INTRODUCTION
A Comparative Study of Leadership Style, Interpersonal Relationship and Effectiveness of the Recruited and Promoted Principals of Delhi
CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

The study of the concept of leadership has generated numerous definitions, conceptualization and formulations. Analyses have yielded countless traits, an array of behaviour, and a multitude of leadership styles deemed necessary for effectiveness. Although well-documented, the concept of leadership has recently come under a great deal of scrutiny in the field of educational research.

The word "leadership is most talked about and the least understood phenomena in this world. By "leadership" majority of people bring to their mind a number of leaders who have direct or indirect impact upon them and upon their world. Thus leadership can be understood more in terms of influence which leaders exercise upon their followers to accomplish the predetermined objectives.

The word "leader" appeared in the English language as early as the year 1300 while the leadership did not appear until about 1800 Stogdill (1974). Further Stogdill reviewed seventy-two definitions of leadership advanced by writers from 1902 to 1967 under the following headings:

Leadership as: -

- a focus of group processes
- a personality and its effects
- the art of inducing compliance
• the exercise of influence
• act or behaviour
• a form of persuasion
• an instrument of goal achievement
• an effect of interaction
• a differential role
• the initiation of structure

Defining the concept of leadership has been a challenging and major task for educators and social scientists in general. The literature is replete with varied definitions. For instance, Lipham (1964) defines leadership “as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organizational goals and objectives” (P.122). Cunningham (1976) describes this concept as “a curious blending of leading and following provoking and calming, disturbing and stabilizing .... generating new strength and capacity along the way” (P.324). Leadership according to Sergiovanni (1977) “introducing something new or helping to improve present conditions” (P.140). Burns (1978) believes that leaders should “induce new more activist tendencies in their followers, arouse in them hopes, aspirations and expectations” (P.46). A simplified definition by Helpin (1966) describes the leadership as “outstanding member of a class” (P.81). Still others identify leadership in terms of the attainment of group goals; the fulfillment of designated responsibilities, or the process of problem solving. Focusing on the nature of the individual, Scott, Hickcox and Ryan (1978) believe that the educational leader needs to be a “participating psychologists, a sociologist, a person knowledgeable in public finance and a skilled politician” ((P.3). Perhaps this was this multiplicity of definitions that prompted Spikes (1979) to conclude “that there appears to be no universally accepted definition of
this concept which has stood the test of time and enquiry” (P.3).

The study of leadership according to Lipham (1973) has evolved through four major stages of development. First, the concept was examined from the “greatmen” approach. Second, the importance of describing the traits and characteristics of leaders was emphasized. Third, investigations consisted of determining and identifying those situational factors that affected the leader. And fourth, leadership was studied through the observation of the behaviour of the individuals.

The “greatmen” and “observation of the behaviours of leaders” are closely related stages, revealing a number of leadership styles. For instance, Weber (1977) distinguishes differences among the legal, traditional and charismatic styles of leadership. Havinghurst (1972) places great leaders into one of three categories (a) the prophet (b) scholar – scientist and (c) the social engineer. Democratic and authoritarian leadership are constructed by Halpin (1956). While job centred and employee centred styles are compared by Likert (1969). The theoretical formulations and research unfolding from these approaches to the study of leadership identity, compare and determine the effectiveness of different behavioural styles of leaders.

The trait provides another focus for the study of leadership. In a review of those traits generally attributed to successful leaders. Abrell (1979) concludes that the following appear to be the most significant: -

(a) active participation
(b) creating a facilitating climate
(c) providing inspiration
(d) providing justice and fairness
(e) resisting unnecessary demands
recognizing talents, and
practicing ethical integrity.

Others support similar traits. In addition, the leader should be creative, be aware of organizational structure and use teammanship. Perhaps Berg (1977) best describes those characteristics for effective leadership. "Effective educational leaders should have a clear understanding of their functions; a desire for a knowledge of group dynamics, be academically and professionally honest, have a desire to cut red tape, be understanding, patient, imaginative and innovative ... must exhibit the virtues of honesty, integrity, cooperation and concern for others... and must be adaptable" (P.212).

Another stage of development in the study of leadership is the "analysis of situational factors". This approach according to Saville (1979) views leadership "as a process of structuring, organizing and guiding a situation so that all members of a group can achieve common goals with maximum economy and minimum time and effort" (P.53). Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) point out that situational analysis emphasizes the process of interaction between the leader and the group and identifies the "it depends" variables in relation to the leader's characteristics or orientation. Matching leadership styles to existing situational factors should create a degree of congruence, thereby enhancing the likelihood of success.

Stogdill (1950) defined leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal setting and goal accomplishment".

It is seen that different writers advocated different definitions
reflecting different contexts as well as different perspectives.

Lipham and Hoe (1974) define leadership as "the initiation of new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives". Leadership is that behaviour of an individual, which initiates a new structure in interaction within a social system; it initiates change in the goals, objectives, configuration, procedures, inputs, processes and ultimately the outputs of social systems. The definition takes into account effectiveness and efficiency measures, group achievement and group maintenance functions, situational and personalistic determinants, organizational and individual constructs, active and passive relationships, contexts, means and ends and similar dichotomous definitions. Leadership is dynamic since it involves social system in action and interaction.

House and Baetz (1979) stated that almost all definitions reviewed by Stogdill implied that leadership was a form of social influence. In order to treat leadership as a separate concept, it must be distinguished from other social influence phenomena Pfeffer (1977).

Hanson (1979) who aligned himself to educational administration felt that definitions of leadership differed because perspectives of writers differed. Three basic elements seemed to be emphasized either singly or in combination people, processes, and system. Each of these basic elements possessed important variation that defined leadership as:

i. the presence of unique psychological traits or behavioural characteristics (people);

ii. the art of compelling compliance or inducing compliance (processes);
iii. the presence of formal structure, informal structure, differential problem situations (e.g. task complexity, personnel competence), or the external organizational environment (system).

Hanson went on to develop the concept of leadership through the organizational perspectives of classical theory, social-system theory and open-system theory.

Hersay and Blanchard (1977) reviewed a number of definitions advocated by a number of management writers who mainly defined leadership as the influencing process. Few of them quoted are as under:

- “Leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives” Terry (1960).
- “Leadership as interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward attainment of a specialized goal or goals”. Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik (1959).
- “Leadership is influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal”. Koontz and Donnell (1959).

A review of other writers reveals that most management writers agree that leadership is “the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation”. From this definition of leadership, it follows that “LEADERSHIP is a function of the leader, the follower and other situational variables”. Hersay and Blanchard (1977).

Filley, House and Kerr (1977) in an attempt to define
leadership, differentiated between power, authority and influence. These three ways help in changing the behaviour of individual or groups. In order to understand the concept of leadership clearly, these three concepts need to be explained.

A new focus of studies of leadership, one attracting numerous, advocates, is the leaders awareness of the future. With reference to school education, Goodland (1978) provides a reason for this interest and suggests alternatives in the following statement:

"We have yielded to the pressure and temptation of becoming experts in fiscal and personnel management public relations, collective bargaining, and the political process.... It is now time to put the right things at the centre again. And the right things have to do with assuring comprehensive quality educational programmes in each and every schools" (P. 322)

Quality education in the future is dependent upon “good leaders and effective leadership approaches”. One such approach, proposed by Spady, Bell and D. Angels (1978) is “Zeitgeist Communication”. It refers to an awareness by all individuals of the influence of socio-politico-economic developments on education is the most significant aspect of this position. The process involves the establishment of a forum among all individuals of the organizations (P.44). Information giving communication and interaction among the members generates ideas and opinions about important educational issues. In this way the Zeitgeist, the prevailing system of beliefs and opinions of a specific group of people at a point in time – is revealed and it begins to allow every one to provide leadership and help direct the organization towards its goals.

