

**POWER STRATEGIES
IN INTER-PERSONNEL RELATIONSHIPS
AMONG INDIAN LIBRARY PROFESSIONALS**

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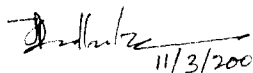
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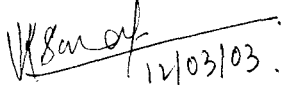
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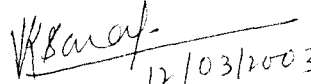
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I, Paokholun Hangsing, hereby declare that the subject matter of this thesis is the record work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to the best of my knowledge to any body else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University/Institute.

This is being submitted to North-Eastern Hill University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Library and Information Science.


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CHAPTER -1-

INTRODUCTION**DEFINITION**

The word 'Power' is a commonly used term in our every day life. It has been utilized in array of senses and defined in various concepts. "We are sure that we meant something by the word, and have a vague idea what it is" Dahl (1957). One who understands the intricacies involved in the definition of the word and master the skill of its implementation could make good use of it and reap in abundance. The concept of power has been so defined and used in varying perspectives that, sometimes seems to have nothing to do with the etymological meaning. No matter on what concepts the term is being used, we shall see the meaning of power in its originality. The word 'power' is derived from the Latin word "*potere*" which meant, "to be able". According to this translation power is the ability to do, to cause effect, or simply the ability of an entity or group of entity etc. Therefore, this ability can be attributed to anything that has ability, including men. This study will deal with the ability of a person or a group of persons and nothing more. A simple definition of such power is the ability to do or act physically, mentally, legally, politically, and spiritually.

In the entire lexicon of sociological concepts none is more troublesome than the concepts of power. We all know perfectly well what it is... until someone asks us," (Bierstedt, 1950). Social Power can also be applied to work. It is the ability to do something pleasant or unpleasant for others so that he willingly or unwillingly complies. The person complying with power is dependant on the more powerful person for a desirable outcome that cannot be achieved by other means (Emerson, 1964). It is the chance of a man or a number of men to realize their own will even against the resistance of others who are participating in the action (Weber, 1978). In this sense power is viewed as an instrument to dominate over the other. The impacts of power are experienced at all types of social organizations.

Power was of concern to chiefs, priests and kings. And today it is not only those at the helm of state governance who are involved with power. People from all walks of life working in different shades of organizations are also very much attached with power and librarians are no exception. The studies of power gain more momentum in the field of politics and the business organizations. The relevance of its use in a library environment is yet to be fully realized. Sceptics fail to conceive library as an organization wherein human interaction and communication contribute to the proper orientation of the library towards its goal. In India proper channeling of power in inter-personnel relations suffers a set back. Meaningful studies of power in the Indian library environment are yet to be initiated and owing to the same literature are unavailable. As it is understood, power is somehow implemented everyday in libraries all over India among the professionals and staff. If ask about power exercise, library professionals may whine about their lack of power. This is true to some extend and it is also true that librarians are not authorized to hire and fire at will which sometimes pave the way for subordinates non cooperation. Power does not confines to positional and legitimate influence and there are various way superiors and subordinates uses power even when their position are conceived to be powerless. Had power been depending solely on position subordinates will not be able to influence their super-ordinates. Despite of claims that library professionals held less power they still use power to influence others in order to get things done or to achieve the library goals. Scepticism about library professionals' use of power may be due to the fact that their conception of power and leadership are not clear. These very facts aggravate the personal relation among library professionals and heighten the need to conduct the study in the library environment. In an organizational set up like libraries where effective management of personnel are crucial to achieve the goals being set forth, the use of power would surely improve the way the library is being managed.

Power in this study will be further limited to the power of leaders, which is used to influence others in an organizational environment. In the organizational perspective the wider

concept of power is to achieve goals at the same time, leaders who get things done achieve such goals by consciously or unconsciously using power. Taking into consideration the organizational aspect of power Parson (1967) opines that power is “the ability to achieve goals and get things done”. Besides behaviours and traits, a leader is expected to exercise a fair share of power and it is interesting that some leaders possess a flair for the implementation of certain power though sometimes unknowingly.

POWER AND INFLUENCE

Power is used synonymously with influence due to its proximity in concepts and common usage. Morriss (1987) argued, “If power and influence are synonymous then the phrases ‘power to influence’ becomes nonsense”. While conducting a study on power it is equally important to properly distinguish the concept of influence. Confusion between the two can be a harmful omission and a chaotic approach. It will also be sheer callousness on my part not to draw a clear distinction between the terms.

Katz and Kahn (1966) defined influence as a transaction between two person where A change B’s behaviour to cause an intended effect whereas, power is the capacity to exercise such influence. Lipitt et al (1952) perceived it as an attribution and found that subjects attributed with power tend to influence others more than those with less power attribution. While establishing that power is not synonymous with influence Bass (1990) suggest, “Power is the potential to influence”. Power may or may not be an attribution yet it is clear that influence is the practical implementation of power to produce behavioural or psychological effects in a person or group of persons. Power is the ability and influence is the course of interpersonal relation where people, group of person or organization use power to convince another person, group of person or organization to produce the intended behaviours. Power in this study will be perceived as the ability to wield influence over others.

THE BASES OF POWER

To bring about a proper analysis of the use of power by managers or for that matter librarians as managers there is a need to identify the sources of power that forms the integral portion of the study. It is true that overlapping is unavoidable in examining the sources of power. This is due to the fact that one form of power may substantially generate another form of power. Even after conceptualizing the different bases of power, it is also inevitable that they are probably intertwined.

The most accepted and discussed identification of power can be traced to that of French and Raven (1959). They identified five kinds of power bases, which gain importance and popularity among researchers. Their five bases of power were expert power, referent power, reward power, coercive power and legitimate power. Etzioni (1961) conceived three broad forms of power giving the bases of each:

Coercive power is rested on threat of physical sanctions, generation of frustration or controlling through force the satisfactions of needs.

Remunerative power is based on control over material resources and rewards.

Normative power is based on the allocation and manipulation of symbolic rewards and deprivations.

Another three sources of power identified by Peabody (1962) are, position power, competence power and personal power. The French and Raven model as noted by Patchen (1974) was inadequate because the various bases of power were not defined in a conceptually parallel way. The models, which constitute five bases of power, were later added with two more bases --- information and connection (Hersey, Blanchard and Natemeyer, 1979; Raven, 1965). Thus, the French and Raven model were stretched to seven bases. Hinken and Schriesheim (1989) in sharpening the distinctions among the previous five bases define as follows: -

1. *Expert power*: - is the ability to administer to another person information, knowledge, or expertise.

2. **Referent power:** - is the ability to administer to other person feelings of personal acceptance or approval.
3. **Reward power:** - is the ability to administer to other person things he/she desires or to remove or decrease things he/she does not desire.
4. **Coercive power:** - is the ability to administer to other person things he/she does not desire or to remove or decrease things he/she does desire.
5. **Legitimate power:** - is the ability to administer to another person feeling of obligation or responsibility.

The two bases that come as later additions may be defined as follows: -

1. **Information power:** - is the ability to administer or withheld information valuable to another person.
2. **Connection power:** - is the perception of having connections with influential or important persons.

As mentioned earlier certain base of power may have some effect on the other. Library professionals in the superior position of the organizational hierarchy may tend to have used more coercive and legitimate power that affects the subordinates' feelings negatively that the superior may not be in a position to use referent power. In contrast, one with expert power may be looked up so much that he/she has more referent, legitimate, or even reward power. Obviously, certain powers are correlated and lodged in the same person whereas, others consequently negates to the extreme being less powerful.

Patchen (1974) suggest certain conceptual difficulties in the French and Raven model. Reward and coercive were defined in terms of the influencer's resources. Referent and legitimate were defined in terms of the influencee's characteristics and motives. Expert power depends on the influencer and the knowledge he/she possessed. Empirically correlations were found with the model. In a national random sample of executives Rahim (1986) obtain a correlation of .58 between the expert and referent power the subjects attributed to their

superiors. The control of reward and coercive power possessed by the superior correlate similarly with their legitimate power as conceived by the subordinates.

Though various problems seems to cloud the model of French and Raven it is found to be used in may experimentations and field research. For the purpose of the present study the bases of power is conceived as sources of power that make one influential and this sources of power has seven dimensions viz., expert, referent, reward, coercive, legitimate, information and connection. These bases of power will be investigated in two ways: one is which dimensions make themselves influential and the other is which dimensions make their superior influential.

INFLUENCE STRATEGIES

Although the boundary between power and influence is thin it is clear form various observation that power is oriented through certain behavioural strategies. These very behavioural strategies are termed as influence strategy. Upward and downward orientation of influence strategies in order to exercise power is found to be relevant in any human relations in organizations including libraries. Managers' use of influence strategy differs in method, situation and intention.

The skilful use of power or influence strategy can be traced as early as the studies of Nicolo Machiavelli to Lasswell (1948) and Lane (1961). Though these studies are interpersonal in approach it is based on the philosophy of inherent goodness and perfectibility of humankind. Goodchilds, Quadrado and Raven (1975) initiate the identification of influence strategies by asking subject of what strategies they use to influence others. Falbo (1977) generated a list of power strategies by asking the subjects to write an essay on 'How I get my way'. Based on this study Falbo and Peplau (1980) categorized various strategies that were used to conceptualize the Multidimensional Scaling System of power strategies. The Multi

dimensional Scaling System was later modified by Sagrestano (1992) and the modified version includes the following strategies: bargaining, discussing, persistence, persuasion, reasoning, asking, stating importance, telling positive effect, suggesting, laissez-faire, negative affect and withdrawal. Similarly, Dunn and Cowan (1993) define and categorize the various influence strategies as, strong, weak and neutral as follows:

Under the strong category the strategies are: -

1. **Autocracy**: insisting, claiming greater knowledge, using authority, or telling.
2. **Bullying**: Making threats or insults, becoming violent, or ridiculing.
3. **Laissez-faire**: Taking independent action.

The weak category of influence strategies includes: -

1. **Persistence**: Continue asking, nagging, or trying to get way; prolonging request.
2. **Manipulation**: Implying deceit; dropping hints, acting ill or incompetent, flattering; attempting to induce use of sex.
3. **Sexual Manipulation**: Behaving seductively or flirting, acting feminine or implying use of sex.
4. **Controlled Emotion**: Maintaining composure, speaking calmly; controlling feelings.
5. **Expressed Emotion**: Displaying emotions, crying; expressing feelings.
6. **Positive Behaviour**: Being nice or sweet, making jokes or avoiding abrasive behaviour.
7. **Supplication**: Pleading or begging.
8. **Avoidance**: avoiding target; influencing someone else instead.
9. **Advocate**: Employing someone else's help in influencing target.
10. **Disengagement**: withdrawal of affection; becoming silent, cold, or distant.

The Neutral Influence Strategies are: -

1. **Asking**: Making a simple request.
2. **Bargaining**: Negotiating reciprocation.

3. **Reasoning:** Presenting reasons or logical arguments, persuading.

In a study to understand the “power tactics” people use in different situations in an organization Fairholm (1985) identifies the following tactics viz., controlling the agenda, using ambiguity, practicing brinkmanship, displaying charisma, forming coalitions, co-opting opposition members, controlling decision criteria, developing others, using outside experts, building favourable image, legitimizing control, incurring obligation, controlling organizational placements, using a proactive strategy, using “quid pro quo”, rationalizing, selecting allocating resources, selective dispensing rewards, and punishment, using rituals, using a surrogate, using symbols and training and orienting others. In a study conducted on the use of influence strategies Savard and Rogers (1992) identifies reason, request, making one feel good, chain of command with superior and peers as important tactics, Yeh (1995) on investigating the downward influence style in cultural diversity found the use of assertiveness, exchanges and higher authorities as bearing significant difference. Bjorkman (1998) conceptualize influence into personal and positional. There is no distinct demarcation on the concept of various influence strategies as revealed in empirical and theoretical analysis.

In the Indian scenario Ansari, Kapoor and Rehana (1984) have conducted a study of power strategies which Ansari, (1990) categories it into nine (9) forms of strategies. This indication is based on some of the most widely reported strategies of downward, upward and lateral influence in the organizations. (*Ref.* Kipnis, 1976; Kipnis, et al, 1980; Mowday, 1978, 1979; Allen et al, 1979; Ralston, 1985; Pandey, 1978, 1981, 1988; Pandey and Bohra, 1984; Pandey and Rastogi, 1979; Portel, et al. 1981; Ansari and Kapoor, 1987, Mechanic 1962; Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971).

1. **Assertiveness:** - insisting, vindicating, verbal anger, telling the rights and rules or thrusting on to make a person complies. It is found that the strategy utilized in all levels.

2. **Coalition/Forming alliance:** - In, this strategy lateral and subordinate supports are established to influence the subject. Used more on upward influence.
3. **Exchange of benefits:** - Promising something in return for the work done. The strategy is used in upward, downward and lateral influence.
4. **Ingratiation:** - Persuasively commending about the person from whom the favour is wanted. Sometimes by making the person feel important or by asking politely. Superior subordinate and peers used this style.
5. **Manipulation:** - Giving an apparent or argument to change the mind of a person who is not aware that he/she is being manipulated. It can be utilized to influence, co-workers subordinates and super-ordinates.
6. **Reasoning/Rationality:** - Request made with logical or judicious explanation to make a person comply. It is found to be more affective with upward influence.
7. **Threats/Defiance:** - Indication of an intention to inflict, punish or hurt if the person fails to comply. The person is made to do the job willy-nilly. The one who use this strategy should be in a position to do the harm.
8. **Upward appeal:** - In this strategy the support of somebody in the higher rank (e.g. the subject's boss) is acquired to put pressure on the target. Making a formal appeal to the higher ups or obtaining their support is included in this strategy.
9. **Used of Sanction:** - The strategy involves both rewarding and denying something to the target. Rewarding for being cooperative or denying a promotion for being not cooperative are included in this strategy.

Various studies have suggested identification of influence strategies adopted by managers. Each investigator seems to have different way of distinguishing and defining the strategies. To investigate the influence strategies of Indian library professionals these influence strategies, proven to have relevance in the Indian organizational environment, are

implemented. In this study, influence strategies are conceived in two ways: upward influence strategies and downward influence strategies.

LEADERSHIP

Leaders as prophets, priests, chiefs, and kings several as symbols and representatives are models for their people in the Old and New Testaments, in the Upanishads, in the Greek and Latin classics, and in the Icelandic regions (Bass, 1990). Leadership is one of the oldest study written in the Egyptians hieroglyphics more than 5000 years ago, countless volumes of books, articles and journals has been written on the subject whereas no clear and universally acceptable understanding is established. Leadership remains “one of the most observed and least understood phenomenon” (Burns, 1978). Decades of academic analysis has given in more than 350 definitions of leadership, thousands of empirical investigations of leaders have been conducted in the last 75 years alone, but no clear and unequivocal understanding exists as to what distinguishes leaders from non leaders and perhaps more important what distinguishes effective leaders, from ineffective leaders and effective organizations from ineffective organizations “(Bernis and Namus, 1985). According to Katz and Kahn (1978) Hersey and Blanchard (1977) and Schultz (1982) leadership plays a pivotal role in the organization to achieve goals and successes. In other words the success and failure of the organization depends on its leaders.

