

* CHAPTER - III *

FOUNDATIONS OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

"A person does not become a leader by mere virtue of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers. Thus, leadership must be conceived in terms of interactions of variables which are in constant flux and change".

- Ralph M. Stogdill (1950).

- 3.1 The concept of leadership.
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* C H A P T E R - III *

FOUNDATIONS OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

3.1 THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP :

Men and women with vast knowledge and tremendous capacity, having independent thinking are labelled as leaders. These leaders form the backbone of a nation. They have adorned and glorified the history and are always needed in large numbers. Some of these leaders may have inborn leadership capacities, but many of them are made leaders, either through training, education, and experiences provided to them in their professional career. Such people develop their latent leadership qualities with their own efforts.

The development and progress of an organization depends to a great extent on its executive head. In order to be of maximum usefulness to the organization, he must be a leader. He may be selected by a group of the representatives of a group, as in a democracy or in a republic. Such a leader has always to be watchful and tactful, if he has to retain his status.

A leader can also be an executive head, appointed by a management. The task of such an officer, to some extent, is made easier by the very special status he occupies. The power that he holds gives him the authority to lead, if he realises his responsibility to lead aright.

An organization needs stability to survive. It is the main function of an administrator to ensure this stability, while leader gives a direction and brings innovations in the existant organization.

Leadership has occupied the mind of human beings from the time immemorial. Early writers have devoted considerable space and energy on the problems of leadership. Plato, for instance, in his 'Republic' gave considerable attention to the characteristics of the 'philosopher king' as the ideal and just ruler of the men. Machiavelli's 'The Prince' presented detailed strategies on how a leader would gain and maintain power over others. Lord Krishna in Bhagwad Gita has narrated some traits of a leader who is called 'Neta' (from root - Ni, meaning - to lead, hence Neta means one who leads) in Sanskrit. The verses from the Gita (Chapter-III - 21, 22, 23) are as under :-

यद्यवाचरति श्रेष्ठः तत्तदेवेतरो जनः ।
 स यत् प्रमाणं कुरुते लोकस्तदनुवर्तते ॥ २१ ॥
 न मे पापिस्ति कर्तव्यं त्रिषु लोकेषु किञ्चन ।
 नानवाप्तमवाप्तव्यं वर्त एव च कर्मणि ॥ २२ ॥
 यदि ह्यहं न वर्तेयं जातु कर्मण्यतद्भितः ।
 मम वर्तमानुवर्तन्ते मनुष्याः पार्थ सर्वदाः ॥ २३ ॥

Translation : "Whatsoever a great man does, that alone the other men do, whatever he sets up as the standard, that the world follows". - VV.No.21.

"I have nothing whatsoever to achieve in the three worlds, O son of Pritha, nor is there anything unattained that should be attained; yet I engage in action". VV.No.22.

"For, should I not ever engage in action, unwearied, men would in all matters follow My path, O son of Pritha". VV.No.23.

Thus interest in leadership has been a phenomena of long historical concern. The problem of leadership has become one of crucial importance in the modern era of rapid social change. Until 1930 it was not considered as an important and distinctive area of study. It is only after 1930 that many western scholars have taken up the task of leadership behaviour and its various components as a part of intensive research.

History itself is a vivid record of the successes and failures of man's leadership efforts. Formerly human beings were living a nomadic life of wanderers. They were in such a need to procure a 'Hero' who could give them protection, assure them of their self-preservation and provide a steady life.

As soon as human beings tried to live a steady life at one place, they felt the need of a person who could lead them, who could take initiative in new areas of human endeavour. This has led to the cult of 'Hero-worshipping' in ancient times and the leader is called the 'hero of the led'.

This has led to the formation of the 'Trait theory', accordingly, the traits or qualities of a leader make him fit for his leadership role. Implication of this concept is that persons possessing qualities such as intelligence, imagination, creativity, emotional tolerance and stability etc; should be sought out and they were selected to perform leadership role. That is why great men such as Casser, Napoleon, Churchill, Shivaji, Rani Laxmibai of Zanshi etc. have carved the course of history of mankind and are labelled as real leaders.

Prior to 1945, the majority of researches were psychological studies of leadership. They were marked by a search for a type of leadership that would distinguish between leaders and non-leaders.

After the first World War, the concept of leadership has received further exploration and enrichment from psychology which is nothing but the logical development of the philosophical foundations. It puts emphasis on the pattern of personal characteristics of leaders with reference to the characteristics, activities and the goals of the followed. Leadership is perceived in terms of the interaction of variables which are continuously changing. Stogdile, therefore concluded saying, "A person does not become a leader by virtue of some combination of traits, but the pattern of the personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. Thus, leadership must be perceived in terms of the interaction of variables which are in constant flux and change.

A protest against the trait-approach resulted in a shift to sociological study. Sociologists lay more emphasis on the characteristics of a group rather than on the leader who leads the group. There is no leader without followers. They are relative terms. Leadership is always found in the same kind of group and the leader functions essentially in relationship to his followers. It is an interactive process between members of the group, specially on interaction between the leaders and the rest of the group. Psychologists tend to focus on 'personal traits' associated with leadership position, whereas sociologists focus on aspects of the 'situation' in which leadership is attempted.

Homans, after studying the working of numerous small groups concluded that the leader in such a group is the man who comes closest to realising the norms ^{of} the group values highest. His embodiment of the norms gives him his high rank, and his rank attracts people : the leader is the man people come to *resort* the scheme of interaction focuses on him. At the same time, his high rank carries with it implied right to assume control of the group, and the exercise of control itself helps maintain the leader's prestige.

Hemphill's studies have thrown more light on the subject. He has identified the following fourteen group characteristics and studied leadership in relation to those dimensions. viz.

- 1) visciduity - the feeling of togetherness,
- 2) homogeneity - the similarity of group members to each other,
- 3) flexibility - the degree to which the group adheres to fixed modes of behaviour,
- 4) permeability - the degree to which the group maintains an exclusive membership,
- 5) polarisation - the degree to which the group's goals are clear and definite,
- 6) stability - the degree of turnover in group membership,
- 7) intimacy - the degree of mutual acquaintance,
- 8) autonomy - the degree of independence from other groups,
- 9) control - the amount of control the group exercises over its members,
- 10) position - the status of each member within the groups,
- 11) potency - the extent to which vital individual needs are satisfied by group membership,
- 12) hedonic tone - the degree of satisfaction the members obtain from group membership,
- 13) participation - the extent to which the members of the group are permitted to participate in decision-making, and
- 14) dependence - the degree to which the members depend upon the group leader.

The limitation of the sociological studies also became apparent very soon. It was found that the studies confined their

attention to group phenomena primarily and with leadership incidentally. It was, therefore, considered necessary to base the studies on psychological as well as sociological aspects and to combine individual, as well as organizational dimensions. This gave rise to the 'Behavioural studies of leadership'.

The behavioural approach to the leadership focuses its attention upon observed behaviour rather than 'upon a poisted capacity inferred from this behaviour'. It may, however, be appreciated that it is not possible to measure all the behaviours of an individual. At the personal Research Board at Ohio State University, two dimensions of leadership have been delineated by Halpin for describing leadership behaviour. viz (1) Initiating structure and (2) Consideration. (Their description is given in Chapter-IV).

Behavioural foundations emphasise observed behaviour of leaders in specific situations. Behaviour of a leader may differ from situation to situation and from the personal inherited traits - from person to person. Therefore, leaders, may be successful in one situation but they may fail in another, if they do not change their behavioural patterns according to the circumstances and as per the time. Otherwise they will be thrown out as leaders. It puts emphasis on results rather than on reasons.

The behaviour of a leader, however, varies with the size of the group. Hemphill has analysed in detail the relation

between the leader's behaviour and the size of the group and has concluded that, as compared with small groups, large groups make more and different demands upon the leader. In general, the leader in a large group tends to be impersonal and is inclined to enforce rules and regulations firmly and impartially. In small groups, the leader plays a more personal role.

These views based on various disciplines provide sound foundation for the present study. The understanding of these basic ideas about 'leadership' facilitates the understanding of the concepts of 'leadership' and 'leadership behaviour'. These lines of thought lead to various approaches to the study of leadership which are touched herein.

3.2 APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP :

The success of a leader in getting the work done through others depends to a great extent on his knowledge of the principles, concepts and techniques of human relations and his ability to apply knowledge in proper perspective and spirit. The knowledge of leadership as such is critically related to the art of influencing human behaviour. In order to understand the nature of leadership in its entirety, it is essential to study and understand its components and the process of its functionings. With this end in view, the following brief review of some of the approaches have been undertaken by the investigator here.

3.2.A/A TRAIT THEORY :

One of the earliest approaches to the study of leadership behaviour is called 'the Trait Theory'. Employing an inductive procedure, researchers have attempted to study leadership on the basis of personality traits and characteristics of successful leaders.

1) According to Tead (1935), there are ten qualities that are essential for effective leadership : Physical and mental energy, a sense of purpose and direction, enthusiasm, friendliness and action, integrity, technical mastery, decisiveness, intelligence, teaching skill and faith.

2) Bernard (1938) : lists the following eleven traits - physique, skills, technology, perception, knowledge, memory, imagination, determination, persistence, endurance and courage.

3) Weber and Weber (1950) : Stogdill in a review of 12 studies found that the leaders were found to be taller than the led in nine of the studies. Ghiselli also reports about personality traits of the effective leaders. These are - initiative, self assurance and individuality. Fiedler suggests that successful leaders may be very perspective and perceptive than unsuccessful leaders.

4) In another study Stogdill (1948) reviewed 148 studies on the characteristics of leadership behaviour. According to this study, the effective leaders manifest the following qualities : capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, self-actualization and decisiveness.

What is important is not the leader's personal qualities, but how his qualities are helpful in his behaviour with the group at large. However, according to Jenkins (1947), certain minimum abilities may be expected of all the leaders.

3.2.A/B HOUSE'S PATH - GOAL THEORY (1971) :

Robert House has developed a theory of leadership that incorporates both the Ohio State approach and Fiedler's theory. Further, his theory changes the focus of the research by analysing not only the styles of leadership behaviour, but also its effects on the motivation of subordinates. House uses EXPECTANCY THEORY to examine the motivation of employees. Thus, an individual will be motivated to produce if he perceives that his efforts will result in successful performance, which in turn, will lead to rewards desired by him. If employees are unhappy, the leader may be able to change their expectancies by being considerate. Thus he treats job-satisfaction as a critical part of organizational environment.

House argues that the task-oriented and considerate styles of leadership are critical only if they help increase the subordinate's perception that his performance will lead to desired and equitable rewards.

Secondly, House concludes that, a task-oriented style of leader will be effective in an organisational environment where job ambiguity is high.

He argues that a particular style of leadership may have some indirect consequences because a considerate style of leadership may increase job-satisfaction and group-morale in the short run, employee-performance in the long run will probably rise. House shows that a leader can combine task-orientation and consideration which can improve employee-performance and group-morale simultaneously.

3.2.A/C THE MULTIPLE INFLUENCE LEADERSHIP THEORY :

Current leadership approaches give primary emphasis to concerns inside the managers' own work unit. However, such a view is too narrow to really meet the needs of managers in today's complex and dynamic organisation. This theory assumes that the organisation's environment, its contents for action (size and technology), its structure, as well as conditions within the work unit, affect the manager's challenge. They do this, in the first place by influencing the manager's behaviour as a leader. In the second place, they serve as contingencies which act in combination with leadership behaviour to affect work unit's task performance and human-resource-maintenance.

