

CHAPTER - 2

A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

AND RESEARCHES

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2.1 Introduction

This chapter will be devoted to the examination of the relevant research studies made in the area of organizational climate, teacher morale and leader behaviour showing the relatedness of each of these three variables as well as the composite effect of these variables on the effectiveness of the teacher education programme.

Since the domain of 'organizational climate' and its correlates is a vast area, therefore, for the purpose of systematic approach and feasibility of evolving a clearer picture involving all the factors affecting organizational climate of a college, the investigator has classified these studies and researches into the following broad categories :

- Types of organizational climate
- Group cohesion
- Communication
- Personal Needs and Values
- Motivation
- Morale
- Leader Behaviour

It is assumed that an interdependence and integration of these categories combined together would lead to either the effectiveness or the ineffectiveness of the educational programme

in an organization.

The investigator's expectation is that at the end of the review a global picture of the organization would evolve which would show how the organizational climate, the morale of the members of the group and the leadership in an organization contribute in running the organization both efficiently and effectively. Such a picture would also help educational planners and organizers to work out the implications of these findings and apply them in the colleges of education by determining the organizational climate, ensuring the staff morale and also providing for the proper building up of the leadership behaviour of the principal and then mould the cumulative effects of the three variables in such a way that the teacher education programme is run effectively.

2.2 The Concept of Organizational Climate

Though an attempt was made in the previous chapter to clarify the concept of 'organizational climate', here the concept would be treated more fully than before.

A general observation of the educational institutions shows that schools and colleges differ not only in their plant or the composition of the staff and the student population, but also in the 'feel' of an institution. Sometimes this 'feel'

or 'individuality' is called the 'atmosphere' or a 'tone' of the college, or its 'personality'. It is this aspect of the relatively intangible 'the feel' or the 'climate' which lets one know that one college is different from another.

In some colleges, the principal appears to emphasise his authority and status, often stressing formality and rules in dealing with others. And still in others, the principal gives the impression of being too busy to be able to give much personal attention to any individual staff member or an item of the college programme. Yet in many colleges, the principal seems to accommodate in an appropriate proportion formality and informality without undercutting his important role in the scheme of things. These differences, which sometimes are not so subtle, characterize the psychological environment. Argyris (1957) calls it 'living systems' of organizations. These psychological environments are the domain of organizational climate. 'Analogously' Halpin states, 'personality is to the individual what organizational climate is to the organization'. (1966).

The significance of this analogy is important for the educators who are concerned with organizational behaviour in schools and colleges. For educators, it makes sense to accept the fact that individual persons - each possessing his own unique personality characteristics, behave in their own unique

way. Some are able to cope up with the challenges and move on with confidence, while some others feel that they are manipulated by forces with which they cannot cope adequately, and move along under stress and mechanically. While still others in the organizations are jovial good fellows, who work and enjoy life, who are easy to meet, are outgoing and who generate trust and confidence among their colleagues.

But, for educators, such classifications of teachers are not sufficient. They describe the faculty behaviour. But it is also necessary to know why people behave the way they do. The insight of this sort of question will make the teaching personnel more effective in their educational efforts. One way of viewing organizational behaviour in schools and colleges and to understand it better is through the concept of 'organizational climate'.

In other words, the deeper one delves into the individual behaviour within organizations, the more one discovers that the organization is a complex social system which must be studied as a whole if individual behaviour within it is to be truly understood (Schein, 1965). Organizations are social systems (Devis, 1967) and people make it immensely complex because of their many needs and value systems with which they come. Everywhere, in an organization the work group is composed of individuals chosen to fill positions specified by the

formal organization. A principal is pleased when the members of his immediate work group get along well together as individuals and seem to enjoy being members of the group, (Halpin, 1966). Such an organization is described as an 'organic system' (Baldrige, 1972). Here the organization tries to promote good relationships between groups as well as between individuals. Mutual trust and confidence, shared responsibilities and resolution of conflicts are made through problem solving.

While reviewing interpersonal relations in a living organism, Brown (1965) gave the idea of organizational categories which, he says, attracts, repels or isolates the subgroups and individuals along a variety of lines. This peculiar patterning of personnel in any organization is what is meant by 'Climate'.

Conceptually, 'organizational climate' is the state of the organization which results from the interaction that takes place between organizational members as they fulfill their prescribed roles while satisfying their individual needs (Guba, 1960). Lonsdale (1964) viewed it as the global assessment of the interaction between the task-achievement dimension and the need satisfaction dimension within the organization. Feldvebel (1964), defined organizational climate as a pattern of social interaction that characterizes an organization. The main units of interaction in the concept being individuals, the

group as a group, and the leader. Andrew (1965) defined organizational climate as "merely a somewhat blurred esprit d'core".

For a long time the term 'climate' has been rather generally and imprecisely used to describe the 'atmosphere' of an organization. However, Argyris (1957) is generally credited with the first attempt to describe systematically the factors which comprise organizational climate in a study of organizational relationships in a bank. The research findings of Halpin and Croft (1966) gives a more precise meaning to the term 'Organizational climate' which gives a normative base and enables comparison between organizations.

Some measuring instruments such as the OCDQ by Halpin and Croft (1963), the OCI by Stern and Steinhaff, (1965) the OCDQ-HE by Borrevik (1973), etc. have been developed to identify the organizational climate of educational institutions.

2.3 Types of Organizational Climates

Halpin and Croft (1966) identified six organizational climates from 'Open' at one end of the continuum to 'closed' at the other. They found that a school possessing an 'Open climate' which they deemed as the most effective, was a lively organization, moving towards its goal, while at the same time providing satisfaction to the members of the organization. The

esprit is high and this reflects an effective balance between the task accomplishment and the social need satisfaction. The 'Closed Climate' on the other hand, is defined as 'one which makes a situation in which the group members obtain little satisfaction in respect of either task-achievement or social needs.' In short, it is a situation where the leader is ineffective in directing the activities of the staff and at the same time, he is not inclined to look after their welfare'. To use Lewin's terms, the open climate is marked by 'functional flexibility' and the closed climate as distinguished by 'functional rigidity'.

The six climate categories, Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal and Closed (further details on page 150) could be classified into three major categories :

- (1) Relatively Open climate (composed of the first and second) which emphasizes both group maintenance and task-accomplishment, the two major organizational requirements.
- (2) Relatively closed climates (composed of the fifth-sixth)
- (3) Climates which stress only one of the two major requirements (composed of third and fourth).

Organizational climate always exists. It is never absent. It is good or bad, open or closed, supportive or

disruptive, authoritarian or democratic, perhaps, more frequently ambivalent, regardless of its state, it exists". Doak, (1970).

Researches in India and Abroad: The new research field of organizational climate discovered by Hellpin and Croft, began to develop slowly in the sixties. Research workers in the U.S.A. itself were attracted by it. The movement gradually spread over to Canada, England and Australia. In India, the initiative to study organizational climate was taken by Motilal Sharma (1969). He made his first study under the title 'A Comparative Study of Organizational Climate of the Government and Private Schools of the Churu District of Rajasthan'. In Gujarat, the theme immediately attracted some researchers like Sharma (1971a, 1971b, 1972b, 1972c), Sharma and Shah (1972), Sharma and Parham (1972), Kumar (1972), Lulla (1972), Parikh (1972), Patel (1972), Sharma, Buch and Rai (1973), Pillai (1973), Patel (1974), Shelat (1974) and Pandya (1975). The Centre of Advanced Study in Education and Department of Educational Administration of the M.S. University of Baroda have taken a lead in sponsoring and directing research in organizational climate of schools beginning from 1972.

