

CHAPTER I

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** * * * * THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF
THE STUDY

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' My thesis is simple; there is more than one gate to the kingdom of knowledge. Each gate opens upon a different vista, but no one vista exhausts the realm of 'reality' - whatever that may be. Therefore, it is important to understand what each vista can and cannot yield. To expect returns through one way of knowing which can be achieved only through another is to invite frustration and disillusion. Yet obvious though this thesis may be, its implications are violated every day - ironically, by our universities as well as by the man on the street. Each purveyor of knowledge in academic claims that his brand of knowledge is more spectacular and more dependable. All human knowledge is partial, and as human beings none of us is so rich in understanding that he can afford to ignore any of the several gates to the kingdom of knowledge.'

- Andrew Halpin, 1969.

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1.1 Introduction

Secondary Education Commission (1954) stated :

'In a changing world, problems of education are also likely to change. The emphasis placed on one aspect today, may not be necessary at a future date.... In any case, educational reforms must be undertaken in such a way that it remains permanent over a definite period of time It is agreed that experiences in education are to be in continuance, but the general lines of reforms should be conducive to steady growth.'

Recently, one can observe that technological and scientific development is so rapid and vast that in every field rapid changes are being brought. Education is no exception. However, while bringing about the changes in the forms, structure and curriculum of education, aims of education remains more or less constant and consistent to bring about national development and growth. The secondary Education Commission (1954) pinpointed certain basic aims of education :

1. The educational system must make its contribution to the development of habits, attitudes and qualities of character which will enable its citizen to bear worthily the responsibilities of democratic citizenship.
2. It will help to develop the capacity for clear thinking and a receptivity of new ideas (open mind).
3. Closely allied to clarity of thought is clearness in speech, and in writing, which is a pre-requisite for successful living in democracy. It is based not on force but on free discussion, persuasion and perceptual exchange of ideas.

4. A democracy is based on faith in the dignity and worth of every single individual as human being. Therefore, the purpose of democratic education is the full all-round development of every individual's personality to release the sources of creative energy.
5. No education is worth the name, which does not inculcate the qualities necessary for living graciously, harmoniously and efficiently with one's fellowmen. Amongst the qualities which should be cultivated for this purpose are discipline, co-operation, social sensitiveness and tolerance.

If a democracy like ours is to survive, a democracy which harbours some many faiths, races and communities - education must cultivate in our youth an openness of mind and a largeness of heart which would make them capable of entertaining and blending into a harmonious pattern of differences in ideas and behaviour. In this regard another aim of secondary school must foster development of sense of true patriotism. The special function of secondary school in this context is to train persons who will be able to assume the responsibility of leadership in the social, political, industrial and cultural fields - in their own small groups of community and locality. Leadership in the wider sense of the word, calls for a higher standard of education, a deeper and clearer understanding of social issues and greater technical efficiency. All these must be provided by our secondary schools in increasing measures.

1.2 School as an Organization

From the above quoted aims of secondary schools it is obvious that the responsibilities of secondary schools are greater as compared to the ^{other} levels of education. As secondary schools are more or less leading the individual for developing personality character, leadership qualities and a sense of belongingness to one's own nature, the responsibility increases at this level. Question may arise who will shoulder the responsibility of secondary education ? Who are the people who will achieve these aims of education with the help of the school life and experiences ? Who will develop leadership qualities amongst the youth ? Who will help in developing the right attitude and openness of mind and largeness of heart ? Naturally it is easy to answer that the secondary school is responsible for developing this challenging task emphasised by various commissions on education. Then the next question comes - What is a school ? A school is an organization where, various groups come together to achieve the goals of education. The subsequent section describes the concept of school as an organization.

1.2.1 The Concept of a School as Organization

According to Barnard (1938) a good school should have a well knit structure which could give scope for co-ordinated efforts as of its teachers and other staff members. The organization should stimulate and facilitate communication. There

should be good relationship between the principal and the staff. The staff should have willingness to work for the achievement of the goal of the school. In a good school there is scope for informal organizations to develop on the basis of what Mathus (1968) calls interpersonal relationship of people involved in the formal organization. Such informal organizations of principal and teachers characterise only a few schools in the country where the ideal of social need-satisfaction and group maintenance are recognized.

A good school has all the physical inputs library, laboratory etc. Not only that, but planned efforts are made in a democratic manner to utilise them fully and effectively. But a good school in its real sense is characterised by its administrative process than merely by its physical inputs. Goldhammer and his associates (1971) labelled the outstanding good schools, 'beacons of brilliance,' those were extremely poor were called, 'potholes of pestilence'.

The potholes of pestilence invariably suffer from weak leadership. The buildings were dirty and in despair. Teacher and staff morale was low and fear was the basic control strategy. Such schools were characterised by unenthusiasm and ineffectiveness. The principals are just serving out their time.

In any institution decision making constitutes a vital process. Mc Gany (1947) describes all other attributes of the

administrative process being, dependent are interwoven with and existent for making decision. In a good school the teachers are involved in the vital decision-making process. But in some schools they may not have an opportunity to participate. There, decision making is centralized either in school management or in the principal. Institutional planning is done not only by the principal and a few senior staff but by the staff as a group giving scope even to the junior most persons to participate. The principal creates such an atmosphere that all seniors and juniors feel free to express what they feel about the issues under discussion. Thus, there is fruitful involvement of teachers in institutional planning, sessional work, planning and programming. In a good school there is a two way communication channel between the principal and the teacher. It is not that the principal directs all activities of the school but also he looks forward for the feedback from those whom he directs. He lets staff members know what is expected of them and he also gives a patient hearing to them if they have something to say.

1.2.2 The Principal and the School

A good school is characterized by the high standing of its leader on initiating structure and consideration (Halpin, 1966). The school principal is eager to do personal favours to individual staff members. As Halpin and Winner (1952) have put in their tool, Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire, 'He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff.'

According to culbertson (1963) effective leadership involves responsibility and authority and the main leadership acts are planning, initiating, managing, delegation, coordinating, decision making, communicating and evaluating. In solving any particular problem the principal might use one or several of these acts of leadership.

The functions of a lader that have been identified by Mackensie and Corey (1954) are summarised as : (1) co-operating in the identification of common goals; (2) motivating individual, making decisions, taking actions and evaluating the work of the group, (3) developing favourable and healthy climate for individual and group effort; (4) guiding individuals and group for immediate and long range activities; (5) becoming a friend, philosopher and guide from time to time; (6) co-ordinating the efforts of others, and (7) carrying out effectively any responsibilities for action that have been accepted and expected of him by the group.

1.2.3 The Teacher and the School

It is interesting to note the role of the teacher as reported in Kothari Commission (1954) :

'Of all different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality competence and character of teachers are undoubtedly the most significant.'

In a developing country like India the effort to improve school instruction is important at every level of our educational

system. Our educational planners have also begun to emphasise qualitative improvement of education. It may be assumed that four major determinants contribute to the stability and efficiency and functioning of an educational institution. The traditions and the quality of campus, the social importance of the educational programme, the institutional facilities and financial soundness and above all the staffing pattern of the school holds the key to its successful existence. The achievement of the organizational objectives of a school rest upon the talent, effort and contribution of the individual teacher. Good and efficient teaching will depend upon his freedom to follow a particular treatment of the subject matter and to act in accordance with some ideal relationship with his principal.

He would like to seek the truth for himself and for others as he perceives it, without fear or anxiety. This is possible only when the teacher is motivated by high ideals in his relationship with the principals. It is but natural that the teacher would prefer to remain deeply individualistic in his attitudes towards regulations on matters concerning education. He will exhibit a tendency to resist organized authority and dogmatism when it is concerned with curriculum development and teaching. In the interest of the school system, there is a pressing need to recognise the place of the freedom for the teachers. A good teacher will certainly abide by the rules as long as they are consistent with his values integrity and personal judgement.

1.2.4 The Principal, Teacher and School

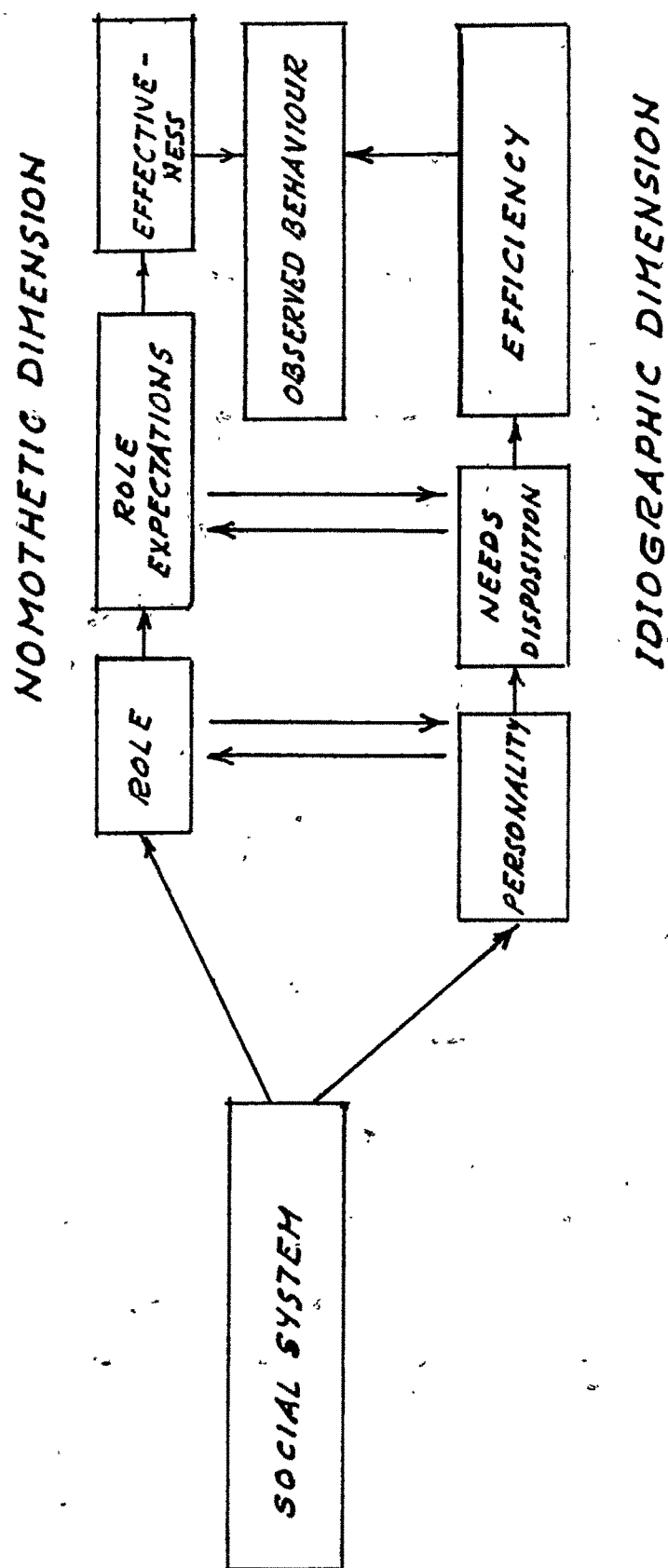
The schools are evergrowing institutions. It is a place full of human interactions. The interactions include the principal-teacher interactions and the teacher-pupil interactions. The interactions are carried on through communication behaviour. The teachers and the principals should be considered as communicators and they communicate through words and gestures. The major interactions are transacted through communications. These interactions generate the climate of the schools.