The description and meaning of leadership will differ in context and purpose for which it is being conceived. Different people conceived the purposes of the studies; researchers have defined differently in their own perspective. Leadership is defined by Hempill (1949) as behaviour involved in directing group activity; as process of influencing the activities of an organized group (Stodgili, 1950), and as an attempt to change behaviour (Bass, 1960); as the course of directing and in ordination the work of group members which involves work relations, praising or criticizing and showing conduction (Fiedler, 1967) as leaders existing

influence; at the margin to compensate what was missing in the specified process and structure (Miller, 1973); as the process of influence between leader and follower (Hollander, 1978); as followers perception of the leaders abilities (Kouzes and Posner, (1990). To sum up, “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (Stogdill, 1979). The search for the one and only one proper and true definition of leadership seems to be fruitless, since the appropriate choice of definition should depend upon the methodological and substantive aspects of leadership in which one is interested (Bass, 1990). However, for the present purpose leadership will be perceived as the process in which leaders influence others in an effort to attain organization goals and objectives. In this study leadership will be viewed in two perspectives: leaders own perception and subordinates perception.

LEADERSHIP STYLE

With the onset of human relation theory in the study of leadership after World War II, the focuses on the behavioural differences among managers gain momentum. The distinction of an individual as a successful leader was found more on the behavioural approaches. Bole (1963) found that, “as the task leader continued to force people to focus on their jobs, certain of their needs were frustrated. What emerged was a social leader, one whose role was to reduce tensions and make the job more pleasant. The behaviour of this leader helped to boost morale and crystallize and defend the values, attitudes and beliefs of the group”. The approach draws the attention of many researchers in the behavioural sciences and a number of models and styles have emerged. In general, all studies on the model or styles of leader are based on the accomplishment of Task and people oriented leadership styles.

Halpin and Niener (1957) after modification of the nine dimension suggested by Ohio State University identified consideration, initiating structure, Production emphasis and

sensitivity or social Awareness as the ideal leadership styles without much overlaps. A research similar to the Ohio State University was conducted at the University of Michigan's Survey Research Centre. In 1950 the Michigan Survey identified two leadership styles--- Production (job) orientation and People (supportive) orientation. Various studies have taken place and enormous amount of literatures attempting to identify the dimension of leadership styles have been produced. As it is always true with the study of leadership there are overlapping and repetitions in this process of identifying the styles leaders use to achieve the goal or make people do the job.

Saraf (1995) after an extensive search of literature identified 5 (five) dimensions of leadership styles. These styles were tested in Indian Library Environmental and were found relevant. For the purpose of this study these five leadership styles will be adopted. The styles as described by various authors (see, Blan and Scott, 1962; Weber, 1947; Bensman and Rosenberge, 1960; Bales, 1958; Linkert, 1961; Bars, 1990; Kalar, 1971; Sinha, 1980 and Saraf 1995) are as follows:

1. **Authoritarian Style:** The authoritarian leader is strict, supervise closely, and adhere to procedure. The personalities of the authoritarian are rigidity, self-centeredness, suspicious, insecure and anxiety. They can accomplish the job but subordinates remain unsatisfied.
2. **Bureaucratic style:** The bureaucratic leaders work with appointed officials. Legal authority based on rational ground supports the positions of these leaders. Their authority rests on belief in the legality of normative rules and those elevated to authority under such rules are to issue command. The styles makes people cautious conservative, unwilling to risks, impersonal in thought and breeds arrogance.
3. **Task oriented style:** Leaders with a strong sense of achieving/fulfilling goals are known to be task oriented or performance oriented. Thus, the leadership adopted by such leaders is termed task-oriented style. Such leaders contributed to the group's effectiveness by setting

goals, allocating labour and sometimes enforcing sanctions. They are moderates, neither too sensitive nor too aggressive.

4. **Participative style:** The participative style is synonymous with democratic, considerate, permissive and non-directives styles. Leaders share decision-making policy with subordinates and this in turn highly motivate the subordinates and makes them take more responsibilities. The participative leadership allows each member of the group to gain recognition and a strong sense of self-worthiness.
5. **Nurturant Style:** The Nurturant style is said to be the preferred style in India (Sinha, 1980). A nurturant leader cares for his subordinate shows affection, takes personal interest in their well beings, this personal warmth helps create a climate of trust and understanding where subordinates grow up and acquire maturity.

MEASURING LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Measuring leaders' effectiveness had been done through many ways depending upon the model of leadership being investigated. Some of the most widely used checklist for measuring leaders effectiveness is the set of behavioural categories developed by Bales (1950) Carter, et al (1951) Mann (1961) Bales et al (1979) Bales and Cohin (1980) and Komaki et al (1986). Bales (1960) suggested that leaders' effectiveness can be measured through group effectiveness and proposed that this group effectiveness can be defined as (1) The group's output, (2) its morale and (3) members satisfaction. Likert (1958) proposed 12 indicators of leaders' effectiveness and refined by Mintzberg (1973) into nine lists of indicators, which was defined by Wagner (1978) through factor analysis and reduced into six activities. As far as librarians are concerned Bechlel (1993) suggested that excellent leadership, however, begins with the notion that enabling everyone who works in the library to grow in knowledge ability and commitment to library service is the primary task. Since the inclusion of all possible variables for determining librarians leadership effectiveness is beyond the purview of

this study, librarians' leadership effectiveness will be measured in relation with subordinates, super-ordinates, organizational climate and background variables.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF POWER AND LEADERSHIP

Conceptual frameworks relating to the relationship between power and leadership remains subtle and sparse. However, in the processes of defining power, leadership seems to significantly matter. We have, in our previous discussion, conceptualized power as the potential and influence as the process. Yet the relationship between power, influence and leadership remains unidentified.

A remarkable view by Tannenbaum, and company (1961), in this regard was formulated and according to them leadership 'is interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process towards the attainment of a specific goal or goals'. Power according to them is ability or potential for influence and leadership is the ability or potential for influence and leadership is the actual use of power by the leader to get compliance in achieving the goal. In the words of Gibbs (1969) 'leadership is but one facet through perhaps the most readily visible fact of the larger process of role differentiation. Leadership is simply this concept applied to the situation obtaining in a group when the differentiation of roles results in one or some of the parties to the interaction influencing the actions of the others in a hared approach to common or compatible goals'. The concepts of leadership and influence attempts are hard to distinguish. Korman (1971) aptly put that 'the statement, "a leader tries to influence other people in a given direction" is relatively simple but it seems to capture the essence of what we mean by leadership'. Similarly, Filley and House (1969) defined leadership as 'a process whereby one person exerts social influence over the members of the group. A leader, then, is a person with power over others who exercise this process for the purpose of influencing their behaviour'.

From the above discussions it is clear that leadership and power are influence processes and 'the connecting link between leadership and power is influence' (Ansari, 1990). For the purpose of this study, power is the potential to influence and leadership is the actual exercise of power.

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Organizational climate is a man made system with the objective of achieving goals that the organization set forth. Some organizational climate are said to have boost the overall productivity of the organization and motivates its personnel while other with a set of attractive rules and regulation fails to achieve. Starting with a contrived system the organizational climate creates a distinct personality of the organization that may or may not be conducive to the objectives of the organization. Therefore, two different organizations will have two different personality or organizational climate of their own. The type of organizational climate, friendly or hostile, conducive or inconvenient is based purely on the perception of the people working in it.

The study of such psychological climate is said to be initiated by Lewin (1936) in his famous equation, $B = f(P, E)$ where behaviour 'B' is a function of both personality 'P' and the forces of environment 'E'. This discovery of organization as an important factor that shapes the personals working in it led to the study of organizational climate. However, the study gains momentum only in the late 60s. Linkert (1961) suggested that each different system would create a different climate. This was later reinforced by Litwin and Stinger's (1968) finding of a study of organizational climate in three simulated firms. The organizational climate study of Litwin and Stinger (1968) suggested that the climate perceived are, structured, punitive, non-supportive, less chance for responsibility, participative, encouraging operation, strong norms of responsibility, personal initiative and risk taking. Similar studies of

organizational climate indicate the organizational climate can enhance motivation, productivity, and job satisfaction.

In a study conducted on organizational climate Upadhyay (1983) is of the view that there are two factors, external and internal which influence the organization. Again the organization, in the process of interaction, influences the environmental factors. In an earlier study, Forehand (1968) had suggested environmental variables are external to the individual but internal to the organization. Upadhyay's (1983) argument is based on external factors like cultural/social systems that are not within the framework of the organization. Dastmashian (1986) finds that vulnerability of the organization to threats imposed by the labour market has significant effects on the attitudes of the organizational decision makers in creating favourable organizational climate. The variables used to scale the organizational climate are as follows: -

1. Creativity and readiness to innovate,
2. Leaders psychological distance,
3. Management concern for employee involvement,
4. Orientation to wider community, and
5. Questioning authority,
6. Reward orientation,
7. Rules orientation,
8. Sociability.

On the basis of earlier literature Akhilesh and Pandey (1986) conclude that "the difference in organizational climate score between two organizations may be an indicator of relative performance and satisfaction of its employees" and the perception of organizational climate vary according to the individuals hierarchical position. In Srinath's (1990) views, "the dynamics operating in and around the organization" is what leads to the organizational climate.

Organizational climate has been investigated in various types of organization resulting in various sets of indicators. These findings only support the definition that every organization has a personality or climate of its own. It is the direct or indirect perception of the individuals within it that have created the image of the climate. Therefore, organizational climate can be defined as a molar concept that reflects the general atmosphere of a work place, and is assumed to influence the motivation, satisfaction and behaviour of the individuals in the organization (Litwin and Stringer, 1968; Payne, 1971).

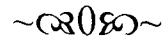
Based on various definitions and findings organizational climate in this study is conceptualized as the attributes of the organization as perceived by the individuals within the organization.

CONCLUSION

It is imperative to note that power strategies are made up of factors like the bases of power, influence strategies, leadership styles and organizational climate. Bases of power are the sources that make the subjects' change the mind of the target. Having one or more power bases subjects may use various strategies to influence the target. However, chances are that a person may not particularly base his/her power on any given base but he/she may still attempt to influence. Different people have different leadership styles and the influence processes adopted by different leaders are likely to differ accordingly. Organizational climate is also one important factor that shapes the power strategies and the strategies differ from climate to climate. Therefore, it is necessary to take the whole scenario into consideration in order to understand the power strategies better.

The process of power strategy involves more than one person. It is indeed a study of the relationship between two or more people. Organizations have three different types of relationship namely, upward, downward and lateral. These relationships are called inter-personal relationship. The upward relation is the power strategies toward the superior and

downward relation is conceived as the strategies towards the subordinates. Similarly, lateral relationship is the strategies towards peers. This study is limited to upward and downward relationship.



CHAPTER -2-

LITERATURE REVIEW

Prior to the actual research process an extensive survey on related literature was conducted which, was of immense help in sharpening the knowledge of the subject and providing an edge to comprehend the outcome. Though literature survey being integral to a research work certain limitations remains unavoidable in the process. As Kothari (1990) has pointed out, “much of the time and energy of the researching are spent in tracing out the books journals reports etc. rather than in tracing out relevant materials from them”. Owing to the cross-disciplinary nature and vastness of the subject it was not humanly possible to reviews all the literatures related to the subject. However, with the limited time and resources every possible effort was made to review all literatures found directly relevant to the central theme of the topic. These literatures, according to the subject nature, are grouped as: -

1. Power Studies Review.
2. Influence Strategies Review
3. Leadership Studies Review
4. Organisational Climate review.
5. Studies in Library and Information Science

POWER STUDIES REVIEW

The study of power, unlike leadership, lacks the transformation and refinement of approaches. Each study seems to be independent of the other. However, Ansari (1990) identified three main approaches in defining the concept of power, viz. field approach, decision-making approach and interaction approach. Cartwright (1959) propounded the field theory. In this approach power is defined as a force, which A can bring upon B's certain

aspects of life span. In a decision making approach, as March (1955) have articulated, power is a decision making process where a change of B's behaviour is seen after the intervention of A in B's life. Finally, Thibaut and Kelly (1959) argued that power was based on individual's interaction. Power, as they define, was the ability of A to cause effect on B's outcome through interaction. Although, many scholars have suggested different approaches on the study of power (see for example; - Russell, 1938; Heider, 1958; Beirstedt, 1950, Lippitt et al, 1952, Menton, 1967, Kaplan 1969), there was no significant difference on the way power was defined. Each approach tells the same story only in different ways of expression.

Owing to these factors, no particular differentiation of approaches was adopted in these studies. However, after careful analysis of a few available literatures the previous study has been divided into (1) Study of power in general, (2) the Semiotic approaches (3) Power in organisations, and (4) Power and Influence.

GENERAL STUDY OF POWER

On assessing the differential access to power and sex role socialization, Thompson (1981) on the analysis of negotiation found that with no gender differences in their overall participation's, women were more supportive whereas, men were more informative. These differences were true when the participants were equal and unequal in status.

Drawing data from the Thematic Apperception Test completed by 120 Israeli females and males aged 20-50 from a large city and from 2 Kibbutzim the hypothesis, egalitarian shift with increased age in perceptions of interpersonal power was tested. In both the city and Kibbutzim residents Friedman, et al (1992) found shift in power perception with age. Among city dwellers parental status increased male power and reduced female power whereas, the opposite effect was found in the Kibbutz. Traditional feminine power strategies was used by older females and they indicates that the evaluations of behaviour rather than

the behaviour themselves change over the life span. The finding does not support the shift in power with age.

The original power model of French and Raven (1959) (Raven, 1965) consisted six bases of power: reward, coercion, legitimate, expert, referent, and information or persuasion. After 30 years, Raven (1992) once again re-evaluated these bases of power and found that the model had gone through significant development. Coercion and reward can have personal as well as impersonal forms. Expert and referent power can be negative or positive. Legitimate power, in addition to position power, may be bases on other normative obligations: reciprocity, equity and responsibility. Information may be used in direct or indirect mode. The author examined the overall model in terms of its applicability in various settings.

The effects of the following strategies namely, expert, referent, coercive and manipulation were examined by Hood, et al (1993) on the complexity of a buyer's decision and the anticipation of future interaction in a mutually dependent situation. Questionnaire data obtained from 131 salesperson and their managers in 17 different tracking firms at Denver reveal that expert and referent-based strategies were more likely to be used in a decision perceived to be complex. The subjects choose referent power strategies when future interaction is expected. According to the supervisor's rating of subjects individual's use of particular strategies had no relationship to performance.

In a non-negotiated social relation, Molm (1997) investigate how risk and fear of loss constrain the use of coercive power. Previous researches shows the limited use of coercive by exchange partners even when their incentives and capacity to coerce were high and this constrain was explain with the help of analysis of the use of strategic power. Due to fear of losses from retaliation of partners the actors feel the use of power risky and tend to ignore the prospect of increased rewards. Because of the high reward dependence of actors who have the strongest incentive to use coercion the high risks of coercive power use are

especially great in the context of relations of mutual exchange. Experiments in 16 member groups with 160 undergraduates grouped in 16 member networks revealed that when risk of reward loss is reduced, both the use of coercion and the effects of variations in the structure of coercive power increase.

Ellemers et al (1998) collected data from 50 natural science and English literature students who held differential behavioural expectations of in-group and out-group members to investigate evaluative, attributive and behavioural responses to power use in an experimental research concept. It was hypothesized that subordinates interpret frequent power use by a superior differently depending on whether it is consistent or inconsistent with previous expectations. Frequent power use results in decreased satisfaction and negative evaluations of the superior. Attributive ratings indicated that when an out-group member engaged in frequent power use, this negatively evaluated behaviour was attributed to the superior's group membership, and resulted in decreased cooperation on the part of the subordinate. To the extent that frequent power use of an in-group member was attributed to external circumstances, subordinates maintained a sense of commitment to the in-group superior, which resulted in displays of cooperative behaviour.