Out of these only five have been attempted at the Ph.D. level, the brief description of which is as follows :

Kumar (1972) in his study on 'Social Climate in Schools and Characteristics of Pupils' made an investigation into the organizational climates existing in the schools of Baroda, based on the hierarchical and collegial interactions between the principal and teachers in a school system. On a sample of 70 schools, comprised of non-governmental and co-educational high schools, he discovered that although the number of schools having Open climate is a little more than the schools falling in the category of 'Closed' and 'Paternal' respectively, it is, nevertheless, at par with the Open climate. The least number of schools was found to be having 'Autonomous' climate.

Sharma (1972) made an investigation into the organizational climates of secondary schools of Rajasthan and found that the majority of the school ^{showed} 'Paternal' climate followed by 'Controlled' climate combining the two climates, Paternal and closed, and showing a tendency of Closed climate. Thus the majority of the schools in Rajasthan had 'Closed tendency' in their organizational climates.

Pillai (1973) in her study, 'organizational climate, teacher morale and school quality' conducted on 190 secondary schools of Tamil Nadu in the South, drawn mainly from Madurai and Coimbatore districts, indicates a large number of schools having 'relatively Closed climate', while combining the result on Paternal and Closed climate category.

Patel's (1974) study was based on 162 high schools of South Gujarat. The OCDQ was used and statistical procedures identical with those used by Halpin and Croft in the original. His one major objective was to investigate the organizational climate of the sampled high schools. The investigator divided his sample into three categories viz. most progressive schools, less progressive schools and least progressive schools. The hypothesis formulated was that the organizational climate of the three types of high schools would differ from one another, and secondly that the organizational climate of highly progressive schools would be more conducive to growth and development in comparison to climate of less progressive high schools. Significant difference was also found between means of A (most progressive) and C (least progressive) types of schools and B (less progressive) and C types of schools. A type of schools had maximum number (10) of Open climate schools and the C type of schools the least number (5). Autonomous climate was found most (9) in C type and least (4) in B type schools.

Shelat (1974) in her 'study of organizational climate, teacher morale and pupil motivation towards institutions in secondary schools of Baroda District' conducted on 100 schools indicate a greater number of schools having Closed and paternal climates.

Pandya (1975) found in the sampled 219 secondary schools of Central Gujarat a greater number of schools (24.4 per cent) possessing Closed climate, the least number of schools (13.2 per cent) possessing Familiar climate and 15.7 per cent of schools having Open climate.

Grassie and Carr (1972) also suggest that more schools have closed climate than open ones in Australia.

Research studies like Sargent (1967) Coetzee (1972). Farber (1969) Guy (1970) also indicate that schools having different environment have different organizational climates.

The trend of the researches mentioned above indicates that type of organization affecting its climate differs according to the environment of the country. In India, a tendency towards more closed and paternal type of climate is indicated, which goes well with the cultural environment of the country where the characteristics of obedience and submission to authority and elders are predominant. However, in the other countries of Western culture more schools with 'open' climate are found. This significant relationship between the organization and the environment is shown by Derr and Gabarro (1972) by saying that in an environmental and task-requirements, some patterns of structure and behaviour are more appropriate than others, and the organization conforming more closely with these patterns are more effective. Therefore, it can be safely stated

that no single or best model of organization is appropriate to all environments.

2.4 Group Cohesiveness

Group cohesiveness is characterized as the overt manifestation of one's satisfaction with his own work group. If the members of a primary work group are generally satisfied with their affiliation to the group, then the cohesiveness for that group is generally high.

In order to maintain effectiveness of an organization and consequently a sound educational programme, it is very important to consider group cohesiveness in terms of its effect on the teachers' morale both in the positive and negative direction. The size of the colleges is increasing everyday with the increase in population and the growing demands for higher education in India. The same is true in Gujarat. In teacher education colleges, there has been continuing pressure for admission in colleges of the M.S. University, S.P. University and South Gujarat University. Therefore, the task of integrating the human personalities involved in it and its effect on the functioning of the organization is becoming more and more complex. Chatterjee (1972) while discussing the variables affecting cohesiveness has emphasised that organizations relatively smaller in size show high cohesiveness.

Since colleges of education are relatively small as compared to the liberal Arts and Science colleges, it is expected that the effectiveness of the teacher education programme would be maintained more in them than in the Arts and Science colleges. The research studies of Hech (1973) Argyris (1962) Argyris (1974) and Cleugh (1971) indicate the importance of group cohesiveness in the inter-peer interactions and interpersonal competence and organizational effectiveness. Thus in achieving greater integration among the sub-groups within the organization, organizational goals get more effectively fulfilled (Schein, 1965).

2.5 Communication and Organizational Climate

Today's organizations, whether schools, hospitals, business, government agency or military organizations, all are becoming complex. There is a growing need of interdependence, because the performance of one affects the performance of the other. This interdependence call for coordination and coordination requires communication. Organizations require communication performance at an unprecedented level of excellence, and the chief demand made upon an organization is the increasing necessity for an organizational climate compatible with the psychic needs of the organizations members.

The college having a particular organizational climate

necessitates the particular type of communication within it. It is the coordinating technique in communication which establishes and maintains particular climate. Williams (1967) in his book 'Communication and Organizational Behaviour' writes that it is the supportive climate which maintains a free flow of communication within an organization. Such a climate is all the more desirable in an educational institution like colleges where the coordination and interdependence produce results and fulfillment of goals both personal and organizational. He further says that 'The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and all relationships with the organization each member will, in the light of his background, values and expectations, view the experiences as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.

This supportive climate develops trust and, by and large, high trust tends to stimulate high performance (William, 1967). When the organizational climate is trusting and supportive, the communication practice is generally good. In an Open climate people feel free to express their feelings and ideas. Faculty communication is also smooth. Teachers do not retaliate, and are not prone to presume malice on the offender's part, but instead 'carrying him', compensate for his errors. An effective communication reinforces and enhances an existing trusting

climate, but if communications falter repeatedly, the trusting relationship may be jeopardized. Conversely, when the Climate is hostile or threatening, communication tends to suffer - in such an atmosphere true feelings are suppressed. Unfortunately, when the Climate is unhealthy, even perfect climate can be inadequate. Goodworth and Walker (1973) concluded in their study of communication process and its relation to organizational climate that there is a strong positive relationship between the communication characteristics of flow and the organizational climate. There it is very necessary to establish a better communication channel in the educational institutions which possess their own organizational climates. White and Hall (1970) also emphasise the absolute need for better communication between the teachers and the principal and among teachers. The communication pattern in schools and colleges also determines the organizational climate as well as the morale of the teachers, Helwig (1971).

The communication among teachers and between the principal and teachers is also affected by the nature of work, physical proximity, personal acquaintance and the organization of work. Charter (1969) made a study on the socio-metric data regarding person-to-person communication obtained from a high school staff undergoing severe organizational disorders and non-disruptive schools. The findings indicate that the organization of work, physical proximity and personal acquaintance

contributed heavily and independently to the patterning of the communication.

Such findings, although in schools and non-educational organizations, have a great bearing on the communication pattern of colleges. It follows from these studies that in order to increase the efficiency and performance of the colleges an 'open-door' policy and free communication is essential.