The idea behind this theory is - every work unit is set up to deal with expected or intended conditions. However, actual day-to-day events frequently deviate from those originally anticipated goals. Thus, there is a gap between predicted and actual conditions. The multiple influence theory recognizes the inevitability - of this gap and points out that it is the manager's job to act as a leader by stepping into narrowing the gap through appropriate behaviours.

The theory classified leadership behaviour into required and discretionary components. Required leadership is the use of power to accomplish duties that must be performed by any leader in a position of formal managerial authority. Discretionary leadership involves the use of power in influencing attempts over and above those required by the position. It can make the difference between satisfactory and extra-ordinary job performance for a manager.

The core prediction of this theory is - as complexity (from environment, context, structure, etc) increases, a response in discretionary leadership is called for. Success in that response will enhance Task-Performance and Human Resource Maintenance. Thus this theory assumes factors outside of the work unit as variables affecting leadership behaviour and outcomes has some important implications. In his opinion the most decisive factors in the effectiveness of a leader are, his situational sensibility and style-flexibility. The sensitivity to the demands of the situation will make the leader aware of what is wanted. His flexibility of style will allow him to adjust to the situation as required.

3.2.A/D. FIEDLER'S CONTIGENCY THEORY (1967) :

The major significance of this theory is that Fiedler has added the organisational environment or situation as the key element in judging successful leadership. Fiedler developed the Least-preferred co-worker (LPC) scale, which measures the degree of leniency with which the leader evaluates his or her most ineffective subordinate.

According to Fiedler, a task-oriented style of leadership is more effective than a considerate style of

leadership under extreme situations - i.e. when the situation is either very certain or very uncertain, e.g. in a natural disaster, as in floods or fire. The considerate style of leadership seems to be appropriate when the environment or situation relations are good, 2) the task is unstructured, and 3) position power is weak.

3.2.A/E. CONTINGENCY MODEL BY REDDIN (1970) :

Each style, theory, model or type of leadership has some factors of advantages and disadvantages. Thus the concept of pluralistic collegiate style of administration will prove impracticable when a large number of people are involved, while the bureaucratic concept ignores the psychological elements, the goals of an individual, the informal groups and the influences of large societies.

These short-comings have drawn the attention of a few thinkers and attempts have been made to evolve a workable solution. However, the contingency aspect of leadership success has been well brought out by Reddin (1970) in adding the effectiveness dimensions to the two well-known dimensions of task orientation and personal relationships. Like Fiedler, Reddin also emphasises the point that 'a variety of styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation'.

3.2.B/1. TYPE APPROACH :

Early researches (Ralph White and Ronald Lippit, 1960) have revealed that there are Four types of leaderships. They are-

1) Dictatorial, 2) Autocratic, 3) Democratic, and 4) Laissez-faire. The (5) situational type of approach to leadership is a recent addition to that.

I) DICTATORIAL LEADER :

This leader gets the work done through fear. The results will be achieved, but there is no surety that the quality and quantity of the results will be high over a period of time.

II) AUTOCRATIC LEADER :

This leadership is characterized by centralization of authority and decision-making in the leader. He compels his followers to rely upon him for the satisfaction of their needs. He always wants 'Yes man' as his follower. His word is a law. The leader is highly authoritarian in his attitude. He dictates to his members, assigns tasks to them without consulting them and in general acts in a high and mighty manner. He expects conformity from subordinates. The characteristics of an autocratic leader has been very beautifully summed by Argyris, he holds : "If an executive initiates action, dominates policy, dictates the work techniques and activities, controls and evaluates the subordinates, he may be said to be a 'directive' or 'autocratic' leader". Such a leader is demanded by many as necessary to meet recurrent crises and emergencies.

This was the oldest conception of management found in local schools. This type of school control is rapidly passing. Even when the principal is benevolent in his attitude towards pupils and teachers, his methods are ineffective since he overlooks the fundamental principles of shared-responsibility.

III) DEMOCRATIC LEADER :

This leadership is characterized by the de-centralization of authority and decision-making. Under such a leader, followers work as a social unit, and with best of their abilities. They have high morale and enjoy 'the openness of mind'. This type of leadership is the ideal and desirable.

This type of leadership involves consultation with group and decision making after consultations with members. There is a two-way communication. Leaders do not dominate but seek co-operation.

In a pure democracy, the authority rests in the group as a whole rather than in an individual. Democratic administration is based on -

- i) Universal respect for an individual's worth and dignity, regardless of his race, creed and social order or status.
- ii) Increasing emphasis upon ways and means of cooperating for the common benefit and
- iii) Stress on the development of each individual's potentialities in so far as they do not conflict with the common welfare.

Thus, in democratic type of administration all the personels of the organisation must be fairly represented in policy-making and appraisal.

IV) LAISSEZ-FAIRE :

Under this leadership, there is free rein without restraints and a group behaves independently creating, at a time, a complete chaos. A leader makes very little contribution towards goal-achievement. There is no unity of purpose at all in this group. It is characterised by minimum direction by the leader. Here leader is not an active participant in the decision-making. Members of the group enjoy complete freedom and make their own decisions without the participation or direction of the leader. Only occasionally and that too when asked for, the leader participates in decision-making function. These principals, in seeking to avoid the display of authority, frequently neglect to assume their proper responsibility. It is the opposite form of authoritarian leadership type. In the institution so administered, responsibility for control is greatly diffused. Some individuals assume much authority without officially recognised responsibility, while others who are charged with responsibility, fail to exercise their authority. This type of administration is usually characterised by a lack of organisation.

Such a leader has no confidence in his ability and consequently buries himself in paper-work or keeps himself away from employees. He leaves too much responsibility with his assistants and tends to let things drift.

V) SITUATIONAL :

Over and above these types, there is an approach, called 'Situational Approach'. In this type, leader may change

his treatment to his subordinates according to situation. He tries to be flexible and adjustable to the group so that he can become an effective leader. He changes his behavioural patterns as per the time, need and situation. The qualities, characteristics, skills, required in a leader are circumscribed to a great extent by the demands of the situation in which he functions.

There are two other leadership styles in addition to those discussed above. viz. 1) Bureaucratic and 2) Charismatic as suggested by Hubert Bonner (1959).

Owen (1970) says that an administrator is rather a bureaucratic leader combining in his style the autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire qualities and how well he integrates, blends, balances and adjusts the components of his style in harmony with the situation, the group and his personal being will largely determine his impact as a leader in the school.

3.2.B/2. THE BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH :

This approach to the study of leadership concentrates on observed behaviour, though it is not possible to measure all the behaviours of an individual, because human nature and human behaviour are mysterious phenomena.

It is true that there is a continuous interaction between the behaviour of the group and the group-leader. They are intrinsically interwoven.

Moreover, the behaviour of a group as well as a group leader is determined by the expectations imposed by the institution, school management, departmental rules and regulations as well as the pressures from the community.

Hemphill (1955), Halpin (1955) and Shartle (1966) are the first explorers of the behavioural approach. Shartle identified two criteria of leadership behaviour : 1) Human relations and 2) Get out of the work. Hemphill and Halpin refer to them as 'Initiating Structure', and 'Consideration' which are nothing but the two dimensions of leadership behaviour.

Researchers who have explored this approach have used various other terminologies for these dimensions, such as -

- Task-effectiveness and interaction-effectiveness.
- Goal-achievement and group-maintenance.
- Concern for production and concern for the people.
- Production-centred and employee-centred and
- System-orientation and person-orientation.

Halpin (1952) developed a tool to measure the two dimensions, 'Initiation' and 'Consideration' of leadership behaviour. The tool is known as Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire. Leaders receiving high scores on both the dimensions are considered to be effective leaders. This tool is widely used in the field of educational administration to measure the leadership behaviour of the heads of the institutions.

Over and above these types of leadership, there are a few styles of leadership.

3.2.C. THE STYLES OF LEADERSHIP :

The growth and development of the institution depends on the 'leadership-followership' relationships. These styles of leaderships are based on the relations between leaders and the followers. Lipham as well as Getzels and Campbell (1968) identified three different leadership styles -

1) THE NORMATIVE STYLE :

This leader looks upon his job as a 'role'. i.e. what he is expected to do to achieve the goals of institutions rather than to the requirements of the individuals. He thinks thus and behaves strictly as per the rules and regulations called norms, prescribed by his institution.

2) THE PERSONAL STYLE :

Here more emphasis is put on the personal dimensions of behaviour. The individual needs and requirements are cared first than that of the institution. The man is given more importance than the machine. It is felt that the man is not a machine. This style is based on the philosophy that better results are obtained if each person in the organisation is given the opportunity to contribute to the fullest extent of his capacity towards the growth and development of the institution.

3) TRANSACTIONAL STYLE :

This style is shaped according to situation. It is thus situational approach in otherwords. It takes 'intermediate

position' between 'Normative' and 'Personal' styles. The institution and the individual-both are taken into account and leader has to find a compromise between these two. He has to work within the limitations of individuals and within the limitations of an institution. This is not an easy task. Getzel and Guba (1957) have also observed that though most desirable, this style is vague or hazy and not well-defined. These styles if shown figuratively in a chart will look like follows.

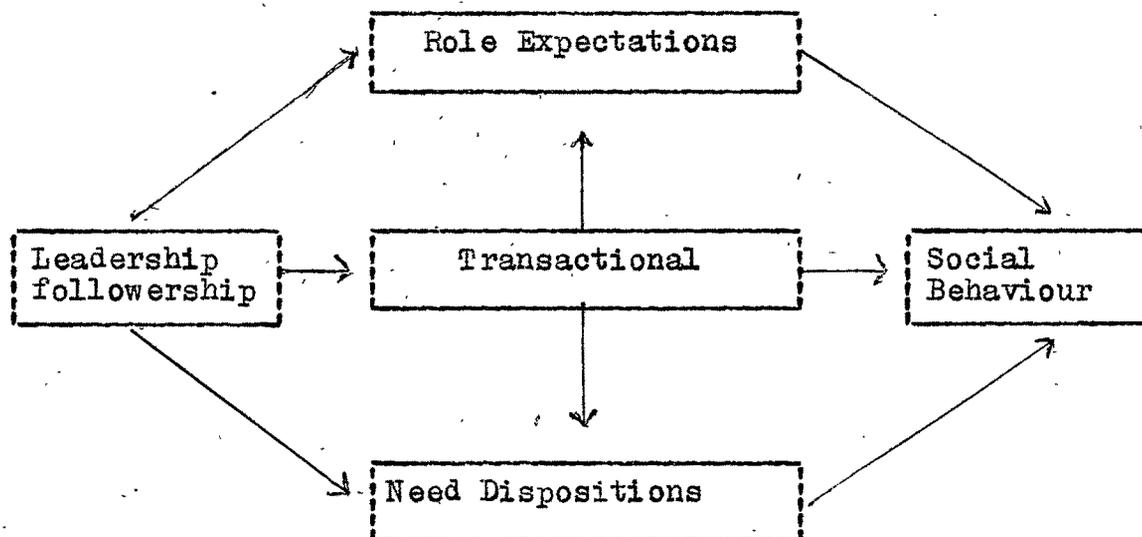


CHART NO. 1

A chart showing THREE LEADERSHIP-FOLLOWERSHIP STYLES :

Expectations are defined as sharply as possible but not so sharply as to prohibit appropriate behaviour in terms of need-dispositions. Role conflicts, personality conflicts and role-personality conflicts - are recognized and handled properly. The standard of administrative excellence is individual integration, efficiency and satisfaction, as well as institutional achievement and effectiveness.

