develop people for the future.

Table 2: The six leadership styles of Goleman

	Coercive	Authorita-tive	Affiliative	Democratic	Pacesetting	Coaching
The leader's modus operandi	Demands immediate compliance	Mobilises people toward a vision	Creates harmony and builds emotional bonds	Forges consensus through participation	Sets high standards for performance	Develops people for the future
The style in a phrase	"Do what I tell you"	"Come with me"	"People come first"	"what do you think"	"Do as I do, now"	"Try this"
Underlying emotional intelligence competencies	Drive to achieve, initiative, self-control	Self confidence, empathy, change catalyst	Empathy, building relationships communicat-ion	Collaboration, team leadership, communicat-ion	Conscientious ness, drive to achieve, initiative	Developing others, empathy self-awareness
When the style works best	In a crisis, to kick start a turnabout, or with problem employees	When changes require a new vision, or when a clear direction is needed	To heal rifts in a team or to motivate people during stressful circumstan-ces	To build buy-in or consensus, or to get input from valuable employees	To get quick results from a highly motivated and competent team	To help an employee improve performan ce or develop long-term strengths
Overall impact on the climate	Negative	Most strongly positive	Positive	Positive	Negative	Positive

(Goleman, 2000:82)

According to Goleman (2000: 83), research has shown that of the six leadership styles, the authoritative style is the most effective. The authoritative leader is a visionary; he motivates people by indicating how

their work fits into a larger vision for the organisation. People who work for such leaders understand that what they do matters and why.   Authoritative leadership also maximises commitment to the organisation's goals and strategy.   By framing their individual tasks within a grand vision, the authoritative leader defines standards that revolve around that vision. When he/she gives performance feedback – whether positive or negative – the overriding criterion is whether or not the performance furthers the vision. The standards for success are clear to all, as are the rewards. Finally, one should consider the style's flexibility. An authoritative leader states the end but generally gives people plenty of leeway to devise their own means. Authoritative leaders give subordinates the freedom to innovate, experiment and take calculated risks.

Because of its positive impact, the authoritative style works well in almost any business situation.   But it is particularly effective when a business is struggling. An authoritative style, powerful though it may be, will not work in every situation. The approach fails, for instance, when a leader works with a team of experts or peers who are more experienced than he is; they may see the leader as pompous or out of touch.

Although the leadership styles identified in this research are differently labelled, most of them fit into the four quadrants of the Situational Leadership Model of Hersey and Blanchard. Organisations in the current business environment still need to adapt leadership styles to different situations – the principal assumption of this study. According to Goleman (2000: 87-88), effective leaders switch easily between the leadership styles as required. Such leaders do not mechanically match their style to fit a checklist of situations – they are far more fluid. They are sensitive to the impact they have on others and seamlessly adjust their style to get the best results. They can tell immediately that a talented but underperforming

employee has been demoralised by an unsympathetic, do-it-the-way-I-tell you manager and that he/she needs to be reminded why his/her work matters. The present study is of paramount importance to this research undertaking, as it will be used for comparison purposes. It will be used as a benchmark to judge whether the organisation under consideration is flexible enough or not in the employment of leadership styles. The study has shown that flexibility of leadership styles is still vital in organisations today; hopefully, it will sensitise the organisation under investigation to continue with their current leadership styles or to make adjustments as required. This will help to stimulate employees to do their work willingly and effectively, thus the need to discuss the concept of worker motivation in organisations.

2.7 Worker motivation

Worker motivation is crucial for the survival of any organisation. Motivation is the driving force that makes individuals perform better at work and thereby achieve overall organisational goals such as making profits. Thus the need for leaders in organisations to understand worker motivation and to know which motivational approaches to apply with subordinates. Steers and Porter (1991: 37) define motivation as "that which energises, directs and sustains behaviour". Robbins (1989: 147) says it is the "willingness to exert higher levels of efforts toward organisational goals, conditioned by the efforts and ability to satisfy some individual need". Landy (1989: 316) believes motivation is only one aspect of a more general process – "motivation concerns the conditions responsible for variations in the intensity, quality and direction of ongoing behaviour". Mohl (1991: 20) urges managers to differentiate between "moving" an employee and motivating him/her. Employees are moved to work when they do something they do not enjoy doing (Mohl, 1991). He believes dedication and commitment to a task occur only when the worker finds the task, in itself, enjoyable (Mohl, 1991: 20).

Motivation is a complex concept largely because of the nature of motives. People differ not only in their ability to do something, but also in their willingness to do it, that is their motivation. Motivation depends on the strength of people's motives. Motives are sometimes defined as the needs, wants, drives or impulses in an individual. Motives are directed towards goals, which may be conscious or subconscious. Motives are the "why" of behaviour. They arouse and maintain activity and determine the general direction of the behaviour of an individual. In essence, motives or needs are the mainsprings of action (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 15).

The difficulty of measuring motivation in human beings is that motives are not observable, but inferred. If you see someone doing a great deal of overtime, you are not sure whether he/she is doing so because of the extra money he/she will earn or because he/she likes the job. There are five primary reasons why it is difficult to infer motives from observed behaviour:

- *Several motives may be expressed by a single act.*
- *Motives may appear in disguised form.*
- *Several motives may be expressed through similar or identical acts.*
- *Similar motives may be expressed in different behaviour.*
- *The expression of certain motives may be significantly moderated by cultural and personal characteristics* (Steers and Porter, 1991: 38).

Any inference is further complicated by the fact that motives are dynamic in nature. In addition, every worker is unique. Workers may have a variety of needs, desires and expectations at any one time; there may even be an element of conflict present (Steers and Porter, 1991: 40). Consequently the intensity with which workers pursue certain activities differs not only from person to person, but also intra-individually, and from occasion to occasion. This diversity of human responses complicates matters for management.

How does a manager or supervisor motivate a diverse group of subordinates? Mather (1991: 16) states that managers cannot assume that workers at all levels will spontaneously develop adequate involvement and commitment. Mere exhortation will also not result in this response – conditions, which meet the socio-psychological needs of workers, must be created.

Thus the need for leaders in organisations to take into consideration their task behaviours, relationship behaviours and the maturity of their subordinates in any attempt to trigger the desired level of motivation.

Numerous motivation theories have been developed over the years – each, with its own perspective, an attempt to explain motivation. For the purposes of this study the following motivation theories will be considered.

2.8 Motivation theories

It is the duty of leaders to provide an environment that encourages employees to work hard. Different motivation theories are applied in organisations, classified in this study as classic and contemporary approaches. The classic approaches are those that have been used since the evolution of motivation, while the contemporary approaches are more recent conceptual frameworks.