The leader’s understanding of the “spirit of times” is increasingly
being recognized as critical determination of success. Goldman (1977) contends that “leaders must be students of society and educators must be able to understand the interplay of both” (P.70). According to Wenrich (1976), “the leader must “live ahead” of others and this involves the development of new behavioural strategies and mechanism” (P.42). Van Avery (1980) supports this contention and suggests that “now leadership skills in the future will need to include a tolerance for multiple interpretations and the ability to explore and create alternative” (P.44). If this is the case, then an essential trait of educational leaders today is an awareness of tomorrow.

New perspectives on the study of leadership emerge, however, if one logically extrapolates from extends the boundaries of the above categories. For instance, the “individual” component with emphasis on desired leadership traits and characteristics, can be perceived as the leader’s level of human functioning with a particular emphasis on psychological health. The “future thinking” dimension can be interpreted as the leader’s ability to recognize and develop specific strategies and coping mechanisms and for effectiveness in a rapidly changing society. The integration of individual and future thinking components results in the outcome behaviour of the leader. A conceptualization, based on new perceptions of the traditional dimensions associated with the study of leadership, requires first a description, definition and orientation of each category which are given in the following Sections: -

- **Individual Component of Leadership:**

  Fielder (1967) provides direction to an attempt to delineate the "individual component of leadership. According to his position, psychological factors are the primary motivating forces influencing
leaders behaviour. The leadership variables of significance in Fielder’s view is the leader’s perception of the events, situations and others and not the behaviour itself. In the other words, the “mental set” or inner nature of the leader is predominant factor determining behaviour and hence effective management.

The inner state of the leader is the key concept for Kimbrough, Fogel and Forquhar (1977) and is viewed in terms of individual serenity, level of maturity and positive relations with others. Thom (1980) points out that leaders should “cultivate a continual inner calmness and serenity in the midst of hectic milieu with all the stress factors” (P.15). Inner calmness is cultivated by relaxation, self-talk and adhering to contain principles. The objective of this activity is to enhance the leader’s emotional stability.

Psychotherapeutic models such as transactional analysis, transcendental meditation, Yoga, bio-feedback and human relations training are used by leaders in pursuit of professional growth. These system of therapy, however deal largely with behaviour and not the inner state or underlying dynamics of the individual. Combs (1981) believes that “an adequate understanding of the causes of behaviour that lie in the inner lives of individuals” (P.34). The goal may be achieved by considering specific aspects of leader’s cognitive functioning – in particular, beliefs and self, others and society.

These beliefs and their efforts on the inner lives of individuals are best views from the theoretical perspective of Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) as postulated by Ellis (1969). The focal point of RET is that man is uniquely rational as well as irrational and that emotional and psychological disturbances result from irrational or illogical thinking”. When a person
bases a decision about himself, others and or his environment on a learned irrational belief, it results in disturbed behaviour. Ellis (1969) firmly believes that self-defeating thoughts are conditioned within the individual and become the roots of emotions and behaviours. Individuals learn irrational thinking from parents, television, peers, reading and school. The goal of rational thinking involves replacing the illogical beliefs with an appropriate thought that leads to emotional stability. In the Rational Emotive approach to understanding human behaviour, the significant factor is the individual's perception or interpretation of the event or situation. The sustained negative emotion occurs when individuals function from each absolutes and "shoulds and should nots" or "oughts and ought nots". Disturbed behaviour also results from faulty logic or functioning from false assumptions (i.e. assumptions that lack data and supporting evidence). Moreover neurotic tendencies in individuals develop from inability to discriminate between "needs and wants". According to the model "needs" are biologically determined and "wants" are socially conditioned. Individual often confuses this dichotomy and truly believe they "need" when in actual fact they "want". Unproductive behaviour is avoided if individuals consciously examine their beliefs and other principles leading to irrational thinking. Learning to think rationally in this vein leads to psychological health.

- **Power, Authority and Influence:**

Power is an ability in a person (a) to change the behaviour of another person, (b) or groups (c) by manipulation of rewards and punishment. This types of power may be coercive power (concerned with physical harm), remunerative power (monetary benefits), normative power (giving recognition or medal).
Whereas power is an ability, authority is a right. In fact authority is legitimized power. There are various types of authority like traditional authority (kings), bureaucratic authority (through rules and regulations) and charismatic authority (personal charm or beauty).

Influence is an ability in a person (a) to change the behaviour of another person (b) or group (c) without manipulation of rewards and punishments.

Now it can be said that leadership is neither game of power nor a show of authority. No doubt it is an influencing process. In any one situation, an educational leader may change the behaviour of his component-workers, even superiors or followers in all the three ways. The most effective way of doing so would be through influence. This definition is also supported by Hollander (1969).

“Leadership is an influencing process is a function of the leader, the follower and the situation”.

More recent attempts to explain the concept of leadership penetrate more deeply than the organization and the activities associated with goal setting and goal accomplishment. Attention now is being given more to meanings and values. Walker (1989) refers to Sadler (1988) who advocated the concept of leadership as an action based activity called “transformative leadership”. It recognizes three key elements in this transformative leadership which are integral to any educational institution: commitment, complexity and credibility. These three elements assure success only if one depends upon several values – attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust through positioning and deployment of self-through positive self-regard.
Pondy (1978) advocated that effectiveness of a leader lies in "ability to make activity meaningful ... not to change behaviour but to give others sense of understanding of what they are doing". Of late, Greenfield (1986) while laying importance on values in leadership explained in terms as "a willful act where one person attempts to construct the social world for others". He suggests that leaders will try to commit others to the values that they themselves believe are good.

"Organizations are built on the unification of people around values". This review of Greenfield leads us to think of leaders as quite different from those in the traditional times.

In the contemporary school situation certain representing levels "what ought to be" is accorded a high place. Politics are framed keeping in view such beliefs and as such effort is made to bring all those people together who are concerned with school – students, parents, community, teachers and the head. An attempt is made to build commitment to that policy: an attempt to bring about "unification of people around values" and "to construct the social world for others".

Whereas the earlier definitions focussed on exercise of formal authority related to the setting and accomplishment of goals. More recent perspectives invite for a deeper, more personal level what actually transpires when decisions are made and people try to make sense of their work. Hence leadership is not confined to a limited area but it is as Duke (1986) observes "a gestalt phenomena; greater than the sum of its parts".

Leadership is rather the "interpersonal influence directed
through a process of communication, towards the attainment of group goals" – as explained implicitly by Smith, Beck Cooper, Cox, Ottaway and Talbot (1982).

These authors also write that traditionally leadership was thought of as vested in one individual, usually formally so designated and with an appropriate title. Leadership can however be quite informal (group can have both formal as well as informal leaders) and the functions of leadership can be widely shared among group members with different individuals exercising various aspects of it at different times.

- **Future Thinking:**

The assumption was made that the psychological health of the leader, a prerequisite to effectiveness, is achieved through rational thought processes. The beliefs associated with Rational Emotive Theory, however, may be temporarily relatively to the societal content in which they were postulated and thus restricted to human dilemmas. The literature on educational leadership clearly indicates the need for the development of the leader's future consciousness. A marked shift in individual and social values is presently changing the contemporary view of human behaviour. The I'ism of the past, with emphasis on narcissism and self-centredness is rapidly evolving into We-ism in the future with the focus on cooperation and togetherness. Emerging new views of the individual are resulting in the delineation of new alternatives in educational theory and practice.

As we are in the dawn of the twenty-first century, survival of human species becoming a central theme in education. Numerous skills, techniques and strategies are being proposed as means of accomplishing this task. Theoretical position dealing with concept, the development of conscious
awareness and a focus on cooperative tendencies, enhancing human survival. If indeed, education is responsible for providing with individuals with mechanism of survival, then leaders must be aware of the preferred, probable and possible future.

In any social organization, leaders obtain advice and opinion regarding important decisions from other members of the group. In some instances, certain problems are resolved by individuals in positions of lesser authority and frequently the leader is obliged to defend the correctness of such solutions. Nonetheless, in the final analysis, the leader ultimately must accept responsibility of all decisions affecting the institution. The leader’s ability to make the appropriate or right decision is enhanced by a sense of inner knowledge.