1.2.5 Getzel and Guba Model of School

There are many models of school. The Figure 1.1 describes Getzel and Guba (1957) Model of a school. The figure 1.1 also explains the theory of organizational climate and some of the effect it is assumed to make on the raising of school quality.

Society has created schools to fulfil some purposes or goals. The nomothetic dimension outlines the organization that would be needed to fulfil the purposes of the society. Each one in the school has been assigned with a role. The manner and quality of performance of the assigned role engenders organizational climate. It differs from school to school because, role expectations and the manner are the

FIG. 1-1 GETZEL AND GUBA: MODEL OF SCHOOL;
NOMOTHEIC OR SOCIOLOGICAL DIMENSION OF SCHOOL
AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM



quality of the performance of these role conflict and is an admixture of diverse notes. This gives rise to different types of organizational climates.

In the model given by Getzel and Guba there is also an idiographic or psychological dimension. This psychological dimension relates itself to the factors like the satisfaction of the particular personality needs of the individuals occupying the roles of a teacher or principal. A principal may have strong need for dominance. If this need can be satisfied one type of climate is generated. If he has different personality needs and if they are satisfied, a different type of organizational climate is produced. Thus, organizational climate is a concept which embraces this milieu of personalities, that is principal and teachers who interact within the sociological and psychological frame work of schools. According to Getzel and Guba, the administration may be conceived structurally as the hierarchy of subordinate - superordinate relationships within a social system. Functionally, this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the social system. It is in these relationships that the assignment of positions, the provision of facilities, the organization of procedures, the regulation of activity and the evaluation of performance take place. While the functions named above are the responsibility, of the superordinate

members of the hierarchy, each function becomes effective only when it 'takes' with it the subordinate members. This interpersonal or social relationship is the crucial factor in administration as a social process.

1.2.6 Interactions Between Principal and Teachers in School

The Figure 1.2 explains the interactions between principal and teachers in a school in identifying goals of education. In every school the leader has certain values. According to his values he establishes the ideals about his roles and manifests his behavioural patterns and styles. Likewise the teachers has also certain values. The values of one teacher may differ from the values of the other. According to his values the teacher also establishes his ideals about his role and manifests his behaviour. There may be difference or gap between the perception of the leader and the teacher or between the teacher and the teacher. Thus in a school situation the leader and the teachers, according to their values tries to establish the ideals and achieve the goals of education.

The group of teachers can also establish an ideal about their role and their leaders' role accordingly and manifests their role in their behaviour and style.

The conflicts between values and role perception creates discrepancies in goals and ideals identified and established

by the teachers and principals, as a result of the perceptual gap.

What is needed in such a situation is the clarification of the expectations, ideals, goals and values of the principals and teachers in a round table conference. This may provide an opportunity for both the groups to express their expectations, perceptions and to share and discuss those ideals and goals on an equal plateau. This may further help in identifying as well as in establishing attainable common goals by reduction of the perceptual gap.

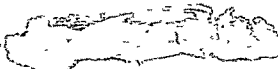
As the principal and staff work together, whether effectively or ineffectively, both professional and personal relationships interplay. Their professional relationships may be thought of in terms of the roles assumed and the patterns of working that develop in the face to face contacts required in carrying out the task of the school.

To work effectively whether one is a principal or teacher, one must understand one's self and others.

Understanding Ourselves : As it has rightly been pointed out that most people are not even conscious of having a picture of themselves and of the possibility of that there may be discrepancy between what they are and what they think they are. Some principals and teachers must be listed among those who are oblivious of having a self image and whose behaviour reflects such a discrepancy. It is better to understand one's

ownself, the more likely one to be able to influence the course of one's own development.

Understanding Others through Understanding Ourselves : One
way of gaining insight to understand others is through developing self-insight. It was found in recent studies that nine out of ten people indicated that the idea that understanding others is tied to self-understanding was a 'promising' and not an unpleasant or distasteful concept. As one asks the why of his own behaviour to gain more insight into one's self, one develops greater understanding of others. This does not mean that one must admire and emulate what one understand in others. One's own values must play a part in accepting what one observes in others.

Another important fact is through thoughtful analysis one can gain insight into one's own limitations and  strengths and thereby one can work on ways of eliminating weaknesses and further strengthen strong points. Learning to understand one's own needs, wants, units and strengths leads to recognition of the similar in others and in turn can help one in assisting others. It is believed that as an individual enhances others through helping them he enhances himself and grows. It is to the advantage of the principal and staff members to work together, for through their united efforts they will help one another grew and markedly help themselves in their individual growth.

The investigator thinks immediately a picture of one principal and there are many like him, who constantly encourages staff members in their efforts to improve quality of education through the development of their creative ideal. When an experiment or study succeeds he urges the teacher who originated it to prepare an article for publication, gladly makes suggestions for its improvement before submission to an editor, and then assists in having it published so that rest of the profession can profit from the work. He is pleasantly surprised on a number of occasions to have visitors who come to learn and chat with authors of articles. He is happy to talk to them about his fine school and the programme. He and his staff have developed. He, nevertheless, always emphasizes that much of his own growth is a direct result of his, trying to help his staff members, as all work together to improve their school programme.

Self-understanding and Group Conflict : As faculty becomes skilled in working together more and more group work, naturally results. Sometimes conflict that characterizes all group to a certain extent at certain threatens to break down the group effect, This conflict according to Mackenzie and Corey (1954) usually grows out of various threats, sometimes real but very often imagined to an individual's security. This conflict is likely to be kept to an absolute minimum, as one work together, one understands one's ownself and appreciates the meaning of

these threats and also remembers that through helping others, one readily enhances one's ownself.

Many people fear self analysis because they are afraid of what they may find. Actually, the better a person understands himself, the better equipped he is likely to be to deal with others and life in general. The subsequent section describes the concept of role-perception related to the self-analysis and self-discovery, to build the understanding of others which may help in turn in generating open climate and democratic outlook in both, principal and teachers.

1.3 Role Perception

In any organization, roles are being perceived by the members of various group, vertically or horizontally. The word vertically denotes hierarchical relationships and their role perceptions, while horizontal means, perception of the members of the same group. The actual role manifestation is the result of the perceived role by the members concern. Each member has a definite role to perform. That role has been manifested by him. He manifests his role through his own perception. Other members have expectations, regarding the same role. Thus, expectations of one's ownself and the expectations of others differ to a great extent. This may lead to role ambiguity, role conflict and overloading of the roles, creating stress and strain on the members of the group. The knowledge of a person's role perception and others

expectations can be beneficial in predicting role conflict.

1.3.1 Concept of Role

Role is a behavioural equivalent of 'position' (status) and includes both behaviour itself and the attitudes and values inherent in the behaviour. A role behaviour is an actual performance of an incumbent of a position which can be referred to as an expectation for an incumbent of that position.

Many researches and authors in social science and literature have defined role. In this sub-section the definitions and discussions regarding the concept of role is presented.

According to Linton (1945), 'A role represents the dynamic aspect of status. When an individual puts the rights and duties which constitute the status into effect he is performing a role.' He again says that it consists of attitudes, values and behaviour ascribed by the society to any and all persons occupying this status.'

In his conceptual scheme Newcomb (1951) says that 'the ways of behaving which are expected of any individual who occupies a certain position constitute the role, associated with that position'.

Znaniecki (1940) says that 'there is obviously a fundamental and universal though unreflective, culture pattern in accordance

with which all kinds of lasting relationships between individuals and their social milieus are normatively organized and which we denote by the term social role.

Bennett and Tumin (1948) define a role as 'what the society expects of an individual occupying a given status. This implies that any status is functionally defined by the role attached to it.'

Davis' (1953) definition is as follows :

'How an individual actually performs in a given position, as distinct from how he is supposed to perform, we call his role. The role, then is the manner in which a person actually carries out the requirements of his position. It is the dynamic aspect of status or office and as such is always influenced by factors other than the stipulations of the position itself.'

Sargent (1951) says, 'a person's role is a pattern or type of social behaviour which seems situationally appropriate to him in terms of the demands and expectations of those in his group'. He goes on to point out that in this sense, roles 'have ingredients of cultural, of personal and of situational determination. But never is a role wholly cultural wholly personal or wholly situational'.

Slatter (1955) has a conception of role :

One might define role as a more or less coherent and unified system of items of interpersonal behaviour. With even this minimal definition it becomes apparent that role performance in the small group situation will have both consequences which

are important to the functioning of the group in which the role is performed and personal consequences of importance to the individual who performs.

In this formulation, operational definitions of role are either in terms of the interaction profiles of group participants or in terms of post session ratings by participants of each other. Under the latter procedure some of the roles investigated are 'best linked', 'guidance', 'best ideas' and 'leader'. These ratings are not based on differentiated expectations but rather on molar categorizations of actors dependent on perceptions of their performances. They are not based on expectations for incumbents of differentiated positions but rather on standards which each actor applies to all members of the group.