2.8.1 Classical approaches

- **Traditional approach**: The study of employee motivation began with the work of Frederick W. Taylor on scientific management – which pertains to the systematic analysis of an employee's job for the purpose of increasing efficiency. For example, economic rewards are provided to employees for good performance. The emphasis on pay evolved into the perception of workers as economic units – who would work harder for

higher pay. In other words, paying the highest possible wages is the most efficient and productive way to motivate workers (Daft, 1995: 403).

- **Human relations approach**: Beginning with the landmark Hawthorne studies, non-economic rewards such as congenial work groups that met workers' social needs, appeared more important than money as a motivator of work behaviour. Further studies led researchers to conclude that simply paying attention to workers could change their work behaviour for the better. This was called the Hawthorne effect. They emphasised the importance of the social needs of individuals, and highlighted the work organisation as a social organisation.
- **Human resources approach**: The human resources approach carries the concepts of economic man and social man further to introduce the concept of the whole person. Human resources theory suggests that employees are complex and motivated by many factors. By assuming that employees are competent and able to make major contributions, managers can enhance organisational performance (Daft, 1995: 404).The human resources approach laid the groundwork for contemporary perspectives on worker motivation.

2.8.2 Contemporary approaches

Contemporary approaches to employee motivation are dominated by three types of theories, namely content, process and reinforcement theories.

2.8.2.1   *Content theories*

Content theories provide insight into the needs of people in organisations. They attempt to explain those specific things that actually motivate the individual at work. These theories are concerned with identifying people's needs and their relative strengths, and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy their needs. Content theories place emphasis on what motivates

people (Mullins, 1996: 488). They include Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory and McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory. These theories were chiefly used in the formulation of questions in the attached questionnaire.

1) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory: The most famous content theory was developed by Abraham Maslow. Maslow's theory proposes that humans are motivated by multiple needs and that these needs exist in a hierarchical order (Daft, 1995: 403).

Physiological needs: These are the most basic human physical needs and include food, water and sex. In an organisational setting, these needs are reflected in the need for adequate heat, air and a basic salary to ensure survival.

Safety needs: These are the needs for a safe and secure physical and emotional environment, and freedom from threat. In an organisational workplace, safety needs are the need for safe jobs, fringe benefits and job security.
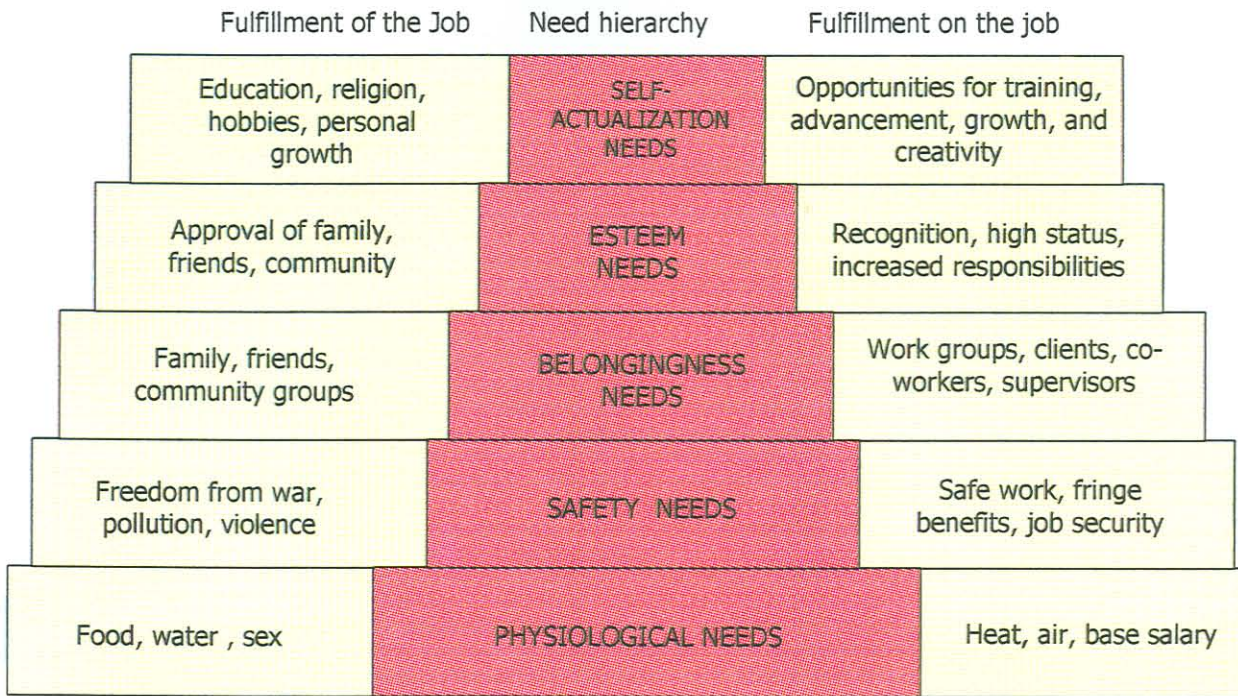
Belonging needs: These needs reflect the desire to be accepted by one's peers, to have friends, to be part of a group, and to be loved. In the organisation, these needs influence the desire for good relationships with co-workers, participation in work groups, and a positive relationship with supervisors.

Esteem needs: These needs relate to the desire for a positive self-image and to receive attention, recognition and appreciation from others. Within organisations, esteem needs are the need for recognition, an increase in responsibility, high status and credit for contributions to the organisation.

Self-actualisation needs: These represent the need for self-fulfilment, which is the highest need category. It concerns developing one's full potential, increasing one's skills and becoming a better person. Self-actualisation needs can be met in the organisation by providing people with