2.6 Personal Needs and Values

All who are concerned with organizations know that there are both 'formal' and 'informal' domains in organizational culture - that there is a net-work of formalized elements such as policies, rules, procedures, equipment, hierarchy of authority and the like, and that there is also an 'informal' 'underground' of feelings, attitudes and behaviours which is much less visible but nevertheless exists and has a major impact on organizational outcomes. It is the operation of this aspect of organization's culture that may either enhance human values or thwart them. Here, human values refer to those goals and strivings of individuals that relate to what they want from the organization and from their participation as organization members. Informal organization refers to those patterns of coordination that arise among the members of a formal organization which are not called for by the blueprint. The organizational blue print requires the coordination of only certain

activities. But for a variety of reasons, the human actors who fulfill organizational roles rarely limit themselves merely to performance of those activities. The workers are supposed to do their jobs. Yet they may wish to talk to each other, to have lunch together, to share jokes about their jobs and boss, and in various other ways establish relationships above and beyond the formally required ones. Such relationships tend to arise in all formal organizations and can be thought of as informal organizations. Many of the important psychological problems of organizations arise from the complex interaction of the formal and informal organization (Schein, 1965).

Thus, many of the psychological problems that arise in an organization are because of the neglect on the part of the organization to satisfy the psychological and social needs of the individuals. The policies and practices which insure organizational effectiveness create problems above and beyond the ones the person brings with him. It makes him alienated, insecure and bitter, if the organization fails to fulfill his maximum needs for security, maintenance of self-esteem and opportunities to grow and develop. Bernard (1938) states, 'informal organization is indefinite and rather structureless, and has no definite sub-division. It may be regarded as a shapeless mass of quite varied densities, the variation in density being a result of external factors affecting the closeness of people geographically or of formal purposes which bring them

specially into contact for conscious joint accomplishments'.

In these informal organizations are 'whirlpools' of activity (Griffith, 1959) focussing on particular problems of special social interests and problems. Horizontal and vertical cliques (Dalton 1959) are formed in the working group.

In the education system of today, where the organizational behaviour is a function of dynamic relationship between the needs of the individual person and the need of the organization, the humane aspect seems to be neglected to a considerable extent. As an educationist one believes that he or she is devoted to human welfare, that he or she has an interest in and concern for the fellowman but it seems to be only in theory. In order to achieve ambitious targets and accomplish the plans and programmes outlined, one tends to forget that human beings are committed to a set of attitudes. Discussing in his book 'Education; the Humane Process' Leper (1964) highlights the tenets of humaneness by saying that, one of the tenets is the importance of man as a natural being, and the others are, faith in the perceptibility of man, faith in the dignity and worth of man and man's capacity to achieve self-realization through the use of reason and the methods of intelligence.

By human values, French (1973) means those goals and strivings of individuals that relate to what they want from the organization and from their participation as organization

members. Some human values that seem to be important today are, the opportunity to make meaningful contribution to the organization, the opportunity to have satisfying relationships, the opportunity to accept responsibility, the opportunity for recognition and advancement and the opportunity to stretch and grow. Reviews of literature in the area of 'Needs and values' with which the employees or the teachers come to an organizations do show a contributory effect in making the climate of an organization healthy, open and humanistic, as well as creating an environment suitable for effective functioning of the organization.

Friedlander et al.(1969) report that climate is a primary determinant of job satisfaction moderated by job values of individual employee. The concerns for feeling, values, and attitudes which go beyond the words, (wells, 1970) enable the organization to develop ways and means of successfully managing these forces into self-actualization. Newton (1969) defines the cultural and psychological growth of an organization in terms of a specific set of values, 'attitudes and behavioural norms which attribute to the degree to which persons can actualize themselves. Comb and Corey (1970) support the findings.

Argyris (1971) adds that the organizational structure, administrative controls, pseudo-human relations programme lead to dependance or inhibitors of participation. He suggests-

that the frustrated people would tend to be those who aspire towards maturity or psychological success and are not permitted by their jobs. But as the individuals differ, so do the needs and values of the people. The importance lies in the knowledge of teachers' attitudes toward their occupation and profession (England, 1972), more so to those responsible in the development of quality teaching service. Because people approach their jobs with different kinds of expectations they desire and expect to have responsibilities, achievements and interest in their work (Werimont, 1966). The attainment of these aspirations and expectations produces a feeling of satisfaction; the lack of attainment or frustration of these objectives causes dissatisfaction.

2.7 Motivation

There has been an increasing emphasis during the past several years on differences between two basic types of needs which may be satisfied in the work situation, or between two contrasting kinds of motivation toward work. The first of these is described variously as self-actualizing, ego-involving, or intrinsic and internalized motivations; The second is described as extrinsic and externalized motivation, or as striving to fulfill deficiency or maintenance needs (Maslow, 1955).

A number of studies have dealt with the motivation - individual benefit relationships, including those concerned with job satisfaction. These studies indicate in a broad sense, that the self-actualizing worker interacting with the content and process of his work-tasks has a greater probability of attaining job satisfaction and mental health than the deficiency - motivated employee interacting with the contextual environment of his job.

McClelland-Atkinson's (1969) theory of motivation is applied in the field of organizational climate too. The model has been summarized as follows :

- (1) All reasonably healthy adults have a considerable reservoir of potential energy. Studies thus far have not indicated that differences in the total amount of potential energy are important determinants of motivation.
- (2) All adults have a number of basic 'needs' or 'motives', which can be thought of as values or outlets that channel and regulate the flow of potential energy from this reservoir.
- (3) Although most adults within a given culture may have same sets of motives or energy outlets, they will differ greatly in the relative strength or 'readiness' of various motives. A strong motive may be thought of as a value or energy outlet that opens. A weak motive can be thought of as a tight, sticky value that, even when open, allows only limited energy flow.

- (4) Whether or not a motive is 'actualized', that is, whether energy flows through this outlet into behaviour and useful work or not, depends on the specific situation in which the person finds himself.
- (5) Certain characteristics of the situation trigger different motives, opening different values or energy outlets. Each motive or energy outlet is responsive to a different set of situational characteristics.
- (6) Since different motives are directed towards different kinds of satisfaction, the pattern of behaviour that results from the arousal of a motive is quite distinct for each motive. That is each motive leads to a different pattern of behaviour.

Based on this model, he describes three intrinsic motives that have been shown to be important determinants of work related behaviour.

- (1) Need for affiliation. (Acceptance, belonging, social interaction).
- (2) Need for power (authority - control, influence over others).
- (3) Need for achievement (accomplishment to excel in relation to competitive or internalized standards).

Thus, evaluating the strength of the needs, a principal can motivate individual teachers by creating the working condition in which their needs can be fulfilled.

People join institutional organizations that give promise of providing some opportunity of assisting in the satisfaction of life goals (Show, 1969). It is also concluded that acceptance and maintenance of a role in the organization is subject to influence based on an employee's motivation. Some of the influences noted were coercion, acceptance of authority, rewards, and integration of personal and organizational goals. Aebi (1972) in his study tested the applicability of Herzberg's Motivation - Hygiene theory to college educators and has found that for college educators all motivators combined together contribute more to job satisfaction than to job dissatisfaction and that all Hygienes combined contribute to more job dissatisfaction than satisfaction. Morris, (1972), Goodwin (1969), Lee (1969) and Deci (1971) also discuss the effects of external rewards on intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivation.

A review of the motivational theory and research suggests that in an organization like colleges, it is the motivating rather than manipulating factor that works satisfactorily (Sternner, 1969). The organizational climate of an institution should be such in which sincerity, integrity, trust and mutual respect are developed.