Furthermore, they are not studied directly and as Bales and Slater (1955) say, 'the degree to which differentiated roles in the fully structural sense appear in these small decision making groups is perhaps a moot point.'

Parson (1956) defines 'a role is what the actor does in his relations with others seen in the context of its functional significance for the social system.'

The starting point for Parsons and Davis (1956) is the interaction situation. Interaction implies behaviour and requires a concept to represent how individuals do behave in addition to how they should behave as incumbents of positions, which Davis and Parsons both have. Davis defined a role as the

actual behaviour of an incumbent of a position while Parsons uses the term 'performances'. Newcomb (1951) distinguishes between role behaviour or the actual behaviour of position incumbents and role, the ways of behaving expected of position incumbents.

Sargent's (1951) frame of reference is restricted to that of an individual's perception of a single interaction situation.

Although there is some fundamental differences, their ideas are the same. Three basic ideas which appear in most of the conceptualizations considered if not in the definitions of role themselves are that individuals :

(1) In social locations (2) behave (3) with reference to expectations. Almost all the authors have used the role concept to embrace a normative element of social behaviour. For example Newcomb (1951) defines a role as 'the ways of behaving which are expected of any individual who occupies a certain position... '

Sargent (1951) speaks of ... ' the demands and expectations of those in a group.' Human conduct is in part a function of expectations. Expectations are assigned to individuals on the basis of their location or positions in social systems. The concept of role becomes clearer when one recognizes his role in a particular position. How a person behaves is determined

by the role defined in that context in which he is acting.

Thus, the expected behaviour for a particular position can be defined as one's role. However, each one fills numerous roles, 'husband-wife, father-mother, principal-teacher etc. Here, the investigators primary concern is with roles as they affect one's behaviour on the job.

There are certain characteristics of these roles that should be emphasized. First, they are impersonal, it is the position that determines the expectations, not the individual. Second, they are related to task behaviour. An organizational role is that set of expected behaviours for a particular position vis-a-vis a particular job. It is a formal or informal behavioural job description. Third, roles can be fairly difficult to pin down exactly. The problem is to define who determined what is expected. Is it the role occupant's (principal) perceptions of what others expect ? or should one ask group members (teachers) what they expect of someone in a particular job and use some sort of average set of expectations to define the role ? What one actually does (reality) - that is how one behaves - could also be used. What one perceives as one's role, what others perceive as one's role and what one really do, may be very different and therefore, defining what is the 'real' role is often difficult to do. Fourth roles are learned quickly and can result in major changes in behaviour. Much of what one does is determined by one's role.

1.3.2 Roles and Group Processes

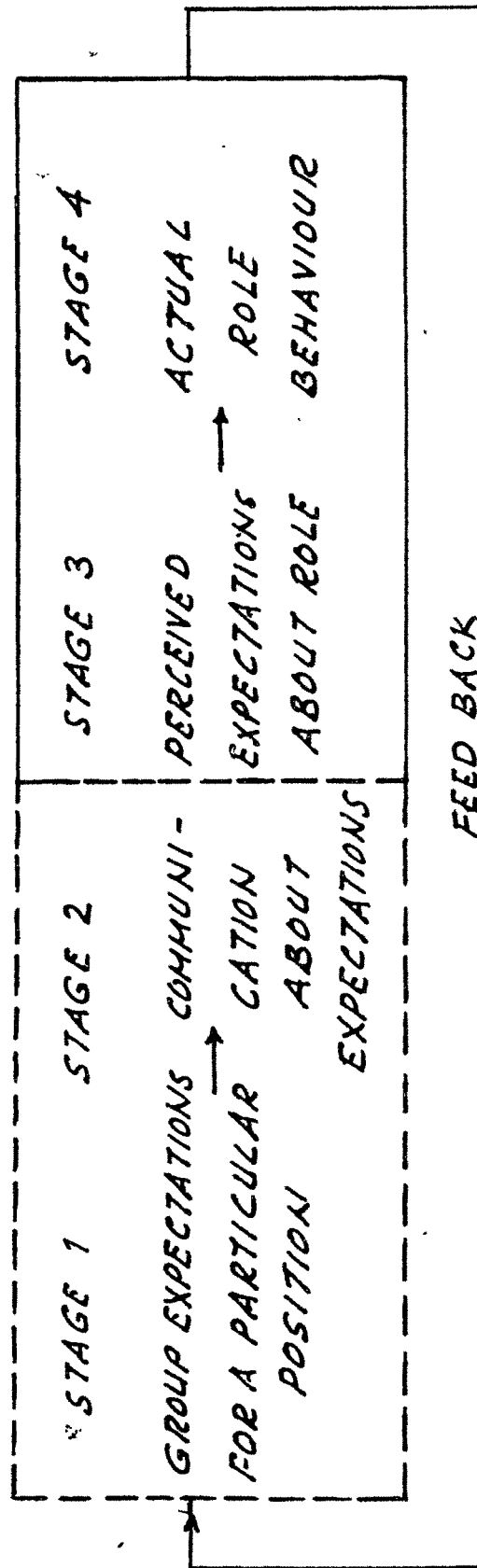
The sociological and small group research concerns itself with the ways in which the roles are learned, changed and affect group behaviour and performance. Three of major issues are described below :

(i) First, one would like to know how people learn their roles. The most frequently used concept to aid one in this area is called the 'Role Episode'. Figure No. 1.3 presents the components of episode.

The group members have some expectations which are communicated. The role occupant perceives and interprets these expectations and then behaves according to what he or she believes is appropriate. All these stages represent an ongoing cyclical process. If the actual behaviour (Stage 4) differs widely from the group's expectations (Stage 1), then the feedback will point out this discrepancy. This process should result in changes in the communications or sent expectations and it is hoped, result in more appropriate behaviour.

One can see some other interesting aspects of the model. Stages 1 and 3 are essentially cognitive or perceptual evaluations. They have to deal with what people think should be done. (Ideal). On the other hand stage 2 and 4 are observable behaviour - what is communicated and what is actually done (real). Data can be gathered about all these four stages and the comparisons between, and among the stages may lead to some important

FIG.1-3 - ROLE EPISODE



insights about the job stress group morale, organizational climate and leadership roles.

Another major concept that has evolved from an analysis of how one learns one's role is called the 'role set'. In the process of trying to determine who the people were in Stage 1 of the role episode (the group members who determine the role expectations), researchers have to come up with a term that described the relationship between the role of interest and other organizational members. In most cases these people who interact frequently and discuss important matters with the focal person are defined as that person's role set. These are the persons that communicate what is expected in that particular role. If role sets are small, one may have clearer expectations, but more small cliques and isolated groups. Large role sets may lead to greater ambiguity and confusion.

The third way that role theory has been used to look at group interaction is to analyse the degree to which distinctly different types of roles are performed by people within the same group. This process is known as 'role differentiation.'

One person might be primarily concerned with providing emotional or interpersonal support. Such a person would be concerned with the maintenance of good group relations. Another person might take a mere procedural role and be concerned with the schedules, the agenda and deadlines. A third might simply be concerned with the substantive information necessary to solve

the task or problem. This role would consist of initiating ideas, giving information or clarifying problems.

The point that to be noted from the above discussion is :

- (i) That an understanding of roles tells one, much more than just how people learn what they are supposed to do in their particular positions.
- (ii) It also helps one to describe the ongoing process of interaction and communication - who people talk to and about what. And,
- (iii) Finally it helps one to see how one role is differentiated from other roles in the same group and how all these roles, may fit to-gether like a complex puzzle to produce a smooth running collective group. An analysis of how roles are learned has helped to understand many of the problems that exist in organizations, namely, role conflict, role ~~ambiguity~~ ambiguity and role overload.

In the subsequent section, the discussion with reference to the concept of perception, the factors affecting the perception of the individual in the organization and the perceptual processes have been presented for clarifying the concept of role perception.

1.3.3 Concept of Perception

Perception happens to be not only a term used in psychology but also a word with several meanings in common speech. It will be useful to take a look at what J.P. Chaplin says in his, 'Dictionary of Psychology,' about the word 'perception'.

- (i) 'Perception is any act or process of knowing objects, facts, or truths, whether by sense experience or by thought; awareness of objects; consciousness';

- (ii) 'Reference of sensation to an external object';
- (iii) 'An immediate or intuitive cognition or judgement; an insight analogous to sense perception in respect of immediacy and the feeling of certainty accompanying it and often implying nice observation or subtle discrimination.

Eysenck, H.J. in 'Encyclopaedia of Psychology' define perception as 'A Psychological function (by means of the sense organ) which enables the organism to receive and process information on the state of, and alterations in the environment.'

James' (1892) definition of perception describes as 'consciousness of particular material things present to sense.' He went further saying that 'sensational and reproduction brain-processes combined, then are what give us the content of our perceptions.'

Seashore (1924) in his 'Introduction to Psychology' stated that 'sensation and perception together constitute sensory experience'. Sensations are those elemental conscious processes that are ordinarily conditioned upon the functioning of sense organs. This implies that perceptions are something else either that they are not elemental or else not dependent upon the functioning of sense organs.

Later on Boring, Langfeld and Weld (1948) have said that that 'perception is the first event in the chain which leads from the stimulus to action.' Also that 'perception is the experience of objects and events which are here now.' Likewise

'perception is always a response to some change or difference in the environment.'

Johnson (1948) states that,

'The raw material delivered to the brain by the sense organs via sensory nerves is used and interpreted by the individual in accordance with his past experience and in furtherance of whatever activities he may be engaged in at the moment. The psychology of perception is an elaboration of this statement, which makes these generalities specific.'

Stagner and Karwoski (1952) have said that 'perception is the process of obtaining knowledge of external objects and events by means of the senses.' They say, 'William James put it well, when he wrote perception is of definite and probable things.' In other words man takes his sensations and reaches conclusions about real objects.