the opportunity to grow and be creative, training them for challenging assignments, and offering them advancement (Daft, 1995: 403).   These needs are illustrated in the figure below.
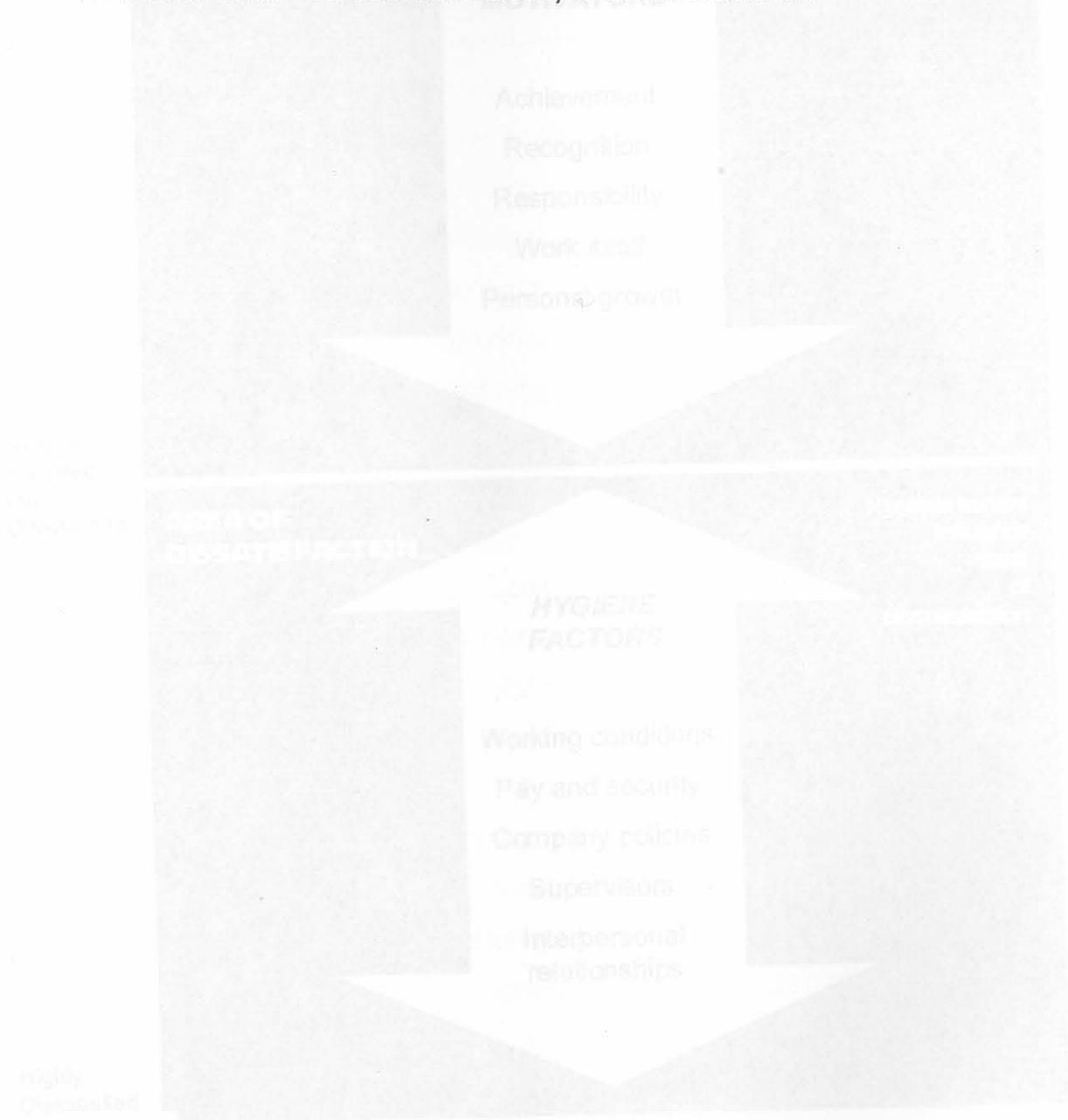
Figure 8: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

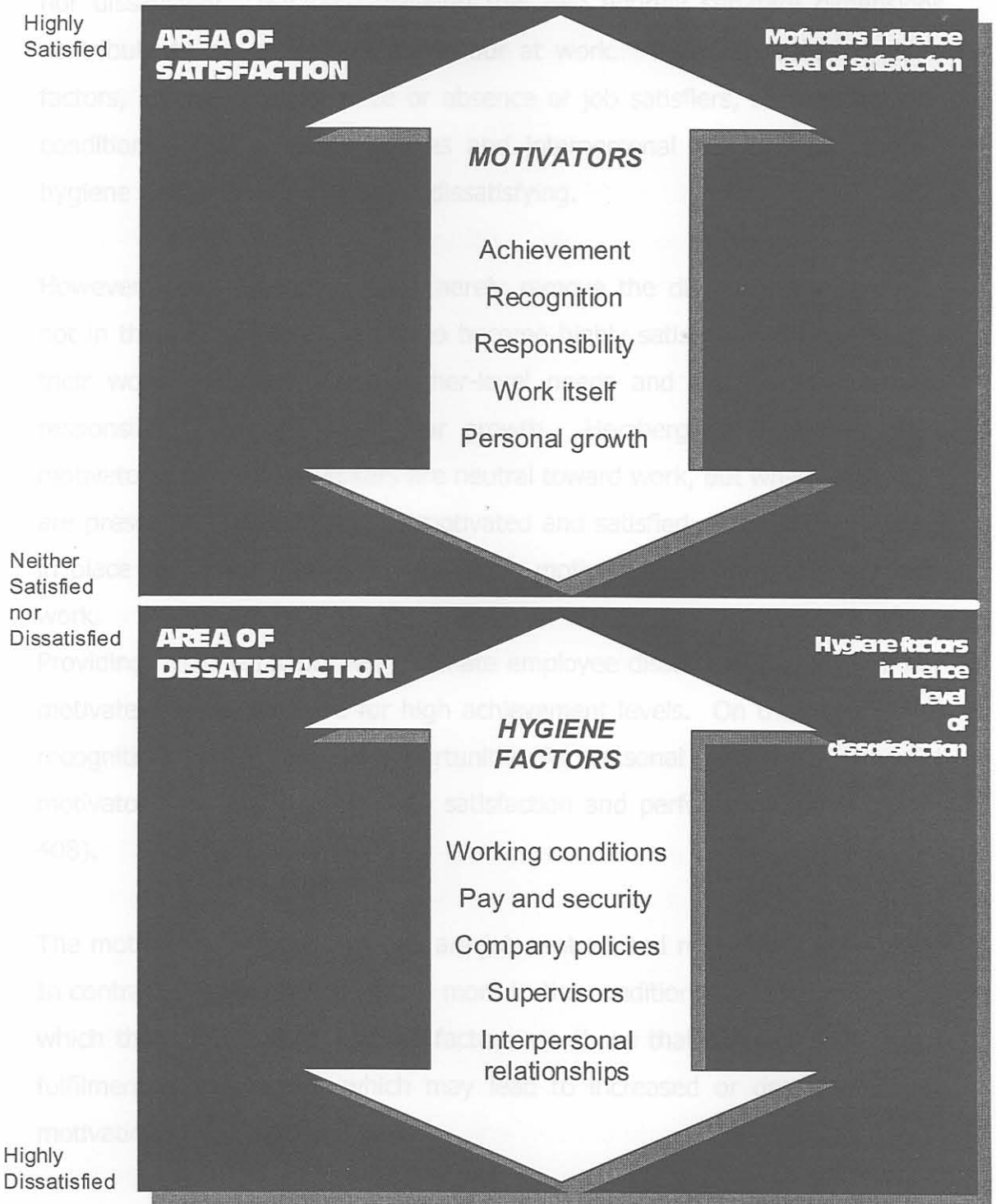| Fulfillment of the Job	Need hierarchy	Fulfillment on the job
Education, religion, hobbies, personal growth	SELF-ACTUALIZATION NEEDS	Opportunities for training, advancement, growth, and creativity
Approval of family, friends, community	ESTEEM NEEDS	Recognition, high status, increased responsibilities
Family, friends, community groups	BELONGINGNESS NEEDS	Work groups, clients, co-workers, supervisors
Freedom from war, pollution, violence	SAFETY NEEDS	Safe work, fringe benefits, job security
Food, water , sex	PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS	Heat, air, base salary