The transactional style calls attention to the need for moving toward one style under one set of circumstances and towards the other style under another set of circumstances. In this sense it is 'intermediate' indeed.

3.2.G/2 TRADITIONAL MONOCRATIC, BUREAUCRATIC STYLE OF A LEADER :

This is defined by Morphet as a 'pyramidal, hierarchical organization', in which all powers for making decisions flow from superordinates to subordinates. This concept has been developed by Max Weber (1920) who presented his concept of 'Ideal Type' bureaucracy. The essential features of this style are written rules, hierarchy, precise jurisdiction, impersonality and stability in service. It is more essential, efficient, larger in scope of its application and formerly capable of application to all kinds of administrative tasks.

Of course, this style of Weber had been bitterly criticised in the modern era of democracy.

As against this, one more style is also came into the existence.

3.2.C/3 THE EMERGING, PLURALISTIC, COLLEGIATE STYLE :

It is based on the following aspects of college organization.

- 1) Academic freedom and belief in the dignity of an individual,

- 2) The major policy and programmes - decisions are to be made by academic staff and not by the administrative hierarchy.

3.2.C/4 Keeping in view the two dimensional description of leadership behaviour Blake and Mouton (1964) have identified five leadership styles. They are - Impoverished, Country Club, Task, Team and Middle of the road.

These five styles are the most popular ones from among a wide variety of possible combinations which the authors call the 'MANAGERIAL GRID'.

3.2.D MODELS OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR :

Miles and Porter (1966) have given different models of leadership behaviour. There are three models based on leadership and followership relationships. They are given as under -

1) Traditional Model :

This is nothing but close supervision and tight control over subordinates. Subordinates are deprived of participating in decision-making procedures and they are simply to obey the masters.

2) Human-Relationship Model :

This is better style as it allows some limited participation of the lower staff in the decision-making procedures and thus paves the way for the democratization slowly and slowly.

3) Human Resource Model :

This is fully democratic in nature, as such it is based on the principle of self-direction and self-control. Moreover, high degree of subordinate-participation is involved in administrative procedures. This is the best style of leadership, but it should not lapse into the laissez-faire style of leadership.

The three important situational variables that affect the leadership style are - (1) Leader-member relationship, (2) the leader's power position and (3) the degree of concreteness of the task to be performed. (i.e. the task structure). The following tabular scheme gives a clue to the type of leadership style an administrator might adopt under different situations.

Task-orientation is required when...

The leader is given -

- 1) Followers who are quite different from him in a number of ways.
- 2) Followers who are notorious for their conflict.

The leader is given -

- 1) High rank and corresponding recognition.
- 2) Followers who are two or three ranks below.

Relationship orientation is required when...

The leader is given -

- 1) Followers who are very similar to him in attitude, opinion, technical knowledge and race.
- 2) Followers who are generally getting along well with their superior.

The leader is given -

- 1) Little rank or recognition.
- 2) Followers who are equal to him in rank.

Leader-Member Relations.

Power position of
the leader.

- 3) Followers who are dependent upon their leader for guidance and instruction.
- 4) Final authority in making all decisions for the group.
- 5) All information about organizational plans, thus making him an expert in his group.

The leader is given -

- 1) A structural task which has specific instructions on what he and his followers should do.

Task
Structure.

- 3) Followers who are expert in their field and are independent of the leader.
- 4) No authority in making decisions for the group.
- 5) No more information about organizational plans than his followers get - Placing him on an 'Equal Footing' with them.

When the leader is given -

- 1) An unstructured task which has no prescribed operation procedure.

Effective Leadership :

From the above exposition of leadership styles, it appears that a school principal may have to choose the participative style of leadership behaviour. A purely task-oriented style or a purely relationship-oriented style may not contribute to the effectiveness of a school administrator's leadership style.

In short, leadership style is a significant factor in accomplishing individual, unit and organizational goals.

The best leadership style, type or model depends upon the situation. In some instances the authoritarian style of leadership is important, in other, the democratic style is appropriate. The approach used will be determined by forces within the individual leader, his subordinates and the specific situation.

The individual leader needs to analyse administrative situations and to identify which style of leadership is appropriate. He seeks to create situations where the growth and development of individual personality is enhanced.

Satisfaction of organizational expectations and satisfaction of personnel needs are not antithetical. Leadership style can contribute significantly to the achievement of both the objectives.

Summarising the work of several researches Bowers and Seashore show that the effectiveness of a permissive, participatory and democratic style of a leader behaviour is conditioned by the degree to which a leader can exert influence upward in the organization. The democratic style of a leadership seems to build expectations among subordinates regarding appropriate rewards for their commitment and involvement in organizational affairs. Thus, it must be coupled with influence. Of course, if participatory managerial styles are utilized at all levels, in their organization, the problem is less likely to arise.

Korman says that at present there is no unequivocal answer to the question of which style is 'the Best' in terms of productivity.

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership effectiveness possesses high practical utility for at least two reasons. First, it explicitly states under what conditions democratic supportive-relationship oriented and autocratic, authoritarian and task-oriented styles of leadership are most likely to be effective. Secondly, Fiedler suggests that we give attention to designing tasks so as to take advantage of the leadership styles and predispositions available within the organization. Fiedler's work also reminds us that there are many conditions in which the task-oriented, authoritarian style may be highly effective and functional.

Says Fiedler, "It is observed that both the directive, managing task-oriented leaders and non-directive, human relation-oriented leaders are successful under some conditions, which leadership style is the best depends upon the favourableness of the particular situation for the leader.

In very favourable or in very unfavourable situations for getting a task accomplished by group effort, the autocratic, task-controlling, managing leadership, works best. In situations, intermediate in difficulty, the non-directive, permissive leader is more successful".

The issue of effective style of the leadership is crucial yet controversial. On one side there is a growing trend of democratization, on the other side there is Indian traditional value-orientedness-as need for dependence etc. which inspires more and more authoritarian type of leadership, while with the growing awareness of unions' rights etc, professionals look forward to the participatory styles of leadership.

Yet the principal finds a need for a situational type of leadership a mixed type of leadership since any one of these styles may not by themselves feel to be satisfactory enough.

Thus, for managers it is essential to be fitted with highly sensitive antennae, so that they are able to pick up the right kind of station. This can be called a FLEXI - STYLE or STYLIFLEX, which is very much akin to the situational type of leadership style. Leaders may have to be flexible and adjustable to the group, if he wants to be effective as a leader. The positive point in this approach is - it avoids conflicts and misunderstanding and fanatic attachment to only one style or principle throughout. It leads to a greater harmony.

3.3 THE EMERGING CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP :

Researchers have studied leadership from various angles and have identified and described leadership from their own view-points. The word 'leadership' has a variety of definitions and interpretations. The concepts of leadership and administration are changing very rapidly. There is a great

divergence among writers, and researchers on the meaning of the word leader. It is used by some people to refer to almost every type of administrative, executive or supervisory behaviour. Others use it in a more limited sense of qualities of an individual. Still others consider it as a process of interaction. The term 'leadership' is again used in an evaluative sense. Halpin (1960) says , when a man manifests leadership behaviour, it is implied that he is a good or effective leader. According to Lipham (1964), the leader is a change-agent who initiates change in the institution and the administrator is a stabilizing force looking after maintaining or running the mechanism smoothly. But it has also to be borne in mind that a good leader can prevent changes too; he may not always facilitate changes. Thus a good leader may be a good administrator and vice-versa.

The leader may direct people through the use of formal authority. He influences people through the use of personal powers or informal authority. Of course, the effective leader usually does both. It may so happen that a principal is a formal leader and the informal leadership may be with someone else in the staff. Informal leaders may go on changing from situation to situation, so the formal leadership.

Historical Development :

Before 1930, a manager was automatically thought of as a leader. For theories like Max Weber's - A leader possessed power by virtue of his position and the power is the ability to give commands that must be accepted. (Weber 1947). The idea was akin to authoritarian type of leadership.

Then a time came, when subordinates frequently disobeyed the commands of superiors. Then change in leadership ideas came. In 1938 Chester Bernard's definition showed a remarkable change. 'The ability of a supervisor to influence the behaviour of subordinates and persuade them to follow a particular course of action', is called a leadership skill. Thus it meant, leadership is a SKILL that can be and must be learned in order to motivate subordinates to be productive.

Though the differences between 'leadership' and 'power' are still insufficiently developed, however, it was felt that leadership can occur in any group of people at any level within the organisation. Philip Selznick (1957) provides the needed distinction, when he says that leadership involves critical decisions to be made. It is more than the group maintenance. Leadership is a special form of power, closely related to the 'referent' form of the French and Raven (1959)'s classification. It involves, in Etzioni's (1965) words, 'the ability based on the personal qualities of the leader to elicit the followers' voluntary compliance in a broad range of matters'. Thus, more than power, leadership entails influence i.e. change in behaviour, change of preferences, while power implies only that the subjects' preferences are held in abeyance.

Alvin Geraldner (1950) takes the same position when he states that the leader is "any individual whose behaviour stimulates patternings of the behaviour in same group". Thus leadership means influence.

A few definitions of the term "Leadership" :

According to the National Education Association (NEA 1960) leadership is defined as that action or behaviour among individuals and groups to move towards educational goals that are increasingly mutually acceptable to them.

Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) define leadership as interpersonal influence exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals. Here, in these definitions, the essential thing is that the leader is the one who influences the others to achieve given objectives in a given situation. The followers may be peers, subordinates or superordinates.

Bass (1960) says, he who is engaged in leadership acts is a leader.

Stogdill (1952) says that persons in different leadership positions engage themselves in different specific behaviours.

Gurnee (1936), LaPiere and Fransworth (1949) defined leaders as agents of change, as persons whose acts affect other people more than other people affect them. Thus, leadership is a positive influence act directing a group and making difference among groups.

According to Stogdill and Coons (1952), leadership behaviour means - (1) behaviour of any individual that makes a

difference or modifications in the behaviour of or the characteristics of the group. (2) Behaviour of an individual as a director or a guide for the activities of a group.

Fiedler says - (1967) A leader is the individual in the group who has been given the task of directing and co-ordinating task-relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a distinguished leader carries the primary responsibilities for performing these functions in the group.

Albanese Robert (1980) says, leadership is a behaviour that elicits voluntary follower behaviour over and above that associated with the required minimum levels of job performance.

Katz and Khan (1978) define leadership as the influential incumbent over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization.

Bell, Hill and Wright (1961) have said - It is power, status, position, events, opinions, etc. which distinguish a leader from the followers. Hemphill (1964) has made useful and important distinction between behaviour of an administrator and leader. The first category is global, incorporating all the acts performed on the job and off the job by the administrator, while leadership involves, among other dimensions, initiation of procedure or creation of structure to achieve or to change the goals of an organization unlike administration which looks after its maintenance.

GENERALISATIONS :

Below are given some generalisations drawn from the various studies and reviews on leadership which will help in the clarification and crystallisation of the concept of leadership.

- 1) Leadership is the product of interaction between leader and followers, and not that of status or position.
- 2) Leadership cannot be pre-structured. It is always circumscribed by interactional patterns in the group, structure and group goals.
- 3) A leader in one situation may not be effective in another situation.
- 4) Whether a person is or is not a leader in a group depends on how he is perceived by the group.
- 5) The way a leader perceives his role determines his actions.
- 6) Leadership manifests positive sentiments towards the group activity and towards the persons in a group.
- 7) Leadership may be autocratic, democratic but never laissez-faire.
- 8) Leadership is not a monopoly of one person. All group members have leadership potential to some degree.
- 9) The effectiveness of a leader behaviour is measured in terms of mutuality of goals, productivity in the achievement of these goals and the maintenance of group solidarity.
- 10) Leadership is directed toward modifying and changing the behaviour of members. Changes in people's behaviour are manifestations of changes in their goals, perceptions,

understandings, insights, values, beliefs, motivations, interrelationships, habits and skills. To bring about change in the behaviour of people, leadership behaviour alters one or more of these factors.