The leader’s reliance on inner knowledge, is interpreted as a sixth sense or psychic recognition. The role of the leader is that of directing and guiding the institution and others to agree upon goals. This capacity of internally knowing the appropriate manner for accomplishing group goals further separates the leader from other members of the group. Intuitively, the effective leader may believe that since “I think, therefore I know”. In a sense, such statement portrays the leader as narcissistic and elitist, however the opposite is true. Inner knowledge is attained as the leader is actualizing self and possesses a conscious awareness of possible future alternatives. In accordance with this notion, the leader is more capable than others in making decisions for the group. Nevertheless, the socio-centric needs of the group are the primary focus of this unique trait of the leader not self-aggrandizement.

The individual belief in being and becoming is perhaps the cornerstone of leadership. This belief fosters the process of integration
of the individual and future thinking components of leadership. The being component characterizes the leader’s own search for personal growth and self-enhancement. Being is enhanced when the individual is aware of potentials, recognizes capacities and acknowledges resources — all facets of the self-actualizing persons. The following traits describe such a leader: inner-directed, spontaneous, pragmatic, self-accepting, integrated, rational and intimate. These qualities enable the leader to function in the here and now, with a personal need to be real, genuine, emphatic and understanding toward others. This fully functioning nature of the leader is manifested in every day interactions with individuals.

The becoming component, which is existential in nature, implies the leader’s ability to transcend self and society, unrestricted by the boundaries controlling reality, which for the most part, confine others, the individual extends beyond the limits imposed by society in seeing an awareness of future alternatives. The future takes on meaning as new perspectives create a positive attitude towards rapidly advancing society, an attitude that the leaders must foster. Existentially, the leader goes beyond the world in the pursuit of visions and ideas and thus finds appropriate solutions to existing dilemmas. The leader’s task is to inform others of impending situations and foster a positive attitude towards the future. The leader’s self-actualizing tendency and future consciousness establish a new orientation to life and leadership.

- **Behavioural Outcomes:**

A number of traits associated with the structural qualities of the leader include the scientific, rational, empirical objective, observant, analytical, intellectual, cognitive and realistic orientation toward action. These properties are the foundation on which leaders will base decisions and
solutions to problems — in other words in all human interaction. For example, institutional or personal decisions will be based on available information, data, facts and evidence, not on false, assumptions, hopes, prejudices and fears. Typically, the leader will attempt to remove and demystify half truths, preconceived notions, and current beliefs that are unfounded, unscientific and irrational in nature. The leader's cognitive and intellectual components will be available to deduce analytically the validity of opinions, judgements and contributions of others. For the leader, goal oriented behaviour will be inductive – hypothetico-deductive in nature.

A dynamic property will unfold in the leaders ability to operate successfully within a subjective – objective continuum. The quality is closely related to being and becoming but it differs so far as the former deals exclusively with the leaders' interactions with individuals and matters in the institutions. For instance, subjective involvement arises due to leaders' understanding, empathy, respect and caring for others and related issues concerning these individuals. Objectively, however, decisions are made about the issues as well as the individuals themselves, without prejudice and bias. The ability to assess individual concerns and institutions needs without emotional involvement will characterize decision-making process employed by the leader in all matters affecting the organization. The capacity to deal with individuals and institutional concerns subjectively and objectively will reflect the leader's integrity and independence.

**LEADERSHIP STYLES:**

The initial attempts to classify and study effects of different styles of leader behaviour were carried out at the University of Iowa (Lewin,
Leppitt and White, 1939). The Iowa theorists focussed on the decision-making components of the leaders behaviour and classified leaders into three different types according to their style of handling decision-making situations: these are authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire.

The details of these are as follows:

**Authoritarian Styles:** With the development of F-Scale by Sanford (1956) a large number of studies have been done in the West as well as in India. The components of the authoritarian personality are rigidity, self-contentedness, suspicion, insecurity and anxiety. The behavioural manifestations are excessive dependence, strict control of subordinates and stereotyping. The emphasis is on strict observance of discipline and task orientation. As a result of which task is performed, but a sense of insecurity arises. The subordinates become dependent and submissive and a fear of being punished is always there. The authoritarian leader develops hierarchical group organization in which he occupies the top position having no direct contact with ordinary members. He believes in his own ability and power in formulation of policies and does not appreciate criticism. He keeps the plan and policy of the group secret.

**Democratic Style:** A democratic leadership seeks to evoke maximum involvement in participation of every member in a group activities and in the determination of group objectives. He obtains sanction of the members in deciding the policy and future programmes of the group, and is guided by the majority opinion of the members. He reports to the members about the progress made by the group to encourage and reinforce interpersonal relations among the members as the agent of the group and not its dictator. He seeks advice from the experts on technical issues. He gives freedom to members to choose work companions. He allows the division of task to be
made by the group. The leader is fact mindedness and objective in his praise and criticism. He is considerate, tolerant and ready to accept his mistakes, if any.

**Laissez-Faire Style:** These are the administrators who would not interfere in whatever their subordinates do, whether they may be in the “interest of the organization or contrary to it. They have no commitment to the organizational goals, nor do they have any will to take work from their subordinates. They simply do not want to have tension, which arises, out of taking work from unwilling and recalcitrant subordinates. Some of these administrators are also very timid and do not want to face a hostile employee. They, therefore, shut themselves in their office. They do not even come to know who is an efficient, good or bad worker in their organization. Thus they do not reward efficiency or hard work and also do not punish recalcitrance and efficiency. The consequence is that their subordinates work in the atmosphere devoid of extrinsic motivation and the organization is reduced to a short of a country, which has no government.

The other administrative orientations or styles have been classified as given below:

**Participative Style:** As a person, he is democratic, considerate, permissive and non-directive. In his interactions he shares his decision-making and provides therapeutic treatments through understanding of the fellow’s feelings. In this case, mutual trust develops and high motivation and willingness to assume responsibilities become salient, and free interactions are observed.

**Task Oriented Style:** The task oriented person emphasizes task
performance. He is neither too sensitive nor too aggressive. He is controlling, assertive and task oriented, who drives hard his subordinates towards organizational goals. Due to over emphasis on task performance, the organizational productivity will increase and a congenial work atmosphere will be established.

**Nurturant Style:** Kakar (1971) was first to introduce the concept of nurturance. He identifies nurturance as the preferred Indian style for a superior.

Nurturant style was considered salient for organizational behaviour in India. Nurturant leader cares for his subordinates, shows affection, takes personal interest in their well being and above all, he is committed to their growth. His personal warmth helps in creating a climate of trust and understanding where subordinates grow up and acquire maturity.

**Bureaucratic Style:** Bureaucracy is an emotion leader term, often used as a synonym for red-tape, inefficiency and ineptness. In early 19th century, organizations were in a state of transition due to industrial revolution. Therefore, the bureaucratic structure was designed to (a) maintain equal treatment for the customers (b) process clientele efficiency and (c) increase the rationality of decision-making. Weber's concept of bureaucracy illustrates the following characteristics – specializations of labour, well-defined hierarchy of authority, clearly defined responsibilities, impersonality of relations, promotions based on technical qualifications, centralization of authority etc. the behaviour of bureaucrat leader will be impersonal and barely acceptable as the leader with these characteristics became more mechanical.

The leadership studies provide a rich ground for research, many
theories have been propounded on the notion that there must be "one best way" to lead the subordinates. Whether it is the trait theory (the success of the leader is guaranteed by the existence of certain traits).

In essence, the contingencies model states that the situational control plays a major part in determining leadership effectiveness and the leaders are capable of modifying key components of their situation for the purpose of improving their performance. Fielders and Maher (1979).

Fielder's theory may be criticized or supported on many counts. However, the points which Fielder made have been more or less accepted is the contention that effectiveness of a leadership style is contingent on a number of actors. Even Ohio State Study Group (Ker et al, 1974) accepts that the effectiveness of initiating structure is dependent on the preference of consideration in the leader-following relationship.