(Daft, 1995: 403)

Maslow's theory helps explain worker motivation in organisations. One of his main propositions is that once a lower need has been satisfied it no longer acts as a strong motivator. The needs of the next higher level then act as a strong motivator. The needs of succeeding higher levels in the hierarchy demand satisfaction and become a motivating factor. Only unsatisfied needs motivate a person (Mullins, 1996: 490). This poses a problem because it is difficult to ascertain if the lower needs of employees have been satisfied (food), before the following level of needs can be addressed and satisfied.

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2) Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory: Fredrick Herzberg developed another popular theory of motivation called the two-factor theory. Herzberg interviewed hundreds of workers with regard to times when they were highly motivated to work and other times when they were dissatisfied and unmotivated to work. The two-factor theory is illustrated below.

Figure 9: Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Highly
Satisfied

AREA OF SATISFACTION

Motivators influence level of satisfaction

MOTIVATORS

Achievement

Recognition

Responsibility

Work itself

Personal growth

Neither
Satisfied
nor
Dissatisfied

AREA OF DISSATISFACTION

Hygiene factors influence level of dissatisfaction

HYGIENE FACTORS

Working conditions

Pay and security

Company policies

Supervisors

Interpersonal relationships

Highly
Dissatisfied

(Daft, 1995: 408)

The centre of the scale is neutral, meaning that workers are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Herzberg believed that two entirely separate dimensions contribute to an employee's behaviour at work. This first, called hygiene factors, involves the presence or absence of job satisfiers, such as working conditions, pay, company policies and interpersonal relationships. When hygiene factors are poor, work is dissatisfying.

However, good hygiene factors merely remove the dissatisfaction, they do not in themselves cause people to become highly satisfied and motivated in their work. Motivators are higher-level needs and include achievement, responsibility and opportunity for growth. Herzberg believed that when motivators are absent, workers are neutral toward work, but when motivators are present, workers are highly motivated and satisfied. Motivators must be in place before employees are so highly motivated that they excel at their work. The implication of the two-factor theory for managers is clear. Providing hygiene factors will eliminate employee dissatisfaction, but will not motivate workers to strive for high achievement levels. On the other hand, recognition, challenges and opportunities for personal growth are powerful motivators and will promote high satisfaction and performance (Daft, 1995: 408).

The motivators or growth factors are job centred and relate to the job itself. In contrast, hygiene factors relate more to the conditions and environment in which the work is done. These factors are those that determine the need fulfilment of employees, which may lead to increased or decreased work motivation.

3) McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory: The final content theory was developed by David McClelland. It proposes that certain types of needs are acquired during the individual's lifetime. In other words, people are not born

with these needs but may acquire them through their life experiences. The three needs most frequently studied are:

The need for achievement: This is the desire to accomplish something difficult, attain a high standard of success, master complex tasks and surpass others.

The need for affiliation: This is the desire to form close personal relationships, avoid conflict and establish warm friendships.

The need for power: This is the desire to influence or control others, be responsible for others and have authority over others (Daft, 1995: 409).

2.8.2.2   *Process theories*

Process theories attempt to identify the relationship between the dynamic variables that make up motivation. These theories are concerned more with how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. Process theories place emphasis on the actual process of motivation (Mullins, 1996: 488). They include the equity theory, the path-goal theory and the expectancy theory.
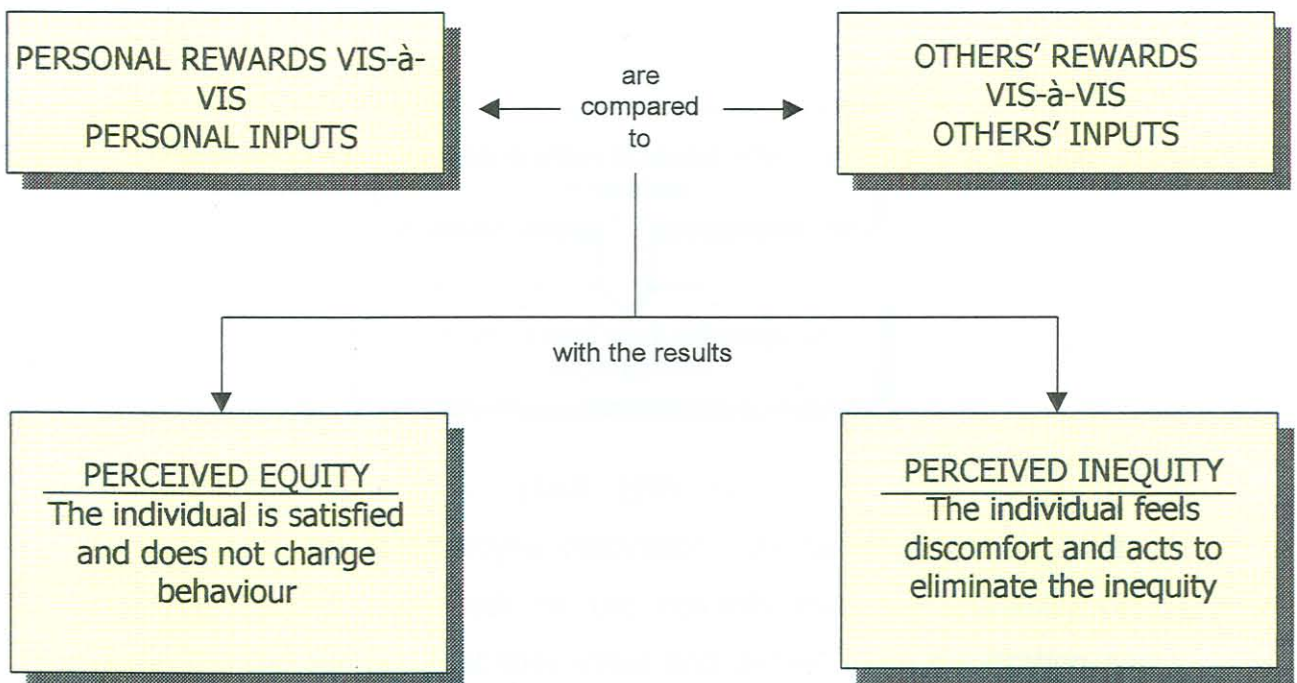
1) **Adam's Equity Theory**: Equity theory is a process theory of motivation known best through the work of Stacy Adams. The essence of the theory is that perceived inequity is a motivating state, that is when people believe they have been inequitably treated in comparison to others, they will try to eliminate the discomfort and restore a sense of equity to the situation.   Such equity comparison typically occurs when managers allocate extrinsic rewards, especially monetary incentives or pay increases. A sense of inequity arises whenever people feel the rewards they receive for their work are unfair, given the rewards other persons appear to be getting. Adams predicted that people will respond in one or more of the following ways to perceived inequity:

2) Path-goal theory: Another process theory, called the path-goal theory, proposes that individual motivation depends on the leader's ability to clarify the behaviour needed for task accomplishment and reward. The path-goal is illustrated in the figure below.

Figure 11: Leader roles in the path-goal model

Path clarification   Increase rewards

| Leader defines what follower must do to attain work outcomes | Leader learns follower's needs |

| Leader clarifies follower's work role | Leader matches follower's needs to rewards if work outcomes are accomplished |

| Follower has increased knowledge and confidence to accomplish outcomes | Leader increases value of work outcomes for follower |

| Follower displays increased effort and motivation |

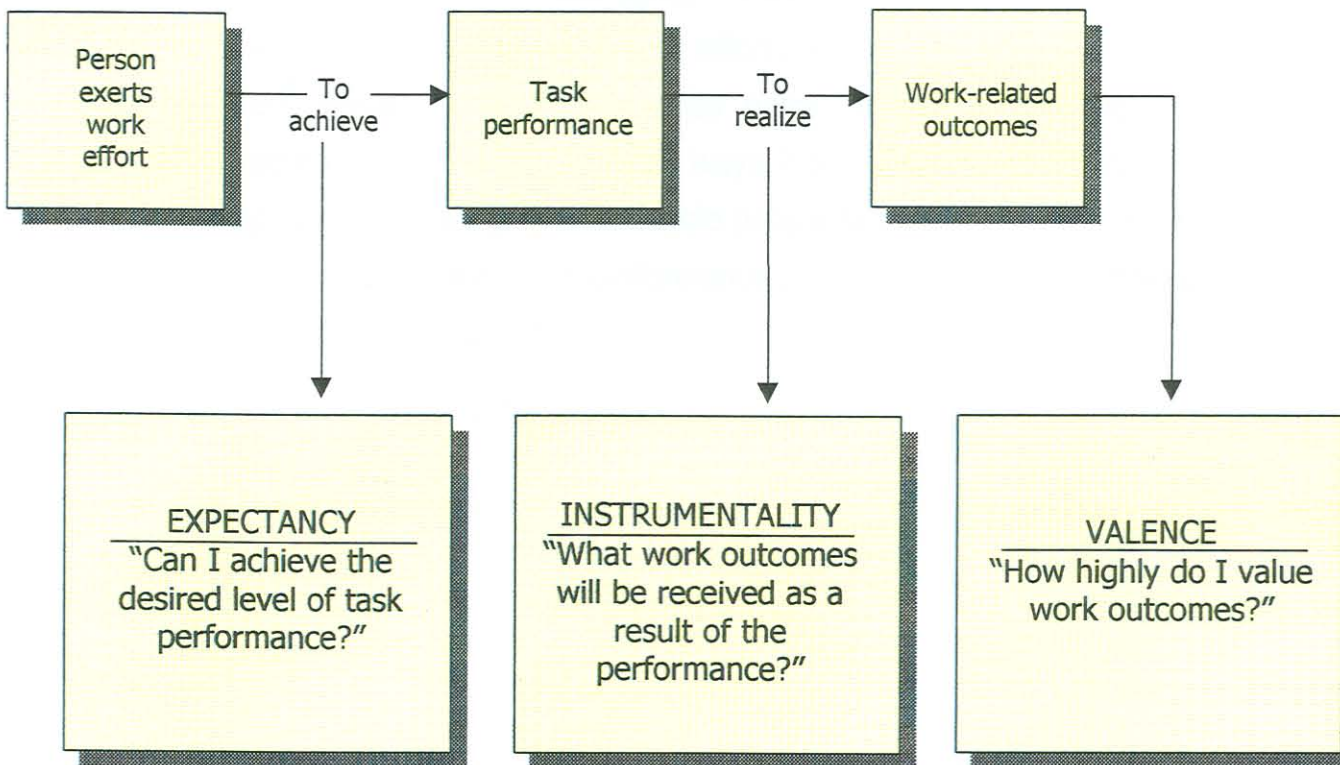| Organizational work outcomes are accomplished |

(Daft, 1995: 412)

As illustrated above, employee motivation may be increased by either (1) clarifying subordinates' path to the rewards that are available, or (2) increasing the rewards that they value and desire. Path clarification means that the leader works with individuals to help them identify and learn the behaviours that will lead to successful task accomplishment and organisational rewards. Daft (1995: 411) further maintains that increasing

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rewards means that the leader talks with subordinates to learn which rewards are important to them, that is whether they desire intrinsic rewards from the work itself or extrinsic rewards such as raises or promotions. The leader's job is to increase personal payoffs to subordinates for goal attainment and to make the paths to these payoffs clear and easy to travel.

3) Expectancy theory: Victor Vroom introduced another process theory of work motivation that has made an important contribution to management literature. According to Schermerhorn (1993: 450), expectancy theory asks a central question: What determines the willingness of an individual to work hard at tasks important to the success of the work unit and organisation? To answer it, expectancy theory is based on the argument: "People will do what they can do when they want to." More specifically, Vroom says a manager should understand the relationships between the three expectancy factors depicted in the following figure:

Figure 12 : Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Person exerts work effort	To achieve →	Task performance	To realize →	Work-related outcomes

EXPECTANCY "Can I achieve the desired level of task performance?"	INSTRUMENTALITY "What work outcomes will be received as a result of the performance?"	VALENCE "How highly do I value work outcomes?"