11) The quality of an organisation is often evaluated by the perceived quality of leadership.

12) The qualities of leader's ideas are often a more powerful force than his external behaviour.

13) Institutional changes are dependent upon the organization of changes in individuals. Leadership behaviour in formal organizations resorts to grouping, programming and rearranging relationships.

14) Leadership behaviour very often creates imbalance in a group with a view to moving group in a desired direction. Here, a leader employs varieties of techniques without becoming neutral.

15) The term leadership describes a relation between persons. It is an interplay among persons. Thus one person having for a time being the major responsibility for the activity and the welfare of the group. Leadership is displayed when one person affects another person or a group of persons in such a way that common direction is given to others, never alone.

16) Leadership is an interaction between persons in which one presents information of a sort and in such a manner that the other becomes convinced that his outcomes will be improved if he behaves in the manner suggested or desired.

Thus leadership is an activating force which energizes various parts of an organization. A true leader inspires rather than drives. The leadership functions resting on the four-fold processes of stimulating, guiding, motivating and understanding of a close personal relationship between the leader and the led. This is needed for securing their willing and active co-operation for the accomplishment of an organisation's objectives. (S.K. Jain, 1967).

From the above exposition one can fix up the functions of a leader in overall terms. Mackenzie and Corey (1954) have tried to summerising them as under. Leaders are meant for -

- 1) Cooperating in the identification of common goals;
- 2) Motivating individual, making decision, taking action, and evaluating the work of the group.
- 3) Developing favourable and healthy climate for individual and group effort,
- 4) Guiding individuals and group to make them self-dependent and competent,
- 5) Preparing individuals and group for immediate and long-range activities,
- 6) Becoming a friend, philosopher and guide from time to time,
- 7) Coordinating the efforts of others, and
- 8) Carrying out effectively any responsibilities for action that have been accepted and expected of him by the group.

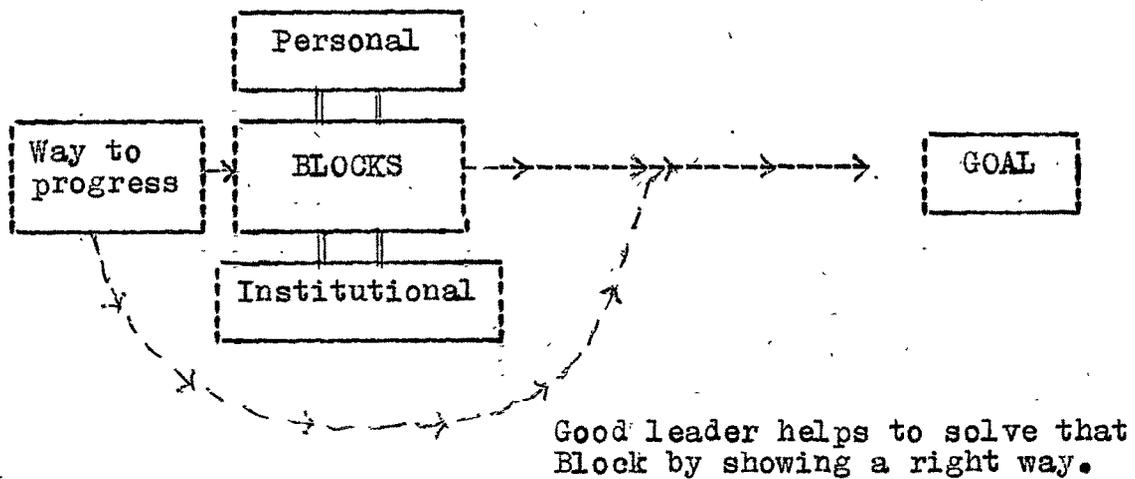


CHART NO.2 A Diagram of Leadership Behaviour.

3.4 PRINCIPAL AS AN EFFECTIVE LEADER :

The school principal is not only an administrator, but he is a leader too. He is the assigned leader. His leadership is based on the official position and as such it is an ascribed role. Unfortunately we believe that once he sits on the chair of a principal, leadership qualities are developed into him automatically. Today principals are appointed mostly on the basis of their age, experience, qualifications etc, but not on their effectiveness. All these factors are the prerequisites for an effective leader, yet his effectiveness is not looked when he is appointed.

Naturally, this officiating principal, the so called leader is dominated by the leadership of the school president or secretary of the management board, supervisors or any teacher who have got several pulls. Thus he is constantly directed by the third person, someone else; and he becomes a puppet in the hands of someone else.

It is this precarious position of a school principal-leader which has put the investigator to think about the characteristics of an effective leader. What are those qualities which make a leader an effective one, dominant and determinant, also what sorts of behaviour is reflected by such an effective leader while executing functions such as decision-making, conflict-resolution and communication.

The principal is always at cross-fire between teachers and managing body, between the need of the individuals and the objectives of the institutions, between 'nomothetic' and 'idiographic' dimensions. Management wants him to be high on 'Initiating structure' and the teachers would expect him to be higher on 'Consideration'. On the one hand teachers are asking for better working conditions as well as right to be involved into the decision-making process and in framing educational procedures and policies; the community wants education at a reduced cost, on the other hand. This is a challenging task. Therefore principal will have to develop specific leadership skills with respect to teachers, their demands and community aspirations, pupils and expectations of him. This can be done successfully only if the principal is the effective one.

The lack of knowledge, skills, styles, models and leadership qualities work as an impediment in his effective leadership behaviour and make him an ineffective leader.

3.5 EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP :

According to Culberston (1963), effective leadership involves responsibility and authority and the main leadership

acts are planning, initiating, managing, delegating, coordinating, decision-making, communicating and evaluating. In solving any particular problem, a principal might use one or several of these acts of leadership.

According to Dempsey (1973), the ineffective leadership behaviour is associated with - (1) low teacher morale, (2) Poor discipline in the school, (3) deterioration in instruction, and (4) resentment from teachers towards principals.

While according to Dempsey (1973) effective principals -

- 1) provided leadership in the implementation of change in the school programme.
- 2) Successfully resolved disciplinary problems and gave advise and direction to teachers in solving such problems in school or class-room.
- 3) Maintained and supported teachers and
- 4) related successfully to students.

Let us now discuss the qualities of an effective leadership on this background.

- 1) Stogdill (1948) reviewed 148 studies on the characteristics of leadership behaviour. According to him, the effective leaders manifest the following qualities. (1) Capacity, (2) Achievement, (3) Responsibility and (4) Participation.

He says that there is some justification to support the fact that leaders excel in intelligence, scholarship, dependability, activity and social participation and S.E.S.

2) Myers (1954) corroborates Stogdill on the point that these characteristics denote qualities of an inter-actional nature and no single characteristic is a possession of all leaders.

3) Dempsey (1973) : Patterns of effective leadership behaviour of Elementary School principals was followed by -

- a) The improved, instructional programme,
- b) The feeling of security among teachers,
- c) Improved student morale.

This shows that the effective leadership must move in that direction.

4) In a study by ASCD (1960) which focussed on leadership behaviour for improving instructions, five criteria were suggested for testing the effectiveness of leadership behaviour. These are stated in terms of 'If....., then.....' relationship.

- a) A staff will be getting appropriate assistance in defining educational goals,
- b) Greater effectiveness in teaching will result.
- c) People will recognize themselves as responsible contributors to a production or productive organization.
- d) The climate in which people will work will be conducive to their own growth and
- e) Increases will be made in the wealth of resources brought to teaching and learning set.

5) According to Tead (1935) following qualities are needed for effectiveness. (a) Physical and mental energy, (b) A sense of purpose and direction, (c) Enthusiasm, (d) Friendliness, and (e) Action, integrity, technical mastery, decisiveness, intelligence, teaching skills and faith.

6) Bernard (1938) has added some more qualities to this - perception, memory, imagination, knowledge, determination, persistence, endurance, courage, knowledge of principles, procedures, concepts, the techniques of human relations, and ability to apply knowledge in proper perspective and spirit.

7) To this, Corey (1954) sets four conditions for an effective leadership.

- a) The leader's goal must be those of the group.
- b) The group sees him as helping or potentially helping it to achieve its goals. This is called 'Compatibility of Goals'.
- c) Group must recognize the leader as helping to avoid destruction of a desired status quo or
- d) as offering the least threat to its goal achievement.

8) Ross and Hendry (1957) suggest that the leader affects the group by initiating action, facilitating communication, establishing structure and implementing his own philosophy in the manner in which he leads.

Evidences from these studies surveyed show that the average person who occupies a position of a leader, excels and exceeds the average members of his group to some degree in the following respects...

"Sociability, initiative, persistence, knowledge, (of how to get things done), self-confidence, alertness to and insight into situations, co-operativeness, popularity, adoptability, adaptability, intelligence, scholarship, dependability, (in exercising responsibilities), activity, socio-economic status and verbal facility." Of course, this list is not prescriptive but indicative of some of the qualities of an effective leader.

3.6 PRINCIPAL AND DECISION-MAKING FUNCTION :

The principal is formally charged with responsibility for the organization's accomplishment. He himself functions as a problem-solver and the decision-maker as well as a group leader.

The task of decision-making controls the entire activities of an organization. It has to take decisions regarding its goals, policies and objectives. It has to decide what programmes should be undertaken. It has to fix certain procedures and to decide how the chalked out programmes can be implemented. In fact, central function of an organization's is decision-making which determines in activities.

The acts of decision-making revolve around the three basic responsible and influencing factors - viz, the environment, individuals and groups. If there are heterogeneity, ambiguity,

factorability and vagueness involved in the environment, decisions can be (some of) taken wrongly by the leader. Some decisions may urge the members of an organization to maintain or sever their connection with the organization, may affect its formal or informal structure and even change its goals and objectives. Now challenges are often helpful in taking fresh decisions, resulting in setting up new institutions rather than continuing the status quo.

Group decisions and individual decisions :

To decide means to say-yes or no-to the proposal. It is a process of selection of an act necessary for materialising the target. Decision-making is to cut short, cut off, to come to a conclusion. The Dictionary meaning is - the act of determining in one's mind upon an opinion or a course of action. Thus decision making means the selection based on some criteria of one behavioural alternative from two or more possible alternatives. So decisions ^{are} made in problematic situation. It is a relative and subjective term.

Individuals as decision-makers :

In running an organization, an administrator has to do many things. It becomes necessary for him at times to make a decisions and at times not to make a decision at all. In this connection, the following suggestion of Barnard is very helpful : "The fine art of executing decisions consists in not deciding questions that are not pertinent, in not deciding prematurely, in

not making decisions that cannot be made effective, and in not making decisions which others should make". (C.I.Barnard (1938) The functions of the Executive.op.cit. p.194).

Thus the executive should not make decisions where he feels that someone else should make it. Under the circumstances, he should let it go to another or make no decisions at all.

Decision-making is complicated when individual conflict arises. Simon points out "A simple decision situation exists if (1) among the evoked alternatives of action one is clearly better than all others, and (2) The preferred evoked alternative is good enough to be acceptable". (J.G.March and Herbert A.Simon. Organizations. New York, John Wiley & Sons, inc.1963 p.113) Under either of these two conditions, a decision is soon reached. Otherwise, there is delay, 'ex post facto' re-evaluations and rationalizations. Later on dissatisfaction results in the formulation of sub-units and groups.