From above all variety of meanings it would be useful to summarize the salient features : (1) that perception may be dealt with the general description, without necessarily introducing a formal definition for the reader. It is as though it were taken for granted that most people know pretty much, in general what perception is, and that any further discussion of it can be carried out simply by adding new illustrative material or new anecdotal items. (2) That when definitions are offered, they need only be fragmentary, general and need not place perception in relation to the other processes that go to make up the individual's overall behaviour. (3) That sensation may still be looked

upon as an elementary process underlying perception.

1.3.4 The Purpose of Perception

The perception process provides the mechanism through which stimuli are selected and grouped in a meaningful fashion. As a result, one can understand the total picture of the environment these stimuli represent.

One reason perception is central in interpreting the world around is that each one perceive, yet may perceive differently, what is an identical situation. Perception is an almost automatic process and works in much the same way within each individual, yet typically yields different perceptions.

Perception is the mechanism through which meaning is derived from environmental stimuli. Perception is extremely important to the understanding of organizational behaviour.

An individual does not react, or behave, in a certain way because of what the situation around him actually is but because of what he sees or believes it to be one's perception of a situation becomes the basis on which he behaves.

1.3.5 Components of Perception

Selectivity and perceptual organization are the two major components of perceptions.

Selectivity : For perception to occur, the stimulus must first be identified or recognized. This implies that some selection rule is used to differentiate between information

that is to be perceived and information that is to be ignored. The information must then be organized in some meaningful way, that is, interpreted in the light of the situation and past experience. As a direct result of this process of perception formation, the individual is able to incorporate relevant information from his external environment into his behaviour.

Each one has a 'threshold' of perception. Stimuli below the threshold level in intensity or volume are ignored. When intensity or volume exceeds the threshold level, the stimuli begin to be sensed and one becomes aware of them, paying attention and reacting to them.

Adaptation plays an important part in perceptual selectivity. A person becomes accustomed to stimuli (Noise for example) adapting his threshold of selectivity, so that familiar stimuli does not arouse attention.

Perceptual Organization : When stimuli impinge on one's concern he attempts to make sense out of them, to organize them in such a way that he can derive meaning from their overall pattern. Information is gathered and organized in the perceptual process. This is known as perceptual organization.

1.3.6 Organizational Example of Perceptual Process

Within the formal organization the factor of proximity can be seen rather easily. Generally the teachers who are in close physical contact with each other may be grouped. If

grievances emanate from the group, coupled with low results in the examination, the leadership may perceive that the entire group is dissatisfied and exhibits this attitude in low result.

Naturally, this perception may be erroneous; other factors may be causing for low result, with only a few of the group initiating grievances. In any event, the group may be perceived because of proximity as a single event.

1.3.7 Stereotypes and Halos

Closely related to these factors in the perceptual process are the phenomena of stereotyping and the halo effect. A person is classified by another as belonging to a group or category because of certain characteristics. Often the attributes of the overall category is agreed upon and these characteristics or traits are then attributed to the person assigned to that category.

1.3.8 Equity Theory

Litterer (1973) summarises five ways in which the individual can reduce perceived inequity :

1. Changing either the inducements or the contributions.
2. Perceptually distorting inducements or contributions.
3. Leaving the field.
4. Getting comparison person to change
5. Changing the basis of reference.

Perception then is an integral component of behaviour because equity must be 'seen' and subjectively evaluated. Equity theory can furnish clues to the leader as the attempts to isolate factors that contribute to the vagaries inconsistencies in organizational behaviour

1.3.9 Cognitive Dissonance

Festinger (1957) developed the 'Theory of Cognitive Dissonance'. Basic to the perceptual process, is the grouping and interpretation of information so that one may gather meaning from the patterns observed and then base his behaviours on those patterns. This also hints at another characteristics of the process that of expectations or predictions that one can reasonably make based on the perceptual process.

When information fits comfortably with the perceptual patterns and expectations, it is in a state of consonance when contradictory evidence is encountered, or when the expectations about what things go together and what do not are encountered, a state of dissonance occurs. This is a psychological state of discomfort.

Hence a person's perceptions of his decision and his behaviour create conditions under which dissonance is most often aroused. When dissonance is aroused, it can become a motivating force, because the individual must strive toward consonance in some way. He can do this only by changing either his perceptions of the world or his actions.

1.3.10 Administrative Behaviour and Perception

The place of perception in attitude formation and behaviour is significant. All individuals must perceive, whether in organized settings or not. Perceiving events and people as they really are, is even more critical because behaviours occur as the result of perception. The organization as a goal directed social entity, owes its existence to the effectiveness with which its functions are differentiated and the extent to which co-operation occurs in the integration of the functions into systematic and co-ordinated activities and outputs.

Perception is a process that is constantly between individual and reality. Perception orders reality, so that it fits in one's developing notions of the way that things are. The end result of perceiving then becomes an important input to the behaviour of the individual.

From the above discussion, it is almost obvious that everyone spends part of each day interacting with other people in general. This interaction progresses rather smoothly. Most of the relationships developed through these interactions are harmonious and pleasant. However to maintain these relationships one requires a knowledge of social behaviour which is seldom verbalised. That is individual is constantly making judgements about other people's needs, emotions and thoughts and the individual does this rather automatically. Here the

crucial point is that this judgements are very important for individual and organizational effectiveness.

In examining the process of how one perceives and evaluates others, there seems to be two stages of development. First stage is one of the first impressions. At this point the perceiver tends to make inferences and evaluations based on rather simple information about the other person. These evaluations also seemed to be biased by the perceiver's own habit and beliefs and some situational characteristics. Secondly when the inter-personal exchange is longer in duration, the process becomes small complex. The perceiver has the opportunity to observe the other person's behaviour over a series of occasions and situations. At this point, the perceiver is likely to form a more complex description at evaluation, on what are believed to be the enduring personality traits.

Thus the perceptual process in general, results in a number of systematic errors of judgement in interpersonal interacting. People use stereotypes, generalize their impressions (Halo) project their feelings on to others and selectively screen out what they do not want to see or hear. School being similar organization consisting of continuous interactions between teachers, principals, pupils, and office staff creates complexity in perception of each others role. Hence role perception in school situation also is crucial and complex. Subsequent section deals with the concept of organizational climate, wherein perceptions of teachers and principals are studied.

1.4 Organizational Climate

'Organizations' of the school setting can be examined as the efficient manner of arranging teachers and students toward defined educational goals. In this sense, the word organization takes on the meaning of 'house management' in the educational enterprise. There appears to be a new outlook at organization in education during 1960s that is attempting to research the multitude of variables in educational settings and their interdependence in the total system. It is this theory and research in organizational school climate that attracts the attention of the present study.

Fugh (1966) suggested that the major thrust of looking at organizational components will be toward (i) organizational structure and functioning, (ii) group composition and interaction and (iii) individual personality and behaviour. The school organizational climate demands a special handling of the interaction of factors affecting behaviour in organizations. The evaluation of school climate can be reduced to a system's analysis of individuals, roles and subgroups within the entire construct of a school's way of carrying on the task of socialization. Many research findings point to the importance of interpersonal relationships in affecting an individual's development and behaviour. These influences are hard to identify. It is almost as if they were part of the atmosphere. To take such influences into account a new construct was needed - that in any group or organization there exists a system of

subtle interpersonal affective relationships. Some word was needed to identify the new construct, and that word is 'climate'. Climate as used in an organizational context consists of the total affective systems of a human group or organization, including feelings and attitudes toward the system, subsystem, superordinate systems, or other systems of persons, tasks, procedures, conceptualizations or things. Climate, thus refers to the relationships in any situation as these are effectively experienced by the people in the situation.

The term 'organizational climate of schools' is differently denoted by researchers. Some have called it 'the feel' of the school; and some have referred to it as 'school personality'. It is also called as 'atmosphere', 'environment', 'tone' and even 'morale'. To distinguish school climate from the climate of other types of organizations such as business, industry, public administration, political parties etc. some have preferred to term it as 'institutional climate.'

1.4.1 Concept of Organizational Climate

Organizational climate is a term that was probably first used by Cornell in 1955. He used the term to denote a 'delicate blending of interpretations or perceptions by persons in the organization, of their jobs or roles in relationship to others and their interpretation of the roles of others in the organization.' He interpreted organization in the sense of a

formal structure within which a group or a cluster of groups with some high up and a large many low down in the hierarchy, operate in meaningful relationship. The goals, policy input-output ratio, the laid down procedures of operation, the rules of conduct and discipline etc. create an environment in which the persons in the groups interact.

Different writers have attempted to define the term organizational climate in different ways. Baruward (1938) had observed the following about the concept of organization:

'Organization, simple or complex, is always an impersonal system of co-ordinated efforts, always, there is a purpose as the co-ordinating and unifying principle, always there is the indispensable ability to communicate, always the necessity for the personal willingness, and for effectiveness and efficiency in maintaining the integrity of purposes and continuity of contribution.'

Argyris (1957) used the term 'personality' for organizational climate. Halpin (1963) used the term to refer to a general flow of behaviour and feeling within a group. Tagiuri (1968) gave the following definition for organizational climate.

'Organizational climate is a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that (a) as experienced by its members, that (b) influences their behaviour and that, (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set or characteristics (or attributes) of the organization.'

For Forehand (1968) the term 'organizational climate' meant the interaction between environmental and personal variables of the members of a group or groups who operate in an organization. Evan (1968) interpreted it in terms of

environmental variables.

Sinclair (1970) also used the term as synonymous to 'educational environment' which according to him referred to conditions, forces and external stimuli that foster the development of characteristics of different individuals that operate in an organization.

According to Taylor and Browsers (1972) organizational climate is understood and measured on the basis of three essential premises :

'First, groups rather than isolated individual form the basic building blocks of organization, second, these groups are interlinked by their functional and hierarchical ties. Third, the functioning patterns prevailing outside a given group, primarily those above it, affect correspondingly functional patterns within that focal group.'

The organizational climate is the resultant accumulated effect of the ways in which the principal interacts with teachers and the teachers interact among themselves and with the principal. The pattern of functioning of the school principal, who is above all teachers operating in the school in the hierarchy, affects the functional and behavioural patterns of teachers. The impact is transmitted through perceptions and informations shared by teachers. The leadership behaviour patterns and leadership styles also affect the climate of the school.