(Schermerhorn, 1993: 451)

Expectancy: A person' belief that working hard will result in the achievement of a desired level of task performance (effort-performance expectancy).

Instrumentality: A person's belief that successful performance will be followed by rewards and other potential outcomes (performance-outcome expectancy).

Valence: The value a person assigns to the possible rewards and other work-related outcomes.

The expectancy theory proposes that motivation (M), expectancy (E), instrumentality (I), and valence (V) are related to one another in a multicative fashion: M = E x 1 x V. In other words, motivation is determined by expectancy times instrumentality times valence. If any of the three factors are low, motivation will suffer. Therefore, managers should create a work environment within which task efforts serving the organisation's needs are also viewed by subordinates as paths to highly desirable rewards (Shermerhorn, 1993: 451). In many ways, leading through motivation is best accomplished by managers who enable people to be rewarded for fully using their talents to achieve high performance — and this can be maintained by applying the following model:
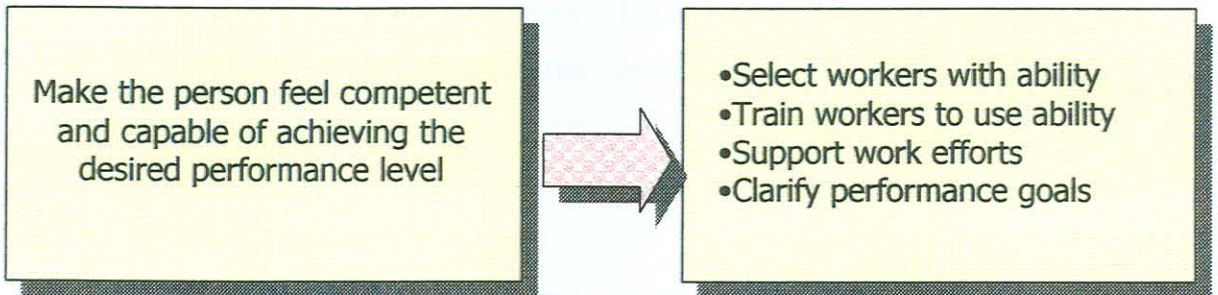
Figure 13: Model for applying expectancy theory

To Maximize Expectancy

| Make the person feel competent and capable of achieving the desired performance level | → | •Select workers with ability
•Train workers to use ability
•Support work efforts
•Clarify performance goals |

To maximize instrumentality

| Make the person confident in understanding which rewards and outcomes will follow performance accomplishments | → | •Clarify psychological contracts
•Communicate performance-outcome possibilities
•Demonstrate what rewards are contingent on performance |

To maximize valence

| Make the person understand the value of various possible rewards and work outcomes | → | •Identify individual needs
•Adjust rewards to match the needs |

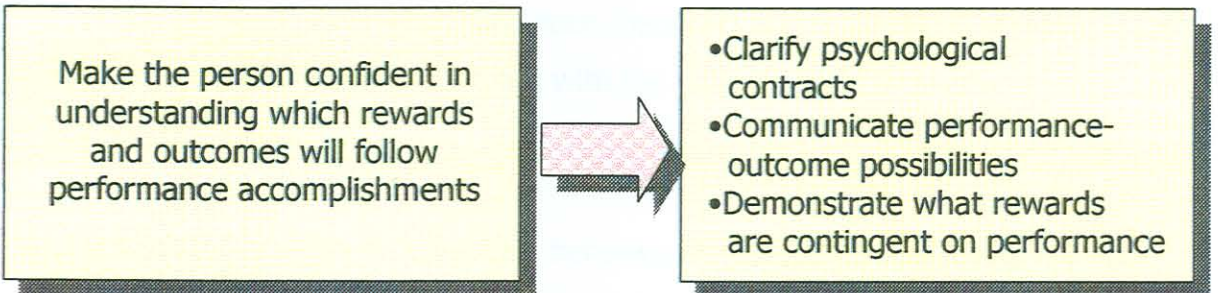(Schermerhorn, 1993: 452)

4) Reinforcement theory

According to Gatewood et al. (1995: 474), reinforcement theory is a type of process theory which assumes that behaviour can be reintroduced by relating it to its consequences. The most widely discussed application of reinforcement theory is behaviour modification, which involves changing

behaviour and encouraging appropriate action by relating the consequences of behaviour to the behaviour itself. There are four types of reinforcements: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement or avoidance, punishment and extinction.

- **Positive reinforcement**

Positive reinforcement strengthens a desired behaviour by rewarding it or providing other positive outcomes. Traditional employment rewards include praise and recognition, raises, bonuses and promotions for doing a good job. These rewards reinforce behaviour because the desirable consequences encourage employees to continue with the behaviour.

- **Avoidance**

Avoidance strengthens a desired behaviour by enabling individuals to avoid negative consequences by performing the behaviour. For example, employees are likely to return from lunch on time to avoid being reprimanded or docked for taking long lunch breaks.

- **Punishment**

Punishment weakens or eliminates an undesired behaviour by providing a negative consequence. An employee who uses work time to deal with personal matters for example may be reprimanded, have his/her pay reduced or even be fired if the situation is serious enough.

- **Extinction**

Extinction weakens an undesired behaviour by providing positive consequences. It occurs typically when positive reinforcement is withdrawn from a previously positively reinforced behaviour. When the behaviour is not reinforced, it will subside and eventually stop. A manager faced with an

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employee who complains needlessly and endlessly may reduce the complaints by ignoring the behaviour (Gatewood et al. 1995: 474).

- **Applying reinforcement theory**

According to Gatewood et al. (1995: 476), managers who want to motivate employees to behave appropriately should carefully consider the long-term effects of punishment and reward before selecting an approach. Punishing unacceptable behaviour provides quick results but may lead to undesirable long-term side effects such as employee dissatisfaction and increased staff turnover. Consequently, punishment should occur only in certain situations in which the nature of the offence is so serious, dangerous or in violation of corporate codes of ethics that a message must be sent to all employees

The process theories of motivation emphasise what really motivates someone to work in an organisation. For example, equity theory suggests that how much people are willing to contribute to an organisation depends on their assessment of the equity of the rewards they will receive in exchange for their input, while expectancy theory holds that motivation depends not only on how much a person wants something but on the person's perception of how likely he/she is to get it. The path-goal also involves the achievement of rewards at the end of the job done. Reinforcement theory assumes that behaviour may be strengthened by relating it to its consequences. Behaviour modification concerns changing behaviour and encouraging appropriate actions by relating the consequences of behaviour to the behaviour itself.