Individual has to take his decision by his own as there is none to guide him. This sometimes leads to dictatorial type of leadership. Once a decision is made, an individual has to convey and communicate his decisions to all - why and what circumstances have forced him to take such a decision. He has to provide some kind of flexibility to the group in carrying out decisions-and has to ascertain from the group that the group has

understood the need of that particular decision. Group is then requested to cooperate in its execution.

Group as Decision-makers :

Groups have a great role in decision-making, and they might take the shape of a formal or informal organization. The approval or disapproval of decisions made becomes effective, if all the informal organizations within it uphold its views. Its position is weakened, if there is opposition. The maximum achievement accrues, if there is agreement in different types of organizations.

Group decisions should be fair to all the members of the group. Group decisions is a means of getting together different attitudes. Group decisions means taking into confidence each and every member by telling that what he or she thinks will be done to solve a problem. Group decisions means solving problems co-operatively. It is a joint endeavour.

Group decision is not giving each individual what he or she wants. We are sacrificing our self for the Bigger Self, our small interests into the larger interests of the whole institution. It is not manipulating group problems. It is not selling the ideas of the supervisor. It is not autocratic decisions. Decisions are made by keeping in mind general norms of behaviour of the society or institution.

The decision-making function of a leader will be successful if - 1) he involves teachers into the process of

decision-making in a democratic way. This is called as 'presentation of lower staff' in decision-making. Lane et al (1967, p.284) suggests that representation in administration implies participation of subordinates in decision-making. There are several reasons and areas like library and laboratory where teachers' participation renders benefit to the school organization.

Moreover, teacher-participation increases their identification with the administrative policies securing their support to various programmes. Thus representative administration secures for the principal the willing co-operation of teachers which helps making an institution a closed-knit organization.

Decision-making guidelines :

Monarchy, autocracy and democracy etc. set different guidelines for the decision-making. Head should be alert and should see the symptoms of the problems among the colleagues, staff, students, etc. He should have a foresight. He should keep his ears and eyes open and mouth shut initially. He should contemplate without any bias, subjectivity, disturbance, calmly, before he makes any decisions. His decisions should be supported by the reasoning, not by emotions.

He should set priorities for decisions once the problem is contemplated. Then arrange the decisions according to the need and situation. He should be ready with the back-up decisions to support and execute the main decisions. He should never make haste in making decisions, he should exercise reasonable maturity.

The rationale decision-maker has in mind all the probabilities that would result from his action. Such a 'Probability event chain' is shown in the following figure.

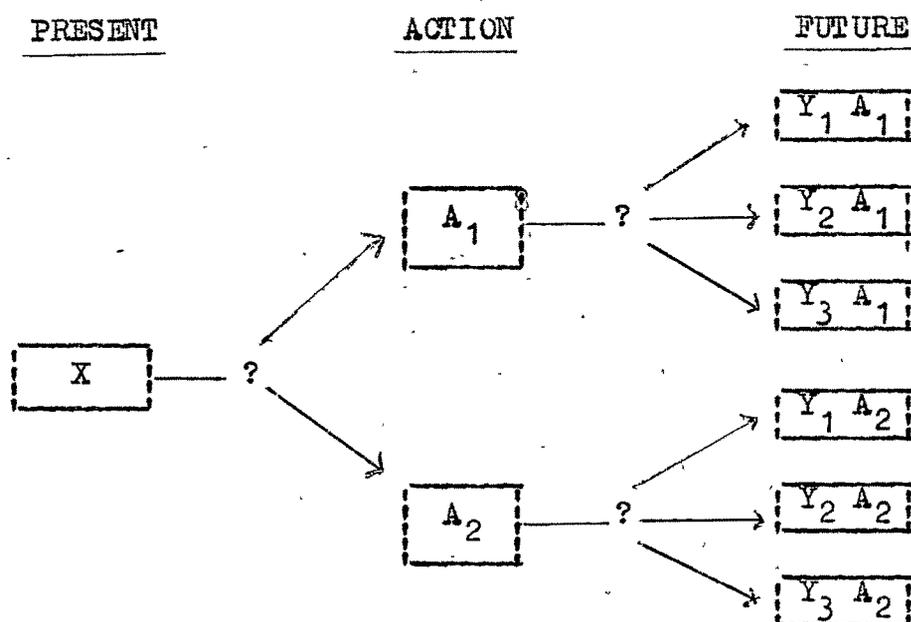


FIG. No. 3 PROBABILITY EVENT CHAIN

If one follows the course of chain/action, A_1 consequences $Y_1, A_1, Y_2 / A_1$, or Y_3 / A_1 may eventuate. If one follows the action A_2 , the consequences $Y_1 / A_2, Y_2 / A_2$ or Y_3 / A_2 may eventuate. (Daniel E. Griffiths, *Administrative Theory*, op, cit. p.71, 91, 105.)

Griffiths adds (ibid.pp.89-91) - If the administrator confines his behaviour to making decisions on the decision making process rather than making terminal decisions for the organization, his behaviour will be more acceptable to his subordinates.

If the administrator perceives himself as the controller of the decision-making process, rather than the maker of the organization's decisions, the decision will be more effective.

3.7 PRINCIPAL AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION FUNCTION :

An organisation is made up of a number of interlocking groups. The process of an organisation can best be studied by studying the activities and interactions within each group. The face to face group is the link between individual, motivation, values and organisational functions. In this connection, it will be necessary to understand the concepts and aspects of conflicts as an aspect of job satisfaction. Conflicts are universal. Even in the best managed organisation, conflicts are bound to arise. Getzels (1958) hypothesizes three types of conflicts exist in organisations : role-personality conflict, role conflict, and personality conflict.

Role-personality conflict arises when the expectations attached to a given role are not in agreement with the pattern of need dispositions, characteristics of the incumbent of the role.

Role conflicts occur whenever a person is compelled to conform simultaneously to a number of expectations which are mutually exclusively contradictory or inconsistent, so that adjustment to one set of requirements make adjustment to another impossible or at least difficult.

Personality conflicts arise as a function of opposing needs and dispositions within the personality of the role incumbent himself.

Impact of organisational climate upon workers :

Argyris (1957) made his own investigations on the same subject. He came to the conclusion that the needs of even healthy individuals are in conflict with the demands of formal organisations. They have often to work in situations, which coerce them to be dependent, subordinate, submissive, and to use merely their skin-surface abilities. At times their needs are not congruent with the traditional requirements of formal organisations. This results in a disturbance, and individuals resort to conflict and frustration by creating any one or a combination of four kinds of behaviour. (1) quitting the organisation, (2) moving up the ladder of the organisation, (3) adopting defence mechanism, and (4) turning apathetic and losing interest. The possible remedy, Argyris holds is to decrease the incongruency by enlarging the job or the role as one way of changing the nature of the organisational structure or by using employee-centred leadership as a modification of directive leadership.

Getzels' Theory (1958) :

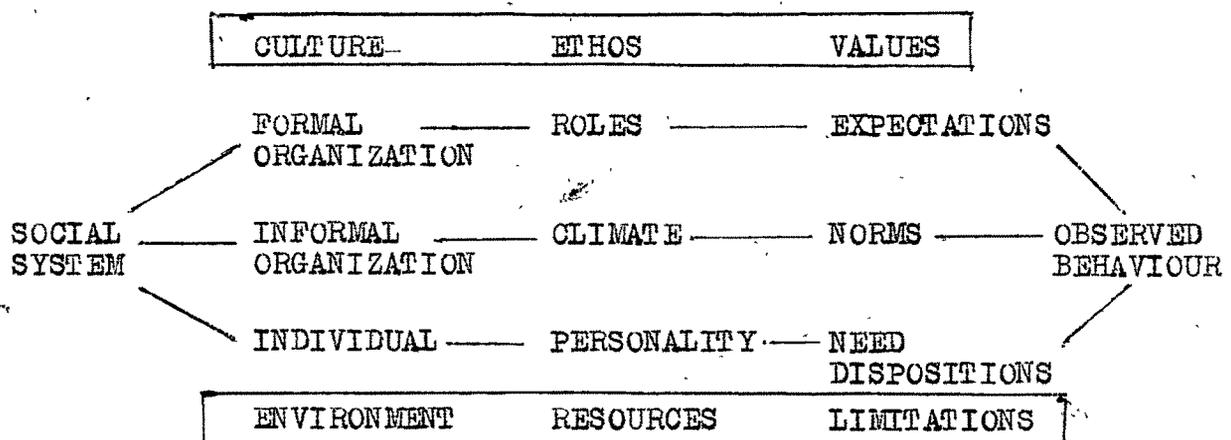
The most complete and insightful development on conflicts has been made by Getzels at Chicago. He has developed a model for explaining social behaviour, which has been extremely

fertile in producing hypotheses and stimulating research.

Getzels Postulates :

(1) Administration is structurally the hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationship within a social system. (2) each social system has two dimensions : (a) the nomothetic consisting of institution, role and expectation, and (b) idiographic, consisting of the individual, his personality and his need dispositions, (3) the two dimensions are conditioned by the culture, its ethos, the values and the environment-its resources and limitations, (4) the two dimensions interact on each other and the interaction gives rise to a third dimension i.e. the informal group-its climate and norms, and (5) all the three dimensions results in the behaviour observed in the social system.

A schematic representation of Getzel's Model is given in figure No. 4.



GETZELS' MODEL

Figure No: 4

In brief, Getzels says that Behaviour (B) is a function of the Role (R) and personality (P), i.e., $B=f(RxP)$. Thus, if the roles expected of an individual are not in conformity with the need dispositions and the personality make-up of an incumbent, there would be a role-personality conflict in the incumbent. If the conflict is so great as cannot be resolved by the individual, he may either leave the organisation or he may try for a change in his position so that he may have a different role or he may adopt other techniques like forming informal groups within the organisation.

Getzels further says that the role expectations are influenced by ethos and values of the culture or sub-culture in which the formal organisation exists. Similarly, the personality and need-dispositions of persons belonging to different cultural environments will not be the same.

Getzels suggests that a social behaviour as observed is governed by social (institutional), cultural and psychological factors. An administrator of any social institution would behave within the limits provided by the above considerations. Thus Getzel's theory postulates that the behaviour of an individual is the function of his institutional role and his own personality in a given culture.

Principal as conflict resolver :

The art of decision-making is in direct association with the art of conflict resolution.

Schools have task of producing desirable behavioural outcomes in the students and in order to bring about these desirable outcomes, the group members or the teachers continuously engage themselves in problem solving behaviours. The principal as the formally designed leader of the organisation has a key role in this problem solving or conflict resolution behaviour.