George Stern (1970) has developed the Need-Press Model to conceptualize organizational climate. He refers to needs as 'organizational tendencies which appear to give unity and direction to a person's behaviour.' The concept of environmental press, according to Stern, provides an external situational counterpart to internalize needs. The concept of press includes conditions that represent impediments to need as well as of those that give rise to organizational climate.

The term organizational climate is to be interpreted in terms of interaction among the persons in the organization. Sullivan (1947) has emphasized the fact that the term 'organizational climate' refers to the cathetic patterns giving identity to sub groups and interpersonal relations in a living organization. Lonsdale (1964) has defined it as the global assessment of the interaction between the task achievement and the needs satisfaction, or in other words of the extent of task needs achievement. Andrew (1965) has interpreted it to mean 'merely as a somewhat blurred ^{esprit} score.' Sharma (1971) has defined it in terms of interaction that takes place between organizational members as they fulfill their prescribed roles while satisfying their individual needs.

Motilal Sharma (1973) observes :

'The distinct climate, atmosphere or personality perceived by persons in a particular building is a result of the manner in which actors at each hierarchical level of the organization interact with each other and with incumbents of their other hierarchical levels. The feeling which results from the interaction of role participants at the various hierarchical levels of the organization housed in a particular building is often referred to now as the 'organizational climate.'

Sargent (1967) observes :

'Organizational climate is a concept which embraces the milieu of personalities, principal and teachers interacting within the sociological and psychological framework of an institution such as the public high school.

To summarise, organizational climate of schools is the product of the relationship between principal and his staff and among his teachers. The interaction takes place within the sociological and psychological framework of the school.

There are a number of human elements as well as physical environmental elements in a school. The formal or informal characteristics of an organization, status of the participant workers, the role expectancy of the co-workers as well as the system itself, all configurate to build up organizational climate. In such a school organization the teachers interact with each other and with the leaders, in the performance of the role assigned to them. The school functions within the context of the governmental system and of the social system. This is reflected in the person to person interaction. Thus in a school organization a principal and teachers perform their role expectations in such a way that would best fulfil the aims of the school system. The performance of role expectations cannot escape the influences of certain personality factors. '

1.4.2 The Importance of School Climate

The importance of the climate in a school can hardly be overstated, for the school's climate as it is experienced by each child has a powerful impact upon the formulation of a child's concept of self, his ability to work effectively and his capacity to develop mutually satisfying relationships with others.

The climate is important to adults also. An adult's self-concept, work habits and inter-personal relationships have developed over a considerable number of years and hence is not readily affected by surrounding conditions.

An individual's self and self-concept develops as a result of inter-personal relationships through time. An individual's self-concept consists of feelings and conceptions about self derived from relating the self to other persons. Each individual self is unique, and each self acts as a selecting, organizing and interpreting force, governing the individual's perceptions. An individual places a positive value on those experiences which enhance his self concept. Some experiences are perceived, accepted and organized ~~wi~~ into the self structure. Other aspects of the environment cannot be perceived with any reasonable degree of accuracy by the individual because they are inconsistent with his concept of self.

Because the self governs an individual's perceptions and hence affects his inter-personal relationships, an individual's self and his inter-personal relationships are inseparable. A person does not have a self plus inter-personal relationships with other people; instead a person's self and his inter-personal relationships are each implicit on the other.

To study the relationship of the principals' behaviour and the teachers' behaviour in the school situation, Halpin and Croft (1963) have developed an instrument which postulates the organizational climate of the schools. 'Climates' identified by their 'Organizational climate Descriptive

Questionnaire ' (OCDQ) range from 'open' on the positive or productive end of the scale, to 'closed' on the negative or non-productive end. The instrument examines the nature of interactions between principals, and teachers. Detailed theoretical discussion regarding the tool and the conceptual postulates have been discussed in the subsequent sections.

1.4.3 Dimensions of School Climate

Measurement of school climate is the practical interest of researchers in education. Here a useful lead is given by Halpin. After observing what goes on in schools in different situations he remarks that he got an empirical idea of sets of group and leader behaviours that go on every day in different schools. This helped him and his colleague, Don Croft to involve themselves in the preparing of items. By subjecting the items to factor analysis, eight dimensions were identified. The descriptions of these eight dimensions according to Halpin and Croft (1963) are as follows :

(A) Dimensions of Teacher Behaviour :

(1) Disengagement : This is a negative behaviour on the part of school teachers. It refers to the teacher's tendency to be 'not with it'. This characterizes a faculty which is merely 'going through the motions'. It is a group which is 'not in gear'. It indicates that the teachers are not working together. They pull in different directions with

respect to their task. Practically, no trace of integrity or cohesion is to be found in the staff. It is true the school work goes on. Teachers go to their classes, impart instruction, examine student assignments and even do all office routine. But one gets a feeling that their heart is not any one of the things they do.

(2) Hindrance : It refers to the teacher's feeling that the principal burdens him with routine duties, committee demands and other requirements which interfere with his primary responsibility to teach. It denotes a feeling entertained by teachers that they are blocked in their day-to-day work. Mostly the 'blocking' originates from leader or leaders (i.e. principal, supervisor, school management) who are by temperament dominating and dictatorial. They are enthusiastic about loading teachers with excessive quantum of routine duties. Teachers are left with little time to relax or have recreation during free periods. Teachers perceive the principals as hindering rather facilitating their work.

(3) Esprit : Whereas the earlier two behaviours of teachers were of negative orientation, the dimension of 'esprit' is positive as well as constructive. It refers to morale of the teachers. The teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied and they are at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their teaching. Above all, esprit denotes positive emotional adjustment, self concept and a positive

attitude on the part of teachers towards their work in the school. They work as a team, and take the strengths and weaknesses of their colleagues in a normal way, without making any puff and show about them. They enjoy their stay in the school and are happy with their work.

(4) Intimacy : It is also another positive behaviour on the part of the group members of the school, namely the teachers. It refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social need satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task accomplishment. Teachers feel at ease in the company of others and the school becomes a family group. Hence this term could be used when school staff manifest cohesion, closeness and family ties of belongingness.

(B) Leadership Behaviour :

(5) Aloofness : It is the fifth dimension of organizational ~~climate of~~ schools as conceptualized by Halpin and Croft. It denotes to negative behaviour. It refers to behaviour by the principal which is formal and impersonal. He 'goes by the book' and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face to face situation. His behaviour in brief is unrealistic rather than particularistic, monothetic rather than ideosyncratic. To maintain this style he keeps himself 'emotionally' at a distance from his staff. He

hold

talks less, as if words cost money. He neither lends his ears to other nor opens out his mind. He prefers to be reserved and isolated. He feels it is below his status to mix and be one with his colleagues and subordinates. He is conscious of his rank and status, and isolates himself, perhaps only to show off his unique position. His voice, mannerisms, behaviour - all tend to manifest his inner feeling of superiority.

(6) Production Emphasis : This is also a leader's behaviour and its focal points, too, are negative. It refers to the behaviour by the principal when it is characterised by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive, his communication tend to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to the feed back ~~g~~ from the staff. He emphasis on production in an excessive measure. He seems to be both task oriented and result oriented. He expects the teachers to spend all possible time in school and work hard so that the school's output becomes outstanding. He carries a belief that a human mind works best under tension and pressure. He recognises no friends. He bothers the least with convenience and comforts of his colleagues. He is the least concerned with their psychological and social needs and satisfaction. He recognises merits in those who toil and moil for the whole day and have maximum output. He would be happy if teachers did extra coaching in the school in the school final classes so that the schools results are high. He would commend hardworking teachers and may try to reward them in

one way or the other. He would distribute his patronage to such hardworking, obedient teachers.

(7) Thrust : It refers to behaviour marked by close supervision of the teacher, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through example which he personally sets himself. He does not ask to give of themselves anything more than he willingly gives of himself. His behaviour though task oriented, is nonetheless looked upon favourably by the teachers. His treatment of his colleagues is such that they grudge the least, satisfies their psychological needs of 'recognition', love 'adventure' and 'security'. He motivates them. He takes care to see that he is looked upon as one of them by the teachers. He directs them by providing them with necessary suggestions. He infuses in them a spirit of comradeship. He has not to resort to close supervision of his teachers' work. In fact need for such close supervision does not arise at all. Everybody works, because such an impulse to work comes from within. They realise their responsibility. The principal is the first to come to school and last to go home. Teachers feel free to talk to him and try out new ideas and experiment. The environment has neither press nor thrust. Ethos is created automatically.

(8) Consideration : It refers to that behaviour by the principal which is characterised by an inclination to treat the teachers 'humanly' and to try to do a little something extra

for them in human terms. It is a positive behaviour of a school principal. A school principal who is considerate is anxious to do something more for his staff members on humanitarian grounds such as a sympathetic attitude, friendliness, benevolence, compassion etc., A leader who is considerate is easily accessible to his colleagues without any fuss or formality. He is patient, understanding, sympathetic, helpful and accomodating in his relationship with his colleagues, irrespective of rank or status. He takes interest in their personal life. He listens to their woes and worries, tries to understand their perceptions and problems and does all that is possible to help them to tide over their difficult times. He stands by them in their hour of crisis. He comforts them, gives solace to them, has words of encouragement for them in their trying hours. His treatment to his teachers is friendly, cheerful and he takes a positive view of what they do and are not able to do. He comes forward to become their friend, philosopher and guide. He hardly scoldes a defaulter. He first tries to understand his difficulties and problems. And if he finds that the default was caused by circumstances beyond the control of such a teacher, he gives him his assured help and assistance so that the work left unaccomplished could be done. He scrupulously remains away from hurting the self respect and individuality of his colleagues. Giving him a memo is the last thing he would think of doing. On the contrary he would be by his side as a comrade and helper,

1.4.4 The Climate Continuum

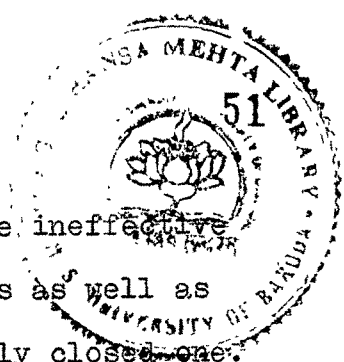
Halpin and Croft (1963) have identified in the research, six categories of climate with 'openness' at one end of the continuum and 'the closedness' at the other end.