Both efficiency and justice contribute to the successful functioning of an organization (Lyons Terry, 1971). It brings men and women together to develop an effective organization,

enabling each to make his contribution to its success both as an individual and as a member of the working group. Also increasing productivity does take place by inducements over and above the fulfilment of essential requirements of the people both in the financial and the higher needs of self-expression, and self-fulfillment. As Tarvin (1973) has concluded in his study that though non-material rewards were ranked as more important for motivating college teachers, however, material rewards can affect subsequent motivation. Thus 'power equalization (Schien, 1965) and 'Psychological contract' (Atkinson, 1973) and 'self actualization Theory' (Herzberg, 1968) will enable organization to bring about an equilibrium and effective functioning of the organization of which colleges of education are of no exception.

In the preceding pages, the review of the literature and the researches on the different aspect of organization viz., climate, group cohesion, communication, personal needs and values and motivation has been given. The studies referred to are all indicative of enhancing the functioning of the colleges and making the existing programme effective in an educational organization. Since colleges of education to be studied in the present research are social organizations with its goals and purposes interacting with the individual's needs and values, similar conditions of climate, group cohesion, communication,

personal needs and values of the teachers and motivating factors are found, can be expected to operate in achieving effectiveness of their programme of teacher education. Therefore, it can be generalized that colleges of education with open climate or tendency towards openness, with group cohesiveness among teachers and principals will have personal needs and values satisfied, resulting in a reinforcing energy to contribute their best in the interest of the college and thereby making the teacher education programme of the teachers' colleges effective.

2.8 Staff Morale

General observation of a school or a college community will reveal teachers who can be easily grouped into two categories. Firstly, those who can be described as irritable, hostile, and almost unapproachable; who simply go through the motion of teaching. With very little time spent on preparation or evaluation and on non-teaching activities. On the other hand, there are also teachers who are highly motivated, possess friendly disposition and work enthusiastically. They are lively and they actively participate in discussions. They are bubbling with life and new ideas and are ready to suggest new plans and programmes for bringing about an improvement in the college educational programmes. Here, the question arises as to what

could be the reason for such a difference in their attitude; what it is that makes some teachers lively and enthusiastic and others indifferent and hostile.

Psychologically, every individual has a mental set of responding to his environmental conditions in a particular manner and in a particular way. This mental set or attitude influences the individual's views and his behaviour. The same formula of attitudes operates in the school or college environment. In other words, when an individual works in an organization, he forms certain attitudes towards his work, his job, his environment, his superiors and his co-workers or colleagues. As time passes, these attitudes take deep roots in the life of an individual which guide or mar his relationship with his environment. Such an attitude gives clue to the element of morale. And, therefore, one can say that morale is an outcome of attitudes.

The dictionary meaning of 'morale' is 'mental condition with respect to cheerfulness, confidence, zeal etc.' For example, the morale of troops. The commander has to boost up the morale of the army in order to enhance the activity and gain success as the end-result. Webster in his 'New Collegiate Dictionary' describes morale as 'prevailing mood and spirit conducive to willing and dependable performance'. 'High morale' is defined as 'confident, aggressive, resolute, spirit of

whole-hearted cooperation in a common effort, often attended by zeal'. But "no two conceptions of it are alike. It can be no more defined than energy, or life or soul. All we can do is to try and describe it, to feel and to guide it. When and where it is strongest, it makes an individual 'fit' for any task. It gives him a sense of solidarity with his comrades seeking the same end, and enables him either to do or to suffer in a common cause." (G. Stanley Hall quoted by Anderson 1963).

However, various psychologists and sociologists have defined 'morale' in different ways. For instance, Atkins and Lasswell, (1954) defined morale as 'that collective will which is built into groups by securing a subordination of the individual to the group, and a willingness to be disciplined in terms of group purposes.' According to Keith (1957), morale is the attribute of the individuals and groups toward their work environment and toward voluntary cooperation to the fullest extent of their ability in the best interest of organization. In the opinion of Burt (1959) morale is a tendency to work enthusiastically for a common purpose.

In the words of Vance (1958), morale is the prevailing mood or spirit which is conducive to willing and dependable performance tasks requisite to the attainment of organizational objectives. Yoder (1959) in his book 'Personnel Management and Industrial Relation' has defined morale as an over-all 'tone'

or 'climate' vaguely sensed among the members of a group, society or association. To Key and Palmer (1961), morale is the general enthusiasm of a group - its esprit de corps. According to Yoder, Heneman, Turnbull, and Stone (1958), morale is sometimes used to describe the degree of frustration felt by a group of employees. Harrell (1958) defines morale as the combination of attitudes toward job, company and immediate superior. Guion (1958) defined, morale as the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction is stemming from his total job situation. Monroe (1969) gave one word definition of mental hygiene as 'morale' where personal relationship is the pivot for mental health. ~~Monroe~~ (1971) while discussing 'supervision for change and innovation' indicates that morale is the individual state of mind or attitude conditioned by what he perceives to be the difference between his goals and his present situation in term of achievement performance or status. Burns (1952) calls it a collection of job-related attitudes.

In more careful usage, a distinction is made between job satisfaction and morale, in which job satisfaction is regarded as the composite of attitudes of individual employee toward his job and the relationship they create, whereas morale is the group reaction to the total working conditions and relationship according to Yoder (1959). Porter and Lawler (1968) as well as Herzberg (1968) consider morale as 'involvement in

one's job'. According to Guba (1958), morale is a disposition to exert extra effort.

A statement by American Association of School Administrators describes morale from an administrative point of view :

'Morale is a disposition on the part of the persons engaged in an enterprise to behave in ways which contribute to the purposes for which the enterprise exists. When this disposition is strong, morale is said to be high. It manifests itself in a tendency to subordinate personal consideration to the purposes of the enterprise, to work as a member of the team for the accomplishment of common goals and to satisfaction from achievements of the organizations. When the disposition towards the achievement of common purposes is weak, morale is said to be low. Low morale is characterized by behaviour that is obstructive or non-contributory to the common purposes, by failure to derive personal satisfaction from group achievement and by a tendency to elevate personal interest above the purposes of the enterprise - 'American Association of School Administrators, (1955, p.15).

From the 'School Executive's Guide' (1964) the word morale is stated as the 'will to do - the desire to achieve bigger and better things, to be more competent and to grow'.

Cohesiveness is conceptualized as overt manifestations of one's satisfaction with one's own work group. Blum (1949)

contends that morale is a group phenomenon with four components - group solidarity, group goal, observable progress towards the goal and individual participations in reaching the goal. The terms 'employee attitudes', 'job satisfaction', and 'industrial morale' were once thought of as synonymous in many instances and were used interchangeably. Blum, however, made the point that they are not synonymous. He said that an attitude may contribute to job satisfaction, since the latter is composed of a number of attitudes. Similarly, job satisfaction is not the same as industrial morale although it may contribute to morale. Morale is generated by the group and for the individual it is a feeling of being accepted by and belonging to a group of employees through adherence to common goals. So, group morale is the composite expressions of the attitudes of various individuals in the group. Chatterjee (1972) found that when the total climate of morale is satisfactory, the employee's satisfaction with the work group will bear high positive relationship.

Cleugh (1971) described the effect of good and bad morale on 'social learning' and group feeling. Bender (1973) devising a scale for measuring teacher morale found that teacher's relationship with other teachers was an important determiner of morale. Wick and Beggs (1971) stated that morale of the group of teachers will be enhanced if the group is characterized as being socially cohesive and cooperative.