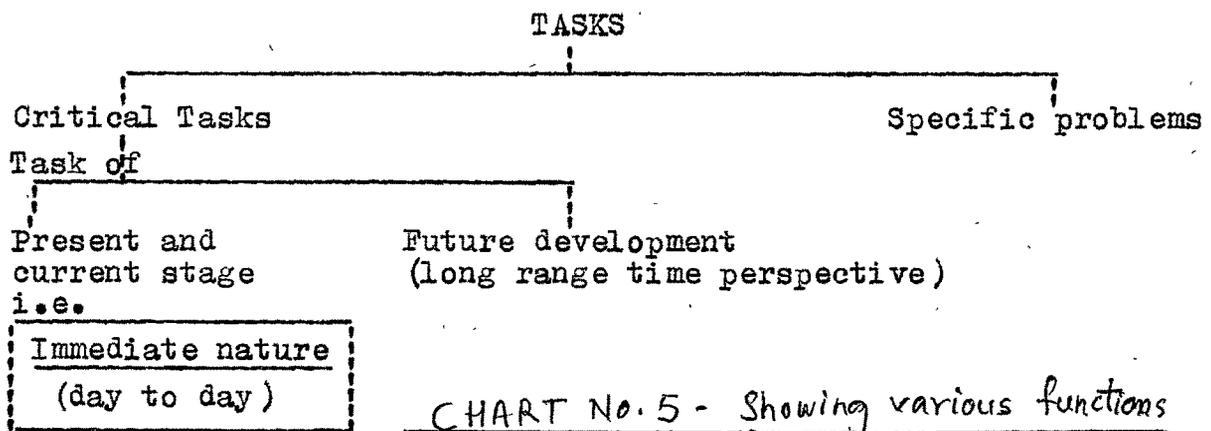
The way in which the principal perceives the task, determines his attitude and approach in tackling the problem. Certain variables like his age, intelligence, values, academic training, experience etc. are associated with his behaviour as administrator affect him as group leader.

Moreover a group characteristics expressed through school climate and teacher morale are the intra-organisational variables. They influence and are influenced by the administrator behaviour of the school principal as a group leader.

Besides these variables, extra-organisational variables included under community pressures, financial, constraints, population increases, social demands, traditional moves also affect the administrator behaviour of school principal as a decision-maker as well as conflict resolver and a group leader in his effort to achieve improvements in the school system.

- | | | | |
|----|--------------------------------|--|--|
| 1) | Personal variables | | AFFECT
leader as a
conflict resolver |
| 2) | Intra-organisational variables | | |
| 3) | Extra-organisational variables | | |

The principal's task may contain contradictory and irreconcilable elements, it may be conceived as a broad stimulus object or 'field' presented to the leader and his group. Within this stimulus field, the principal will identify his critical tasks and specific problems and interprets his task in the present and current stage of development of the organisation. He, then selects critical tasks and this will reflect his predictions and personal value system. Some administrators identify as their problem issues crucial to the task, others put up with peripheral details. Some deal in terms of a 'long range time' perspectives, others stumble from day to day, buffeted by the exigencies of each new crisis. Each individual stamps the particular role he occupies with the unique style of his own characteristic pattern of expressive behaviour.



Thus, the successful handling of problems too is a major task of the principal. His perspective and perceptions of the problem as one that he must handle within the total task assigned to him will depend on his values, ideas, beliefs, experience and needs. So also will the criteria by which solutions will be evaluated and finally the relevancy of the solution too will depend on how successfully the principal has clarified the relevant value.

3.8 PRINCIPAL AND COMMUNICATION FUNCTION :The Need :

Clear communication is necessary to resolve uncertainty. Teacher helps students to clarify their doubts and the principal clarifies his own policies to the staff. It is to transfer the mental images from the mind of one person to that of another.

Communication involves two or more persons in contact with each other (Lewis and Newell - 1962) while one tries to 'get his point across' and the other tries to 'understand what he means'. It is a process of verbal and written interaction and interchange. Thus it involves the transmission and accurate replication of ideas.

Communication must be dynamic, if it is to be effective. It is a nervous system of the organisation. Communication is a two-way process. This reduces tension and frustration and there is a scope for feedback. If it is one-way, it may result in problematic behaviour and frustration.

The communication is derived from the Latin word - 'communis' meaning common. When we communicate we are trying to establish a commonness with someone.

Webster's dictionary defines the word as - intercourse of words, letters of messages, interchange of thoughts and opinions.

Communication is the process of transmitting and receiving information, is so fundamental to the practice of management that without it an organisation could not exist. How to do work, when to accomplish it, who will do that, when ? etc. all these questions need communication. In formulation of human - relations, in motivating the personnel, or exercising the functions of leadership, leader needs communication.

Examples of inefficiency, waste and spoilage, misunderstanding, all can be traced to some kind of communication or lack of it. Though important, many managers are extremely poor communicators. Leaders demand this quality and mostly people are deficient in this.

Communication is essential to sound personnel administration. Communication is the interchange of information and ideas among all individuals in the enterprise. It provides an opportunity for each person to know what is going on, to contribute his ideas. The real goal behind the proper communication is complete understanding. It connotes more than any written paper, letters, bulletins etc.

Types of Communication :

This refers to the three-way processes of communication in the school. The administrator is concerned with facilitating the free flow of information - up, down and lateral (across) within the school. Communication flow should be free from the superior officers like the D.E.O.s down to the secondary schools'

principals, from the principal to the teachers and the teachers amongst themselves and other office staff in the school in the horizontal way.

The channel of communication should go up from the junior teachers to senior teachers, from senior teacher to the assistant principal and from him to the principal. When upward flow of communication is not checked, feedback flows freely. It results in satisfaction and professional bearing of the teachers however lowly one might be placed in the school hierarchy. Lower staff can show its grievances and redressals of problems to the higher authority in this Down-Upward Communication system.

Across type of communication-flow cannot be built by law. It is only developed and build by the effective leaders who have the knowledge of personnel management. Such a leader can build a cohesive group. This is his positive contribution to organization. In the lack of this type of communication, work becomes independent and personnel become independent workers. Work is not made pleasurable and no satisfaction can come out from such a work. Staff morale goes down, resulting into the lack of motivation and stimulation for group discussion and participation. No sharing of experiences will be done horizontally. Mutual perceptions should always be clarified by holding group meetings.

The type of communication called 'SELF TALK' is very necessary for the personnel manager. This creates objectivity in manager for judging his own actions. Mostly people are objective in case of others, and become subjective in their cases.

This is nothing but talking to one's self - How often you have shown positive or negative reactions to the people etc. Think what you have done for others, rather than what others have done to you. This can give you the cause of dissatisfaction within you, your wrong expectations from others will go away and give your thought a clear guidelines for the future course of action.

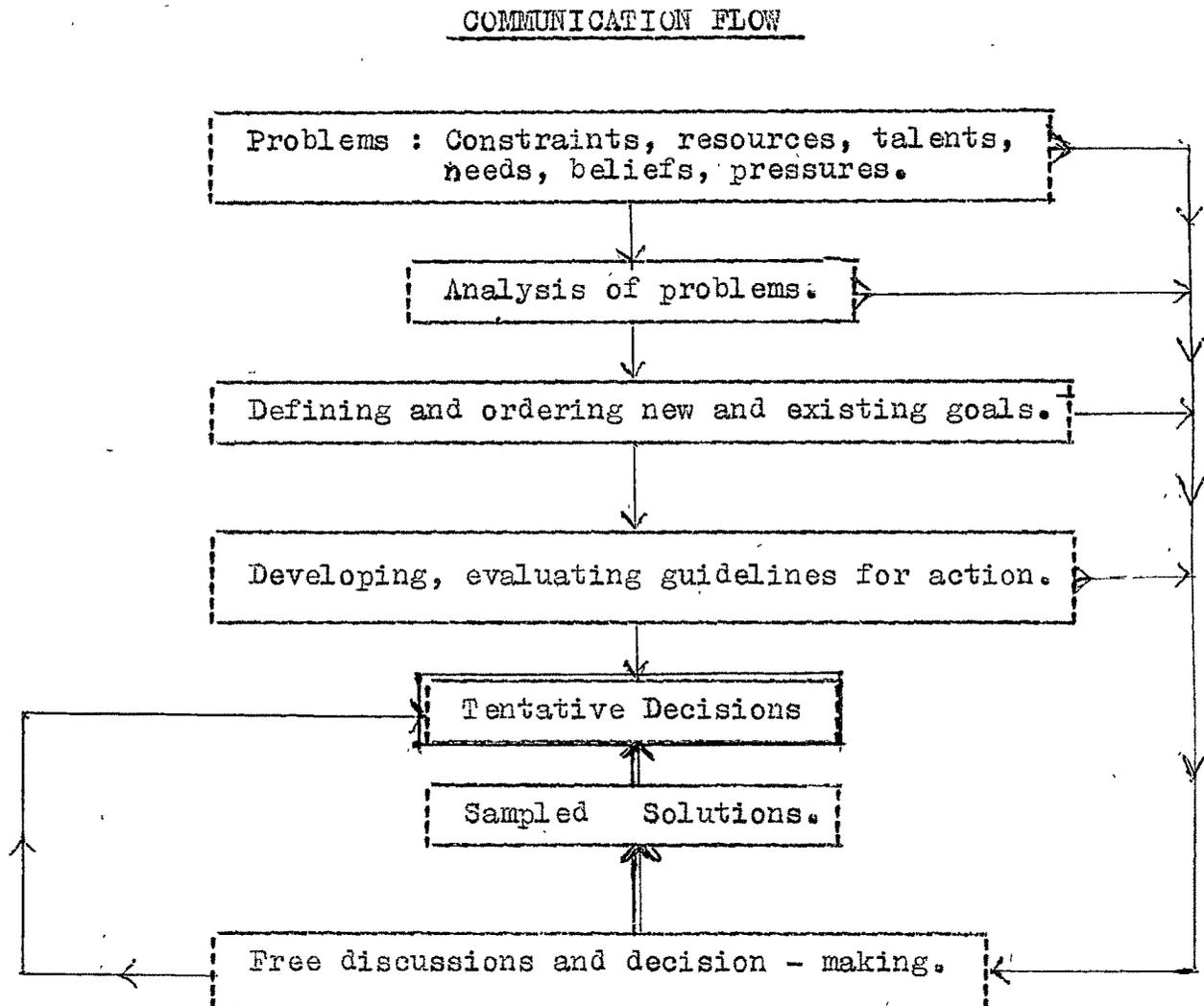
If possible, principal should be encouraged to go for such sort of 'Self-analysis' which will develop a 'WITNESS' within him. He should also encourage his staff for self-analysis.

An effective leader tries to establish well defined patterns and channels of communication in his organization. In addition, the leader must decide what kinds of information about the organization (school and its personnel) should be transmitted. (Halpin, pp.37).

The following chart describes the processing of the problem at different levels and discussion and decision-making

at each level.

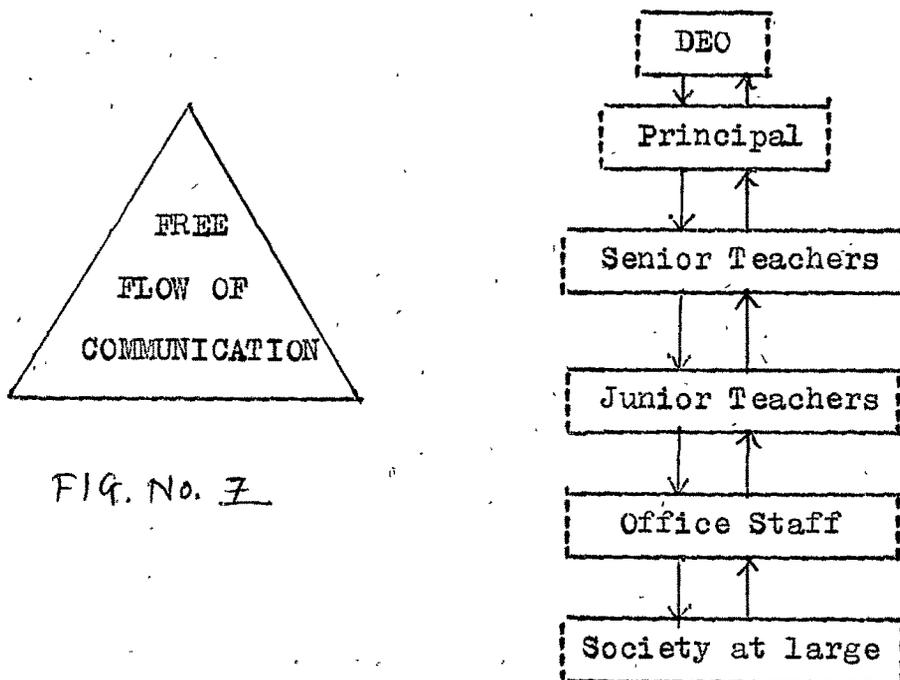
Below is given a chart of communication flow chart
No. .6 .