They did a pioneering work in the study of organizational climate by using sophisticated statistical devices. They identified six climates - open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal and closed in a continuum and determined the characteristic behaviour of principals and teachers under eight components or sub-tests which are explained in the previous section. The six climates are described below :

In the open climate teachers enjoy extremely high spirit, they work well together without hickering and griping. The principal's policies facilitate the teachers accomplishment of their tasks. On the whole the group members enjoy friendly relations. The behaviour of the principal represents appropriate integration between his own personality and the role he is required to play as principal. In this respect his behaviour can be viewed as genuine. Not only does he set an example by working hard himself, but depending upon the situation he can either criticize the actions of teachers or go out of his way to help teachers. He is not aloof. He does not have to emphasise production because teachers indeed produce easily and freely.

In autonomous climate teachers are engaged in their work and they achieve their goals easily and quickly. They work well together and accomplish the task of the school. Teachers are not hindered by administrative paper work, but the principal does remain aloof from teachers, for he runs the organization in a business like and a rather impersonal manner. He is genuine and flexible but his range of administrative behaviour as compared to that of the Principal in the open climate which is somewhat restricted. ¶ The controlled climate is marked above everything else by a press for achievement at the expense of social needs satisfaction, everyone works hard and there is little time for friendly relation with others or for deviation from established controls and directives. The climate is over weighed towards task achievement and away from social need satisfaction. The principal is dominating and directive.

The main features of the familiar climate is the friendly manner of both the principal and the teachers. Social needs satisfaction is extremely high while contrariwise little is done to control or direct the group activities toward the goal achievement. Teachers seem to be disengaged. The principal does not burden the teachers with routine reports, in fact he makes it as easy as possible for them to work. The behavioural theme of the principal is 'essentially' 'let's all be a nice happy family' feeling.



The paternal climate is characterised by the ineffective attempts of the principal to control the teachers as well as satisfy their social needs. This climate is partly closed one. The teachers do not work well together. Group maintenance has not been established because of the principal's inability to control the activities of the teachers. The teachers do not enjoy friendly relations. There is low esprit.

The principal is as opposite to aloof, he is everywhere at once, checking, monitoring and telling people how to do things. He emphasises to do the things, but nothing gets done. His consideration is not genuine. He fails to motivate teachers.

The closed climate has a distinguished feature of little satisfaction in respect to either task achievement or social needs. The principal is ineffective in directing the activities of the teacher, at the same time he is not inclined to lookout for personal welfare. This climate is the most closed and the least genuine. The principal does not facilitate the task accomplishment of the teachers. Their friendly relations is the only silver lining for teachers in this climate type schools. The rate of turn of teachers will be high. The principal is highly aloof and his words are hollow, as he does not have thrust and fails to motivate teachers. There is not consonance between his words and deeds. He is perceived very low in consideration. He fails to provide adequate leadership to the group.

The six category climate typology is the most singular and significant contribution of Halpin-Croft's research. It would enable one to label a school climate. But at the same time would enable one to evaluate it in terms of school effectiveness in its totality and in terms of particular input or inputs.

The OCDQ became very popular and reliable that well over 100 studies have been carried on using it.

Many have continued to use the term 'organizational climate' in theorizing about administration and school functioning, but no one has apparently developed a better instrument for measuring the affective characteristics of 'school personality' than the OCDQ. Since there has been a dearth of instruments to quantify the interacting factors in educational organizations, the OCDQ has been used so much that it has been 'lionized to death'. (Brown and House, 1967).

In influencing the climate of the school, no other individual is potentially as powerful as the school principal (Shelat 1975, Darji 1975). Because principal has a pervasive influence through out the organization, it is important that he relates to others effectively. It is very essential for him to build such relationships. The way in which he works with the teachers, pupils and other members of the school community has far reaching effects on this relationships. Thus, leadership role plays very important and significant part in the

institutional effectiveness. In the subsequent section a detailed discussion on the role of the leader, concept of leadership, components of leadership etc. have been discussed thoroughly.

1.5 Leadership Behaviour

The recent trend is to refer to leader behaviour rather than to leaders' traits. But leader behaviour varies with not only the individuals but with the same individuals in different situations. As Halpin (1966) observes, 'to say that leader behaviour is determined exclusively by situational facts is to deny to the leader freedom of choice and determination.' Halpin Hemphill (1949) has, too, found that not only this situational variance affects the leader behaviour but variance in size of the group affects leader behaviour differently. Halpin (1966) also observes :

'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. He is more willing (and perhaps also more able) to make exceptions to rules and to treat each group member as an individual.'

1.5.0 Role of the Leader

First, the leader must maintain the group as a group, resolving internal difficulties and relating to group members. Maintaining the group is essential because being a leader, requires having followers; to perform his duties the leader

must have a group consensus of major purposes toward which he directs their activities. So group membership maintenance is critical for leadership effectiveness. Second, the leader must facilitate the attainment of group objectives. In this role he must act as an executive, an administrator, a planner and a motivator. These are all task-related functions, necessary and important to reach group goals. Without internal harmony the group is not consistently a group, and without some perceived movement toward reaching group goals, the group will lose its cohesiveness. So the leader must make a concerted and conspicuous effort toward goal attainment. Even if internal social relations are good, lack of perceived success in moving toward group goals will diminish group cohesiveness and member acceptance of the leader. These two functions go ~~hand~~ in hand, the leader cannot slight one function in favour of the other.

1.5.1 Functions of Leadership

This conception of the leadership role implies that the role must be a weak one because the leader is a group member whose function is to aid the group in achieving a common goal. So the leader must arise from the group according to the nature of the situation at hand. The function of leadership determination suggests that the group is most likely to follow, in a particular situation, the member of the group who possesses the greatest technical knowledge related to the situation, who

presents what is perceived to be the most practical idea or solution for the problem, or who provides the greatest potential direction and momentum for achieving the group goals.

Hemphill (1949) distinguished five functions common to the leader irrespective of the specific group situation. These functions are :

1. To advance the purpose of the group.
2. To administrate.
3. To inspire greater activity or set the pace for the group.
4. To make the individual member feel secure of his place in the group, and
5. To act without regard to his own self-interests.

Successful leadership behaviours tend to fall into four general categories according to Bowers and Seashore (1966)

1. Support
2. Interaction Facilitation
3. Goal Emphasis and
4. Work Facilitation. The following section explains the concept of leadership.

1.5.2 Concept of Leadership

In the subsequent section, some classification about the concept of 'leadership' is given.

The word 'leadership' has a variety of definitions and interpretations. The concepts of leadership and administration are changing rapidly. There is a great divergence among writers and research workers 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. Leadership is defined in terms of qualities of the individual. Still many others consider it as a process of interaction or as an aspect of an organization, where the scope of action for individual is defined in making decisions in carrying out duties and shouldering responsibilities in a co-operative way. The term 'leadership' is again used in an evaluative sense. Halpin (1960) says that when a man manifests leadership, 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 stabilising force looking after maintaining or running the machinery.

According to the National Education Association (NEA) (1962), leadership is defined as that action or behaviour among individuals and groups to move towards educational goals that are increasingly mutually accepted 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.

A leader is a leader. Bass (1965) 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.

According to Culbertson (1963) effective leadership involves responsibility and authority and the main leadership acts are planning, initiating, managing, delegating, co-ordinating decision making, communicating and evaluating. In solving any particular problem, a principal might use one or several of these acts of leadership.

The functions of a leader that have been identified by Meckenzie and Corey (1954) are summarised as : (i) Co-operating in the identification of common goals; (ii) motivating individual making decision, taking action, and evaluating the work of the group; (iii) developing favourable and healthy climate for individual and group effort, (iv) guiding individuals and group to make them self dependent and competent; (v) preparing individuals and group for immediate and long-range activities; (vi) becoming a friend, philosopher and guide from time to time; (viii) co-ordinating the efforts of others; and (viii) carrying out effectively any responsibilities for action that have been accepted and expected of him by the group.

Halpin (1966) focuses on the central psychological characteristic of leadership behaviour. To quote his words:

'The behaviour of the leader and the behaviour of group members are inextricably inter-woven, and the behaviour of both is determined to a great degree by the formal requirements imposed by the institution of which the group is a part.'

Indian leaders in instruction are challenged today as they have not been for decades. This is because new significance is being attached to education. The leaders have the responsibility of guiding and moulding instruction. The next section explains different foundations of leadership.

1.5.3 Foundations of Leadership

People who have vast knowledge and independent thinking become leaders of nations all over the world. Few of these leaders have inborn leadership capacities but many of them are made leaders by field experiences. Here in these observations, lie the rudiments of the various foundations of leadership.

(a) Historical Foundation of Leadership : Man makes the impossible task possible. Much depends on the nature of the leader. Many writers have written about the problems of leadership. Plato in his 'Republic' gave enough attention to the characteristics of the 'philosopher king', the ideal and just ruler of the men. Machiavelli's 'The prince' presented detailed matters on how a leader could gain and maintain power over others.

Some investigators claim that history itself is a vivid record of the successes and failures of man's leadership efforts. The problem of leadership has become one of crucial importance in the modern era of rapid social change. So it becomes important to study what behavioural scientists have discovered about the aspect of interpersonal behaviour and to extend it further by opening new horizons in the area of researches.

(b) Philosophical Foundations of Leadership : Human

beings always felt the need of a person who could lead them, and take them to the new areas of human life. Philosophical foundations of leadership explained the qualities of a leader. The special qualities of a leader are intelligence, creative imagination, emotional stability and steady fastness. Such a person should be selected as a leader. Some philosophers asserted that the personal qualities of the great men such as Napoleon, Churchill, Gandhiji and the like carved the course of history and mankind.