The most illuminating model of leadership effectiveness is Fielder's contingency model. In Fielder's model, leadership effectiveness is the result of interaction between the style of the leader and the characteristics of the environment in which the leader is operating. Fielder's conception is that the most critical aspect of a situation from a leadership standpoint is favourableness, or the extent to which conditions provide the leader with a potential power to influence the group's behaviour. Three main factors combine to determine favourableness: task structure, leader-member relations and power position. Each of these variables is divided into "high" and "low" categories as they were measured by "Least Preferred by Component-worker" (LPC) concept. It yields eight possible combinations of the three situational variables, which define the favourableness of the situation for the leader. For

27
example, if leader-member relations are good, the task structure is high and the leader power position is high, the situation is very favourable for the leader i.e. the leader is able to influence the group, if the reverse is true the situation is very unfavourable for the leader.

**Leadership Style Continuum**

There are, of course, blends. A continuum of leadership behaviour is illustrated in Figure-1. The boss-centered leadership behaviour on the far left is typical of an authoritarian leader who maintains a high degree of control. Position power is used by the leader to dictate decisions that satisfy his or her own interests, opinions, and feelings. The main emphasis is on “getting the job done”. In moving right, toward the subordinate-centered end of the continuum, that control is gradually released. As a result, increased attention is given to the interests, opinions and feelings of the workers. The subordinate-centered behaviour on the right side of the continuum is representative of democratic leader.

![Leadership Style Continuum Diagram](image)

**FIGURE - 1: Continuum of Leadership Behaviour**

The continuum would need to be extended to the right in order to include laissez-faire leader behaviour. The extension was not made because a laissez-faire atmosphere really presents the absence of formal leadership. Any leadership that might occur within such an expanded area would be classified as informal or emergent.

If we observe and analyse various leaders in different organizations, we do not find that they all have the same style, many may be successful, though their approaches differ significantly. This problem led many researchers to conclude that one should carefully analyse the situation to select the best leadership style to achieve the organizational goals and objectives.

**HUMAN RELATIONS MOVEMENT IN EDUCATION**

The educational interest applying human relations ideas to problems of school administration has been spurred by several developments taking place inside a country and several developments taking place inside and outside schools. Outside the school the growing urban character as well as improvements in transportation, have narrowed the distance between home and school. More and more schools are being located in suburban areas to accommodate the educational needs of the nation’s middle class and poor students of slums who are increasing day by day in the cities. This trend facilitated community involvement in educational affairs. Parent-teacher associations and interactions between school staff and the public have increased. The changing environment around the schools and the need for better public relations provide sound reasons for educators to adopt a view of management that promises to
enhance their social and interpersonal skills. Conditions inside school organizations also cause administrators to look to human relations.

After mid-century concept of school leadership were no longer defended on philosophical worthiness but shifted to how well school executives understood human behaviour and the dynamics of interpersonal relations. In human relations writings, developments of skills in non-directive counselling and psychological testing were viewed as essentials for effective administrators R.F. Campbell et. al (1987).

Perhaps the most significant recent change in educational administration is the demand for aggressive and effective leadership at school and district levels. More than ever the general public expects school administrators to be active leaders of the instructional programmes. Educational leaders must envision strengthened schools and be able to bring about conditions that will ensure a high quality education. They must also be capable of conveying symbolic meaning to nourish aspirations and achieve these goals. They must articulate a coherent vision as well as define the components of quality education for students.

**A Motivational Model of Educational Leadership:** Other profound effects on human relationship movement stem from more recent studies of leadership in organizations. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) conceptualized leadership as transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership is an exchange process or problems intervention relationship and correlates with the traditional command and control styles of management. In transformational leadership, leaders attribute their own power to better interpersonal skills, hard work, net working and inspiration. In this view, leadership is individual consideration and intellectual stimulation, and inspires followers to raise their own levels of self-awareness.

Sergiovanni (1992) proposed transformative leadership be capable
of enhancing the ability of members in social organizations to realize their visions and achieve goals. He added a moral dimension to leadership that allows for the creation of a covenant of shared values, commitment, and vision that can move members to develop an effective, successful organization. However, he also asserted that transactional leadership has a role to fill within organization. This can be seen in the expanded needs for instructional and interpersonal leadership.

Bass (1981) identified transactional leadership with first order change based on expected performance. Transactional leaders provide rewards when meted, encourage individual self-interests and attempt to align self-interest with organizational goals. He identified transformational leadership as a second order changes in attitudes beliefs and values, based on performance beyond expectations. Both Bass and Sergiovanni asserted that the practice of transformational leadership can result in organizational members achieving beyond expectations because of the intrinsic self-motivation. Organizational members become committed to a shared set of values and beliefs that become a professional covenant embodied in their thoughts and actions.

Conceptualization of transformative leadership

Sergiovanni’s leadership concept is illustrated in Figure-2. Each circle is enveloped by a shared vision that derives all beliefs and actions within the districts. This vision originates from the chief supervisor and is developed through meanings attached to that supervisor’s actions, decisions and behaviours. Congruent with this vision are the shared values, beliefs and understandings that are developed by other organizational partners. The chief supervisor works with this constituency to develop means for shared planning and decision-making.
From these actions a compact form that fuels the activities of each school or department. Shared actions result in the school or departments as a culture forms to build shared commitment to active and enhance student success as outlined in the vision. In this budding environment leaders in these settings must be adept at communication, team building and instructional management. Equally important a third arena represents the tactical leadership skills needed by the chief supervisor of the district. Newly formed teams will each need to learn to rely on each other's expertises, develop collaboration mechanisms become reflective, and together formulate plans, make decisions and act. Leaders must be adept at instituting an environment that builds the capabilities for all concerned.

Figure - 2
Conceotualization of transformative leadership
(Source: Taken from Taher A. Razik. "Fundamental Concepts of Educational Leadership (2001), p. 185]"
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Interpersonal relationship is a key to leadership success. It is defined as a network of relationship that exists in an organization, nurtured by a leader through the use of interpersonal qualities and skills to achieve the organizational goals. No doubt interpersonal relationship is acquired by a leader with the help of interpersonal skills. The leaders in the educational setting who have interpersonal skills can stimulate conditions that foster strong relationship with teachers and students, creating trust among subordinates to contribute their best for achieving organizational goals. They have to develop a network of relationship in the school to accomplish its objectives, the leaders who cannot meet others, build working relationships carry a heavy handicaps. The interpersonal qualities cement relationship more strong and healthy, which comprises of warmth, genuineness, empathy and unconditional positive regard Rogers (1967). These personal qualities are necessary if leaders are to use interpersonal skills effectively. They form the bedrock of all effective human relationship.

Strengthening Interpersonal Relationship

In order to ensure motivation among group members to contribute that all facets are based on sincerity, concern and commitment. But where does this come from? It mainly comes from mutual trust, trustworthiness of school head and innate faith of the group towards intentions and integrity of their leader, when a leader of the school is perceived to be trustworthy, dynamic and sincere and having a sense of direction, other will see him as trustworthy. And when he has instilled that trust, people are likely to comply with his directions or instructions. “Trust” as a basic conviction is something very vital to an institution for its growth.
and development.

Trust in the principal is determined primarily by the behaviour of a principal. Trust in the principal comes directly from the principal’s collegial behaviour that generates climate of teacher professionalism. Teacher professionalism combines with collegial leadership to generate a strong trust in the Principal. Openness and authenticity are the key ingredients of trust relations. Trust has been called the “Foundation of school effectiveness”. Cunningham and Gresson, (1993) Trust allows individuals to focus on the task at hand, and, therefore, to work and learn more effectively. Productive relationships build effective school. Wayne and Hoy and his colleagues have engaged in over a decade of research on trust in schools. They have found teacher’s trust in their colleague as well as their principal are important elements of the trust in a school setting. Faculty trust in both colleagues and principal has been linked to a school effectiveness (Hoy et al, 1992; Tarter et al, 1995) as well as to the positive school climate (Hoy et al, 1996; Tarter et al, 1989) and principal authenticity (Henderson and Hoy, 1983, Hoy and Smith, 1986).