As the figure indicates, the democratic process of communication, consultation, co-operative decision-making must be allowed to prevail, so as to encourage the development of an emotionally free, non-threatening atmosphere in schools. This will reduce the threat of power, struggles and interpersonal conflicts.

Halpin (1967) has observed 'We gain in stature as human-beings in becoming sensitive to what we do indeed communicate'. Owen (1970) pointed out that the principal who is seen as effective by his teachers will tend to emphasize frequent and free communication and devote careful attention to his relationships to others in the organization. Such a principal will probably be sociable, relaxed, sensitive, confident and will have considerable verbal fluency'.

The upward flow of communication is equally crucial to the health of school administration. These components refer to the structural behaviour of the school administration.



There are various methods of communication. Oral communication takes place in a face to face situation. It is more personal in nature and more convenient.

The written communication is the essential part of an organization. When information concerns many people, is very complex and extremely important message is to be given, which has a long-term significance, written communication is resorted to. But it should be properly worded.

Non-verbal communication is possible through gestures, pictures, symbols, silence etc. thus using non-verbal cues.

Informal communication helps to disseminate and clarify management's formal communication. It allows employees to express their emotions orally to other people without fear of repercussion. This safety-valve system plays an important role in human relations, because the cathartic value of 'Blowing Off' steam frequently alleviates employee's problems or prevents them from growing larger.

It often spreads rumour and distorted information with an alarming rate of speed. There are some barriers to the effective communication such as semantics, use of effective too many words or too less words, physical distance, physical disabilities like stammering, etc and mental emotional imbalance leading to hesitation, haste, hurry etc. and the lacks of interest.

Some research findings on communication :

- 1) Communication is a gift and cannot have any relationship with the variables such as age, sex, training, qualifications etc.

- 2) Perception regarding self, teaching role etc. influences communication on the part of the teachers.
- 3) Mere length of experience will not be of much help to good communication. Teaching method will have no influence over the communication pattern. The skill of teaching contributes more to this fact rather.
- 4) Communication patterns are affected by the size of the group.

Larger the group - (1) The more involvement of the skills of communication, (2) decrease in the average amount of participation, (3) less scope of feedback, and negative reactions will be less. (4) Loss opportunity in building understanding. (5) More scope for misunderstanding.

If the communication is restricted, the amount of unity decreases. The amount of interaction and the frequency of verbal communication have a direct relationship on the degree to which a group is cohesive.

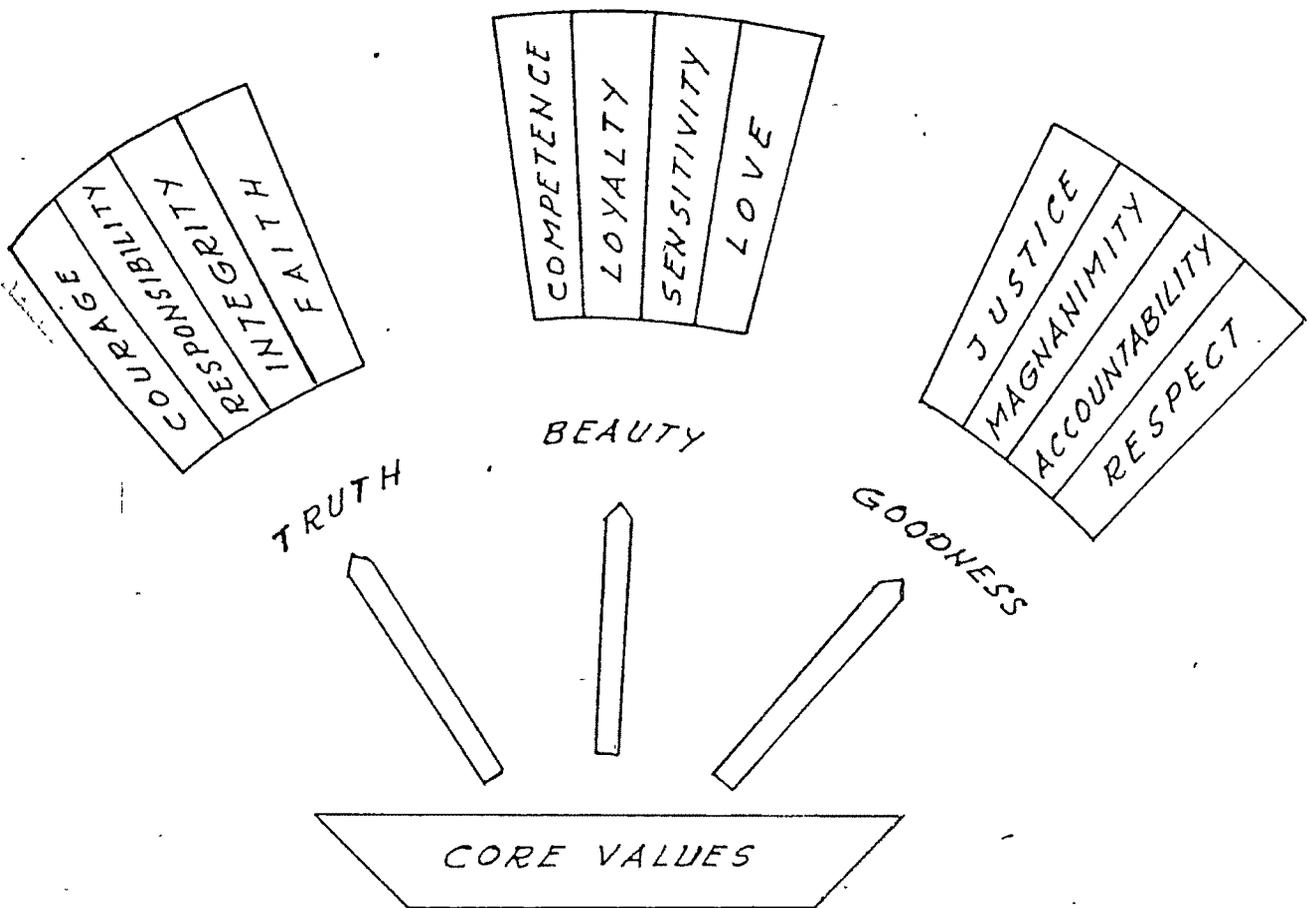
Interaction is the act of communication. Communication means, transmitting symbols with a shared meaning, in such a way that the behaviour of each is in part of a response to the behaviour of the other.

3.9 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND VALUES :

The overall objectives of any institution are spelt out in the context of a philosophy of education it adopts. Idealism

FIG. 3.8

CORE VALUES AND THEIR CLUSTER

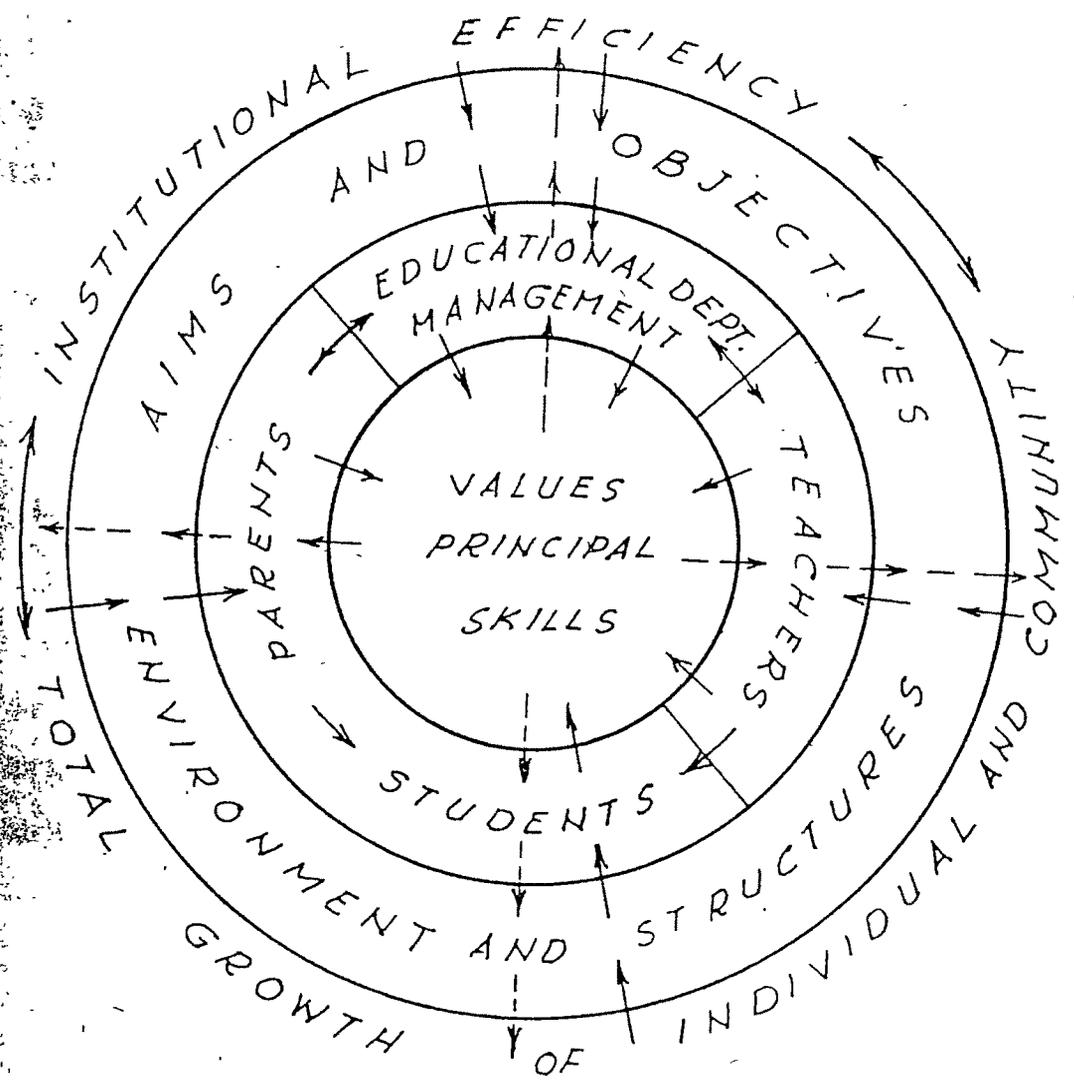


as a philosophy of education has 'values' as its basis and self-realization for the individual as the ultimate aim of education. Horne (1946) says that 'Truth, Beauty and Goodness are the spiritual ideals of the race and therefore the supreme task of education is the adjustment of the child to these essential realities that the history of the race has disclosed' (A figure No. 8 is given here showing the core values and their clusters).