As mentioned earlier, employee motivation comes from within. Hence it is crucial for leaders in organisations to identify motivational factors relevant to their subordinates and, most importantly, the given situation. One motivational theory may work in one situation and fail in another. Leaders are significant forces in motivating subordinates – thus their need to know their subordinates at an individual level (maturity level) so that they can

apply the appropriate motivational theory in situations brought to their attention. Leaders should establish a clear link between the maturity level of their subordinates, the given situation, the leadership style to be applied, and which motivational factors should be promoted in the daily functioning of organisations. Hence the use of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory as the principal theory informing this study.

2.9   Manifestations of blocked worker motivation

- Coping: Timm and Petersen (1982: 49) maintain that one possible response to a blocked need is simply to cope with it. Coping means that people struggle or contend with the problem, often through trial and error, until they achieve some degree of satisfaction.

- Substituting another goal: When it becomes clear that a goal is blocked, people may seek a substitute goal. Workers who find on-the-job satisfaction elusive often channel their efforts toward off-the-job goals.

- Resignation, repression or retaliation: Simply giving up goal attainment is another option available. People also often repress their goals or relegate them to the back of their minds until another time. Occasionally, people retaliate against the person or force that is blocking achievement of the goal.

- Fixation or obsession: An unhealthy response to a blocked goal is fixation or obsession. This involves focusing on the goal and continuing to "beat one's head against a brick wall" in an effort to achieve the blocked goal.

- Frustration: One final result of blocked needs is individual frustration. Frustration is a phenomenon that is defined in terms of the individual rather than in terms of the external environment. In other words, frustration exists within the mind of a person (Timm & Petersen, 1982: 52).
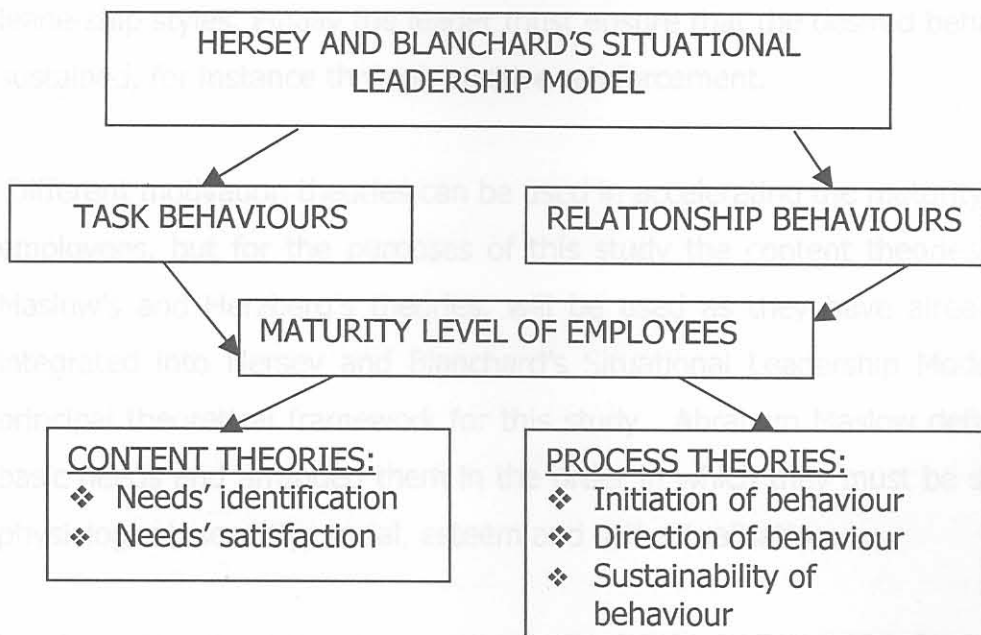
The manifestation of such work behaviours demands the attention of leaders, as it suggests low worker motivation. Such manifestations are not uncommon

in the hosiery industry and require leaders to use their discretion in dealing with specific individuals and situations. The application of the appropriate leadership style in the particular situation will help motivate subordinates.

2.10 Relevance of motivation theories to this study

As discussed earlier, according to Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model, leaders should employ task and relationship behaviours in their organisations. The task and relationship behaviours should be closely linked to the maturity level of employees.

Figure 14: Relationship between Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model and the motivation theories

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          ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
          │  HERSEY AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL       │
          │            LEADERSHIP MODEL               │
          └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
            │                                 │
            ▼                                 ▼
   ┌──────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────────────┐
   │  TASK BEHAVIOURS │            │ RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOURS  │
   └──────────────────┘            └──────────────────────────┘
            │                                 │
            ▼                                 ▼
          ┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
          │      MATURITY LEVEL OF EMPLOYEES          │
          └─────────────────────────────────────────┘
            │                                 │
            ▼                                 ▼
   ┌──────────────────────┐      ┌────────────────────────────┐
   │ CONTENT THEORIES:    │      │ PROCESS THEORIES:          │
   │  ❖ Needs' identification│   │  ❖ Initiation of behaviour │
   │  ❖ Needs' satisfaction │    │  ❖ Direction of behaviour  │
   │                      │      │  ❖ Sustainability of       │
   │                      │      │     behaviour              │
   └──────────────────────┘      └────────────────────────────┘
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In identifying the maturity level of employees (the ability and willingness to do the work), leaders have to apply either the process or the content motivation theories or both. The content theories are concerned with identifying peoples' needs and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy those needs. Process theories are concerned with how behaviour is initiated,

directed and sustained. The content and process theories are not mutually exclusive; their motivational factors are interrelated and they can be simultaneously used in accelerating the motivation level of employees.

In accelerating a component of employee maturity, for example ability (the examination of present and past performance in the given work), the leader may apply the content theories by looking into current working conditions such as the safety needs of employees. In considering the willingness (a person's behaviour in a particular case) of employees, the leader may use the process theories. For example the leader may examine an employee's interest in a particular area and initiate tasks that may suit the particular employee. The leader will have to direct the employee to the desired behaviour, for example how to knit the thread for the hose, through different leadership styles. Finally the leader must ensure that the desired behaviour is sustained, for instance through positive reinforcement.

 Different motivation theories can be used in accelerating the maturity level of employees, but for the purposes of this study the content theories, that is Maslow's and Herzberg's theories, will be used as they have already been integrated into Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model – the principal theoretical framework for this study. Abraham Maslow defined five basic needs and arranged them in the order in which they must be satisfied: physiological, security, social, esteem and self-actualisation.