Viteles (1953) described morale as 'we feeling' or 'Cohesiveness of a group'.

Teachers who are active in organization often have higher morale than those who are inactive. (Unruh, 1971). If the activities of the group with which the individual is identified have variety and quality, if they appear to be valuable to society and accomplish something worthwhile, then the morale tends to be good. The participation of individual gives the group not only something of himself but receives something which is important to his larger world. If communication among one group is poor, if communication is seldom sought, or is tolerated rather than appreciated, the group has little or no morale building value.

'Morale refers to the condition of a group where there are clear and fixed group goals (purposes) that are felt to be important and integrated with individual goals; where there is confidence in attaining these goals, and subordinately, confidence in the means of attainment in the leaders, associates, and finally in oneself; where group actions are integrated and cooperative; and where aggression and hostility are expressed against the forces frustrating the group rather than toward other individuals within the group' (Child, 1941).

The recognition that morale is multi-dimensional rather than uni-dimensional with each situation unique in itself has

now been accepted, and conceptual and operational relationship between overall job satisfaction, level of aspiration, level of attainment and level of importance are given by Evans (1969). A convergent and discriminant validity matrix analysis suggested that, it is possible to validly measure people's satisfaction with different facets of their jobs. (Wanson and Lawler, 1972). In the 'School Executives' Guide' (1964) the word 'morale', though simple but difficult to define, has been stated as 'the will to do', the desire to achieve bigger and better things, to be more competent and to grow. It states further, that no person is highly motivated who does not have a high level of morale. Therefore, morale is not an end in itself, but a means of obtaining better results. It grows out of the intangible climate or environment in which people work. In an educational system, morale is that feeling of well-being that induces all people to pull together consistently, cooperatively, persistently and whole-heartedly to improve educational opportunities for all.

Though there are intangibles in a good climate of personal relationships, some of the more concrete elements that enable the staff members to become more positive contributors to the educational programme are a sense of security and status, a sharing of responsibility, recognition and appreciation of accomplishment.

Roy (1958) described morale in terms of goal attainment, 'morale may be defined as the degree to which organizational goals and goals of the individual who comprises the organizations are compatible to such an extent as these goals have common grounds. Poor morale may be described as a condition of incompatibility in individual and organizational goals, but good morale, consequently requires more than compatibility alone. It also requires the individual pursuit of organizational goal with enthusiasm and energy. Passive or apathetic or indifferent acquiescence to organizational goals can only describe a condition of indifferent morale'.

Getzels and Guba (1957) described administration as a social process and gave a great deal of attention to the three segments of morale - belongingness, rationality and identification. The model describing the Triangular Approach is as follows :

(1) Belongingness is described as the achievement - satisfaction within the structure of an institution when personal needs of the individual and role expectation of the institution can both be met.

(2) Rationality is defined as the extent to which the role expectations are in line with the proposed institutional goals.

(3) Identification is defined as the extent to which a person could integrate the goals and actions of the institutions into his own need satisfaction.

Thus, researches have identified concept, dimensions or components and implications of morale. These have significance for all educational institutions including colleges of education.

2.9 Leadership and Teacher Morale

Industry, for many years, has given a great emphasis to superior - employee relationship as a critical factor in the attainment of organizational goals. They have found over and above that the quality of supervision is a major factor in increasing production, influencing workers' attitudes and satisfying the needs of their employees. Taking the lead from industry, educational institutions have paid an increasing attention to the administrator - teacher relationship as a determining influence on the institutions, organizational climate and the morale of the teachers. Prior to 1945, most of the studies dealt with leadership behaviour ^{which} aimed at identifying traits and qualities of leaders. Researches in leadership have been conducted in various fields - government, business, armed forces and education by Stogdill (1940), Hemphill (1949) and others, and these studies have helped in

identifying the common elements or dimensions of leadership and their effects on human interaction. In the last decade, due to a change in the theory of educational administration, namely, shifting of the focus from 'administration' to 'organization' i.e. from 'leadership' to qualities of inter-personal relationships of the leader and the group, the total concept of leadership has changed.

Describing the term 'satisfaction' as a function of the congruence between individual needs and institutional expectations, Getzel et al (1957) emphasised the task of an administrator as seeking to develop high morale by establishing reasonable levels of congruence among the expectations of roles, the needs of the role incumbents and the goals of the systems. Concomitants will be satisfaction, effectiveness and efficiency. Blumberg and Weber (1960) studied the teacher morale as a function of perceived behavioural style and found that differences in perceived behavioural style were related to differential morale scores in statistically significant manner. According to Cleugh (1971) the principals are busy but not effectively busy as they do not delegate responsibility. This does not only show lack of trust in the teachers but behaviours of principals which are also detrimental to the morale of their teachers.

A question that is often posed in the educational world is: How a principal can best perform his supervisory function, maintain staff morale and build good interpersonal relationships between himself and his teachers. The answer given by Ryan (1973) lies in the psychological human approach, helping the teachers to become a real group in sense of better feelings of oneness, high morale and greatly increased interaction among individuals. Bender (1973) made a study to develop a reliable elementary teacher morale scale and discovered that the teacher's relationship with their principal was the most important determiner of high or low teacher morale.

The study of Conway and Ables (1973) on Leader-team belief system congruence and relationships to morale within teaching teams suggest that the make-up of a teaching team is likely to affect morale. The author concludes that deliberate structuring of teams can produce or enhance the working relationships of a team.

When total organization is viewed as a unit, Dennis (1969) found that as an organization becomes more centralized and formalized, management styles become less participatory, morale decreases and innovations and productivity also lowers. A goodwill among staff and the principal can dissipate or enhance morale Cleugh (1971). In a deteriorating climate suspicion runs many risks. In an atmosphere of goodwill,

mistakes can be made and rectified without too much loss of face, but when trust is gone, suspicions multiply beyond the bounds of reason. It is when the good will comes to be questioned that the more serious blows to morale come.

Attitude scales have been adopted to study morale. The effect of the depression upon the confidence and optimism of adults was studied by Rundquist and Stetto (1959). Similar measures were used to study the development of morale during war time by a number of investigators. Attempts were made to find out factors of good or poor morale. The general finding was that age, sex, occupation, racial background were less effective in determining morale than the emotional adjustment of the person to his individual hardships (Cronback, 1949).

Hunter (1955) made a study of teacher morale. He found that half the teachers believed that the supplies and equipments were inadequate, teaching load was too heavy, financial insecurity was high, recognition and reward for exceptional services were lacking, worth was not properly evaluated and advancement and promotion were not on merit. Harap (1959) studied the returns from morale surveys conducted in 20 school systems by the Division of Field studies, George Perbody College for teachers, and reported the most common causes for poor morale which were, inadequate salaries, large classes, poor administration, lack of daily period of relaxation, unsatisfactory plant and buildings, lack of teaching materials and

equipment, absence of democratic procedure, lack of co-operation between the Board of Education and the public, impoverished social and recreational life and inadequate tenure provisions.

Anderson (1963) after analyzing the various definitions of 'morale' and the findings of the studies in the area of morale has given a summary of factors affecting morale. According to him, good morale has to be cultivated in schools as well as in other group enterprises. The key person in building it in a school is the principal. He must do everything within reason to provide the best climate possible for good teacher morale. The identifying factors are :

(1) Agreement on Purposes : Teachers agree on objectives. They reconcile willingly to individual growth with those of the staff as a whole. To make sure that teachers have a chance to express their views, good means of communication must be established.