Salem et al (2000) defines referent power as influence based on sense of identification and expert power as influence based on knowledge and expertise. The role of these two powers was explored in mutual-help group for person experiencing a schizophrenia-related illness called Schizophrenics Anonymous. The study describes the Schizophrenics Anonymous participants' experience of referent and expert power with Schizophrenics Anonymous members, leaders, and mental health professionals. Whether or not referent and expert power ascribed to fellow participants predicts the perceived helpfulness of the group was also investigated. Participants reported experiencing higher levels of referent power with fellow member and leaders than with mental health professionals. Higher levels of expert power for mental health professionals and leaders than

members were reported. Although expert power was the best independent predictor of helpfulness, a significant interaction between referent and expert power indicated that when members reported high referent power, expert power was not related to helpfulness. The result suggested that there are multiple forms of social influence at work in mutual help.

THE SEMIOTIC APPROACH

Fiol (1991) used signs of spoken words that theoretically enables identification and structuring of visible and invisible dimensions to make up the meaning of organisational power. Autobiographies of Henry Ford and Lee Iacocca were search for the way they construct the meaning of leader power using a semiotic model. Results indicate that perception of both the two men were similar. The study suggested that leader power has not declined, but its perception has changed from a simple implied relation between positive values to a complex relation involving contrary values. Importance of this observation and additional uses of a semiotic model are discussed.

Way back in 1940, Winston Churchill successfully persuaded Franklin Roosevelt to abandon neutrality and to exchange 50 US destroyers for the use of British bases. Gold and Raven (1992) uses extensive documentation on the event via Bertram H. Raven's power/interaction model of interpersonal influence to ascertain the interpersonal influence strategies of Churchill-Roosevelt. It is evident that Churchill uses combination of various influence strategies with the subtle use of referent power having critical importance. The preparatory tactics like stage setting, self-presentation and other preparatory devices were effectively utilised by Churchill. To select his influence strategies Churchill assessed Roosevelt's motivations and utilised an intermediary, the British Ambassador to the US, Lord Lothian. Churchill was effective in complex tactics related to informational power. He presented coercive communication as informational with fear appeal and use indirect rather than direct informational power.

The idea of ideology playing important role in determining social power is a rare investigation so far. DeMarrais, et al (1996) approached ideology as integral to cultural system and as a source of social power. Ideology as defined by the author is a material means to communicate and manipulate ideas. The symbolic and material component of ideology materialise in the form of ceremonies, symbolic objects, monuments, and writing systems allows the extension of ideology outside the local group and the communication of power to the larger population. This process is examined in three archaeological case studies: Neolithic and Bronze age Chieftoms of Denmark, the Moche status of Northern Peru, and the Inca Empire of the Andes. In all of the cases the materialization of ideology was one of the mechanisms to stabilise relations within societies tending to fragment into smaller political units.

POWER IN THE ORGANISATION

One of the foremost exponents of social power in organisational context, Mechanic (1962) in his own word opines that “It is not unusual for lower participants in complex organisation to assume and wield considerable power and influence not associated with their formally defined positions within these organisations. In sociological terms they have considerable personal power but no authority. The personal power achieved by these lower participants does not necessarily result from unique personal characteristics, although these may be relevant, but results rather from particular aspects of their location within their organisations”. The author explores various factors that account for the power of various lower participants within organisations. Power is seen as resulting from access to and control over persons, information and instrumentalities. Among the variables discussed affecting power are normative definitions, perception of legitimacy, exchange, and coalitions. Personal attributes related to power, commitment, effort, interest, willingness to use power, skills, and attractiveness. Finally, various attributes of social structure are

discussed which also help to account for the power of lower participants: time spent in the organisation, centrality of position, duality of power structures, and replaces ability of persons”.

Kanter (1977) conceptualise a framework that views organisation power in terms of access to resources and the ability to obtain cooperation from other actors. A model to analyse the same is developed by the author. Using Multidimensional Scaling (MDS), the author found two dimensions of conceived power strategies. On the continuum of directionality and bilaterality all 13-power strategies can be grouped. Based upon this method men and those with more power in their relationships were found to have direct and bilateral strategies. Those with less power in their relationships and women used more indirect and unilateral strategies. Frequently expecting compliance with their attempt to influence, men were able to use direct and bilateral influence attempts whereas, being less likely to expect compliance women use indirect and unilateral strategies that do not require cooperation from their partners.

Assuming a managers' important function is to influence those around them, Bhatnagar (1985) defines power as the ability to mobilise resources to get things done. The author distinguishes the concept of power and authority as the former developing commitment in subordinates and the later ensuring compliance and conformity. Reaffirmed Freud and Raven (1959) bases of power as the sources of power that strengthen the administrators. Those bases of power are: - (1) reward power, (2) coercive power, (3) legitimate power, (4) referent power, and (5) expert power. The exertion of power being both upward and downward, the upward exertion of power base on the following dimensions: - (1) expertise, (2) effort and interest, (3) location and position, (4) rules. The author considers organisation as a significant determinant of power balance between superior and subordinate. It is also suggested that Huber (1981) guidelines are tips for enhancing managers' power. The guidelines are as follows: -

1. Create the perception of power
2. Being with the use of the least costly power
3. Relate rewards and punishments directly to behaviour
4. Select an appropriate power strategy
5. Maintain power exchanges that favour the manager
6. Assert power on those areas of control
7. Use power discreetly and sparingly

Further, suggested that the strategies of Kipnis et al (1981) are potential managerial power enhancement. The strategies are--- (1) Assertiveness, (2) Ingratiation, (3) Rationality, (4) Exchange of benefits, (5) Use of sanction, and (6) Upward appeal.

In a PhD thesis on the 'behavioural strategies in power relationships', Singh (1985) collected data by way of interviews from a public sector fertilizer company. The interpersonal power relationship was analysed by investigating the use of different power strategies used by the managers to influence their superior and subordinates. The subjects reacting upon the word 'strategies' asserted that they couldn't make the workers work, so they do not have power, and when they do not have power, there is no question of strategies. The analysis indicates that workers possessed greater power than their managers. In a similar investigation on the patters of power distribution in a public and a private steel company, Hassan (1985) found the actual hierarchical power acceptable in both the company with the exception of managers in public sector wants more power for themselves and less for the workers, as compared to their counterparts in the private sector. The investigation further indicates the centralisation of power in both the plant and possession of power by top and higher-level managers was thought to be the ideal distribution. Possession of power was approximated to their ideal choice in the private plant whereas there was power deficit among the lower level mangers of the public plant. Again, workers in the

private plant had less power than their managers while their counterparts in public plant had more.

Fairholm (1985) conducted a research "to identify and define power applications and locate situations in which they occur". Questionnaire containing 22 refined and validated power tactics were distributed to 109 people. Respondents indicated that they used tactics perceived as ethical on initial approach of superiors and resorted to other tactics on resistance. On power tactics with peer, respondents ally themselves with others, trade off resources, win their peers' indebtedness or admiration, make use of surrogates or orienting the agenda. With their subordinates, training, orienting and developing others were found to be used most to obtain powerful subordinates, allies, and supporters. The result also reveals that when faced with opposition people resorted to a number of pragmatic tools to reach the objectives.

Sinha and others (1986) agrees that contingent on task and subordinate's characteristics are effective leadership styles. Due to strong preference for maintaining relationship in the culture subordinate's characteristics are more crucial in Indian work organisations. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) perception of leadership styles model was examined for efficacy on three studies. Study # 1: 58 managers from various organisations rated immediate superiors on the leadership style dimensions of initiating structure, consideration, 9-1 style, 9-9 style, nurturance and task oriented style. Study # 2: The second study was designed to re-examine the extent of overlaps between leadership styles and to test the validity of the model that the effectiveness of Nurturant Task Style is contingent on the subordinate's preference for dependency and personalised relationship and status differential. 140 managers from a private sector tube-manufacturing organisation rated their immediate superiors on five styles of leadership--- authoritarian, bureaucratic, nurturant, participative, and task oriented styles. Study # 3: Managers were asked to make a choice

between four desirable leadership styles--- nurturant, participative, task-oriented, and nurturant-task-oriented.

The three studies consistently indicate that nurturant style is effective for those subordinates who prefer personalised and dependency relationship and accepted the superior status of the leader. The blend of nurturant and task-oriented style is effective and participative style is not much related to subordinate's effectiveness. "Part of the reason for the absence of differential effects of leadership styles is the presence of a significant amount of overlap between nurturant, participative, task-oriented and nurturant task oriented styles. The overlaps suggested the possibility of leader switching from one style to another".

Hallinger and Richardson (1988) explore the potential changes in the power relationship among teachers and principals. This study of power relationship conducted on four emerging forms of structured teacher involvement in school wide decision making; instructional leadership teams, principals' advisory councils, school improvement teams and lead teachers committees. Each form being perceived as organisational model were described in terms of purpose, operation, values of teachers and principals and finally its impact on teacher leadership and empowerment. The result suggested that in order to empower teachers and improve students learning increased interaction among teachers in curricular and instructional decision-making should be encouraged.

In a bi-dimensional approach to examine power in banking organisations, Singh (1989) defined power as the capacity to influence and the extent to which influence was used to change an influence attempt of another. Data was gathered from managers and non-managers in recently nationalised and originally nationalised banking organisations by asking them to influence non-managers in an ideal and real situation. The analysis indicated that managers and non-managers agreed that managers of originally nationalised banks had less power than non-managers. The private banks approximated the normative pattern of power distribution. In yet another study Singh (1991) defines power as the 'capacity to

influence other persons or groups and this capacity may not always be obtained through the organisation. Power is multi-directional and is not restricted to positional power'. The normative pattern of power distribution postulates greater power to superiors and managers and less power to workers and non-managers. Argues that the emerging trend indicates the workers seem to enjoy greater power and do what they like. The managers are now not in a position to pressurise them to comply. Therefore, in such a framework power is no longer the potentiality of A to bring changes in the attitudes, beliefs and habits of B in order to make the latter work; it is rather the influence used by B to change the attempts by A.

Andres (1992) analyse chronologically the studies of power in organisation as having leadership, organisational culture and the political dimension as important components. Individuals need for power; emotional security; acceptance; the organisational structure; the absence of objective norms of performances and the avoidance of work are considered factors contributing to the development of the political dimension. To acquire power alliance with influential figure, "beat 'em or join 'em", divide and conquer", "step by step" and team buildings are some of the strategies and tactics. The author supports confrontation between diverse interest, constructive negotiation and compromise as political perspective on organisation.

In a study of regulation as a mechanism of public policy, Melville (1994) gathered empirical data through 23 interviews with managers at different layers of Yorkshire Water and its regulator and office of Water Services. The study is divided into different sections--- regulatory arena, rules of the games, regulatory strategies and the concluding section. In 'regulatory areas,' authority, legitimacy, information, finances and organisational resources are identified as key criteria for accusing the regulatory decision-making arenas. In the 'rules of the game' section, legitimate share of action, fairness, mutual understanding and accommodation, consultation and consent, de-politics issues, trust and secrecy as pragmatic rules that guide actions. In the third section 'regulatory strategies' three main strategies used

to gain compliance from companies are signals and messages, incentive and threats, divide and rule. The company's strategies for action were persuasion and avoidance. Similarly professional strategies that reinforce professional control over decisions are summit diplomacy, influence and consensus building and incorporation and penetration. The managerial strategies adopted to minimize certainty and to allow regulatory requirements are --- managing the boundary, customisation and systematisation. The concluding draws out the features of economic regulation which are most striking when one adopts the perspective of this conceptual model.

In a theoretical analysis, Björkman ((1998) opined that 'the achievement of objectives and the implementation of strategies largely depends on the ability of an organisation to maintain control of its numbers. The purpose of the organisational control is to ensure that rules and regulations are obeyed; that policies, programs and practices are carried out and that orders issued by superiors are followed. Three concepts contribute to the maintenance of control among the participations in an organisation: power, influence and authority. The nature, sources and limitations of each concept are examined along with their mutually reinforcing relationships'. Maintains that though 'separated for analytical purposes, in operational situations, they are intertwined'.

Somech and Drach (2002) examined the use of various downward influence strategies. The use of downward influence strategies was examined in relation to the subjects' perception of their own power and the power of the subordinates. Four hundred and fifty five school teachers (subordinates) from different schools were asked to describe the extent to which their superiors used each influence strategy to influence them. The teachers immediate superiors were ask to evaluate the superior's power and the subordinates' power. Superiors were found to have the tendency to use soft and rational strategy more often. It was also found that agent's power and target's power affected the

superior's choice of influence strategy. It is suggested, as per the result, that power should be discussed in relative rather than absolute terms.

POWER AND INFLUENCE

French and Johnson (1959) have defined power as the potential to influence the other person to do something that she/he might not have otherwise done. The use of power and influence are used as synonymous term in many studies. Though the conceptual differences between the two terms are thin, it should not be confused or used synonymously. In this study power is conceived as the ability or potential and influence as the process of exercising power.

Tjosvold, Andrews and Struthers (1992) made an exploration on whether influence attempts made by leaders are affected by goal interdependence and power. Questionnaire data from 143 Canadian employees indicated to what extent they valued the resources of their manager and their use of directive and collaborative influence attempts. Manager with cooperative goals and power relied on collaborative influence. These managers influence effectively and contribute the theory, empowerment of employees by successful managers. The study also suggested that success of leader-influence strategies depend on the relationship between manager and employee.

Sagrestano (1992) conduct a general survey of empirical research on the effects of gender and power on the use of influence strategies in interpersonal relationships in intimate, non-intimate and work relationships. Since, gender is inextricably of gender to influence strategies usage can only be understood in terms of its relationship to power and status. The author conducted experimentation on 146 undergraduates at the University of California to explore the effects of power and gender in the use of influence strategies. Both female and male subjects responded to 3 scenarios in which they interacted with an imaginary partner who had either more, less, or the same amount of power. These imagined

partners were either the same sex or opposite sex. It is apparent that subjects used more direct power when they are more powerful and more indirect power when they are more powerful and more indirect power when they are less powerful. Gender did not have significance in the choice of influence strategies whereas; power differences had a deeper effect in the choice of influence strategies. The common construed, as gender differences in social influence are probably perceived power differences. Similarly, gender differences in behaviour must be understood within the context of status and power.

An experiment on 228 Japanese male university students was conducted. In the experimentation Yoshiaki (1994) hypothesised that strong influence strategies would produce self-serving attributions and maintain psychological distance and the perception of powerlessness was analysed. The hypothesis was unconfirmed and the workers instead of the supervisors show self-serving attributions. The investigation result support weak influence strategies for supervisors to achieve goals and to get positive evaluations from workers. Task orientated power has negative impact whereas; expert power and referent power shows positive success.

INFLUENCE STRATEGIES REVIEW

As mentioned in the preceding chapter, the proximity of power and influence strategy is very close in application. Even both should be studied together in order to achieve a desirable outcome. In this review, literatures on the two are analysed separately. However, the possibilities of being mixed up in certain cases are not ruled out.

The literature on influence strategies has been grouped into (1) influence strategy in general, (2) the up/down approaches, (3) cross cultural studies, (4) the gender approach, and (5) other approaches. These attempts in differentiating various studies are not intended to demarcate the significant differences in the concept. It is rather an attempt to group the

literature into different categories for clarity and simplicity. Therefore, each article is analysed in such a way that it is self-defining in its form.

In their theory of external control, Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) suggested that decisions within the organisation can be influenced from outside, like stakeholder, through the control of resources. The influence processes within the organisation are limited to lateral, upward, and downward hierarchical structure of the organisation and it has no legitimate authority over the stakeholders and the organisation is in power disadvantage. The organisation in this regard needs to use other means of influence to achieve autonomy. Some of the means are, restricting the flow of information, denying the legitimacy of stakeholders' demands diversifying dependencies, and manipulating information. Managers can increase their power over external forces like stakeholders through acting within three roles: symbolic, responsive and discretionary.