**Personal Qualities for Interpersonal Effectiveness**

Certain personal qualities are prerequisite for effective interpersonal relationship. The cluster of qualities occurs again and again in both the literature and the research into interpersonal skills (Truax and Carkull, 1967, Schulman, 1982, Burnard and Morrison, 1989). The personal qualities cannot be accurately described as skills but they are necessary if we are to use interpersonal skills effectively and caringly. They form the bedrock of all effective human relationships, while the skills are being used, there must be reflection of the human being that lies behind them. In fact it can be stated more strongly: the interpersonally skilled person is one
who demonstrates humane, caring qualities. Following are some of the important personal qualities for being effective interpersonally:

**Warmth:** Warm people are likely to get on better with others than frosty ones. Warmth, in a relationship process, is an ability to be approachable and open to the client. Schulman (1982) argues that equal worth, absence of blame, non-defensiveness and closeness are important considerations, which demonstrate the concept of warmth. Warmth is as much a frame of mind as a skill and perhaps one developed through being honest with oneself and being prepared to be open with others. It also involves treating the other persons as an equal.

**Genuineness:** It is another important aspect of the professional interpersonal relationship. In one sense, the issue is clear. We either genuinely care for the person in front of us or we do not. We cannot easily fake professional interest. We must be interested. The genuineness discussed here relates to the professional’s interest in the relationship that is developing between the two people. Any way in which that relationship can be enhanced must serve a valuable purpose; the question of being genuine is tied up with role.

**Empathetic Understanding:** Empathy is the term usually used to convey the idea of the ability to enter the perpetual world of the other person: to see the world as they see it. It also suggests an ability to convey this perception. Kalisch (1971) defines empathy as the ability to perceive accurately the feelings of another person to communicate this understanding to him.

To empathize is not sympathize, sympathy suggests “feeling sorry” for the other person, perhaps identifying with how they feel: with empathy
one tries to imagine how it is to be the other person. To empathize with other person would involve actually becoming that person.

**Unconditional Positive Regard:** This rather awkward phrase conveys a particularly important predisposition towards other people Rogers (1967). Rogers also called it ‘prizing’ or even just ‘accepting’. It means that the client according dignity, valued as a worthwhile and positive human being. The ‘Unconditional prefix refers to the idea that such regard is offered without any pre-conditions. Often in relationship some sort of reciprocity is demanded. Rogers is asking the feelings the professional holds for the client should be undemanding and no requirement of reciprocation.

It seems likely that unconditional positive regard will matter more in some professional situations than in others. It will be relevant, for example, in counselling and health care settings. It may be less important in business and administration. On the other hand, showing regard for people, unconditional or otherwise, is likely to an asset in any setting.

Learning not to judge others sometimes comes through accepting ourselves. We judge others more harshly when we have not resolved various personal problems, we judge even more readily when we do not know what our personal problems are. One route to learning unconditional positive regard may begin with the development of self-awareness while we cannot hope to sort ourselves out totally, as professionals it seems reasonable that we begin by at least becoming aware of some of our own problems.

**Defining the Key Interpersonal Skills:**

If there is a general agreement that interpersonal skills are necessary for leadership success, there is, unfortunately, no such consensus as to
what those skills are. A skill is the ability to demonstrate a system and sequence of behaviour that is functionally related to attaining performance goal. It is a system of behaviour that can be applied in the wide range of situations.

A number of studies have sought to identify interpersonal skills Lewis (1873); Porras and Anderson (1981); Boyalzis (1982); Levine, (1982); Whetton and Cameron (1984); AACSB (1984); and Clark et al (1985). A careful study of these studies indicates that despite the widely varying terminology certain skills tend to surface on most lists. For instance, handling conflicts running group meetings, and being able to delegate effectively seem to be regarded as key interpersonal skills, communication is also important, although it is dissected differently in different studies. The elements of effective communication that show us in most studies are listening, oral persuasion, and feedback. Similarly motivating employees is included in the most lists, although its rarely stated as simply “motivation”. Rather its broken down into parts such as goal setting providing feedback, delegating and appraising performance.

1. **Listening:** The ability to be an effective ‘Listener’ is too often taken for granted. We confine hearing with listening. Hearing is merely picking up sound vibration. Listening is making sense out of what we hear. That is, listening requires paying attention, interpersonal and remembering sound stimuli. A survey of personnel directors in three hundreds organizations found that effective listening was ranked highest among the skills defined as most important is becoming a manager Crocker (1978). Listening is also a vital ingredient for learning the remaining skills.

   Active listening requires to get inside the speaker so that one can
understand communication from his or her point of view. Active listening is hard work, a leader has to concentrate and has to, want to fully understand what a speaker is saying. There are four essential requirements for active listening (i) Intensity (ii) Empathy (iii) Acceptance and (iv) Completeness Rogers and Farson (1976).

The active listener concentrates intensely on what the speaker is saying and tunes out the thousands of miscellaneous thoughts that create distractions. Empathy requires to put oneself in the speaker’s shoes. One tries to understand what the speaker wants to communicate rather than what he wants to understand. An active listener demonstrates acceptance. He or she listens objectively without judging content. This is no easy task. It is natural to be distracted by the content of what a speaker says, especially when we disagree with it. The final ingredient of active listening is taking responsibility for completeness. That is the listener does whatever is necessary to get the full-intended meaning from the speaker’s communication. Active listeners listen their ears, their eyes and their mind. They take as the objective information by listening to the literal words that are spoken. But every spoken message contains more than words. Speakers also communicate subjective information, their feelings and emotions through other vocal words and non-verbal signals.

**Effective Listening:** The active listening model forms the foundation for making effective listener. There are fourteen specific characteristics and techniques used by listeners. Some of these characteristics are explicit behaviours that can be directly observed. These techniques are:

i. Being motivated  
ii. Making eye contact  
iii. Showing interest
iv. Avoiding distracting actions
v. Having empathy
vi. Taking interpersonal the whole picture
vii. Asking questions
viii. Paraphrasing
ix. Not interrupting
x. Integrating what being said
xi. Not over talking
xii. Confronting one’s biases
xiii. Making smooth transitions between speaker and listener
xiv. Being natural.

All these techniques are required for a good listener who uses these techniques to acquire interpersonal relationship for effective leadership.

2. **Goal Setting:** The teachers should have a clear idea what they are trying to accomplish in their jobs. Further, the principals have the responsibility for seeing that this is achieved by helping teachers to set work goals. These two statements seem obvious. The teachers need to know what they are supposed to do, it’s the principal’s job to provide this guidance when principals follow the goal setting sequence, they can expect improved teacher performance. There are five basic rules that should guide leaders in defining and setting goals. The goals should be

i. Specific
ii. Challenging
iii. Set with a time limit for accomplishment
iv. Participatively established and
v. Designed to provide feedback to the employee.
There are seven steps required to obtain the optimum results from goal setting (Locke and Latham, 1984, PP 27-37).

i. Specifying general objective or tasks to be done
ii. Specifying how the performance in question will be measured
iii. Specifying the standard or target to be reached
iv. Specifying the time span involved
v. Prioritizing goals
vi. Rating goals as to their difficulty level and importance
vii. Determining coordination requirements

*Obtaining Goals Commitment:* The mere existence of goals is no assurance that the teachers accept or committed to them. However, certain actions by teachers can increase acceptance and commitment Latham and Locke (1979). They are:

i. Leadership support
ii. Using participation
iii. Knowing subordinates capabilities
iv. Using rewards

3. **Providing Feedback:** Feedback is a sort of communication to a person that gives him or her information about some aspects of his or her behaviour and its effect on him Mill (1976) when a person tells someone sitting at an adjacent table in a restaurant that his/her cigarette smoking is bothering him, it means he is providing that person a feedback. There is substantial body of research showing that feedback increased employee performance. Komaki, Collins, and Penn (1982) and Locke and Latham (1984). Feedback can induce a person who previously had no goals to set some goals act as motivators to higher performance. Where goals exists, feedback
tells people how they are progressing toward those goals. To the degree that feedback is favourable it acts as positive reinforcer. If the feedback indicates inadequate performance, this knowledge may result in increased effort. Further, the content of the feedback can suggest ways – other than exerting more effort to improve performance, feedback often induces people to raise their goal sights after attaining the previous goals, providing feedback to employees conveys that others care how they are doing. So feedback is an indirect form of recognition that can motivate people to higher levels of performance.