(2) Co-operative Determination of Policy : Teachers should be involved in the solution of problems relating to their work and in policy formulation as they are the ones who would eventually implement the policies.

(3) Utilization of Talents and Sense of Accomplishment: The need to feel a sense of achievement in one's work is basic to morale for people in all fields, especially to professional

people like teachers. The best thing for a principal to do is to give recognition and to express his appreciation for work well done by his teachers.

(4) Confidence in and respect for Administrators:

The attitude that a group holds towards its leaders have an important bearing on morale. Morale is enhanced if teachers respect their administrators, feel that the administrators are counsellors and believe that the teacher would be treated fairly and in a professional manner.

An open door policy which makes the principal readily available may contribute to good staff morale; there should be no place for favouritism in administration and faculty relations.

(5) Good Relationship Within the Faculty : An individual's confidence in the ability of his colleagues, in the professional ethics of the group and in the knowledge that he will receive fair treatment from his associates is an important factor in his morale.

The principal must help to promote group solidarity. He must be alert to note any 'isolates' from the group. To develop desirable relationship among the teachers, and teachers and the principal, social aspect may be an obvious device for promoting group 'esprit de corps'.

(6) Community Relations : Acceptance of teachers as social peers in the community will develop a good faculty morale. Teachers should expand their acquaintances by mixing with people in the community and developing interest in a variety of community affairs.

(7) Physical Health : The individual who is in good physical health and who carries out the elementary health rules is capable, in general, of developing and maintaining much better morale than the man who is ailing.

(8) Economic Security : A teacher whose income fails to provide the necessities of life for himself and his family cannot be expected to be in the best frame of mind for doing his work to the best of his talents and capacity.

(9) Positive Student-teacher Relationship : Just as the morale of teachers is related to the quality of their instruction, so is the morale of the students related to the quality of their achievement.

(10) Personal Problems of Teachers : A person having mental difficulties, financial reverses etc., may develop serious morale problems. The principal can help such teachers by acting as friend and counsellor, but he should also know when not to become too much involved.

Wick and Begg (1971) in 'Evaluation for Decision-Making in Schools', point out, while discussing the importance of decision-making, the factors, such as given below, affecting staff morale, staff attitude and the staff relationships :

(1) Work Environment and Morale : If the work environment includes interpersonal relationships with other teachers and with administrators, then interpersonal relationship affects morale; factors associated with morale, are adequate equipment and supplies, physical facilities and salary.

(2) Teacher Characteristics and Morale : A Potential source of job-satisfaction, freedom to plan one's own work, desire for professional status, working with teachers who had a professional attitude and high work standards are the factors affecting morale.

(3) Decision-Making, Expectations and Morale : Teacher morale would be higher if the teachers know who is responsible for making decisions. Also if they are able to influence at least the decisions which legitimately belong within his sphere of responsibility.

(4) Curriculum Development and Morale : Teacher morale is related to staff judgments of the success of curriculum development programmes. The programmes are successful where the relationships with the superior and teachers are good.

Here, it is the principal who fosters high morale. However, a high degree of satisfaction is not conducive in bringing out changes in the programme.

(5) Student-Teacher Relationships and Morale :

No amount of pleasant colleague relations, good working conditions, high salary or decision-making could really boost up the morale of teachers unless they are interested in and satisfied with the age-group of students they teach. In other words good morale occurs when they are satisfied with the teaching career they have chosen.

(6) Salary and Morale : A poor salary can lead to job - dissatisfaction, but a good salary does not necessarily lead to job-satisfaction.

(7) Performance and Morale : The greatest significance to job-satisfaction and morale is that of its relationship to job-performance. The administrator should insure that his best teachers are the most satisfied teachers and thus maximizing the relationship between satisfaction and productivity, because performance is the function of interaction between reward system and the individual's expectations for reward for superior work. Sharma (1972) giving the conceptual and operational definitions of morale concluded by enumerating the factors affecting morale and stated that, frustration is the main cause of faculty low morale, which results from lack of

recognition and from the belief that promotion policies are unfair, from jealousies between departments and between persons and from being called inefficient. It is the leadership style, frustration among the individuals and the group, organizational structure, communication procedure, decision-making process, size of the organization and facilities to work which are the major factors that affect morale. Decentralization and maximum participation by the teachers in decision-making, policy-making and democratization of communication process raises their morale.

Best (1973) studied the decisional status and teacher morale. The results indicate a relationship between decisional status and teacher morale. The index of teachers' perception of their level of involvement in decision-making offers some indication of their position in organizational outcomes adversely affecting morale.

The study of morale seems to have caused little concern in educational world. This situation should change. Low morale in schools and colleges should always be a cause for serious self-examination among those responsible for its effective functioning. Without good morale among the teachers, even the most enlightened schemes of education and well conceived and structured instructional programme can fail to reach their fullest effectiveness.

Unruh (1971) has described some other factors affecting morale as follows :

(1) Social Climate : It influences morale because teachers are affected by social interaction. If this interaction is intellectually and culturally high, the morale will be high. Teachers who are active in organizations often have higher morale than those who are inactive. Isolation is an important factor in lowering morale.

(2) Economic Factor : As the teacher grows older, economic security becomes more important. If this security is threatened or affected, his morale gets lowered down.

(3) Intellectual Factor : For teachers, the intellectual basis for morale is highly important. Most teachers value a satisfying intellectual climate.

(4) Poor Leadership : It depresses the morale of the professional groups like teacher educators very much.

(5) Working Conditions : If the school schedule and job utilize so much of a teacher's working hours that he has little or no time for cultural pursuits or recreation, his morale will sag. Inadequate instructional supplies, aids and equipments, clerical work, extra assignments and routine chores day-after-day also bring the morale down.

Keith Davis (1962) has indicated some twelve morale factors. They are :

- (1) Turn-over or stability of staff.
- (2) Productivity or out-put in terms of in-put.
- (3) Wastage and stagnation.
- (4) Quality records.
- (5) Absenteeism and tardiness.
- (6) Reports of counselling and similar services.
- (7) Grievances.
- (8) Exit interviews.
- (9) Accident reports.
- (10) Medical records.
- (11) Suggestions in teachers' confidential evaluation reports.
- (12) Training records.

Other general factors identified by researchers are : leadership style, frustration among the individual and the group, organizational structure, communication procedure, decision-making process, facilities to work, climate of the organization, decentralization, maximum participation by personnel in the policy-making process and decision-making of their organization, and democratization of the communication process.

Pillai (1973) has emphasised the general factors affecting teacher morale viz., (1) supportive relations, (2) pay and benefits, (3) work-load and (4) Facilities and equipment.

Patel (1974) has also identified seven general factors or constituents of teacher morale, which are :

- (1) Integration between school principal and staff.
- (2) Harmony among the staff.
- (3) Satisfaction with allotment of subjects for teaching.
- (4) Satisfaction with pay.
- (5) Satisfaction with work-load.
- (6) Involvement of teachers.
- (7) General relationships operation in the school's organizational structure between principal and teachers and among teachers, themselves.

Shelat (1974) identified teacher morale and the related variables as follows :

(1) Teacher Morale and Size of the School : Generally small as well as large schools have average morale. However, small schools stand higher in morale than large schools.