(c) Psychological Foundations of Leadership : Psycholo-

gical foundation of leadership is a 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 followers. Psychologists do not accept the pattern of traits that characterise leaders. They have a tendency to focus on personal

qualities associated with leadership position. They are unable to clarify which traits are more important in specific leadership position.

(d) Sociological Foundations of Leadership : Every leader has a number of followers. Leadership is always found in the same kind of group and the leader functions essentially in relationship to the followers. Sociologists lay more emphasis on the characteristics of a group rather than on the leader. Psychologists tend to focus on personal traits but sociologists focus on aspects of the situation in which leadership is attempted.

(e) Behavioural Foundations of Leadership : Behavioural foundations emphasis observed behaviour of leaders in specific situations. Behaviour of a leader may differ from situation to situation. A leader may be successful in one situation and may fail in another if he does not change his pattern of behaviour. This means, according to behavioural foundation of leadership, a leader will have to change his pattern of leadership behaviour according to circumstances. Otherwise he cannot remain as a leader. This line of thought is very important to the leader of a school. In the subsequent section the characteristics of leadership are explained.

1.5.4. Characteristics of Leadership

A classic study of successful executives lists the following characteristics :

1. A high drive for achievement. Successful executives are hard working and possess a strong need to accomplish and achieve.
2. A strong mobility drive : Successful executives need to be constantly moving upward, and derive satisfaction by demonstrating competence in their work. They always need new and greater responsibilities.
3. A positive attitude towards supervisors : Successful executives look upon the authority figures not as forces to inhibit their progress but rather to help in satisfying their drives.
4. A strong ability to organise : They are future oriented and find challenge in plotting the prospective course of events.
5. The ability to make decisions : The executive must consider alternative courses of actions, select the correct one, and abide by their decisions.
6. A positive self structure : The leaders have a strong sense of self identity. They also have confidence in their ability. They believe in themselves.
7. A high level of activity and aggressive striving : The activity is not necessarily physical, it actually refers to a mental and emotional alertness.
8. A strong apprehension and fear of failure : The fear of failing seeks to characterise not only work experiences but also all aspects of life. They must always have a goal.
9. A strong orientation toward reality : They are concerned primarily with what is occurring at the moment.
10. A strong sense of identification with superiors and an aloofness with subordinates. Their relationship with the subordinates is detached and impersonal.

11. No emotional dependence upon parents : Executives are no longer tied to their parents, either emotionally or geographically.
12. Loyalty to organizational goals : Although very much aware of self, executives depend on the organization to provide the framework, guidelines and operating tools with which they may satisfy their needs and drives. They must be capable of submerging their total dependence upon themselves and come to depend in part, on the organization. The

The following section explains the styles of leadership.

1.5.5 The Styles of Leadership

It is based on the relation between leaders and followers. Lippman (1964) has identified three different styles of leadership. They are : (1) Normative (2) Personal and (3) Transactional.

(1) The Normative Style : According to this style, a leader is expected to achieve the goals of the institutions rather than to the requirements of the individual.

(2) The Personal Style : Here the emphasis is on the requirements of the individuals rather than on the requirements of the institution. It is based on the philosophy that better results will be attained if each person in the organization is given the opportunity to contribute to the full extent of his capacity towards the growth and development of the institutions.

(3) The Traditional Style : This is shaped according to situation. It takes intermediate position between Normative and

Personal. The individual and the institution both are taken into account. Getzel and Guba (1957) have also observed that though most desirable, this style is vague or hazy and not well defined.

The Types of Leadership

There are four types of leaders : (1) The Dictatorial leaders (2) The Autocratic Leaders. (3) The Democratic leaders (4) The Laissez-Faire leaders.

The dictatorial leader gets the work done through fear. He is called the negative leader. The followers do everything out of fear. The quantity of the results will remain high for a period of time.

The autocratic leadership is characterized by centralization of authority and decision making in the leader. He is neither negative nor positive. He is the only source of power, authority and responsibility. Subordinates are not allowed to participate in decision making process.

Democratic leadership is opposite to the autocratic leadership. Here the followers work as a social unit and with best of their abilities. This is an ideal and desirable type of leadership.

Under the laissez-faire leadership the group behaves independently creating at times chaos. As a matter of fact the

leader does not play the role of a leader at all in the true sense of the term. There is no unity of purpose at all in this group.

1.5.6 Mc Gregor's Theory X and Y of Leadership

There are two types of approaches. One is the scientific management approach and the other is the human relations approach.

These two approaches to leadership behaviour were given formal theoretical expression by psychologist Douglas Mc Gregor (1960) as theory X and theory Y.

'The Mc Gregor's Views have come influential in the world of work and encompasses divergent images of teachers and the ways in which they can be managed.

Underlying the Theory X approach to management are three assumptions about human nature.

1. Most people have an innate dislike of work and will avoid it if they can.
2. Therefore, most people must be 'coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment' in order to get them to work hard enough to satisfy the organization's goals.
3. Most people prefer 'to be directed ' wish 'to avoid responsibility' have 'relatively little ambition', and want 'security above all'.

Theory X provides a very unflattering image of human nature. According to this view, people would not work at all at their jobs without a dictating and demanding leader. Like children, teachers must be led, scolded, threatened, and punished for they are basically irresponsible and lazy.

Theory X still represents the view of human nature held by the majority of leaders. It is combatible with scientific management and with the classic form of organization called bureaucracy. However, theory X is incompatible with current views of human motivation, particularly the influential work of psychologist Abraham Maslow (1954). Maslow argues that the ultimate and overall goal of human beings is to self-actualize; that is, to realise all our distinctly human capabilities. This conception of human nature is reflected in Mc Gregor's Theory Y which assumes that :

- (1) 'The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest'. Most people do not have an innate dislike of work. Indeed, work may be a 'source of satisfaction'.
- (2) 'External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives.' Most people will display self-discipline in working for goals to which they are committed.
- (3) 'Committment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement'. If self-actualization needs can be satisfied through work, employees will be highly motivated.

- (4) Most people, under proper conditions, are capable not only of accepting responsibility but of seeking it.
- (5) 'The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.'
- (6) 'Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.'

In the radically different image of human nature that Theory Y presents, people are industrious, creative, need and seek challenge and responsibility, and are not at all averse to work. These persons need and function best under a different type of leader than do Theory X persons. Rather than a dictatorial leader, Theory Y persons need a leader who will allow them to participate in the achievement of personal and organizational goals. The Theory Y view of leadership applies to the human relations movement and to modern organization theory that calls for worker participation in management decisions.

1.5.7 The Path-Goal Approach to Leadership

There is one recent approach to leadership called 'The Path-goal Approach' described by Mitchell (1974). It is as follows :

The major theory that attempts to match the leaders style with certain inter-personal and situational variables. The major concern of the theory is how the leader's behaviour is motivating or satisfying because of its impact on a group.

sub-ordinate's perception of his goals and the path to those goals. A leader through the use of positive and negative task and inter-personal rewards can have a major impact on these perceptions. The leader can specify goals that are more or less attractive to a subordinate and make it easy or difficult to attain the goals. Thus a leader can influence both the type of outcomes experienced by the subordinate as well as clarify the behaviour outcome relationship.

The review of the work on this approach is presented on the next page.

1.5.8 The Components of Leadership Behaviour

The components of leadership behaviour are as follows :

Leadership behaviour covers two parts (1) Initiating structure and (2) Consideration.

The word lead means to go ahead, control, manage or direct. The word 'leader' means one who can control or manage or direct, and one who is always ahead of others. Here in this study 'Leadership Behaviour refers to the behaviour of secondary school principals. As far as the present needs of the educational institutions are concerned, it is expected from the Principals of the Secondary schools that they perform two basic functions and that is : (1) They must be 'task-oriented'. (2) They must be 'person-oriented'.

The Review of Work Done on The Path-Goal Approach to Leadership Behaviour

Leadership Behaviour	Contingent Factors	Cause	Subordinate Attitude and Behaviour
Directive	Subordinate characteristics Authoritarianism	Personal Perceptions	Job satisfaction Job --- Rewards Acceptance of Leader Leader --- Rewards
Supportive	Locus of Control Ability		
Achievement - Oriented	Environmental factors The Task	Motivational stimuli	Motivational Behaviour Effort --- Performance
Participative	Formal authority System Primary work group	Constraints Rewards	Performance --- Rewards

The principals must be task-oriented in that they must establish and seek to fulfil certain goals, and they must be person-oriented in that they must try to meet the personal needs of their staff members. In the terminology of Getzel and Guba (1957) they must try to maintain the balance between the idiographic and nomothetic dimensions of the schools. In the terminology of Hemphill and Coons (1957) they must strike a balance between dimensions of 'Initiating structure' and 'Consideration'. According to Halpin (1966), 'initiating structure' refers to the formal relationship which the headmaster has with his staff. The Principal who receives high score on this dimension makes his attitude clear to the staff, criticises poor work, maintains definite standards of performance, persuades staff members to follow, standard rules and regulations. Again in the words of Halpin (1966), 'Consideration' refers to the informal relationships which the principal has with his staff. The principal who scores high on this dimension does personal favours for his staff members, finds time to listen to them, puts their suggestions into operation and get their approval on important matters before going ahead.

1.5.9 Patterns of Leadership Behaviour

On the part of Principals, four patterns of leadership behaviours are seen. They are (1) H H Pattern (2) LL Pattern (3) HL Pattern (4) LH Pattern.

- (1) 'HH' pattern denotes, high both on the 'Initiating structure' and 'Consideration' dimensions of the leadership behaviour.
- (2) 'LL' pattern denotes low both on the 'Initiating Structure' and 'Consideration' dimensions of the leadership behaviour.
- (3) 'HL' pattern denotes high in the 'Initiating Structure' dimension, low in the 'Consideration' dimension.
- (4) 'LH' pattern denotes low in the 'Initiating Structure' dimension, high in 'Consideration' dimension.

In analysing the data given by the consideration dimension of the tool 'LBDQ' the Quadrant Scheme of Halpin (1966) is used.

A Quadrant Scheme for Describing Principals Behaviour on Dimensions 'Initiating Structure' and 'Consideration'.