Based on previous theoretical frameworks of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), and Vroom and Yetton (1973), Singh and Verma (1986) identified 5 leadership styles specifically stated to have relevance in Indian setting--- (1) risk taking, (2) technology, (3) 'organicity', (4) participation, and (5) coercion. Using Tannenbaum seven-point continuum of leadership structure ranging from 'always' to 'never' attribute data was collected from an agricultural university and an ICAR institute of India. Data indicates that ICAR institute was comparatively inclined towards authoritarian tendency as compared to agricultural university. Also, indicates that "higher the status in administrative hierarchy, greater the amount of autocratic style". Further, suggested that the managerial leadership, particularly in higher hierarchies, require occupational training on organisational development so as to induce in them an element of humanitarian consideration.

Reacting upon the suggestions that in the Indian setting authoritarian leaders will be more effective Meade's (1964) and the counter-suggestion that nurturant and task-oriented leadership are more effective (Sinha, 1974; 1977; 1979), Singh (1987) collected 75 and 69

samples from ineffective and effective organisation's executives. The leadership style scale (LSS) that seeks information about bureaucratic, authoritarian, nurturant, participative and task-oriented styles of leadership was used to measure leadership style effectiveness. Rejecting earlier theory of Meade and supporting Sinha's the data indicated that "Nurturant-Task leadership is best leader behaviour for supervising the workmen and Participative-Task leadership is the best leadership behaviour for supervising the executives". The study also suggested that to a large extent the organisations objectives, culture and values "decide the type of leader behaviour that its executives shall learn and practice; i.e., whether they should give Nurturant-Task and Participative-task leadership or give a self-conflicting and ineffective leadership".

Subrahmanyam (1994) conduct a technical analysis of Crouch and Yelton's (1957) statistical method employed in investigating the leadership style and conflict legitimising behaviour of managers. The purpose of the analysis was to demonstrate that verification of regression hypotheses involving linear models with interaction terms derived from non-homogeneous scale transformation of unobservable in terms of observable variables may at best be qualitative only but generally misleading quantitatively. Statistical verification of the hypotheses relating to the conflict legitimising skills of leader-managers for the Australian sample study by Crouch and Yelton richly illustrates this point.

THE UPWARD/ DOWNWARD APPROACH

By way of cluster analysis, Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) identified four upward-influence styles: shotgun, tactician, ingratiation and bystander. Based on the responses of 59 blue-collar and clerical workers, 113 supervisors, and 87 Chief executive officers an exploration was done on the relationship between styles of upward influence in formal organisations and performance evaluations, salaries, and reported stress. Male subordinates using shotgun style of upward influence are less favoured by supervisor earned less and report

more job tension and personal stress than others. Significantly, Gender moderates the relation between subordinates' upward-influence styles and superiors' evaluation of their performance.

Data from 222 US Physician-Executives were collected through mail questionnaire to investigate their choices of influence strategies to gain compliance from superiors. In this study Garko (1992) explores how physicians function as managers' influence situations. It is apparent from the findings that Physician-Executives are: (1) more likely to reason with a supervisor who communicates in an attractive style; (2) equally like to be friendly with a superior who communicates either in an attractive or unattractive style; and (3) significantly more likely to use the influence strategies of assertiveness, bargaining, coalition and higher authority when influencing a superior who communicates in an unattractive style.

Lyles and Reger (1993) explores the relationships among influence, autonomy, and control in a joint venture setting. It addresses the mechanisms available to joint venture managers to influence and gain compliance from parent firms. Controls categories derived primarily from research on unified structures are explored in a new domain, an international joint venture. The beginning of new theory specific to relationships in joint ventures is developed based on causal maps of managerial perceptions. The results suggested that the use of upward influence to gain autonomy in a joint venture is different and more complex than in unified structures or among independent organisations.

To study the relationships between middle managers' formal position, strategic influence and organisational performance, Floyd and Wooldridge (1997) collected questionnaire data from 259 middle managers from 25 organisations. The research reveals that leaders with formal position reported higher levels of strategic influence than others. Uniform downward strategic influence and varied upward influence among middle management group was reported at the organisational level. Positive effects on organisational performance was found dependant on whether (1) the pattern of upward

influence is conducive to shifts in the network centrality of individual managers; and (2) the pattern of downward influence is consistent with an appropriate balance between the organisation's need for control and flexibility. The study of upward influence in an organisation often proposed that such influence is an episodic process. Studies are rarely conducted on the initial resistance against influence.

Masllyn et al (1996) examined several predictors of subordinates' decisions to cease or persist in attempts to obtain work related goal resources after an initial failure. The study reveal that upward influence actions following failed influence attempt can be predicted with variables related to goal importance, influence agent characteristics, and aspects of the agent-target relationship.

Farmer et al (1997) investigate whether hard, soft, or rational influence strategies would emerge in relation to upward influence tactics of assertiveness, rationality, coalition, upward appeal, ingratiation, and exchange. The factor analysis offered support for the dimension-alization of upward influence tactics as representing hard, soft, and rational strategies. The study resulted in a higher level of complexity for influence strategies than previously assumed.

To examine the influence behaviours of project leaders, Shim and Lee (2001) conducted a study on the upward influence styles of research and development project leaders and propose a test model that influence styles used by personal, task, and relational factors and in turn affect the project performance. Data was collected from 22 Korean public and private research and development institutes in the electronics/telecommunication, machinery, and chemical industries. It was found that project leaders differ not only in the general level of influence but also in how to mix various influence tactics, personal characteristics affect the selection of influence styles of project leaders and the influence styles used by project leaders , in turn, have effect on team performance through the influence that project leaders have on their people.

CROSS-CULTURAL STUDIES

To explore the structure of leader influence, Schmidt and Yeh (1992) collected data using the Profile of Organisational Influence Strategies questionnaire from 2,812 managers in Australian, English, Japanese, and Taiwanese organisations and results are compared to those of a previous study of 357 US managers (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1982). Reasoning, bargaining, higher authority, sanctions, friendliness, assertiveness and coalition were the influence strategies found in each country and collectively accounted for at least 50% of the variance in leader influence on subordinates. There is no uniformity on the specific tactics defining these leader influence strategies across culture. Cultural values of individualism were used by Yeh (1995) to explain the direct interpersonal influence behaviour used but expatriates of Japanese and American origin and the indirect structural influence pattern, which together have shaped the Taiwanese managers' influence behaviour. As hypothesised profile of organisational influence strategies data from 1,326 managers at both Japanese firms and US shows that the collectivists (Japanese expatriates) used more assertiveness, exchange and higher authority strategies than the individualist (American expatriates). Differences in downward influence style between Taiwanese in Japanese and in American subsidiaries shows the acculturation effects of Japanese and American organisational cultures. Knowledge of local cultural values increases the use of influence for Taiwanese managers, but does not affect the Japanese influence style.

Xin and Tsui (1996) conducted a comparative study on Asian-American and Caucasian-American superiors and subordinates managers' use of influence tactics. The comparisons were also made between self-reported and target-reported influence tactics of these managers. Minor differences were found between influence behaviour of Asian-Americans managers and Caucasian-American managers. Significant differences were found between self-reported influence tactics and targets' perceived tactics. Asian-American and

Caucasian-American both used different influence tactics with superiors as compared to subordinates. It was suggested that the minor difference found in cross-cultural studies may not be generalized to different groups within one country.

In another cross-cultural study, Fu and Yulk (2000) examined managers from the United States and China to determine differences in influence behaviour. Managers were asked to rate the effectiveness of influence tactics for several representative situations. In a large multidimensional company with facilities in both countries, significant differences were found between American and Chinese Managers. The same result was found in a second sample consisting of several organizations in each country. American managers rated rational persuasion more effective and coalition, upward appeals and reward were rated more effective by Chinese managers.

THE GENDER APPROACH

To study the gender differences in perception of power, Gruber and White (1986) asked participants to rate the probability of using several strategies to get one's own way and the probability of women or men, in general, using each strategy, to get their way. The 21 strategies as identified by the investigators were divided as masculine, feminine, or neutral. Men were rated as using both masculine and feminine strategies equally often. Women on the other hand were rated as using feminine strategies more than masculine strategies. The finding also suggested that in the absence of other information participants relied on stereotypes to describe men and women.

Testing the hypothesis that individuals in weak positions rely on weak tactics, Howard and Co. (1986) examined these roles of several factors on the use of influence tactics in the both mixed-sex and same sex intimate couples. The influence strategies were categorised into three main factors - weak (manipulation and supplication) strong (bullying and autocracy), and neutral (Disengagement and bargaining). The most used strategy overall

was bargaining and the least use strategies were bullying and supplication. Partners of men were found to have used more of manipulation and supplication, which shows that men evoke weak strategies, from their partners. Women used less disengagement than men. Subjects attributed with less structural resources used more manipulation and supplication. Bargaining may have been used to avoid power ambience because it draws partners to equality.

By actually bringing women and men into the laboratory to observe the influence strategies they used, White (1988) found that men used more of reward strategies whereas women used more request strategies. Men used coercion only when insulted. In these studies the influence strategies were limited to those provided and there were no freedom on the subjects' choice of other strategies.

Investigating gender differences in interaction style and influence, Carli (1989) found gender differences in interaction style larger in same-sex than in mixed-sex dyads. When paired with a man both women and men used more stereotype masculine styles of influence (task behaviour and disagreement) and feminine styles of influence (agreement) when paired with a woman. This resulted in less gender differences in mixed-sex dyads than in same-sex dyads. In general, women and men did not differ in their choices of influence strategies. The result also indicated that men disagreed more with men and women more emotionally expressive with women.

In yet another study, Bisanz and Rule (1989) presented participants with different situations where, they were ask to rank the order in which women or men would use various strategies in a given situation. The participations ranked women and men used of the strategies in identical orders when they ranked the strategies of others. Similar ranking orders were found in self-ranking as well. The similarity of self, other ratings and women's and men's rating indicate that individuals expectations about the use of strategies are

“cognitive invariant” evidence of a knowledge structure or persuasion scheme that is culturally shared.

In a study similar to that of Bisanz and Rule (1989), White and Roufail (1989) suggested that the hierarchies of strategies maybe similar for both women and men though use the strategies at different rates. Both women and men may also relied on the same types if strategies to use it first and last. The absolute rate of responding may focus on between-behaviour differences. Finding high correlations between women and men’s ranked means, first choice strategies reflected rational strategies, and negative strategies were used last. The correlations between women and men were higher for first choice strategies than for last resort strategies.

On further investigation of Falbo and Peplau’s (1980) ‘power strategies in intimate relationship’ Falbo et al (1989) concluded that strategies associated with cross gender behaviour resulted in personal costs. Those like less and judged less competent and less qualified were agents using cross gender power bases. Contradictorily, regardless of the power base used for influence they were equally influential. When the message was gender congruent, agents were more effective in their influence process but on cross-gender topics participations were not easily influenced.

To explore the relationship between marital satisfaction, resources, and use of power strategies of married couples, Aida and Falbo (1991) used Multi- Dimensional Scale (MDS). The couples were categorised as ‘equal partners,’ and traditional partners. The ‘equal partners,’ are those partners who claim to have shared equal financial support to the family and the ‘traditional partners’ were those couples who conceived man as having more responsibility. Equal partners were found more satisfied and used lesser power strategies than traditional partners. The authors concluded that the imbalance in the resource relationship of traditional partners could be due to usage of more strategies. Marital

dissatisfaction was associated with greater indirect strategy usage but there were no differences among gender in the overall used of power strategy.

Oyster (1992) examined the perceived use of power by women executive's best and worst bosses. Using a new methodology to measure French and Raven's (1959), and Raven's (1965) power bases, members of the National Association of Female Executive responded to a survey in which they evaluated the power bases of their best and worst bosses. Male bosses were more likely than female bosses to be identified as the worst boss, whereas females and males were equally likely to be identified as the best boss, although these women probably had far more male than female boss.

Interview data are gathered by Steil and Weltman (1992) to study influence strategies utilized at home and work among 60 married, high achieving professional couples, aged between 24 to 52 and married 6.5 years. This study focus on work related resources, self-confidence, dominance, nurturance and sex. According to the findings direct strategies were used more frequently than any other by both women and men; indirect bilateral strategies were used more frequently at work with a subordinate, and indirect unilateral strategies were used more frequently at home with spouse. The investigation indicates that when differences in access to job-related resources are equalized, personality variables are stronger predictors of strategies use than is sex.

According to Shackelfor, Wood and Worchel (1996) it is a common expectation that women are less influential in task performing because they are stereotyped and less competent than men. Thus, their ideas are not regarded to be credible. In two experiments overcoming these barriers to influence was studied. Experiment # 1: 188 Male undergraduate at a Texas university performed spatial judgement tasks in four-person groups with two other Males and one Female. The Female confederate in each group varied motivational intent (by making cooperative or self-oriented statements), attention getting (by making conformist or nonconformist judgements), used accuracy of her performance group

adoption of the Female task judgement (i.e., influence) was the dependant variables. Motivational intent affected influence for female confederates of average, but not high, performance expectations. Experiment # 2: 110 Male undergraduates of Los Angeles University repeated this task, but with an added neutral control. Confederates exerted greater influence with an attention getting can be an effective influence strategy for female even with average tasks ability.

OTHER APROACHES

Perreault and Miles (1978) proposed and evaluated a model of the choice and context of individual influence strategy mixes between dyads in complex organisational system. Influence strategies are categories into formal and informal strategies. By formal influence strategies the author meant those strategies resulting out of the persons position. The informal strategies are derived from the person's characteristics and these strategies are also classified as deceptive or open. Based on covert manipulations by the focal person informal open influence strategies are expert, based on the unique and knowledge or experience, or referent, association with others. 105 subjects conceived as the focal group were professional-level members of 9 governmental research and development organisations. Another 105 non-supervisory basic and applied scientists and engineers formed the target group. Focal person by way of a questionnaire, listed up to 10 target persons they believed capable of either aiding or hindering their own performance and each focal person was asked to characterised the target persons on their list according to 9 dimensions: (1) relative authority, (2) reward control, (3) effect of performance, (4) functional dependence, (5) interpersonal relations, (6) frequency of contact, (7) organisational distance, (8) ambiguous evaluation and (9) ambiguous expectations. They are also asked to indicate the influence strategies they utilised on each target person. Using multivariate analytical procedures the five types of influence strategies revealed, are non-influencers, expert influencers, referent

influencers, and multiple-strategy influencers. Finally, using discriminant function analysis, 3 important functions were obtained between the target person's characteristics and focal person influence strategy mixes: (1) Both a strong positive relation with the target person's relative authority and negative relation with ambiguous expectation were found. (2) The second function positively correlates the target person's authority with interpersonal relations. The third function characterises the degree of mutual interdependence between the target person and the focal person in the performance of their jobs. The outcomes are found consistent with earlier studies and provide new insights on the nature of dyadic influence in organisational life.

In a study done on strategies for exercising influence, Simons (1982) found that Social Workers, as job requirements, need to exercise influence in all practical settings. Study on attitude formation and change is used to derive strategies for achieving influence. The strategies identified are giving both sides of an issue, stressing the need to consistency, and identifying self-defeating behaviour.

Three studies conducted by Savard and Rogers (1992) investigate the effects of dispositional self-efficacy and the organisational status of the target on the selection and use of influence strategies. The first study with 54 college students generates Subjective Expected Utility (SEU) values for 11 influence strategies. In the second study, 120 students were given 3 attempts to influence an alleged, superior, peer, or subordinate. MANOVAs showed that the influence tactics of reason, request, and making one feel good were more frequently used than assertion, threat, and chain of command with superiors; lying, threat, and chain of command with peers; and making one feel bad, threat, and lying to subordinates. The correlation between the SEU values of the 11 strategies and their frequency of use were substantial. Tactics with high SEU values were used less frequently on later influence attempts than on earlier ones as predicted. In the third investigation, 42 students completed a self-efficacy scale and were given up to 20 attempts to influence a

superior, peer, or subordinate. ANOVAs revealed a main effect for self-efficacy: individuals with high self-efficacy made more influence attempts than those with low self-efficacy.