(2) Teacher morale and School Effectiveness : Schools with highest degree of effectiveness generally have high and average degree of morale. In the case of schools with average effectiveness have average degree of morale. Low effectiveness have average and low degree of morale. The relationship between the school effectiveness and morale appears to be close, indicating that morale of an institution varies as the degree of its effectiveness varies.

(3) Teacher Morale and Leader Behaviour : A good percentage of leaders high in both initiative structure and consideration goes with high and average morale. A greater number of schools with average and low staff morale have low pattern of leadership.

After having surveyed researches on administrators, leadership and teacher morale, an attempt will be made in the next section to examine research findings on leadership behaviour, which is also an important correlate of organizational climate as it is perceived in the present investigation.

2.10 Leader Behaviour

Administration, whether in education, industry or business, refers to human activity that involves a minimum of four components: the task, the formal organization, the work group and the leader. The leader is the member of the organization who is formally charged with responsibility for the organization's accomplishment.

The principal in a school or college occupies a vital position within the organization. His actions influence the effectiveness of the educational programme. The day he is appointed as a principal and he attains an administrative position, he develops the role of an administrator and his behaviour begins to be influenced by his perceptions. (Bullock, 1969).

Research studies of Kenvin (1970) and Gordon (1971) describe the bureaucratic structure in schools and its relationship to the dogmatic leadership. Within the study of educational administration, a school is often analyzed in terms of what Weber (1949) considered to be the ideal type of formal organization or a bureaucracy. Here, a dogmatic principal is defined as an individual who exhibits a closed way of thinking, an authoritarian outlook on life, an intolerance toward those with opposing beliefs and a sufferance of those with similar beliefs. Such a closed minded principal forces a closure to the decision-making processes by introducing a set of formal and impersonal rules. These rules become the barrier of authority for the school and through these rules the school controls and directs the action of the teacher in the accomplishment of its goals.

The above analysis suggests that a school with a dogmatic leader would develop into an organization characterized by an hierarchical authority, rules for teachers, procedural specifications, and impersonality.

In such an organization the climate is tense: there is superior-subordinate relationship; the group members comply to the wishes of the superior by self-subordination; and become uncritical and accept the opinion of the experts, prefer impersonal or formal relationship in job, and conform to the rules and regulations which gives security.

However, under the conditions of modern industrial life (which is also found in educational institutions), the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are partially utilized. (McGregor, 1960). Therefore, the assumption according to McGregor would lead management to design superior-subordinate relationships where the subordinate would have greater influence over the activities in his work, and greater probability of influencing his superior's actions.

Miles and Porter (1966) developed three theoretical leadership models which they call the Traditional Model, the human relations model and human resource model. The traditional model prescribes close supervision and tight control of subordinates performing narrowly defined jobs. The assumption is that people are basically lazy, uncreative and concerned only with what they earn, not with what they do to earn it. (This is quite opposite to the idea of McGregor (1960). The model anticipated minimal performance if the principal exercises tight control.

The second model is called the Human Relations Model. It prescribes a limited amount of subordinate participation in decision-making and limited subordinate self-control. It seems from the assumption that people are essentially loyal and dependable if they feel that they are important to the

organization and their work is recognized by their superiors. This model anticipates that limited participation will improve subordinates' morale and need satisfaction thus make them more willing and co-operative.

The third model is the Human Resource Model. It prescribes a continually expanding degree of subordinate participation, self-direction and self-control on the assumption that the creative resources of most organizational members are seldom fully realized and that, given the opportunity, most people will exercise responsible self-direction in the accomplishment of goals they have been helped to establish. This model anticipates that subordinate participation will directly improve organizational performance and deeper satisfaction of the needs of the most members of the organization.

Fuhrmann (1973) worked toward a theory of leadership by theoretically linking Gestalt theory of Humanistic Education and Tori Group. According to him, the most current definitions of leadership implicitly value prescribed roles for leaders, manipulation of others and a qualitative difference between those who lead and those who follow. Three characteristics which create unhealthy, thwarting conditions for all concerned; leaders as well as followers are : (1) Prescribed roles demand inauthentic behaviour; (2) manipulation of others

demands that followers do not actualize their own unique potentialities; and (3) a qualitative difference between those who lead and those who follow creates position of inferiority and superiority and thwarts natural growth. Out of these three situations come unhealthy conditions of dependence and counter dependence.

Fuhrmann also assumes two clusters of human behaviour. One cluster is dysfunctional and defense-producing and includes behaviourism which are dependent, counter-dependent, ambiguous, passive, fearful and distrusting. The second cluster is functional and growth producing and includes behaviour which are independent, clear, active and inter-dependent. The theory assumes that there is a desirability of the functional, growth producing behaviour on the part of these designated 'leaders'. He suggests that the linking of the Gestalt Therapy, with the Humanistic Education and Tori Group Development Theory provides a model of leadership which affirms the integrity of both individuals and groups. This theory of growth facilitating leadership is called by him as 'confirmatory leadership'. It is the linking of the three models :

(1) The Gestalt Theory Model: Behaviours and emotional expressions which are not dependent on other people, but are authentically derived from our own awareness of our own needs.

(2) The Humanistic Psycho-Mode : Learning which is not

imposed by rigid structures as passive recipients, but which clearly and actively connects feeling and conceptualizing to actualize the fulfilment of individual potentials.

(3) The Jack Gribb Model (Tori Model): Interaction which is not fearful, distrusting and defensive but which is characterized by mutual trust, open communication, mutual realization and interdependent control.

The 'Confirmatory leadership' utilizes technologies which are authentic, which facilitates actualizations and which are the characteristics of growth to encourage independent, clear, active and interdependent behaviour - among people in organizations, which confirm and enhance authenticity, fulfilment and growth.

Elwell (1973) has devised a model of leadership as an adapted 'Action System'. The theory accounts for its being more than a leader-follower relation. According to her, the action system has six parts: namely, identify, rationale, operation, direction, dimension and dynamics.

The six parts of the system are linked by the meaningful information generated by the process and role elements in mutual interaction. When the total organization is viewed as a unit, it was found by Dennis (1969) that an organization becomes more centralized and formalized, management styles become less participatory, morale decreases, innovation and

productivity are lower. However, when the organization is viewed as the sum of social positions, or when sub-groups within the organization are considered, these relations do not hold.

According to the social psychologists, leader behaviour is a special phenomenon arising from group action.

The leader behavioural styles are developed in an organization and are perceived by the subordinates which favourably or unfavourably affect the morale of the members. Blumberg and Weber (1968) found that differences in perceived supervisor behavioural style was related to the differential morale scores. There are four distinct supervisory behavioural styles (which have been previously referred to) viz., High-direct and High-indirect; low-direct and High-indirect; High-direct and low-indirect; Low-direct and low indirect. Teachers felt more positive about the quality of interpersonal relationship in supervision. They felt that they have more communicative freedom and saw their supervision as being more productive than those teachers who perceived the behavioural style as high-direct and low-indirect. Sometimes, the feelings of the subordinates are suppressed and intellectualized. Under these conditions the 'touchy' issues in a group meeting are not discussed. Under these conditions the executive or the principal tends to use the power and control and gets things

done and thus causes problems for subordinates. Argyris (1971) points out to the inter-personal blindness and the concept of strong leadership combined together leading to the problems in the organization, Under these conditions, individual growth will not be achieved unless the leader processes on his own behaviour.