Halpin's Quadrant Scheme for Describing Principal's Behaviour.

Consideration

Initiating Structure	<u>Consideration</u>	
	Above Mean	Below Mean
	H.I. (S) L.C. (-C)	H.I. (S) L.C. (-C)
	(N) Principals 4	1. (N) Principals
Initiating Structure	Above Mean	Below Mean
	H.I. (S) L.C. (-C)	H.I. (S) L.C. (-C)
	(N) Principals 4	1. (N) Principals
	(N) Principals 4	1. (N) Principals
Initiating Structure	Above Mean	Below Mean
	H.I. (S) L.C. (-C)	H.I. (S) L.C. (-C)
	(N) Principals 4	1. (N) Principals
	(N) Principals 4	1. (N) Principals

According to Halpin (1966), the leaders described in Quadrant I are evaluated as highly effective. The individuals described in Quadrant II are ineffective leaders. Shartle (1956) and his colleague conducted the leadership studies in Ohio, and pointed

out the criteria of 'leadership behaviour', of which one is sometimes called the 'human relation' and the other described as the 'get out of the work dimension'. Hemphill, and Halpin who followed Hemphill, identified these two dimensions as 'Initiating Structure' and 'Consideration'.

It is concluded that the higher the meeting point of these two dimensions, the better is the leadership behaviour. When a leader receives a score equally at a high plane, on both the dimensions, he is considered to be very much effective. As measured by the \bar{M} LBDQ developed by Halpin and Winer (1952) on the line of Hemphill (1950) if a leader shows high 'consideration' for his colleagues, if he exhibits a real interest in the personal needs of the members of the group even when he is taking initiative in getting the work done from them he is considered to be an effective leader. High scores on the dimensions of 'initiating structure' manifest the behaviour of the leader who clarifies goals, and organizes for the completion of task. His leadership behaviour can be called to be more institution-oriented. A leader who receives high score on 'consideration' and low score on 'initiating structure' is more person oriented and is less effective. If he is low on both the dimensions, he is not effective with this pattern of behaviour as well. Only those leaders prove to be effective when they show scores high enough on both the dimensions.

According to Goldman (1972) a lack of effective leadership on the part of principals of the school disintegrates the conditions for the development of a true school community. In the context of the school, the notion of leadership is associated with the instructional leadership of the principal. This indicates that to be an effective leader of a school, a principal should be effective on his instructional side as well. Every principal is basically a teacher first and an administrator later.

Parallel to 'initiating structure' and 'consideration', many other researchers identified the dimensions of leadership behaviour as human dimension and task dimension, the former one ensuring the satisfaction of social and psychological needs of the personnel of the organization. The research indicates that effective leadership is manifested when the designated leader acts in such a way as to ensure satisfaction of both.

A reciprocal relation exists between the task and human dimension. This implies that attention should also be devoted to the task dimension of leadership process. The task dimension has two aspects; one is 'commitment aspect', and the other is 'specific aspect'. The first aspect refers to the efforts of the participant to the improvement of the total organization in addition to his own job that is assigned to him. The second aspect refers to the specific job he is expected to do. In the interest of the organization the leader has to strike a balance

sufficiently at a high level on both the dimensions and the workers have to strike a balance between the 'commitment aspect' and 'specific aspect.'

From the brief account of the attempts of various research workers to study leadership behaviour of various types of leaders in various institutions and organizations given above, it is very clear that they accept the two dimensions of leadership behaviour; viz., 'Initiating Structure' and 'Consideration' depicted by Hemphill and Halpin. Everybody seems to agree on the point that effective and efficient leaders are those, who receive high scores on both the dimensions. Low score on one of the dimensions and low scores on both the dimensions are indicative of poor leadership behaviour. Another point which is worth noting is that the LBDQ developed by Halpin and Winer is a very useful \neq instrument for appraising the two dimensions of leadership behaviour. Miles (1966) has added the additional criterion to the effectiveness of leader behaviour by saying that leadership is ineffective and deserves improvement when the group members do not learn to acquire skills and efficiency to get the work done and to achieve the goals of the institution. These 'specific skills' of every worker and the 'general efficiency' of the organization as a whole are supported also by Tannenbaum (1968).

Effective leadership behaviour receiving high scores on both the dimensions will create inspiring and stimulating climate for the workers so that they can enjoy high level of morale and are motivated to receive new ideas and are always ready to venture new grounds. The behaviour of a leader is the inspiring force that begets healthy climate, high morale and motivation for the receptivity of new ideas for leading the organization on higher and higher plane.

1.5.10 The Forms of Leadership

In the present study, the four forms of LBDQ given by Halpin (1966) are used. According to him the form on which the group members describe their leader's behaviour is referred to as the 'LBDQ - Real Staff'. The form on which the leader describes himself about his behaviour is referred to as the 'LBDQ' - Real Self.' This same instrument may be used to measure the leader's own ideology with slight modification. On this form each item is worded to indicate how a leader should behave, and the leaders answer the questionnaire accordingly. This form is called 'LBDQ-Ideal, Self'. Likewise, the staff members are asked to describe how they believe their leader should behave. These scores are known as 'LBDQ-Ideal, Staff'.

The number of schools found in the four patterns of LBDQ namely HH, HL, LH and LL are identified according to the four forms of LBDQ that is Ideal Self, Real Self, Ideal

Staff and Real Staff. The perceptual differences between the above scores are also studied.

The next section explains the Task and Person Oriented Leadership Styles.

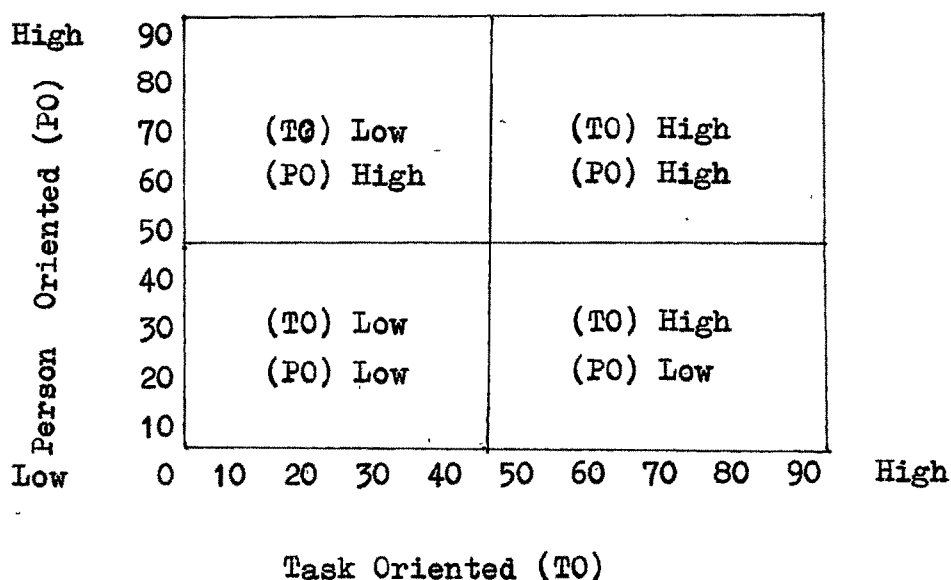
1.5.11 Task and Person Oriented Styles of Leadership

The research traditions dealing with leadership style in educational setting has identified two key dimensions of leadership. In one dimension the leader seems to show concern toward getting work done or accomplishing tasks and in the other the leader seems to show concern toward the needs or feelings of people and his relationships with them.

In the following quadrant 'To' refers to 'Task Oriented' leadership style, that is the tendencies for the leader to show concern for work. 'PO' refers to Person Oriented leadership style, that is his tendency to show concern for people as he displays leadership behaviour. Each of these dimensions of leadership behaviour is illustrated conceptually in the figure on the next page.

1.5.12 The Leadership Grid

In the ^{following} figure the horizontal marginal axis forms the base of the grid. It represents the extent to which the leader's behaviour shows a concern for task accomplishment (TO), with the high concern to the right and low concern to the left.



The vertical marginal axis in the left side of the grid represents the extent to which the leader's behaviour shows concern for people that is Person Oriented (PO), with the top representing high concern and bottom low concern.

Hence, by marking the scores on the Task axis and on the person axis it is possible to find out the Task and Person Oriented leadership styles according to the self perception of the principals and staff perception of the teachers. The lowest and highest perception scores of the principals and teachers in the Task and Person dimension and the perceptual differences between them will also be seen obviously in the grid.

The new role of a principal is that of an educational engineer - a person who makes the school climate a positive and

productive one. Innovative principals identify the roles in terms of educational leadership in creating an environment for growth and development. The role of educational engineer requires a principal who is able to deal effectively with the human side of educational organization, while at the same time facilitating maximum organizational goal achievement. 'Production (Task) Orientation', is crucial to building effective leadership. But a high quality product will not be obtained over the long period unless great attention is given to the needs and aspirations of the people - pupils and staff - who make up the organization person oriented. Thus, balance and harmony on both the dimensions will contribute in building up of the effective leadership patterns and styles.

1.6 Conclusion

A school is a social system in which all personnel - the principal, teachers and others have their respective roles assigned by the management, the society, the community and the state. Thus, roles in the schools of various personnel are well defined. In performing their role expectations either by they work person to person, or group to person relationships, which in different situations generate different reactions, The situational factors, personality factors and behaviour patterns also generate stimulating or inhibiting influences. These influences will help in building up the mental frame

of the personnel, their attitudes, values, their adjustment, mal-adjustment, cohesion or conflict. Such a situation creates more complexities as a result of over emphasis on social control task accomplishment at the cost of socio-psychological need satisfaction of school personnel. The nature of leader behaviour in schools twists or straightens out the thread of teachers behaviour. The cumulative effect of all these complex and interlocking interaction patterns in sociological and psychological framework of a school creates school organizational climate. Figures 3.1 and 3.2 explains the role perceptions of teachers and principals in relation to the variables like leadership behaviour (Ideal and Real) and Organizational Climate in schools.

So far, the theoretical frame work of the present study was discussed in this chapter. The next chapter deals with the Review of Related Literature and Research.