LEADERSHIP STUDIES REVIEW

The literatures available on the study of leadership are numerous. After going through the various concepts and approaches the study seems to have a transforming tendency since the first attempt on its study. The stages of development in the study of leadership resulted from the weaknesses of the earlier studies and eventually leading to the conception of a different a different approach or refinement of the approaches.

THE 'GREAT-MAN'/ TRAIT THEORY

Dating back as early as the 1st World War there was traces of publications that define leadership as attributions of personality traits. These studies were based on the assumption that characters and traits of the leaders distinguish them to be successful or unsuccessful leaders. According to Stogdill (1948) the characteristics that differentiate successful leaders are: intelligence, dependability, responsibility, scholarship, social participation and socio-economic status. Using appropriately validated methods of measurement, Ghiselli (1963) identified a set of traits that distinguished successful leaders from unsuccessful leaders viz. intelligence, supervising ability, initiative, self-assurance and self-perceived occupational level. Similarly successful leaders are said to be taller, heavier, healthier and physically smarter (Gowin 1915; Bellingrath 1930; Patridge, 1934). The list of traits goes on and on as further studies on this aspects are continued.

These studies are not consistently applicable in different organisations and usually ignore the task factor of the organisation being studied. It is not possible to generalise the study from one situation to another (Dessler, 1976). The central of foci in this study remains to be individuals and other major factors are ignored. With the validity of its criticism being

founded more and more relevant the trait approach in leadership studies was eventually demoted.

BEHAVIOURAL THEORY

As the criticism of trait theory increased with its demotion on various grounds the study of the World War II the school of human relations theory was propounded and the approaches of leadership studies shifted from personality traits to behavioural theory.

Bales (1953) suggested two major functions of leaders, viz. task accomplishment and members' needs satisfaction. "As the task of leader continued to force people to focus on the jobs some of their needs were frustrated. What emerged was a social leader, one whose role was to reduce tensions and make the job more pleasant. The behaviour of this leader helped to boost morale and crystallize and defend the values, attitudes, and beliefs of the groups". Based upon this approach the consideration of task accomplishment and people orientation as important factors leads to emergence of many models and styles.

STRUCTURING AND PEOPLE CONSIDERATE LEADERSHIP STYLES

One of the most comprehensive and productive study rejecting the behavioural approaches and aimed at the construction of dimensions to identify different leadership styles was conducted by the Ohio State University (Columbus USA) after the World War II. The Study arrived at nine dimensions and was later reduced to four after careful analysis of the over lapping dimensions. As Halpin and Wiener (1957) had pointed out the four dimensions are viz. consideration, initiating structure production emphasis and sensitivity or social awareness. These four dimensions are again refined to consideration and Initiating Structure.

Vroom (1964) based on empirical findings suggested that the effects of participation in decision-making depend on the personality of the participant. The relationship between

psychological participation and job satisfaction/ performance varies according to the need for independence and the degree of authoritarianism of the participant. People with weak independence do not want to be, nor are they, influenced by the opportunity to participate in decision-making. Vroom (1976) draws a conclusive summary of the Ohio State University Studies as follows: -

1. Leaders with more consideration tend to have more satisfied subordinates.
2. Leaders with more consideration are likely to have subordinates with less absentee rate.
3. Consideration and initiating structure have significant influence on grievances and turnover rates.
4. Relation between rated leader effectiveness and consideration varies with population.
5. The Scores on these dimensions seems to be mediated by situation factors as subordinates' characteristics, superior's characteristics and task characteristics.

This model was criticised on the ground of its practicality and empirical findings shows conflicting relationships between consideration and subordinates grievances and turnover, and performance (Fleishman and Hariss, 1962; Lowin et al, 1976).

During the Ohio University studies were conducted, the University of Michigan's Survey Research Centre conducted a parallel study on the identification of the dimensions of leadership. The Michigan study identified two dimensions of leadership styles. Production oriented and people oriented. The Production oriented leaders concentrate more on results and getting the job done. As a result they saw the employees as a mean and not an end. On the other hand the people oriented leaders emphasis more on interpersonal relationships and they are more concern about the employees.

The Michigan Study too was criticised on the ground that there are evidences of leadership behaviour changing according to situations. While studying the effectiveness of a leader the subordinate and the task factors were ignored (Hill, 1973).

AUTHORITARIAN (STRUCTURING) VS, DEMOCRATIC (SUPPORTIVE) STYLE

Focusing on authoritarian and Democratic style of leadership a great deal of studies has been conducted. The Authoritarian leaders centralise power and decision making process with them alone. They tend to get overall control of the situation and the employees. The democratic leaders on the other hand involves subordinates in the decision making process and encourages participation all every stages.

Lewin et al (1939) in an attempt to distinguish the dimensions of leadership style found authoritarian and democratic as not overlapping types of leadership. In this study another dimension “Laissez – faire” was included. The study reveals that: - (i) The group with democratic leaders were more efficient and seems to calculate team spirit in the group. (ii) The groups with authoritarian tend to be hostile towards the leader and the atmosphere seems to be strain and tense. (iii) The groups with laissez-faire type of leaders were least productive.

Blake and Mouton (1964) conducted a similar study on production concern and people concern termed “Managerial Grid” was conducted by. This study in principle was based upon Ohio State University’s approach on leadership yet another study falling in this line was Likert’s system (Likert, 1961, 1967)

According Handy (1985) although certain leadership style produce better results in practice the difference in productivity is relatively insignificant. Citing 6 experimental studies Handy found that four of the study reports no difference in productivity between the styles. One of the study revealed structuring or authoritarian to be effective and another reports the supportive or democratic style to be more effective.

THE CONTINGENCY THEORY

In a further development of the behavioural theory Fielder (1955) asserts that appropriate management style depends on the subordinates, the set of conditions in which the managers find themselves, and the particular situation. He suggested that the managers must either adapt their leadership style to the situation or make the job compatible with their leadership style. Owing to the behaviour theories limitation on the importance of the situation in which the leaders has to deal Fielder (1967) initiated the contingency theory. Leaders behaviour cannot be fully understood without taking into consideration the situation and circumstances that enveloped leaders. The degree of compatibility between environment and the adopted behaviour as Fielder argues has significant influence on the effectiveness of the leadership. This compatibility of environment and behaviour was conceptualised as function of three situational factors: -

1. *Leaders – Members Relations*: - Extend to which a leader enjoys the trust and loyalty of group members will dictate the group members' compliance with the leaders direction.
2. *Task Structure*: - Leaders who spelled out the detail steps of the task to be accomplished enjoy the support of the organisation in directing the job. They rarely get criticism from subordinates as to the steps the group should take.
3. *Positional Power*: - Extend of power the organisation allows the leaders to possess in rewarding, punishing, sanctioning, or even enforcing compliance.

Handy (1985) opines Fiedler have "examined a limited range of unusual groups – basketball teams, bomber crews, open hearth steel furnace workers – and his similarly, Williams (1978) argued," modifying the position to fit the manager, to the degree prescribed by Fielder, would be highly disruptive of an organisation considering the frequency with which managers change positions.

The combination of Ohio state University studies and Fielder Studies led Hersey and Blanchard (1977) to proposed a tri-dimensional model called the; Situational Model; of two

dimensions 'task behaviour' and 'relational behaviour' called 'follower maturity'. As for the maturity level followers are expected to be gradually going up the 'job maturity' and 'psychological maturity' levels in the life cycle of the group. Thus, in each and every stage an effective leader will utilise matching leadership style. Hershey and Blanchard (1977) describe effective leadership as the function of the emphasis given to task and relationship behaviour as this relates to different types of situations. Task behaviour is "essentially the extent to which a leader engages in one way communication by explaining what each subordinate is to do as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished". Relationship behaviour according to them is the "extent to which leader engages in two-way communication by providing social support, psychological strokes and facilitating behaviours". The four basic leadership styles identified are as follows: -

1. Telling, a high task, low relationship emphasis
2. Selling, a high task, high relationship emphasis
3. Participating, a high relationship, low task emphasis, and
4. Delegating, a low task, low relationship emphasis.

The study remains in its hypothetical stage and its applicability was never tested (Yulk, 1981). However the flexibility of leaders to different types of subordinates is noteworthy.

PATH-GOAL THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Based broadly on leaders' motivational skills House (1971) proposed the Path Goal theory of leadership. This approach, as House and Mitchell (1974) defines, "primarily concerns how the leader influences the followers' perceptions of their goals, personal goals, and path to goal accomplishment." A clear path to attainment of goal is shown to the subordinates so as to help them avoid pitfalls and obstacles in achieving their objectives. These way leaders will achieve high productivity at the same time subordinates satisfaction

in their work. In this theory leaders are supposed to harmonise a great deal between the two-dimension structure and consideration in order to motivate the subordinates.

Dessler (1976) concludes that, "the idea that the appropriate level of leader structure depends on how ambiguous the task is, and that the necessary level of leader consideration varies with the intrinsic satisfaction of the task, have both received support.

Leadership studies have gone through extensive development with variety of techniques and model being propounded and with the voluminous literature available there is no consensus upon the concepts and definitions. The distinctive between effective leaders and ineffective leaders cannot be so far generalised on different types of situations (Davies 1994). The analysis provided in this part is not aimed at bringing about an exhaustive review of all approaches on leadership rather it is an attempt to highlight some of the main approaches having a colossal influence on the study of leadership.

ETHICAL APPROACH

True and effective leadership, according to Mendonca (2001), is that in which the leader's behaviour and the exercise of the leadership influence and process are consistent with ethical and moral values. The need for ethical leadership and the ways in which it is manifested in organizations is explore by the author. Three components of the ethical leadership model are identified: the ethics of the leader's motives, influence process strategies, and the nature of the self-transformation needed for ethical leadership. The paper then examines what the leader can do to prepare for ethical leadership in organizations. Some of the sources that the leader can tap to develop as a moral person possessed of inner strength and resourcefulness that lead to the self-transformation of both the leader and the followers are identified.

Total Quality Management (TQM) has gain importance but its implications and scope of quality programs are different everywhere. Commitment and leadership are said to

be indispensable elements for successful implementation of TQM. Guillen and Gonzalez (2001) argue that commitment and leadership are not synonymous terms. Exclusively using their formal authority, the committed leaders may lead the process of quality whereas; leaders generate a kind of influence that goes further than that. The authors sustain that only by considering the ethical dimension of leadership together with technical and psycho-emotive one, interpersonal influence beyond the scope of power can be explained more accurately. The paper also suggested a multidimensional perception of leadership.

The application of Total Quality Management (TQM), an overall management philosophy with a set of principles, is increasing. Though widely diffused, Perles (2002) opined that the success rate of this type of initiative is limited and the results, heterogeneous. The author further points out that different explanation have been given to identify the keys that explain the success or failure of this kind of initiative but most of the literature agrees that managerial commitment, implication and leadership are indispensable elements in a successful implementation of TQM. Analysis of specialised literature shows a terminological confusion between managerial commitment and managerial leadership. The author states that only managerial leadership is able to promote and sustain profound organisational changes. To understand the distinctions it is necessary to consider the ethical dimension of leadership. While committed managers may lead the process by using exclusively their power, those who are leaders need authority. The author concluded that authority goes further than power by generating a kind of confidence that is able to influence the members of the organisation and bring about profound changes, more than power alone can do.

OTHER APPROACHES

As influential behavioural scientist, McGregor (1960) classified managers according to his 'theory X' and theory Y'. The theory X type of leader includes authoritarian style and

the more egalitarian style is included in 'theory Y'. The theory X is based on the economic model of man and states that man is inherently lazy, dislikes work, and will avoid work whenever possible. The theory suggested that human being prefer direct order than to accept responsibility. Theory Y leader, on the contrary, believes that work can be enjoyable and people will assume responsibility in the process of achieving organisational goals. This theory is based on the assumption that people want to do good job and their performance based on internal rather than external controls. The organisational climate should be created in such a way that subordinates can assume self-control and responsibility for better productivity.

Deutsch (1980) conducted a study was on the effects of cooperation and competition found that people tend to assist each other, communicate and influence each other successfully because in cooperation other effective behaviour is rewarding. In competition, competitors discourage successful behaviour.

To examine how leadership style and structure of the organisation affects group outcome, Nightingale (1981) measured four factors--- alienation, attitude toward management, attitude toward change, and commitment to the organisations. Participative/ supportive structures show more positive outcomes than the hierarchical structure or non-supportive/ non-participative style combination. It is also evident from the data in those organisations which allow direct participation in decision-making.

In a study of organisational leadership styles perception Bruns and Shuman (1988) reviews the various leadership styles and their effect on productivity in the public and private sector. The general literature was found related to police management and administration. Likert scale was administered to law enforcement personal in the state of Arizona to determine their perception of their departments' organisational and performance characteristics. The findings show that, as a group, they perceived their organisations as

being “benevolent-authoritative’ while they were desirous that their organisational style be more participative.

In an over view of visionary leadership Nanus (1992) suggested that powerful and transforming visions should set standards and reflect high ideals, clarify purpose and direction, inspire enthusiasm and encourage commitment, reflect the uniqueness of the situation, and be ambitious.

Based on the expectation of significant changes in academic libraries that will bring with them new management and leadership techniques, Riggs (1997) discusses some of these changes and techniques by reviewing relevant articles. The author opines “quality improvement is here to stay’ and “Total Quality management (TQM) a passing management fad”. Transformational leaders with the personal attributes like “strategists, strong planners, synthesizers, change agents, and visionaries” are probably the need of the hour. However, “each library situation will require a different type of leader at different times in the history of the library... Library leaders can be dreamers, but they also must have the ability to deliver”.

As perceived by Sweeney (1997) empowerment of employees and increase of value in library services are the most need leadership skills and organisational structure of the library. The author defines that a higher degree of coordination of work and information are the requisites of empowerment. Faster, dynamic, responsive organisations are the requisites for improving value. The study concludes that the two trends together define the future library leader.

Marion and Uhl-Bien (2001) explore how complexity theory informs the role of leadership in organisations. The authors define complexity theory as a science of complexly interacting systems; it explore the nature of interaction and adaptation in such systems and how they explores the nature of interaction and adaptation in such systems and how they influence such things as emergence, innovation, fitness. The authors also argue that

complexity theory focuses leadership efforts on behaviours that enable organisational effectiveness, as opposed to determining or guiding effectiveness. A definition of organisational complexity was propounded and applied to leadership science. The authors delve into the relationship between complexity theory and other currently important leadership theories.

In a review article, Carli (2001) found that men are more influential than women. On using dominant forms of communications women are less influential than men whereas, in domains that are traditionally associated with women and in group settings where more than one female is present men are found to be less influential. When highly competent styles of communication are employed men resist the influence attempts of the opposite sex more than female. However, when women temper their competence with displays of communality and warmth resistance are reduced.

Little is known about how leaders create and handle effective teams. Zaccaro et al (2001) focus on leader—team dynamics through the lens of “functional leadership”. In this approach it is asserted that the leader’s main job is to do, or get done, those functions are not being handled adequately in terms of group needs. The functional approach is explicated in terms of 4 super-ordinates and 13 subordinate leadership dimensions and relates these to team effectiveness and a range of team processes. The key point in considering such relationships is the reciprocal influence, whereby both leadership and team processes influence each other.