**Positive Versus Negative Feedback:** Positive feedback is more readily and accurately perceived than negative feedback. Further, positive feedback is almost always accepted, the negative variety often meets resistance Ilgen, Fisher and Taylor (1979). Obviously, people want to hear good news and block out the bad. Positive feedback fits what most people wish to hear and already believe about themselves. It does not mean that a leader should avoid negative feedback, the need is to be aware of potential resistance and learn to use negative feedback in situations where it is most likely to be accepted Bartolome (1986-87). Researchers indicate that negative feedback is most likely to be accepted when it comes from a credible source or if it is objective in form. Subjective impressions carry weight only when they come from a person with high status and credibility Halperir et al (1976). This suggests that negative feedback is supported by hard data – numbers, specific examples and the like – has a good chance of being accepted. Negative feedback that is subjective can be meaningful tool for experienced leaders, particularly those high in organization who have earned the respect of their employees.
The following are the basic feedback techniques:

1. Focusing on specific behaviour
2. Keeping it impersonal
3. Making it well-timed
4. Ensuring understanding
5. If negative ensuring the behaviour is controllable by the recipient
6. Tailoring the feedback to fit the person.

4. **Appraising Performance**: At least once a year, most leaders undertake the formal ritual of appraising performance of their employees. It is a difficult job but an extremely important one. For it is the performance appraisal that provides much of data on which key personnel decisions are taken. There are three basic approaches for conducting the performance review (i) telling and selling (ii) telling and listening and (iii) problem solving Maier (1976). With tell and sell, the leader acts as judge. That is, the leader tells the employee how well he is doing and then persuades him to change in the way the leader desires. Tell and listen approach is similar except that the leader conveys assessment about the strengths and weaknesses in the employees performance and tells the employee respond to these statements. The leader tries to understand the employees feelings by emphasizing the active listening. The problem solving approach takes a very different task in this approach, the leader acts as a partner and works jointly with the subordinates to develop employee’s performance. It requires the leader to practice both joint goal setting and effective listening. Most contemporary discussions of the performance review advocates the problem solving approach. The following are the behavioural guidelines essential for performance appraisal:

1. Scheduling for formal appraisal review in advance and be prepared.
ii. Putting the employee at ease.

iii. Be sure that the employee understands the purpose of the appraisal review.

iv. Minimizing threats.

v. Obtaining employee participation.

vi. Having the employee engage in self-evaluation.

vii. Criticizing performance but not the person.

viii. Softening the tone when criticizing, but not the message.

ix. Not exaggerating.

x. Using specific examples to support one’s rating.

xi. Giving positive as well as negative feedbacks.

xii. Having the employee sum up the appraisal review.

xiii. Detailing a future plan of action.

5. **Disciplining:** Regardless of how good a leader one is or how able and motivated a group of subordinates one manages, the hard truth is that at one time or another, one will have to discipline a problem employee. For many leaders, initiating disciplinary action is one of the most difficult interpersonal activities they are required to do. While knowledge of proper discipline skills won’t make the task easier, it can make the outcome more effective. Disciplining refers to actions taken by leader to enforce organization’s standards and regulations; discipline is seen as related to correction. Some view discipline as encompassing more formal sanctions than punishment. Following are the essential basic disciplinary techniques:

i. Doing home work before accusing any one.

ii. Ensuring whether ample warning had been provided.

iii. Acting not in a timely fashion.
iv. Conducting the discipline session in private.

v. Adopting a calm and serious tone.

vi. Being specific about the problem.

vii. Keeping it impersonal.

viii. Getting the employees side of the story.

ix. Keeping control of the discussion.

x. Agreeing on how the mistakes can be prevented next time.

xi. Selecting disciplinary action progressively and consider mitigating circumstances.

xiii. Documenting the disciplinary session.

6. **Delegating:** Leaders are typically described as individuals who get things done through other people. This description recognizes that there are limits to any leader’s time and knowledge. Effective leaders, therefore, need to understand the value of delegating and how to do it. Delegation stresses the transfer of authority from a leader to a subordinate. It allows a subordinate to make decision – that is, it’s shift decision making authority from one organizational level to another lower one Leana (1986). Importantly, delegation should not be confused with participation, with delegation, subordinates make decisions on their own. Delegation is frequently depicted as a four-step process (i) allocation of duties (ii) delegation of authority (iii) assignment of responsibility; and (iv) creation of accountability. The following skill dimensions of delegating are given by McConkey (1974); Steinmetz (1976)

i. Clarifying the assessment.

ii. Specifying the subordinate’s range of discretion.

iii. Allowing the subordinates to participate.

iv. Informing others that delegation has occurred.
v. Establishing feedback controls.
vi. Insisting on recommendations from the subordinates.

7. **Using Oral Persuasion:** Oral persuasion is the conscious verbal manipulation of symbols to induce others to take action *Lerbinger* (1972, P.13). What makes persuasion unique is that it preserves freedom "persuadees feel they are acting of their own accord within the goals and guidelines set for them" *Lerbinger* (1972, P.5). A review of the oral communication and persuasion research has identified a number of suggestions that can help to improve persuasive skills. These skills are:-

i. Establishing credibility
ii. Using positive tactful tone
iii. Making presentation clear
iv. Presenting strong evidence to support one’s position
v. Tailoring argument to the listener
vi. Appealing to the subject’s self-interest
vii. Using logic
viii. Using emotional appeal

8. **Politickeing:** In the real world of organizations the “good guys” don’t always sin. Demonstrating openness, trust, objectivity, support and similar human qualities in relationships with others does not always lead to improve leadership effectiveness. There will be times when to get things done that one wants done or to protect one’s interests against the maneuvering of others, a person will to play “hard ball”. That is, he will have to engage in politicking. Politics relates to who gets what, when and how. Politicking is the actions one can take to influence or attempt to influence the distribution of advantages with one’s organization *Farrell and Peterson* (1982).
The following are specific strategies used by the effective leaders:

i. Framing arguments in terms of organizational goals

ii. Framing the right image

iii. Gaining control on organizational resources

iv. Making yourself appear indispensable

v. Being visible

vi. Getting a mentor

vii. Developing powerful allies

viii. Avoiding “tainted” member

ix. Supporting their bosses.