Herzberg identified two types of factors linked to motivation, that is the hygiene factors and the motivational factors. Herzberg's hygiene factors can be compared to Maslow's physiological, security and social needs, while motivational factors may include Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation needs, and McClelland's achievement, affiliation and power needs. The

integrated approach to leadership and motivation is shown in the following figure:

Figure 15: Integrated approach to leadership styles and motivation
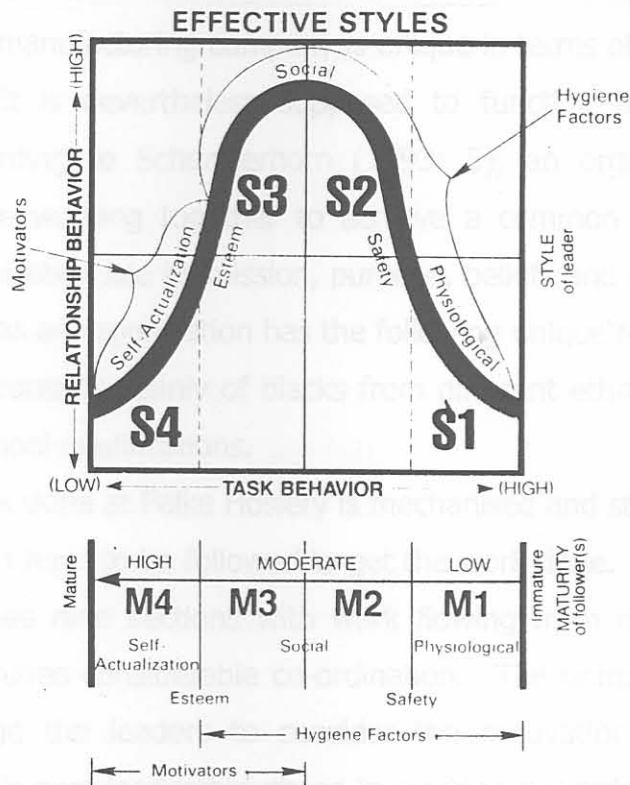
(Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 296)

This integrated approach plots the consistency of different leadership styles in satisfying certain motivational factors. According to the approach, the telling, selling and participating leadership styles tend to provide goals consistent with satisfying hygiene factors as given in Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, and the physiological, safety and social needs as given in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory. The participating and delegating leadership styles seem to facilitate the occurrence of the motivators (Herzberg) and the esteem and self-actualisation needs (Maslow). This approach will be examined in Chapter 5 where the researcher will consider the consistency of these leadership styles in promoting certain motivational factors in the organisation under discussion (Falke Hosiery).

2.11 Applicability of the situational leadership theory to the organisation under consideration

Falke Hosiery as a manufacturing company is unique in terms of the nature of its business, but it is nevertheless supposed to function like any other organisation. According to Schermerhorn (1993: 5), an organisation is a collection of people working together to achieve a common purpose. The values of the organisation are its mission, purpose, beliefs and what it stands for. Falke Hosiery as an organisation has the following unique features:

- The workforce consists mainly of blacks from different ethnic groups and with no post-school qualifications.
- Most of the work done at Falke Hosiery is mechanised and standardised.
- Strict procedures have to be followed to get the work done.

The organisation has nine sections with work flowing from one section to another, which requires considerable co-ordination. The unique features of the company oblige the leaders to consider the motivation level of the employees and their own leadership styles in working towards the common goal of productivity and profitability. The uniqueness of Falke Hosiery implies the occurrence of different situations and problems which call for different leadership styles in the different sections – hence the appropriateness of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model in this company.

This model is used as a benchmark to check as to whether the leadership styles used in the organisation under study are consistent with the motivational factors as proposed by Hersey and Blanchard. Situational leadership contends that strong direction (task behaviour) with immature followers is appropriate if they are to become productive. The model also suggests that an increase in maturity on the part of immature people should be rewarded through positive reinforcement and socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour). As followers reach high levels of maturity, the

leader should respond by not only continuing to decrease control over their activities but also by continuing to decrease relationship behaviour as well. With very mature people, the need for socio-emotional support is no longer as important as the need for autonomy (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982:156). It is assumed that the leaders in the organisation under discussion know the maturity level of their followers – hence the extent of the task and relationship behaviours of the leaders will be guided by the maturity level of workers and the extent of their motivation.

In providing socio-emotional support and direction, leaders will have to take into account the consistency of certain leadership styles in eliciting certain work behaviours in employees which indicate the employees' level of motivation. In Hersey and Blanchard's model Maslow's theory is helpful in identifying needs and motives, while Herzberg provides insight into the goals and incentives that tend to satisfy these needs. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982:60), in a motivating situation one has to know the high-strength needs (Maslow) of the individuals one has to influence, and then determine what goals (Herzberg) to provide in the environment to motivate those individuals. Hence the need for leaders in organisations to establish an explicit link between the motivation level of their subordinates and the leadership styles to be employed.

If a leader knows the goals his/her subordinates want to satisfy, he/she can predict the high-strength needs and apply the appropriate style in the given situation. For example, money and benefits at work tend to satisfy needs at the physiological and security levels; interpersonal relations and supervision are examples of hygiene factors that tend to satisfy social needs; while increased responsibility, challenging work, and growth and development are motivators that tend to satisfy needs at the self-esteem and self-actualization levels. As a result, as soon as the leaders have established the level of worker

motivation by considering their subordinates' different needs, they will employ the appropriate leadership style in the given situation. Thus the aim of this study is to examine the effects of leadership styles on worker motivation, that is the consistency of certain leadership styles in eliciting certain motivational factors at Falke Hosiery.

2.12 Conclusion

The principal assumption of this study is that the manager or the supervisor is the driving and significant force in any organisation. He/She determines the general functioning of the organisation, for example worker motivation and reaching of monthly targets. According to Schermerhorn (1993: 4), a manager is a person in an organisation who is responsible for the work performance of one or more other persons. Serving in positions with a wide range of titles (supervisor, team leader, section head, administrator, vice-president, and so on), managers are persons to whom others report. Every manager's job entails one primary responsibility – to help an organisation achieve high performance through the utilisation of all its resources, human and material. Managers must therefore be able to get things done through other people. This boils down to the issue of leadership, that is getting people to do their work willingly (followership). The way in which the manager or the supervisor get things done will determine the level of motivation in the organisation. The leader is the person who has to apply the appropriate leadership style in the situation brought to his/her attention in working towards individual and organisational goals. Hence the appropriateness of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model in this organisation as it accelerates the flexibility of leadership styles in different situations. Leaders in organisations should accordingly play their rightful roles in getting work done and in keeping their subordinates happy.