Sagie et al (2002) perceived organisational leadership as loose (participative) and tight (directive) and attempt to find out whether the two practices are compatible or contradictory. The hypotheses relate to the effects of both practices on the employee’s work related attitudes, and the mediating role of two variables, cognitive (information sharing) and motivational (exerting effort), in these effects. Data analysis was done using two types of methodology namely, quantitative and qualitative. It was found that although

the loose and tight practices affected work attitudes, the interviewees attributed more impact to the tight practice. None of the variables mediated the loose impact on attitudes, whereas information sharing mediated the influence of tight practice. The qualitative analysis revealed a deeper insight into the nature of both leader practices and their possible integration in the decision-making processes in organisations.

De Cremer and Van Vugt (2002) conducted two experiments to examine how leadership shapes individual contributions in small group, facing public goods dilemmas. It was hypothesised that the influence of leaders would be determined by their ability to fulfil both instrumental needs (solve the free-rider problem) and relational needs (contribute to the identity) of group members. The relative importance of these two needs was hypothesised to vary with the significance of group membership (social vs. personal identity). The first experiment exposed that leaders showing group commitment and fairness toward members were more effective at raising contributions when social identity was most important. The second experiment revealed that highly committed leaders were more influential when social identity was most important, whereas leaders with intrinsic leadership skills were more influential when personal identity was significant. The effectiveness of leader solutions to social dilemmas depends upon the fit between leader characteristics and member expectations.

Tyler (2002) identifies two types of motivation that determined the ability of leaders to achieve support in groups. Leaders can tap into people desire to gain rewards and avoid punishment by controlling resources and sanctioning. Leaders can draw on people's internal attitudes and values by appealing or creating attitudes and values. People voluntarily follow leaders who engage their internal motivations.

LEADERSHIP STUDIES IN INDIAN ENVIRONMENT

Leadership studies in India gain momentum from Sinha et al (1986) started an extensive study in Indian environment. In the process of going through series of studies to investigate the work culture in Indian organisations, Sinha (1990) finds different leadership styles conforming to one or two work cultures - soft and synergetic. In the power distribution aspect the managers prefer hierarchical distribution of power with the high and low-level managers sharing equal power.

From three samples of executives of two private sector organisations--- a printing and paper coating plant and a leading public sector enterprise in India, data was collected. In this study Dwivedi (1983) collected a total of 71 (16,30 and 25 respectively) samples using a Self-Assessment of Key Managerial Orientations (SAKMO), Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) and Dwivedi's Trust-Distrust Industrial Scale (DTDIS). The analysis indicates that,

- (a) 'Team-based' management style had the top rank, followed by 'country-club', 'middle of the road', 'hard task master' and 'impoverished' among Indian managers.
- (b) In order of dominance, the basic leadership styles of these managers were 'high task and high relationship', 'high relationship and low task' and 'high task and low relationship'.
- (c) Among public sector executives, 'high relationship and low task' was the top behavioural style while private sector executive prefer 'high task and high relationship' as top basic style.
- (d) Leadership effectiveness among the three enterprises was higher than that of the private sector executives, though not significantly.
- (e) Levels of trust were average and below average, respectively in three enterprises jointly in the composite analysis. Public sector had average score.
- (f) Management styles, leadership behaviour and trust and distrust were consistent with each other.

The author concludes that the study, though limited in many aspects, had several theoretical and practical implications.

Agrawal (1989) collected data from 432 workers and 27 workgroup leaders from the Bhilai Steel Plant, a large Indian industrial organisation to explore the leader follower relationship. The study focuses on how workers perceive leaders' behaviour and working styles. Majority of the workers perceive their relationship with their leaders to be personal, informal, cordial and familiar. Friendship shows considerable importance in parlance with caste or kinship. The leadership style found most common in democratic style.

A theoretical perspective of Mustafa (1995) aimed at bringing out the human element of management identifies and defines three broad leadership styles viz. (a) autocratic, (b) democratic, and (c) free rein or laissez-faire. The widely accepted approaches--- trait, situational and group approaches were rejected and the behavioural and contingency model too was deliberately avoided on the ground that only one style is supposed to be effective. The author suggested that "intelligence, technical mastery, physical vigour, capacity for interpersonal relationships, integrity, and courage" as essentials of leadership. The author further argued "the spirit or essence of the leader is found somewhere beyond the psyche" but "close to the human soul".

Unanimous consent agreement as suggested by Ainsworth and Flathman (1995), are the main leadership tool the US Senate majority leader uses to perform several functions. The leader guides floor proceedings by utilising these agreements to restrict amendments and to limit time for debate. Scholars have argued that unanimous consent agreements are of service tool used to appease the demand of an increasing individualistic senate. In this study a bargaining mode was used to demonstrate that these agreements could be a leadership tool. The importance of institutional innovations leaders has adopted to maintain the durability of unanimous consent agreement as leadership tools are highlighted.

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE REVIEW

'Organisational Climate' as Samuels (1979) termed is the collective perception of how the organisation functions. Using a modified version of the Educational Testing Service's Institutional Functioning Inventory public librarians' organisational climate perception is measured. The modified version's reliability and validity in measuring organisational climate are discussed and evaluated. Concludes, the 'psychological health' of the public library can be measured using the data collected from the modified version.

Neumann (1980) assessed the significance of organisational climate in predicting and explaining faculty attitude toward collective bargaining at a college facing severe labour problems. Using interviews and questionnaires data were obtained from 60 university professors of social sciences and 60 university professors of physical sciences. University with unfavourable labour shows stronger magnitude of relationships between perceived power and collective bargaining attitudes than university with favourable labour relations. The study revealed that perceived power structure bears significant influence on unionisation whereas, perceived goals were not found to affect faculty attitudes towards unionisation.

Discussing the concept of organisational climate West (1982) describes the background to the creation of Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire that has become the basic method of evaluating the particular organisational climate of a school. The author is of the opinion that discovering the organisational climate of the school library can benefit the School. In this study a questionnaire to determine the climate of the library is design.

Soudek (1983) conceptualise the organisational climate and relates the institutional qualities that affect the behaviour of the professionals in the institution. These institutional qualities are important and relatively enduring. The dimensions, measurement and effects of

organisational climate are discussed in this study. A relationship is found to exist between organisational climate and professional behaviours of the library professionals.

Dastmalchian (1986) is primarily exploring the relationship between organisational climate and characteristics of organisational environments. Environmental characteristics include dependencies, competition and uncertainty. In addition, the relationship of climate and environments with dimensions of organisational structure and size are examined. Using data from 15 industrial organisation in Britain, the results have shown that different environmental characteristic have different associations with organisational climate. Also, the relationships between organisational environments and climate are not similar to those found between environments and structure. It is suggested that the creation of appropriate climates and structural design as responses to environmental pressures may be considered as complementary strategies in an attempt to maintain administration control. The results, therefore, provide support for the suggestion that, in order to improve our understanding of the dynamics of organisational climate, characteristics of organisational environments should be incorporated into future research designs.

Based on empirical study, Pienaar and Boshoff (1996) examine the possible positive relation between the degree of creativity and innovation of university libraries and organisational climate. Product considered being most creative and innovative from each of the 5 sample university libraries are identified and then evaluated. By using climate measurement instrument the organisational climate of these libraries are determine whether they support creativity and innovation. The resulting negative relation between the degree of creativity and innovation ant the organisational climate is asserted to have operationalisation of the creativity and innovation construct.

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE OF THE INDIAN ORGANISATIONS

Organisational climate as defined by Upadhyay (1983) is external and internal environmental conditions that influence the organisation. The external factors that shaped the organisational climate are: - (a) Cultural/Social System, (b) Economic System, (c) Political/Governmental and administrative system, (d) Science and technology system. On the other hand the factors that have influence on the internal climate of an organisation are: - (I) Managerial policy and its practice, (ii) Personnel policy and its practice, (iii) Availability and utilisation of skills, (iv) Relationship among various groups, participating industrial relations climate. (v) Setting up of performance standards and acceptance of these standards (vi) Work-Culture and work ethics reflecting a sense of responsibility about the task assigned to groups and individuals (vii) Physical facilities and resources of work, and (viii) the pattern of compensation, recognition and reward.

As the author suggested a congenial organisational climate can be build by: - goals, values in an organisation, motivation, leadership, changes, conflict resolution, industrial relations, personal Policy and practices, communication, discipline and constructive trade Unionism.

The choice in which Indian manager would like to serve was investigated by Balgir (1983) with the option among private, public and govt. sectors. The perception of organisation culture in each sector was also probed. 22 undertakings from all over India were used to collect data. Respondents were chosen from all the states 3 to 10 from each state. The date revealed that organisational climate was different in each sector. The climate in the private sector was perceived to be challenging recognition for work well done, opportunity for growth and learning, and congenial evoking conditions. The public sector/departmental undertaking was perceived to offered high job security, moderate chances of promotion/advancement opportunities for growth and development, better organisation policies and administration with adequate emolument. The work environment

in the private sector is dominated by motivation factors whereas in the public sector and departmental undertakings is dominated by hygiene factors.

Baumgartel and Co. (1984) in a paper reported four studies, two conducted in India and two in the USA stretching over 15 years period. The study reveal the organisational environment into which trained managers' move effects the extent to which they apply new learning in the work place. The most favourable organisational climate is characterised by high appreciation for performance and innovation, a climate of freedom, a rational evaluation and reward system, and openness in relationship among managers.

Srivastava (1985) made an attempt to examine the effect of employee's achievement on their perception of organisational climate. 150 employees of State Bank of India were randomly selected for the sample. Two sub-scales of the employee's Motivation Schedule (Srivastava 1981) Was used to assess (1) Achievement - A Improvement of competence and Self (2) Achievement - B: High production, competition, and goal achievement. The study indicates that the employees motivated with differential strength by the achievements significantly differed from each other with regard to their perception of most of the dimensions of organisational climate. It also yields that the employees highly motivated by the achievement, in comparison to low motivated ones, perceived most of the components of their job life to be comparatively more adequate, desirable and encouraging.

Akhilesh and Pandey (1986) define organisational climate as a positive effect towards the personnel's performance and an important factor contributing to the relative performance and satisfaction. Using between and stringer's (1968) Organisational climate questionnaire with specific modifications 100 samples of executives from nationalised banks and 40 samples from private sector banks of India were collected. The data revealed that the organisational climate of the nationalised and that of the private sector bank were significantly different. The climate of the nationalised banks was affiliation - oriented and the private sector banks show task orientation.

Srinath (1990) examines the feasibility of studying the variables that make up organisational climate in universities in South India. These variables are job attitude and feelings of security. Again, organisations according to Srinath (1993) are systems contrived by man, yet they have their own personality. This distinct individuality is the product of interaction between several variables. Therefore, the characteristics of an organisational climate are leadership style, communication pattern, decision making, motivational forces and goal-setting process. The personality of the organisation reflected in these factors effects employees' attitude and performance. To help run the library effectively appropriate climate should be identified. Further, explains how these variables have impact on personal management and diagrammatically represent this climate.

STUDIES IN LIBRARY AND INFORMATION SCIENCE

Based on the findings of an empirical study, Somech and Drach (2002) have suggested that power should not be studied in absolute rather it should be studied with its relative components. The study of power strategies with its imperative components like influence strategies, leadership styles, and organisational climate in library environment is yet to be done. Therefore, literature in this aspect are mostly partial studies of power and studies on some of the components of power are found wanting. However, those studies of power or power components on library environments are reviewed as follows: -

POWER IN THE LIBRARY ORGANISATION

Cummins (1980) is of the view that power entails the interaction of people in any setting therefore it is inevitably there in the library. Psychologists' propounded various power types and library professionals use these varying types of power. Identification of the power sources, its used and abuses are important to the effective library professional.

Norton (1990) found that though information is power for information profession they found themselves less than powerful. In defining empowerment and exploring the reason why empowerment is a salient issue the author discuss the sources of power and powerlessness. Strategies for increasing position power, knowledge power and personal power are suggested for the enhancement of the overall power profile of the profession.

Reed (1999) identifies power as a political way. In view of the present generation's rapidly changing and competitive environment, power and influence has to be developed by libraries within their larger organisations (campus, corporation or community) and libraries also need to play a respectable role in the national legislative arena. Finally, the author offers guidelines for libraries to develop effective political presence by way of creating, disseminating and promoting the library's message in a politically powerful way.

Crawford (1997) used strategic contingencies theory of intra-organisational power was as a technique to examine the effects of changes in electronic information technologies on power within the organisations. A model of organisational power featuring technology index, subunit power variables, environmental variables, and bases of power was developed and tested. The power bases in the study include, structure, coping with uncertainty, centrality, and substitutability. Based on canonical correlation analyses, changes in library automation and changes in environment are related to changes in both the bases of power itself. The bases of power, in turn, are related to changes in the power of the library as measured by the percent of institutional budget allocated to the library, number of library positions, and the perception of power.

Case studies of support units were conducted by Cendon and Jarvenpaa (2001) on medical libraries whose directors transformed the role of the libraries by implementing new information technology based services. The authors explain how the leaders developed and exercised power and transcended the limits of their organizational position. The study maintained that behavioural and structural perspective are rather complementary than

alternative approaches to the study of power. According to the analysis behaviour and structure interplay in the exercise of power to achieve desired objectives. Behavioural power tactics at the individual level gained macro structural sources of power and structural position effects the exercise of power. Leaders of the support units used a non-possessive conception of power and non-threatening power tactics to achieve their vision of a transformed library.

LEADERSHIP STUDIES IN LIBRARY ENVIRONMENT

During the 80's the study of library management was focussed more on leadership behaviours. Many important publications were produced during this period (Riggs, 1982; Riggs and Isabine, 1988; Woodsworth and Von Wahlde, 1988). Some imperative issues of leadership brought out were: -

1. Director-Management activities and effectiveness (Euster, 1987)
2. Relations between leadership behaviour and goal attainment (Comes, 1979)
3. Leadership organisational dynamics and rate of change (Boyd, 1980)
4. Leaders and managers: literature review, synthesis and a new conceptual framework (Euster, 1984)
5. Developing leadership in human resource (Berry et al, 1988)

Price (1987) propounded that stability, responsibility, job description, meaning in a position, leadership flexibility, support by administration, clear administrative lines, professional salary, support service, growth opportunities, a helpful and comfortable environment as job related factors expected of the librarian. These are the idealistic factors which the followers can expect from the leader. Fink (1987) describes effective administration in terms of leadership, clarity and the actualisation of values. There are many opportunities for improving the lot of administrations and librarians through changes in

library organisation, that allow greater participation in the management process on the part of librarians, with increased opportunities to build trust and understanding (Alley, 1987).

The trait approach of leadership was introduced to academic library directors by Moore (1987) to assess the essential factors that leads to success and concluded that flexibility, adaptability, willingness to change, stable and equitable temperament, emotional balance and endurance are the qualities librarians should possess. Besides this, Creth (1989) consider status as an important component of leaders.

Various empirical studies with different approaches on librarians' leadership styles were conducted. Assuming that the learning styles and decision styles will not differ from others, four learning styles namely, converger, diverger, assimilator and accommodator were identified. Varley (1985) found that 33.30% of the librarians to be convergers and have weak abstract conceptualization skills. Contradictorily, Choi (1987) found that 38.6% librarians are assimilators, 27.1% of them converger, 19.3% are diverger and 15% of the librarians are accommodators. Assimilators are reflective and adopt abstract mode of learning. Convergers prefer active and abstract modes of learning.

To examine the managerial profile of the library directors, Moskowitz (1986) and Mech (1990) used Mintzberg's managerial role typology was used. The finding suggested that academic library directors are involved with more internal managerial roles. However, significant difference among the managerial role profile of directors at different institutions was reported. Internal roles include leadership which elaborated as supervising subordinates work that includes placement, training, motivation, and evaluation of employees. Mech (1990) further identify internal and external as the two types of roles for library directors. It was found that 45% of the directors spent 'much and more' of their time on internal roles as against 22% of external roles.