It was suggested by Argyris (1962, 1965) that inter-personal competence, especially of the people in power, would have to be increased if valid information about important issues was to flow. More trust, concern for feelings and internal commitment, more openness to, and experimenting with new ideas and feeling in such a way that others could do the same were recommended if valid information was to be produced and internal commitment to decisions generated.

Several studies report personal variables of the leadership and analysis of leadership behaviour. Halpin (1966), as shown in the last chapter, defines the initiating structure and consideration as the two variables of the leader behaviour. Kavanagh (1972) views the behaviour of the principal in terms of consideration and initiating structure as a function of subordinate competence and test complexity.

The good helpers are concerned with people and the poor ones are concerned with things, with regulations, order and procedure. A great many of the difficulties that admini-

strators or principals get into are caused by the fact that they are too much concerned with the problem of things and not enough concerned for the problems of people. The good helpers believe that the people are able instead of unable, dependable rather than independable, friendly rather than unfriendly, worthy rather than unworthy (Combs, 1970).

Drawing a profile of our educational administrator, Sharma (1967) points out to the intuitive or instructive quality of the principal which is commonly called 'tact'. It is the possession of this quality which differentiates a first rate administrator from a routine administrator.

Other leader behaviour characteristics pointed out by the researcher are sociability, persistence, initiation, knowing how to get things done, self-confidence, alertness and insight into situations, co-operativeness, popularity, adaptive and eloquence. He is also intelligent, scholarly, dependable, active in social participation and human relations.

Research studies of Watkins (1969) and Atkins (1973) show the relationship between the psychological distance of the principal and the organizational effectiveness. The psychological contract consists of those expectations the teacher and the school principal have of each other that are not expressed in writing. It is mutually accepted by the teachers and the principal through the reciprocation process. The

research demonstrates that the psychological is equally useful in articulation of teachers needs. Contract is equally useful in articulation of teacher's needs.

The sociological approach is emphasised by Ryan (1973) in her study on improving the teacher-principal relationship. She says, "forget the psychology; try the sociological approach". According to social psychologists, leader behaviour is a special phenomenon arising from group action, it is not considered a special property or gifts of an individual, although some people appear to possess more of the characteristics conducive to leader behaviour than others. Leadership occurs in group situations. In a society that is committed to a democratic way of life, leadership must be considered a group property, which is bestowed upon the separate members in terms of the needs of the group and the competencies of the individuals involved. Gibb (1954) lists three conditions which are essential to leadership activities. They are : (1) There is a group, (2) the group is unified around mutually agreed-upon goals, and (3) certain tasks or roles have been assigned - officially or unofficially - to the various group members. This concept implies that leadership evolves from a dynamic and interacting group that is held together by loyalties to an individual, but concerns for the goal-tasks of the group.

The basic requirements of an educational leader

according to the Commission on Public school Personnel (1973) are :

Basic Needs: The basic equipment required by educational leaders is :

- (1) Knowledge of developing methods for measuring learning levels, meeting individuals needs for learning programmes, and measuring progress in attaining higher levels of learning.
- (2) Understanding of individual differences in teachers.
- (3) Understanding of family and cultural influences that bear on teacher attitudes, relationships and learning.
- (4) Knowledge of methods of assisting teachers in their social development and measuring their progress.
- (5) Knowledge of techniques of evaluating teachers for the purpose of improving their teaching competence, and the ability to motivate teachers in self-improvement.
- (6) Knowledge of organizational plans for best utilizing the talents of teachers and matching their capabilities.
- (7) Ability to communicate with the teachers.
- (8) Ability to conceive the purpose of the college or school and objectively assess alternative programmes for fulfilling them.

- (9) Knowledge and ability to organize and motivate constructive group efforts in problem-solving, planning and carrying out instructional improvements.
- (10) Ability to foster mutual respect and tolerance with the school or college organization.

The leadership or the leader behaviour contributes to the maintenance and promotion of the morale of the teachers and a better satisfied work force committed to its work. The studies conducted by Shivadasani (1971), Holton (1971), Ellenberg (1973), Ryan (1973), Garrison (1973) and Howell (1974) indicate that the high morale in an organization is due to the able leadership. When the principal behaves in a professional manner, recognizes the worth and importance of every individual and praises them when deserved and has an unwavering commitment to helping them the morale is high. The principals should support, and provide social and work facilities and goal orientation. They must get rid of themselves of the authoritarian stance inherent in the hierarchical structure which cannot serve a situation based on new roles and relationships, which are committed to liberation, diversity and meaning. They should modify the impression that they give of being more authoritarian than they may be.

The effectiveness of a programme in any organization, be it industry, business or educational institutions, there-

fore, depends upon the leader who is competent, able to handle human relations, understands the needs and values of the individuals who comprise the work group, supports and provides work facilities and work orientation and has an unwavering commitment to helping through initiative structure and consideration: yet behaves in a professional manner. He creates a conducive climate for the task-performance and the goal-achievement of the organization by raising the morale of the teachers.

The success of the organization and the morale of the teachers depend, as shown earlier, to a considerable extent on the leadership of the principal. The study of the Crocher - citizens National Bank (1970) describes the 'intangible' of supervision', an extra of 25 per cent that makes an individual effective consequently making the programme effective.

Two recent Gujarat studies on leadership of behaviour of secondary school principals need to be referred here. They are by Shelat (1974) and Darji (1975). Both are doctoral studies. In Shelat's study in regard to the Baroda district, it was found 35 per cent of the school principals revealed the HH Pattern of leadership and almost an equally high percentage (actually 37 per cent) revealed the LL Pattern of leadership behaviour. There were slightly more percentages of principals having the HL Pattern (17 per cent) than the LH Pattern (11 per cent).

In Darji's study which pertained to secondary schools of Panchmahals district on the eastern border of Gujarat nearly half the number of principals (49 per cent) were reported as possessing the HH Pattern of leadership behaviour. The percentage of the principals having the LL Pattern was also high (36 per cent). Only 9 per cent of them revealed the HL Pattern and 6 per cent the LH Pattern. The mean score for the dimension Initiating Structure was 40.07 and the same for the dimension Consideration was 39.08.

Thus, the Gujarat studies showed that the school system has equally efficient and inefficient school principals. The efficient principals are slightly more in number than the inefficient principals. Fortunately, Gujarat has the lowest percentage of principals having the LH Pattern among the four patterns. The LH Pattern principals are, in the words of Halpin (1966, p.99) "so ineffective leaders. They may ooze with the milk of human kindness but this contributes little to effective performance unless their consideration behaviour is accompanied by a necessary minimum of Initiating Structure Behaviour". It is also fortunate that the principals possessing the HL Pattern is not high as per the results of the two studies. The principals having the HL Pattern of leadership behaviour are, to quote Halpin (1966, p.99) "the 'martinets' and the 'cold fish' so intent upon getting a job done that they forget they are dealing with human beings, not with cogs in a machine".

The survey of studies on leadership behaviour in India clearly brings to focus the need for conducting more studies in this field. The field of higher education, particularly professional higher education, is almost a virgin field. This gives an added edge to studies as the present one.

2.11 Conclusion

It would thus be seen that though the fields of organizational climate, teacher morale and leadership behaviour have been somewhat explored by researchers in India, but they are mostly at the level of secondary schools and there too, there is some scope of more and different-focused studies. The field of higher education, and particularly higher professional education where output, and efficiency and quality of production are so vital, studies on these variables in this field would go a long way in determining the future direction and dimensions of change and improvement. Some such perceptions and consideration have made the investigator to select the present theme for her doctoral study.