9. **Running a Group Meeting:** Running a group meeting is a prominent function of a leader, it requires suitable skill to interact with the personnel to establish relationship to implement the decisions taken in the meeting. The group meetings are not only devices for disseminating information, they are effective tools for decision making, introducing change and developing a spirit, a team work. When run effectively, however meeting can be costly, time consuming and demoralizing to participants. The following are the important strategies required to run the group meetings:

i. Setting objectives

ii. Selecting participants

iii. Planning the agenda

iv. Doing homework

v. Setting a time and place

There are certain skills required to conduct the meeting successfully:

i. Beginning the meeting

ii. Encouraging the problem solving
iii. Keeping the discussion on track
iv. Controlling the discussion
v. Reaching the decision
vi. Ending the meeting

10. **Resolving Conflicts:** Conflict is a natural phenomenon of organizational life, it can never be completely eliminated. That of course, isn’t necessary bad. Conflict has some positive properties. It stimulates creativity, innovation and change *Robbins* (1978). If organizations are completely devoid of conflicts, they would become apathetic, stagnant, and unresponsive to change. Yet all conflicts are not clearly functional or constructive. When leaders typically talk about conflict problems dysfunctional effects and how they can be resolved. Given this reality even though conflict management encompasses both conflict stimulation and conflict resolution techniques *Robbins* (1978). Few interpersonal skills draw upon other interpersonal skills the way conflict resolution does – specifically resolving conflicts uses goal setting, listening, feedback and oral persuasion skills. Both listening and feedback skills are central to effective communication. To manage conflicts effectively a leader needs to know himself as well as conflicting parties; to understand the situation that has created the conflicts and to aware of his options. Important skills required to solve the conflicts are:-

i. Being judicious in selecting the conflicts that one wants to handle
ii. Evaluating the conflict players
iii. Assessing the source of conflicts
iv. Knowing one’s options
v. Selecting the ‘best’ options
Communication: Communication is the very life — blood of administration and its channels are the organism's circulatory system. An effort has already been made to substantiate the view. However, it is proper to consider communication in a more specific sense — as a device of each of the other activities of administration, for it is an indispensable universal tool. And to no administrative function is it more significant than to control. An enumeration of the contribution, it can make to control will provide foci for discussing communication stratagems in control.

By the glossary definition, communication is "a process through which an individual receives a sense impression of another". Communication, in its broad meaning, is the only way that liaison can be maintained by the administrator with those under him. It must thus be seen as a control device sine qua non, for control demands the exchange of ideas. The administrator must know the mind of his people to be able to judge what if any control they require. He should avoid misconstruction and falsification for effective communication, which enables him to control effectively. An effective communication technique works as wonder drug to eliminate hostility and establish harmony among the members to achieve the objectives of the organization. In recent years, there has been much attention to "the silent language" and Bird Whistell (1968) summarized the developing science of Kinesics, which has to do with messages sent through body postures and movements. The researchers are busy in investigating the effect of communication on leadership effectiveness.

The following skill dimensions of communication are:

i. Using communication as a weapon to eliminate hostility

ii. Trying to become ethical sincere and direct while communicating

iii. Avoiding errors, misconstruction and falsification
iv. Developing an elaborate communication system in the organization
v. Trying to find reflection of trust in recipients while communicating
vi. Using silent language to communicate

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

More recent trait research is being conducted in a different ways. Rather than comparing leaders and non-readers across a number of situations, researchers are comparing effective with ineffective leaders in the same situation, or they are comparing the relationship between personality characteristics, traits and leadership effectiveness. The approach has proved to be much more difficult problem research. There is at least one important reason for this difficulty. The term effectiveness of a leader is difficult to define. In many instances one cannot get consensus among observes and group ineffective. Nevertheless, a number of studies have yielded some evidence concerning the predictors of effective leadership. In 1974 Stogdill updated his earlier research by reporting the results of a review of 163 trait studies and Gary Yuke reviewed and researched his findings. The results of these studies are stronger and more consistent than earlier trait studies.

The trait approach to leadership effectiveness is still much alive today. However, most of the current research focusses on job related skills rather than personality traits of leaders, as exemplified by the work of Warren Bennis and Robert Katz. Katz has identified the technical, conceptual and human skills needed for effective leadership.

Despite some eighty years of intensive research, a
A comprehensive theoretical understanding and explanation of leadership remains to be developed. The current view is that leadership effectiveness depends upon the interaction between variables associated with the leader (i.e. personal characteristics, behaviour factors and situation variables). It seems apparent that leader emergence or acceptance if appointed from outside the working group depends upon the interactions of similar variables. These current theories of leader effectiveness attempt to identify a 'best fit between leader behaviour, style indicators and situational variables'.

**Figure - 3:** Principal Classes of Variables which Interact to determine leader effectiveness
The problems facing current theory development are illustrated in Figure-3, which provides simplified summary of the principal classes of variables, which interact to determine leader effectiveness. Any comprehensive leadership theory attempting to integrate past research usefully, will have to develop the means to cope with this complexity.

An effective leader is one who knows how best to plan, organize, administer and run the programmes and activities of the school in order to enable it to realize its objectives. There seems to be an agreement that with strong leadership by the principal, a school is likely to be effective, without capable leadership, it is not. Similarly the success of a leader is governed by the team work with which the tasks of the school are carried out. Of all relationships, principal-teacher relationship is the strongest link in bringing improvement within the school. In order to bring about improvement within the internal school system, the behaviour or the style a leader adopts while functioning in the school is of utmost importance in bringing about overall school improvement. Leadership effectiveness lies in the capacity of the leader to utilize minimum existing resources for the maximum achievement. Effective educational leaders should have a clear understanding of their functions, a desire for and a knowledge of group dynamics, be academically and professionally honest, have a desire to cut red tape; be understanding, patient, imaginative and innovative, must exhibit the virtues of honesty, integrity, cooperation and concern for others and must be adaptable.

**Factors in Leadership Effectiveness**

The study of factors contributory to the growth of leadership during the preceding few decades has been made from several standpoints and principally from a sociological, psychological and educational standpoint.
Leadership from a psychological standpoint has generally been studied by social psychologists. Most of the social psychological efforts in this direction were aimed at ascertaining personality and environmental characteristics. The research methodology adopted by a majority of social psychological research workers was either the survey or the causal comparative research methods. They used these methods for the exploration of leadership principally owing to their assumption that these methods provide an index of the trend of characteristics of the leaders. Results obtained by a majority of studies indicate that the effectiveness of leadership is contingent upon two types of factors, namely, the personality characteristics of the leaders and the situational factors.

Personality factors refer to all the characteristics, attributes, competencies, values which go to contribute the total integrated structure of the personality. Broadly speaking all these factors have been categorized into three categories, namely, cognitive, affective and psychomotor. Of these three categories of personality factors which are related to the first two categories namely cognitive and affective, have been found to bear some relationship with leadership effectiveness.

Situational factors are those factors which influence leadership through the characteristics of situation. Situation has generally been used to mean a set of values and attitudes with which the individual and the group has to deal in a process of activity and with regard to which this activity is planned and its results appreciated. According to Thomas and Znaniecki (1947) a situation has five elements, namely, the structure of interpersonal relation within a group, the characteristic of the group as group as taken as unit, the characteristics of larger culture in which the group exists and from which group members are drawn, the physical
conditions within which a group finds itself concentrated to act and the perceptual representation within the group and among its members of these elements and the attitudes and values engendered by them.

As far as the influence of personality factors on leadership effectiveness is concerned, a list of studies, which have been reviewed in the second chapter of this report, have been made. As for example, Stogdill and associates (1948) found capacity, achievement and responsibility, to be related to leadership effectiveness. Besides these, Cattell (1954) found emotional maturity, dominance, character integration, super ego-strength, social adventurousness, shrewdness, low anxiety, deliberate will control and absence of nervous tension to be associated with effective leadership. Several studies reviewed elsewhere in this report indicate the factors like intelligence, adjustment, extraversion, dominance and social sensitivity contribute leadership effectiveness.

Situational factors too contribute to leadership effectiveness. As for example Stogdill (1948) found participation and status to bear significant relationship with leadership effectiveness. Tibb (1954) was of the opinion that power within a group influences leadership. Carter (1953) found that nature of tasks given to a group exerts a moderate influence on the growth of leadership. Cart Write and Zander (1953) showed in their study that the characteristics of the group play a significant role in the development of leadership. As stated above, both types of factors, namely, personality and situation, contribute to leadership effectiveness. As a matter of fact none of these factors operate independently. Leadership is a resultant of the mutual interaction that take place between situational and personality factors. If an individual has not personality attributes which enter into leadership phenomenon, he cannot be a leader howsoever conducive situation may be for him.
Likewise, even if an individual has all the attributes which go to develop leadership, he can hope to be an effective leader unless there is a situation which is conducive to the blossoming of his leadership potential.