In another development, Mech (1993) identify four decision styles namely, directive, analytical, conceptual and behavioural to assess the decision style of academic library professionals. These decision styles are summarised as follows: -

Decision Styles	Ambiguity Tolerance Level	Focal Point
1. Directive	Low	Focussed on task & technical concerns
2. Analytical	High	Oriented towards task and technical concerns
3. Conceptual	High	Futuristic, interested in people and social concern
4. Behavioural	Low	Interested in people and social concern

There was a high significant difference in the decision styles preferred among the library directors of various institutions. Behavioural style was predominate decision style.

The Ohio State Leadership Model of behavioural approach was also introduced to assess the leadership behaviour of the librarians. Dragon (1979) found that library superiors were described by their subordinates as higher in behaviour associated with initiating structure than in behaviour associated with consideration. In another study Spark (1976) found that subordinates reported a close correlation with the leader's perception of self on considerate dimension than on initiating structure. Stead (1987) reveals a significant correlation between initiating structure and consideration for the low assertive subordinates. Assertiveness did not otherwise moderate the relationship between consideration or structure and subordinates, role ambiguity, role conflict and the need for clarity.

Hall (1979) noted that students who were graduating from library school preferred consultation to more directive style of leadership. Similarly, Solomon (1976) found that those directors of university departments who earned higher leadership scores (according to their subordinates) led university library departments which were more effective in serving other departments (according to the directors of the other departments).

Various attempts with different methods have been made to understand the leadership styles of librarians. To explore the entrepreneurial qualities in leaders of librarianship Kilgour (1992) describes the innovativeness of 9 library entrepreneurs including him. To

identify an exhaustive list of perceived librarian leadership, Gertoz (1992) administered two survey questionnaires to 1208 randomly selected group. The study revealed that leaders tend to be associated most strongly with category "other" shows members may serve as professional's professional which is high status members and directing professional associations.

LEADERSHIP STUDIES IN INDIAN LIBRARY ENVIRONMENT

Jeevan (1988) view the university library structure as a formal organisation. Identifies the head of departments in the library as a central position and the leadership role they should play in influencing the behaviour of the subordinate staffs in the department. These department heads should pay equal priorities to the goals of the library and the goals of his/her subordinates. The author supported that these middle managers should develop a positive attitude towards their subordinates and adopts a supportive or democratic leadership style. The author does not differentiate the supportive and democratic leadership style.

Conducting a survey of interpersonal relations of library staff in 15 academic and special libraries in Delhi, Saha (1998) collect questionnaires form 163 respondents. Leaders were defined in sync with manager. In the leaders-employees relationship, leadership styles like participative decision making, responsiveness to suggestions from bottom, and free/open flow of communication at all level, seniors' concern for subordinates, seniors approach to conflict resolution and level of cooperation among groups ranks most significantly. The findings of this study are summarized as: -

Human Relations Indices In Indian Libraries.(N = 163)

Variable studied	Category of Response		
	Positive	Average	Negative
Participative decision making practised in libraries	28.2%	51.5%	20.3%
Free flow of information of different level	46.6%	36.8%	16.6%
Seniors concern for the employee	43.5%	27.6%	29.9%
Seniors approach to conflict resolution	39.8%	37.42%	22.78%
Levels of co-operation among groups	61.0%	17.17%	22.83%

Overall, Librarians do not subscribe to participative management and practice more or less authoritarian styles of functioning. They discourage free and frank discussion and were less concerned for the subordinates. However, peer-level co-operation seems to score positively.

CONCLUSION

It is evident from the above review that the studies of power strategies in its entirety were rare and the studies of power with related aspects are inadequate. The studies of power strategies conducted are mostly done in environments other than libraries. Some studies of leadership style and organisational climate in Indian libraries were conducted. However, other important aspects like influence strategies and sources of power are found wanting and the study of power along with influence strategies, leadership styles and organisational climate in Indian library environment does not emerge at all. Literature has suggested the use of various methods in examining power strategies but a clear and effective method for evaluating library professionals' power strategies has not materialized. No significant attempt has been made to study power strategies of Indian librarians. This study is an attempt to investigate the Indian library professionals' use of power, influence strategies, leadership styles and organisational climates of the Indian libraries.



CHAPTER -3-

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Analysis of available literature suggested that the need for identification and effectiveness of the influence process that a leader is to go through while exercising their power. The influence processes, as elaborated in the preceding chapter, encompass bases of power, leader behaviour, style, influence strategies, and organizational behaviour. Ansari (1990) have conducted such study in Indian environment on public organizations, hospitals and government owned organization. Saraf (1995) have conducted a study to identify leadership styles and its effectiveness on librarian working in academic libraries in India. So far no attempt is made to identify librarians influence process and exercise of power. The study conducted by Saraf is one of the first studies that define Indian librarians as leaders.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

Librarians as leaders and libraries as organization have librarians exercising influence over subordinates to achieve the library objectives. There is no library without its own objectives. However, the relation of librarians and library staff is yet to be views as that of leader and follower relationship. The nature of how library professionals influence the behaviour of the subordinate and how their behaviour of library professionals are in turn influence by subordinate is investigated in this study. In this study an attempt is made to establish that libraries personals can be superiors and subordinates and they both influences each other, exercise power on each other by way of different influence strategies in different circumstances or situations. Therefore, the objectives of the present study are listed as follows: -

1. To identify various power bases among library professional in India.
2. To identify the leadership styles of librarians.

3. To identify the organizational climate of libraries in India.
4. To examine the relationship between power bases and librarian choice of leadership style.
5. To investigate how a library professional with certain leadership style influence, the behaviour of the subordinate and superior.
6. To investigate if superior leadership styles affect the subordinate's use of influence strategies.
7. To examine the relationship between perceived organizational climate and influence strategic.
8. To examine organizational climate as a moderating factor between leadership style and influence strategies.
9. To examine organizational climate as a moderating factor between bases of power and influence strategies.
10. To study the effect of basis of power in the choice of leadership style.
11. To identify the strategies used to influence subordinate and superior.

HYPOTHESIS TO BE TESTED

With the above objective the present study attempts to examine the relationship between the exercise of power and leadership style with organizational climate as the moderating factor. The study being conducted in a similar environment the choices of power strategies are not expected to have significant difference among library professionals. However, the choice of influence strategies in varying leadership styles will have significant difference. In other words library professionals are likely to adopt similar leader behaviour. Since the use of influence strategy being directed not only to subordinate but also toward the superior, the subordinate choice of influence strategies towards their immediate superior will be persuasive in nature. Organizational climate being the moderating factor, it is expected that

organizational climate will have significant effect both on leadership behaviour and influence strategies. With these assumptions in mind the hypothesis to be tested are: -

Hypothesis # H₁: The more favourable the organisational climate is, more participative is the leadership style and the more unfavourable the organisational climate is the more authoritative is the leadership style.

Hypothesis # H₂: Among the background variables age factors significantly mediate the leadership styles.

Hypothesis # H₃: In a more favourable organizational climate the exercise of power are more non-authoritative whereas, in less favourable organizational climate the exercise of power are more authoritative.

Hypothesis # H₄: The participative types of leaders encourage the subordinates to adopt rational tactics whereas; autocratic types of leader encourage the subordinate to adopt non-rational tactics.

Hypothesis # H₅: Professional and legitimate types of power are used in the downward influence process whereas; persuasive types of power are used in the upward influence process.



CHAPTER - 4 -

METHODOLOGY

This study focuses the strategies employed by library professionals to influence their subordinates and their super-ordinates so as to get things done. Many previous studies have found the influence factors in inter personal relationship important in successful achievement of the organizational goals. To investigate these relationships among Indian library professionals, samples are collected from library professionals of the North East India where such kind of empirical studies, particularly on library professionals have not been conducted so far. Arguably, the whole of India is not selected for collecting samples though the title of the study specifies Indian library professionals. This is an intentional omission on the part of the investigator to re-affirm that everything that is North-East is Indian. Further, due to the time constraint for finishing a Ph. D thesis, the sample has to be delimited to a population amenable within the stipulated time.

THE RESEARCH SITE

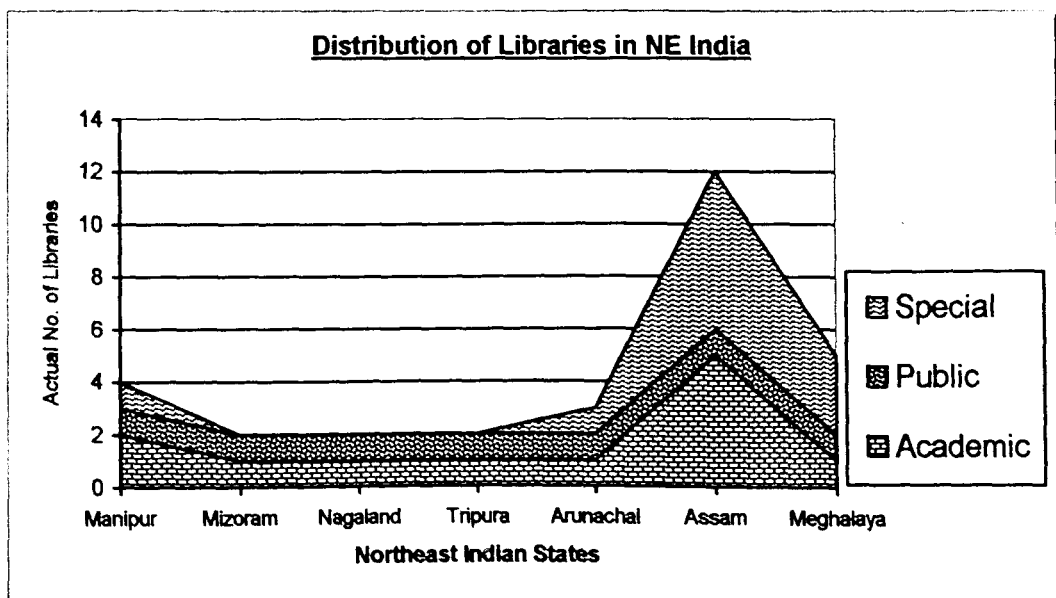
Samples are collected from three types of libraries viz., academic libraries, public libraries, and special libraries. Almost all the libraries of the Northeast come into these three categories. Libraries as it is well known are mostly dependent and serve the interest of an institution or its parent organization. For the purpose of this study, the distinction between types of libraries are loosely defined and grouped into three main categories as follows: -

1. **Academic libraries**: - In this category libraries attached to academic institutions that are known to teach general subjects (universities) are included. All the university libraries including Agricultural Universities come under this broad heading. Since, academic libraries are found in all the seven states this libraries form the major portion of the study.

2. **Public libraries:** - State sponsored libraries (mostly State Central Libraries) are taken as public libraries. In the absence of a state central library other designated public library is selected. In case of Assam it is the Directorate of Library Services and in Arunachal Pradesh, three public libraries are clubbed together as public libraries. This is due to the fact that the two states did not have a State Central Library.

3. **Special libraries:** - Those libraries attached to a research institutions or that caters to specialized needs are categorized under this heading. The strength of special libraries is very few and most of them are found to be under staffed. It may be mentioned that Indian Institute of Technology Gauhati, North East Regional Institute of Science and Technology, Gauhati Medical College, and Regional Institute of Medical Sciences are academic institutions. However, owing to their nature of subjects being highly specialized the libraries attached to these institutions are grouped under special libraries. There are no special libraries in the states of Mizoram, Nagaland, and Tripura.

Fig. 4.1: Area Graph Showing Number and Types of Libraries in each state



All together 30 (thirty) libraries spread over the whole Northeast are included in this study. As shown in fig. 4.1 the maximum 12 (40%) libraries comes from Assam, 5 from

Meghalaya, 4 from Manipur, 3 from Arunachal Pradesh, 2 each from the states of Mizoram, Nagaland and Tripura. Special libraries are absent in the states of Mizoram, Nagaland and Tripura whereas, Academic and Public libraries are found in the entire seven sister states. List of the 30 libraries along with addresses are given in the Appendix – I.

THE POPULATION

Organizational hierarchy is uniform only in the university libraries. The organizational set up in the other two types of libraries differs. Even libraries of the same type often have different organizational hierarchy. In

Table 4.1 DESIGNATION AND TYPES OF LIBRARIES

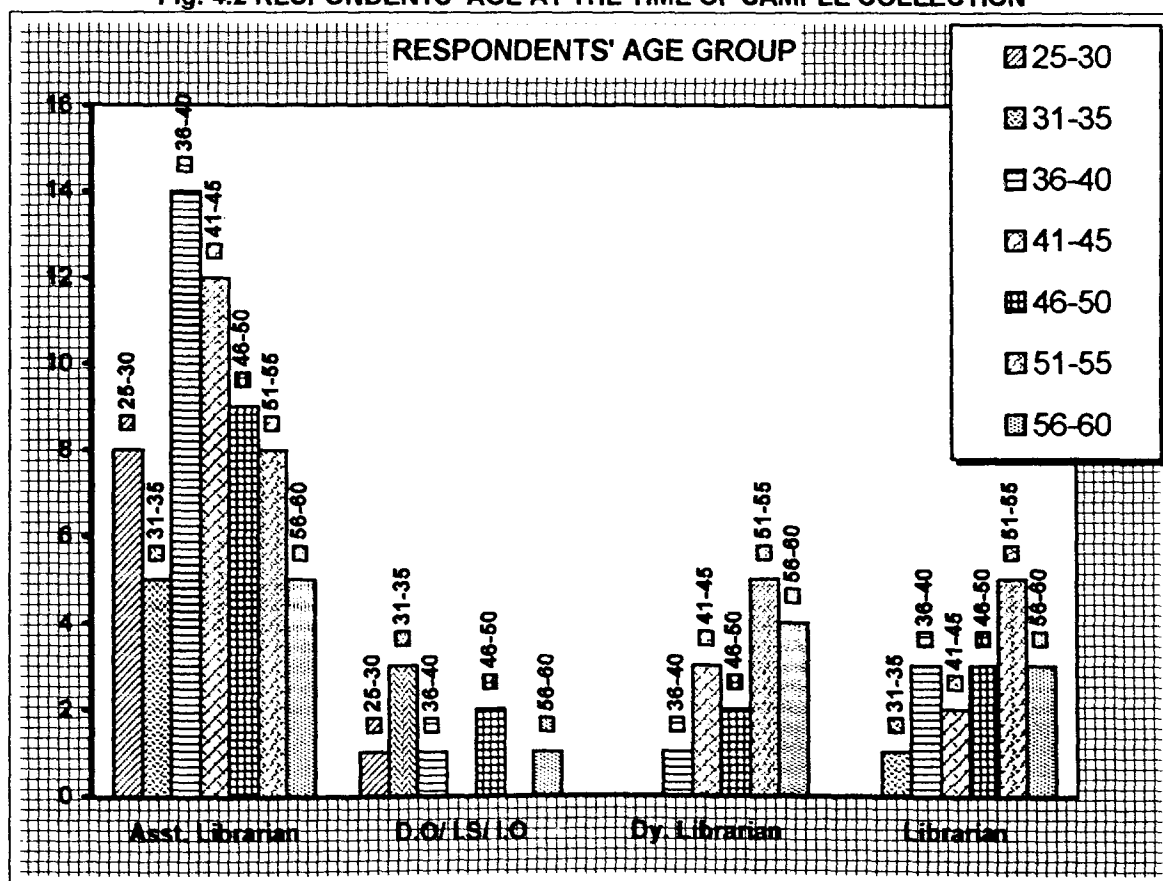
	TYPES OF LIBRARIES			Total
	Academic	Public	Special	
1. Asst. Librarian	30	17	14	61
2. D.O/ I.S+I.O	5		3	8
3. Dy. Librarian	7	6	2	15
4. Librarian	5	4	8	17
Tota	47	27	27	101

most research libraries the designation are called technical-1... technical-2 or T3...T4 and so on. The librarian of a given library may be a T6 scientist whereas in another library the librarian may be a T5 or even a T7 scientist. All these hierarchical differences make it complicated to generalize the designations / positions of the library professionals. For the purpose of generalization, the top ranking grades to the third in the hierarchy is taken into consideration. In some cases the fourth ranks from the top are also included provided they have at least two or more subordinates directly reporting to them and were in-charge of a section. In view of the fact that the number of such professional being negligibly less (below 3.00% i.e., in Directorate of Library Services, Assam) they have been clubbed together with the Assistant Librarians. Again these four ranks are grouped as per the designation given by the university libraries for the sack of uniformity: -

- i. Assistant Librarians
- ii. Documentation Officers (D.O)/ Information Scientist (I. S)/ Information Officers (I. O).
- iii. Deputy Librarian
- iv. Librarian

1. **Assistant Librarians:** - More than 60% of the respondents are Assistant Librarians with the age range of 25 to 61 above. As envisaged in Fig. 4.2, the maximum number of Assistant Librarians are between the age group of 36 to 45 forming 27.75% of the total respondents. Interestingly, it was found that at least 2 respondents from different Universities in this category belong to the above 61 years of age group, way beyond the normal retirement age for Assistant Librarians prescribed by the University Grant Commission. After re-verification the reason for such lapse was a mistake at the time of marking by the concerned respondents. As shown on Fig. 4.3 the number of female is high (26.73%) in this category and the difference between its male counterpart (33.66%) is lesser than any other position of the profession.