Now, it is to be seen as to what extent the values or value-oriented approach to education contributes to institutional effectiveness and personal efficiency. Do the value system of principal influence the way he administers his institution ? Do the value positions reflected by the organization itself make a difference to its administration ? In otherwords, do the values play a part in making a principal either effective or ineffective ? What values are possessed by the effective principals and what values are possessed by the ineffective principals and to what degree are these values exhibited. This is the purview of the present research work. Since values are considered as the function of a leader, they work as a guiding principles that ensures effectiveness. Thus personal value system of the principal makes him effective in his role performance. It helps him to withstand tension over long periods, helps him to restore his mental health to cope up with the present changing situations and with the coming future events.

FIG. 3.9

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRINCIPAL'S VALUES AND INSTITUTIONAL EFFICIENCY



It is these values which give a unique character to every principal, undefinable, yet very real.

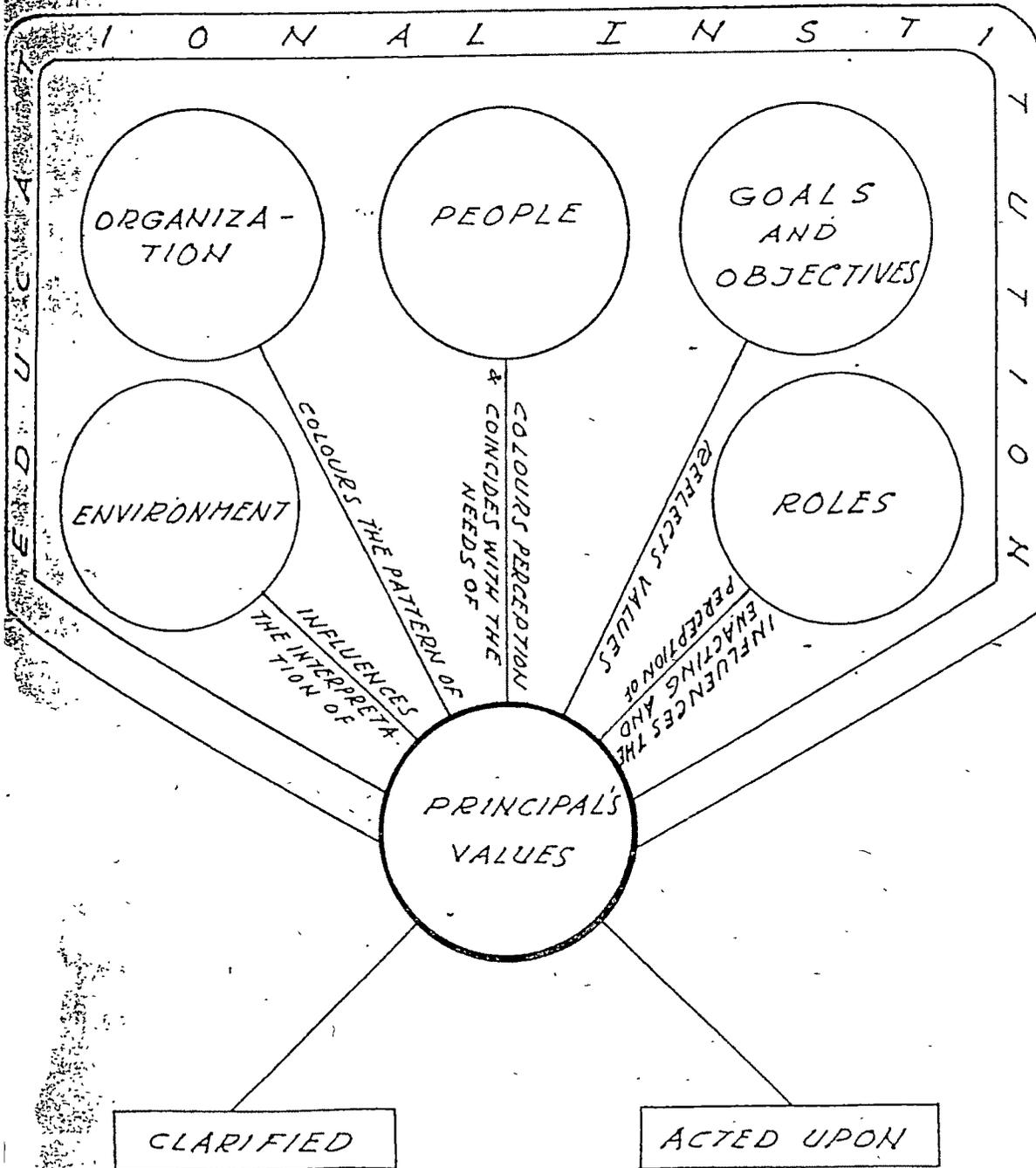
It is assumed that a quality of a head's leadership will depend upon the validity of his philosophy and his capacity to advocate it. That is why some heads have a very coherent and clear philosophies and delight in defining their objectives without relying on instincts, intuition or institutional goals - knowing roughly where they wish to go, knowing roughly what they should 'do' in order to become what they want 'to be'. This tries to bridge the gap between discrepancies between values expressed and practices supported.

All those involved in the institutional do hold values that affect their definition of institutional roles and their perception of institutional events. The principal is seen to operate frequently at the vortex between other people's values and his own (Ostrander and Dethy, 1956). (A figure No. 9 is shown here showing the relationship between principal's values and institutional efficiency). The principal needs a set of values that will not only be his reference-point for his role enactment but will also help him GROW by constantly clarifying these values in terms of current situations.

The values of the principal, because they underlie his administrative acts interpenetrate all the circles and diffuse their influence. They have a decisive influence when the tasks are critical. (Refer the figure No. 10).

FIG. 3-10

SHOWS HOW VALUES INFLUENCE THE DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF AN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION



It has been found that in the task of leading his staff in planning, implementing & evaluating improvements in the school's curricular and extra-curricular programmes, the ideographic rather than the nomothetic dimension of his behaviour makes its impacts felt. This is even more true of his standing before his pupils and parents today. This values become the central driving force of his personal energy.

This study has selected the three traditionally accepted universal values of truth, Goodness and Beauty. Truth belongs to logistic philosophy, beauty to aesthetic and goodness to ethics.

The present study offers, both a normative as well as a remedial perspective to help principals by offering some insights into values and their influence on his personality and on the institutions' effectiveness. The study postulates that if the principal is effective one, he will possess certain values at certain levels and if the principal is ineffective, he will reveal certain values at certain levels accordingly.

3.10 CONCLUSION :

The foregoing discussion has led to the conclusion about the idea of an effective leadership behaviour.

Leadership should be reality-centred. A leader should not be enslaved by a narrow definitions of his role, nor he

should be puffed up with the halo of his status. He must be keen about getting the job done, but not at the cost of human relationship.

The most effective leader is one who acts as a catalyst, consultant, and main resource to the group. His job is to help the group to grow, to emerge and to become more free. He serves the group best when he is an integrated, direct, real, open, spontaneous, permissive, emotional and highly personal.

Effective leaders are hard workers, calm and patient, are not highly egoistic, are exacting, are patient listeners. They recognize merits and aptitudes of teachers, are inspiring, are warm in relations, are persuasive, direct and disciplinarians, they care for teachers' welfare, they are givers rather than receivers, are flexible in their attitudes and approaches, are receptive, they have discretion ary powers and are firm truth-tellers, firm decision-makers, good conflict resolvers and possess high communication ability.

Principal may criticise his colleagues, if situation needs such criticism, but he should be ready to go out of his way to help them and should not unduly emphasize production-element in administration all the time.

The school leadership is not the monopoly of the principal. At certain occasions teachers' and supervisors'

Leadership will also have to be encouraged and recognized. Under no circumstances the principal should try to curb down the leadership of his colleagues whenever their leadership is desirable in the interest of the school.

Effective principal is one who arranges his school's operations in such a way that material, human relations and resources are correlated in a thrust towards organizational achievement.

Studies carried out by the researcher here prove that successful schools have principals who are strong leaders. They have visions, are committed to a mission and seem to want to forge ahead of time by securing achievement for themselves as well as for others. They are highly imaginative.

There is an evident tendency to be often found in principals to bury themselves in administrative routine work and neglect or avoid acts of instructional leadership in the administrative cock-pit. If leadership is to prove effective, the present handicap has to be removed. No doubt, as an administrator, principals seem to have the ability to lead the staff in planning, implementing and evaluation improvements in the school's curricular activities, co-curricular and extra-curricular activities. They maintain a positive attitude towards their staff and pupils. Above all, effective principals seem to have achieved an integration of their values and their roles.

मनस्येकं वचस्येकं कर्मण्येकं महात्मनाम् ।
 मनस्यन्यत् वचस्यन्यत् कर्मण्यन्यत् दुरात्मनाम् ॥
 — हितोपदेशम्

The effectiveness of the principal is measured in the context of his role-performance. Hence, such effective principals often try to obtain institutional effectiveness through various achievements by their leadership behaviour.

Argyris (1953) says, 'If one must have a title for effective leadership, it might be called REALITY-CENTRED leadership behaviour-meaning equating reality with effectiveness. He adds further, that reality diagnosis requires self-awareness, awareness of others and self-analysis and introspection.

Though reality - centred, an effective principal should be a dynamic person, should never rest contented with the present state of mind and things. His methods, both of management and of teaching, should always be in a progressive state. The power of invention is wanted, no stereotyped and rigid plans in all circumstances. He must have power to adapt, and adopt, and inclination towards originality and less of blind imitation.

An ideal principal, now-a days, is one who, though retaining a dignified superiority over the whole school, is to be approached by the youngest of his pupils, is ready to listen to complaints from the humblest and always ready to sympathise

and tender advice to them. Thus the great principals are always the great friends of their pupils. So he endeavours always to mix with the boys under his control, plays with them and is always ready to partake of their joys and sorrows.

An effective principal does many things by kindness than by severity. He is not merely a scholar, he is a man of sound character, deep sympathy and understanding. The old idea that a principal is an ogre who lives in his office, is armed with a cane and is ever-ready, on the slightest provocation, to inflict terrible corporal punishment, has been exploded as a myth. He knows that even the conception of dignity is now changed, it no longer consists in remaining aloof and maintaining an air of superiority, it rather consists in being helpful and doing the right things to one's pupils and staff.

To be more pin-pointed in the approach - An effective principal will never adopt the 'Sink or Swim' attitude toward the new comer or any of the staff-member in his school. Moreover, an effective principal possesses a vision or a virtue which gives him direction all throughout. On the other hand, without appropriate direction, principal himself and his staff may become lazy, indifferent or tyrannical, thus damaging all the organizational goals. Such a principal who does not provide any direction can ignore his teacher's need for help and encouragement, can stifle his creativity and enthusiasm. He may even harass him to the point where good instructor eventually is

driven out of the profession.

An effective principal must be alert to the need for careful, systematic, and regular appraisal of the policies and practices established to guide them in their profession. Unlike the generalist, principal can keep abreast of local, state and national scholarship in his field that makes him a good communicator.

An effective principal retains the right of final decision in his hands, since he bears ultimate responsibility for the effective operation of his school. He is expert in the acts of conflict-resolutions.

The effective school principal welcomes the opportunity to work with his teachers - as a consultant. He serves as both consultant and supervisor. He possesses 'Superior-vision' and he is not called a 'Snoopervisor'. He is highly value-loaded.

So, if the principal works effectively, then, his school will be alert, dynamic and innovative. His teachers will offer the best possible instructional programmes, winning thereby, valuable public support for the school and district. But if the principal does not work effectively, he may so stifle creativity and initiatives within his school that teachers, students and the community as well will suffer as a consequence.