Who makes the organization tick? Of course, it's people who individually and collectively with their skills and abilities to perform jobs. A dependent relationship exists between people and organizations. Workers are interested in job security, advancement and participation. From organization's view, "person power" is integral part of producing goods and providing services. Management responds to employee concerns in a variety of ways yet the need for improved human relations continue to be a challenge.

Views of employees are based on their experience, attitude, and opinions. Individuals accept or reject organizational philosophies and practices. If their views are considered, employees are more likely to exert greater on job efforts and to develop loyalty. When employers are perceived negatively, indifference toward job responsibilities lessens productivity and causes moral problems workers want their contributions valued and they seek respect from bosses. Effective leaders strive to build employee confidence and to strengthen human relationship. Human relation skills are more important than before because workers have high expectations from employment, feel that they are capable of making significant contribution and demonstrate less tolerance for authority.

As shown in Figure-4 organizational effectiveness depends on the performance of individuals and groups since humans are key factors to organizational success, their views about jobs, responsibilities and personal capabilities cannot be ignored.

Essentials of positive organizational climates include open channel
of communication, recognition of accomplishments and opportunities to participate. While individual concepts of an ideal climate differ, research shows that trust is a most important factor. Unfortunately trust cannot be mandated. It involves from interactions occurring over extended period of time. Strong interrelations build trust and confidence. When practiced effectively, participation can produce several beneficial results, including better understanding of policies and improved opportunities to communicate corporate cultures.

FIGURE 4: Causes of Effectiveness

[Source: James L. Gibson, John M. Ivancevich and James H. Donnelly, Jr. Organizations (1985) P. 28]
In addition to job security, employees expect a variety of tangible job related benefits, such as health, and life insurance, disability income protection, retirement plans and vacation periods. These expectations change employees outlook to their employers. People form opinions about themselves and their firms. Positive outlooks serve to motivate, build confidence, develop moral and promote creativity. Conversely, negative views contribute human relations problems.

Organization strive to attain goals, provide desired goods and services, maintain good relations with employees, customers, and the public, and earn a satisfactory return on investment. If their activities are not well performed, organizations cannot survive. Therefore, the human dimension is critical and knowledgeable personnels who are committed to their jobs represent the key to success.

**CHANGED ROLE OF SCHOOL HEADS**

It is sure that our schools need improvement. It is commonly held that schools are incapable of reforming themselves. School improvement, if it comes at all will come from within schools are facing dramatic changes in their roles. Today, the school as a single unit in emerging urban scenario is increasingly been recognized as an institutional force in bringing change and improvement in pupil performance. Attention in recent years has shifted to the school head because as an able leader, he has the capacity to create conditions that elicit the best from most teachers, students and parents, most of the time principals, more than any one else, can insulate teachers from distracting, outside pressures so that they may devote their energies to students. Principals have the capacity to stimulate conditions that foster strong relationships with teachers, offer best academic guidance and make improvement in classroom situations. One finding that consistently emerges from the recent wave of studies is the importance of principal within the school. The words may vary but the message is same.
The head enjoys a vital position in an effective school. The quality of educational programme depends on principal staff relation and then leadership style one adopts renders him an effective head.

The principal is the most potent factor determining school climate.

Show me a good school, I will show a good principal.

Leithwood et al (1990) concentrated upon the research results conducted between 1974 and 1988 to ascertain the importance of school leadership in bringing about effectiveness and improvement in schools. The study revealed:

- School leaders are capable of influencing teachers adoption, and use of innovative classroom practices and teacher's role satisfaction.
- Highly effective school leaders demonstrate high level of commitment to goal for the school especially instructional goals.
- Such leaders articulate on over all multifaceted vision for the school.
- School leaders face a number of obstacles in the practices that may be raised by teachers in the school (lack of motivation to change uneven professional development) ambiguity in leader's role (uncertain expectations) or complexity (e.g. number of people to consider) and those associated with the system (e.g. hierarchical structures, rigid and time consuming policies and practices, inadequate resources et.) those created by the community (e.g. pressure of internal groups). The study highlights the importance of understanding of school leaders 'internal mental processes' and states their rational and non-rational elements. This calls for urgency in understanding internal states of a school leader to help him to change his behavioural dispositions in order to prepare him for managing, changed role expected of him at the transitional phase.
NEED AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Over the years review of research to the leadership styles, behaviour, interpersonal relationship and effectiveness have appeared in the literature. Research was characterized as limited and in a need of an integrated and cooperative research effort, taking in longitudinal study and in need of an interdisciplinary approach. Organizations exist to accomplish specific goals, they rely on leaders to make sure that common goals are accomplished. Throughout history, there are numerous examples of failing organizations that have been revived by the skilled leadership of new leaders. Even more examples exist of those that withered due to poor leadership. Effective leaders are required not only in top management but also through organizations within school, there is a need of principal who can accomplish the goals efficiently. In the review of more than 1000 studies Warren Bennis and Bart Nanus (1985) point out that the research has produced more than 350 definitions of effective leadership with no clear and unequivocal understanding as to what distinguished leaders from non-leaders.

The experience of working in government senior secondary schools with recruited and promoted principals of Delhi reveals this fact that there has been different perception among administrators, teachers and parents regarding leadership styles, interpersonal relationships and effectiveness of these two groups of principals. A conflicting view is perceived and different opinions have been prevailing in the organization pertaining these two categories of principals. Even these two groups of principals perceive about their position differently due to their mode of selection. The present situation motivated the investigator to study these two groups of principals in the light of their mode of selection and to find out who administers the ‘best’ in the organization. The most fundamental issue associated with the improvement of educational leadership is to identify and recruit the ‘best fit’ leaders for better goals achievement. It is core issue to select talented
and efficient leaders with propitious skills of interpersonal relationship in educational institutions. It is essential to identify potential leaders and to recruit them in the field of educational administration.

In the new millennium a very strong dynamic leadership would be required with essential interpersonal skills to address the leadership problems. The information age is already progressing toward a knowledge age, an age when numerous people will have and need new and stronger leadership abilities. Leaders in all walk of life will need to be shown they have the aptitude and potential to direct, to be critical thinkers, to act individually and collectively, to enhance their levels of commitment, vision and responsibility. The most important challenge will be to build new leadership capabilities to achieve the objectives. Therefore, there is a need to study leadership style, interpersonal relationship and effectiveness of the principals who administer the schools with competence, examining their mode of selections, as a factor affecting their leadership styles, interpersonal relationships and effectiveness.

The present investigation is a sincere endeavour to study the leadership styles, interpersonal relationships and effectiveness exhibited by the recruited and promoted principals while performing assigned duties in government senior secondary schools of Delhi.

**TITLE OF THE STUDY:**

“A comparative study of Leadership Style, Interpersonal Relationship and Effectiveness of the Recruited and Promoted Principals of Delhi.”

**MEANING AND DEFINITION OF THE KEYWORDS:**

**Leadership:** Ability to get others involved in solving problems, ability to recognize when a group requires direction; to effectively interact with a group to guide them to accomplish a task.
Leadership Style: Leadership style is the pattern of behaviours of a person who assumes or is designated to a position of influence in an organization. It is the process of influencing the activities of others, through the process of communication, toward the achievement of a goal.

Interpersonal Relationship: Interpersonal relationship is defined as a network of relationship that exists in an organization nurtured by a leader through the use of interpersonal skills along with personal qualities to achieve the organizational goals.

Leadership Effectiveness: Leadership effectiveness is the result of an interaction between the style of the leader and characteristics of environment in which the leader is operating - conditions provide leader with potential power to influence the groups’ behaviour.

Objectives of the Study:

The objectives framed for the study were as under: -

i. To study the leadership styles of the recruited and promoted principals of Delhi.
ii. To study interpersonal relationship of the recruited and promoted principals of Delhi.
iii. To study leadership effectiveness of the recruited and promoted principals of Delhi.
iv. To compare the leadership style of the recruited and promoted principals of Delhi.
v. To compare the interpersonal relationship of the recruited and promoted principals of Delhi.
vi. To compare the leadership effectiveness of the recruited and promoted principals of Delhi.