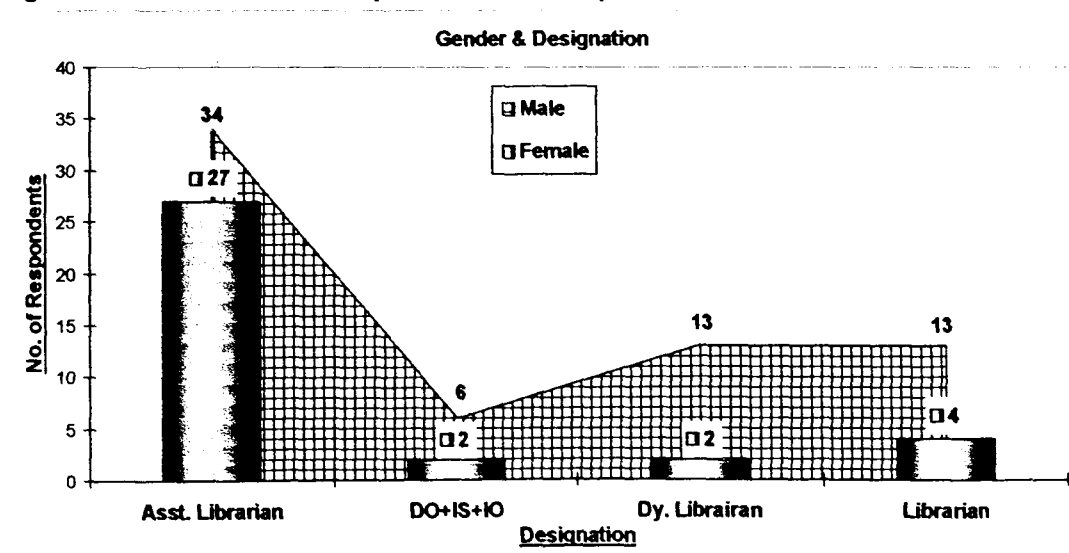
Fig. 4.2 RESPONDENTS' AGE AT THE TIME OF SAMPLE COLLECTION



1. Assistant Librarians = 61, 2. Documentation Officers / Information Officers / Information Scientists = 8, 3. Deputy Librarians = 15, 4. Librarians = 17

2. **Documentation Officers/ Information Scientist/ Information Officers**: - Among the respondents, the number of Documentation Officers are 6 (six) and the number of Information Scientists & Information Officers¹ are also 6 (six) from all the states taken together. In special libraries there was only one Documentation Officer and no Information Scientists/ Officers. Similarly, in public libraries there are only one Information Scientists/ Officers and no Documentation Officers. Academic libraries have five Documentation Officers and five Information Scientists/ Officers. Owing to the said reasons these designations are integrated as one unit of population. Although three types of designations have been merged together here in this category the number of respondents is only 7.92%, (see Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2) lowest compare to any other designations. Out of the total respondents in this category 2 of them are female and 6 of them are male (see fig. 4.3). The percentage of responds in this category is 66.66% from a total of 12.

Fig. 4.3 Male and Female occupation of different positions



3. **Deputy Librarians**: - There are 17 Deputy Librarians in all the states out of which, 60% are from Academic Libraries, 40% from Public Libraries, and the remaining 13% from

¹ Though different in nomenclatures it implies more or less the same and the two designations are represented as one option in the Questionnaire

Special Libraries. Out of this population 88.23% (15) of them participate in this study. While all Deputy Librarians from Public and Special libraries are responding, 11.76% from the Academic Libraries are either absent or not willing to respond. Among the respondents, 13.33% are female (see fig. 4.3). Of the total respondents 14.85% belong to this category.

4. Librarians: - In one or two academic libraries, Professors from other subject backgrounds, who themselves have claimed that they know nothing about library, are made in-charge of the library. Such types of librarian-in-charges are not included in the survey. There are altogether 18 working Librarians in all the states out of which, 17 (94.44%) respond to the questionnaire. Out of these respondents, 23.52% of them are female (fig. 4.3). Of the total respondents 16.83% belong to this category.

Table 4.2 Number of Respondents from each State

	DESIGNATION				Total
	Asst. Librarians	D.O/ I.S/ I.O	Dy. Librarians	Librarians	
1. Manipur	2	2	6	4	14
2. Mizoram	3			1	4
3. Nagaland	7			1	8
4. Tripura	5		1	1	7
5. Arunachal	3	2	1	2	8
6. Assam	25	2	6	6	39
7. Meghalaya	16	2	1	2	21
Total	61	8	15	17	101

Out of 110 professionals that come under these four categories, questionnaires are distributed to 108¹ of them and out of which, a population of 91.81% (n=101) responded to participate in this study. The maximum number of respondents is from Assam as is the number libraries, followed by Meghalaya and a high response is also recorded from Manipur (Table 4.2). Although rest of the states show less number of response the degree of response against the existing total population is high.

THE ASSESSMENT METHOD

To examine the selected population questionnaire method is adopted. A standard scale available from previous studies, with some modification, is personally administered to each individual that fits the status mentioned earlier. The researcher spends about half an hour with each respondent in explaining and helping them respond appropriately to the questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of eight different sections (Table 4.3). Section 1 and 2 are on leadership and of similar nature. Likewise, section 3 and 4 are on the bases of power and section 5 and 6 are on influence strategies.

SECTIONS	MEASURES	NO. OF ITEMS	SCALES
1.	Leadership Behaviour (Self Assessment)	50	Likert's 5 point
2.	Leadership Behaviour (Assessing Immediate Superior)	50	Likert's 5 point
3.	Bases of Power (Influencing Subordinates)	7	Likert's 5 point
4.	Bases of Power (Influencing Immediate Superior)	7	Likert's 5 point
5.	Influence Tactics (Downward)	60	Likert's 5 point
6.	Influence Tactics (Upward)	56	Likert's 5 point
7.	Organizational Climate	30	Likert's 5 point
8.	Background Variables	12	1 to 9

1. Leadership Behaviour (LB) Scale: - Drawn from the recent works of Sinha (1980), Hassan (1986), Ansari (1986) and tested on Indian library professionals by Saraf (1995) 50 single statement items each are used to measure the leadership style of immediate superiors and subordinates. The items are evenly distributed to five dimensions of pre-defined leadership styles, namely, authoritative (F), participative (P), nurturant (N), task oriented (T), bureaucratic (B). Each item has a Likert type 5 point scale with the option as, 5 = Quite True, 4 = True, 3 = Doubtful, 2 = False, 1 = Quite False. In the first section of Leadership Behaviour Scale for Self Assessment (LBS) respondents are ask to rate each statement (in the 5 point scale) on the basis of how true it explains their relationship with subordinates. In the Leadership Behaviour for Assessing Superior (LBB) respondents are ask to rate each statement as to how close it defines there immediate superior. All statements in LBS start with

¹ One of the professional was on study leave and the other on duty leave.

the first person 'I' and those statements in LBB start with the third person "He". Sample statements of LBS: -

22B. I do not hurry up in taking decision and actions.

23T. I see to it that subordinates work to their capacity.

24N. I go out of my way to help my subordinates.

25P. I fell concerned about the feeling of my subordinates.

26F. I keep an eye on what my subordinates do.

Sample Statements of LBB: -

41T. He/she tells his/her subordinates how well they are doing their job.

42N. He/she feels responsible for the well being of his/her subordinates.

43F. He/she makes it clear that personal loyalty is an important virtue.

44P. He/she is a friendly type.

45B. He/she always goes by rules and regulations.

2. Bases of Power (BP) Scale: - The measures for what makes one influential have 7 items of statements each. The statements are adopted from earlier works of Hersey et. al. (1979) and Bass (1990) and later tested in Indian environment by Ansari (1990). The respondents are ask to complete the phases "*You change the mind of your subordinates because ...*" and "*You change the mind of your immediate Boss because ...*" and on the basis of their choice to complete the phase they are ask to rate the complementary statements following the phases in a Likert type 5 point scale – 5 = to a very great extent, 4 = to a great extent, 3 = to some extent, 2 = to a small extent, and 1 = almost to no extent. Each complementary statement represents a pre-defined dimension, namely, reward, coercion, legitimate, referent, expert, information, and connection. Although they lack psychometric properties, such single-item measures to study bases of power have been shown to have concurrent or predicative validity

(Ansari, 1990). Some of the items for Bases of Power Scale for what make subjects influence subordinates (**BPS**) are: -

1F. You can administer sanctions and to those who do not cooperate with you.

2I. You possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.

3R. You can give special help and benefits to those who cooperate with you.

Bases of Power Scale for what makes subjects influence their superior (**BPB**) are: -

4E. I promised to help them in getting further advancement if they help me.

5C. I brought some friends along to back my request.

6M. I give then I distorted information about the reasons to comply with me.

3. Influence Tactics (IT) Scale: - To assess the subjects' influence strategies, statements are compiled from the earlier works of Falbo and Peplau (1980), Kipnis et al. (1980) and later tested in the Indian environment by Ansari (1990). Respondents are asked to rate the statements on how frequently they used it to influence their immediate superior or subordinates at the work. They are required to respond in terms of what they did in the immediate past. Each statement is to be rated in a 5 point scale, namely, **5** = very often, **4** = often, **3** = sometimes, **2** = seldom, and **1** = never. In the downward influence strategy measures (**ITD**), there are 60 items distributed evenly (after some modification) across 15 pre-defined dimensions, viz., assertion, coalition, diplomacy, exchange of benefits, ingratiation, manipulation, personalized help, persuasion, rationality, positive sanctions, negative sanctions, showing dependency, showing expertise, threats, and upward appeal. In the upward influence strategy measures (**ITU**) there are 56 items evenly distributed (after modification) across 14 pre-determined dimensions almost similar to ITD. The dimensions are, blocking, coalition, defiance, diplomacy, exchange of benefits, ingratiation, manipulation, personalized help, persuasion, reasoning, showing dependency, showing expertise, upward appeal, and the rest unclassified.

Sample of ITD are: -

1. I set a time deadline for them to do what I ask.
2. I ask them to do some work in a polite way
3. I showed that I was concerned about their welfare.
4. I promised to help them in getting further advancement if they help me.
5. I brought some friends along to back my request.
6. I give then I distorted information about the reasons to comply with me.
7. I did personal favours for them.
8. I convinced them that they will find my way to be the best in course of time.
9. I convinced them by telling them the urgency and utility of the issue at hand.

Sample of ITU are: -

1. At times I withheld some crucial information from him/her.
2. I obtained the support of my subordinates to back my request.
3. At times I differed from him/her.
4. I showed that I always supported him/her.
5. I offered an exchange of favour.
6. I praised him/her in superlatives.
7. I usually got my way by making him/her fell that it was his/her idea.
8. I help him/her even in personal matters.
9. I got my way by convincing him/her that my way was the best.

4. Organizational Climate (OC) Scale: - Although several scales and methods for measuring organizational climate are available from various literatures, the questionnaire models develop by Litwin and Stringer (1968) and later modified by Schnake (1983) is employed to study the perceptions of organizational climate. This model put into tested, by Ansari (1990), in different Indian environment. The measure consist of 30 different statements with 5 point

scale, specifically, **5** = To a very great extent, **4** = To a great extent, **3** = To some extent, **2** = To a small extent, and **1** = Almost to no extent. Some of the statements are: -

1. The assignments to this organization are clearly defined.
2. In this organization, we set very high standards for performance.
3. The goals I am supposed to achieve in my area are realistic.
4. There is a feeling of pressure to continually improve our performance.

5. Background Variables (BV): - The background variables are incorporated keeping in mind the unsolved factors like socio cultural aspects that may have direct impact on respondents' perceptions of power, influence, leadership and organisational climate. These variables will, expectedly, contribute in finding the relationship and choice of various strategies so far explored. This section is made up of 12 statements and questions with varying scales that ranges from 1 to 9. Each item represents a single variable. Some of the variables taken into account are the respondents' present age, joining age, sex, marital status, designation, educational qualifications, number of subordinates, number of years working in the present organisation, etc.

THE STATISTICAL METHOD

Factor Analysis: - Factor analysis is by far the most often used multivariate technique of research studies, specially pertaining to social and behavioural sciences. It is a technique applicable when there is a systematic interdependence among a set of observed or manifest variables and the researcher is interested in finding out something more fundamental or latent which creates this commonality (Kothari, 1990). In order to identify underlying variables, or factors, that explain the pattern of correlations within a set of observed variables Factor analysis is used. It is also implemented for data reduction, by identifying a small number of factors which explain most of the variance observed in a much larger number of manifest

variables. Rotation in factor analysis is done to attain “simple structure” and there are several rotation methods. In this study **Varimax Rotation** is used to maximise the variance of loadings within each factor. Factor loading of each section is based on the following principles:

- (a) **Eigenvalue is greater than one.**
- (b) **Factor loading of each item was not less than 0.35.**
- (c) **More than 3 items with the above mentioned loadings were on one factor.**
- (d) **Items having significant loadings on more than two factors were credited to the factor on which loading was highest.**

Correlations: - Correlations measure how variables or rank orders are related. It is a statistical device which helps in analyzing the covariation of two or more variables (Gupta, 2000). The degree of relationship between the variables under consideration is measured through the correlation analysis. The closeness of the relationships between the variables is measured by correlations analysis. This relationship is tested on items loaded in one factor, between factors of the same group, or between factors of different groups.

Analysis of Variance and Co-variance (ANOVA): - ANOVA is used to test the differences among the means of the cases by examining the amount of variation within each of these samples, relative to the amount of variation between the samples. The One-Way ANOVA procedure produces a one-way analysis of variance for a quantitative dependent variable by a single factor (independent) variable. Analysis of variance is used to test the hypothesis that several means are equal. This technique is an extension of the two-sample t test.

All the items, 50 each in LBS and LBB, 60 in ITS, 56 in ITB, and 30 in OC were separately put into factor analysis with varimax rotation and each factor derived were

assigned suitable names. ANOVA and regression analysis were used to recognize the relationship among the variables.

All statistical analysis is done with the software SPSS for Windows 7.5.1 (1996). Tables are created with SPSS and Microsoft Excel and Graphs are created with SPSS and Microsoft Graph 2002 respectively.

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