Chapter 1

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework
1. Introduction

Development of a nation, in real sense, lies in educating youth without any discrimination. Keeping this thing in mind, a Greek philosopher Diogenes of Sinope (412 - 323 BC); has rightly said that, “the foundation of every state is the education of its youth”. No nation in the world can be strong enough to survive long, without the strong foundations of education. Education, has led the nations to rule the world since ages. Developed countries have dominated the world and ruled it for a long period of time. That ascendancy was accompanied by material and military might. But in the present world the situation is altogether different. Though the material and military reign is still playing its role in the domination, but the actual control mainly comes through the weapon of education. Nations, which take over the field of education indirectly, rather directly in a new sense of thinking, control the world and this supremacy is acknowledged worldwide and not scolded or protested as had been the case with imperialistic ascendancy. Arne (2013), the United States Secretary on Education has rightly quoted Nelson Mandela in his blog USAID, “education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world”.

Education is an essential and fundamental part of human progress (Elizabeth, 2011), which has experienced changes and along these lines education should likewise witness the same. It is undeniably so, because education is a dynamic procedure therefore, it is regularly under a continuous flux. The demands and challenges of the developing civilisation change with time. The education should likewise adapt up to a similar pace all together, not just to be significant with the modern times and suffice the need, but also be able to develop personalities, which can bring about modification in the society and also have the capacity to undertake an operational role in nation building. Education plays an essential role in the development of individuals (Venkatraja & Indira, 2011). Educated folks are conscious of the socio-economic situation of the country and can assist in the progress of the country (Samuel, 2013). In this manner, it must be transmitted from one generation to the next. To make it more significant, it must be enhanced at each phase through new commitments and developments.

In the 21st century, education is fundamental for the society to become progressive. Therefore, its deficiency cannot be accepted at any cost. If a country does not pay adequate attention to education, it will be perpetrating suicide in a slow manner until catastrophe overwhelms it. It is hard to believe that education is a multifaceted and highly specialized field and its proficient administration necessitates technical competency, administrative
capacity and understanding of the educational development. Change is an essential element for educational system of any country. Shifting trends in politico-socio-economic relationship of societies necessitate the significance to re-structure the configuration of education consonant with the emerging needs and wishes of ever changing societies. Educational system needs to be reformed to suffice the needs of today with respect to the expansion of self-helpfulness and the spirit of free inquiry established on individual observation and reasoning as dissimilar to the traditional style.

Likewise, India is on the verge of a great change. Developmental programmes are being deliberated and carried out to boost the national wealth of the country. Natural resources are being exploited to accelerate economic efficiency. Education is also receiving an enormous impetus. It is recognised that democracy stays alive and flourishes only when mass education is ensured at each and every level. The Constitution of India calls for universal elementary education up to the age of fourteen (Dhar, 2010). Transformation in philosophy, aims, core curriculum, methodology and assessment are being initiated at all levels of education. At the elementary stage, basic education has substituted the customary subject-centred curriculum. Secondary education is intended to match the needs of the society and individuals. Programs of teacher education are being speeded-up. Universities have grown and become more complex as the nation itself has evolved and become more complicated. University and higher education is expanding both horizontally and vertically. Adults are receiving formal and informal education to adapt themselves to the changing situation. For this purpose, a comprehensive plan of social education is being worked out. But the success of all these educational plans depends upon the effectiveness of educational administration.

There are different segments and procedures that perform as facilitator in drawing out the best from what is accessible and available. Administration ensures the procedure of assimilating the efforts of individuals in order to inspire the progress and achieve excellence. Administration is not merely a managerial field, but a fast and developing profession through professional training, internship in teaching, minor administrative experience, acquired ability to shape education, to changing social trends, use of scientific tests, research results, democratic leadership of personnel and the practice of basing procedures on established principles.

Administration has been viewed by practitioners as both an art and a science. As an art, it is believed that administration is acquainted by sensibilities, perceptions and
presentiment. The administrator as an artist tries to generate new realities to inspire others, while enacting the adjacent situation. As a science, administration is guided by an awareness of organisation, system and schedules. The administrator as a scientist assembles and examines the data, assesses the relationships, infers causality and generates and tests hypotheses (Nisbett & Ross, 1980). Good administrators are most likely to behave both as artists as well as scientists (Birnbaum, 1988).

Educational administration grants access to the students to receive the education from the teachers under suitable conditions leading to their learning. It is an inclusive attempt to direct, guide and integrate the human endeavour with an aim to achieve specific objective set for the society. It deals with educational institutions right from the elementary schools to colleges and universities. It is concerned with both human and material resources. Good education is the product of good administration.

Educational administration is a practice that assimilates the collective effort of number of persons, whereby, the whole fabric of education is looked-after in good working conditions. It is a procedure of employing the appropriate means efficiently to promote the development of human qualities. It embraces all those methods and procedures engaged in operating the educational organisation in harmony with established policies. It is the sum of the procedures through which appropriate human and material resources are made available and operative for accomplishing the rationale of an enterprise. Educational administration takes account of tasks like planning, organising, financing, directing, supervising, inspecting and evaluating. The policy makers, chancellors, vice chancellors, registrars, deans, heads, directors, principals, vice-principals, headmasters and supervisors are currently being regarded as administrators of education. They are ones, who are supposed to practice the policies, programmes and the plans to accomplish specific educational objectives. In short, administrators in education are essential for the success of set educational objectives. In short, the available resources that put in least human efforts and give a psychological satisfaction to all the concerned.

Educational Administration is deeply concerned with policy planning for the organisation (Dembowski, 2006) and advancement of institutions, where material and individuals are structured for the purpose of achieving educational objectives. In education, these objectives are related with teaching, learning and the development of students. Each institution has its distinct objectives. To accomplish them, material and human resources need to be coordinated, organised and used in an operational manner. To accomplish these
objectives, effective administration must be set up in colleges. The head of the institution plays a fundamental role in coordinating, planning and executing the recognised objectives of the institution.

Taylor in 1911, proposed the theory of scientific management, which focussed on enhancing the technological characteristics to increase production. In 1920, Mayo substituted the pattern with Human Relations Development, which underlined the interpersonal relationship in the working environment. On similar lines, the MHRD Government of India in National Policy on Education (1986) and the Programme of Action (1992) have paid heed to the issues associated with administration of the educational system. It suggested that there is a necessity to develop an educational framework focussing on scientific principles, in order to guarantee better execution of such educational framework. Besides that, there is a need of composed research to comprehend the parameters that make an educational framework more beneficial, more able, more constructive, more operational, more practical, more useful and more effective.

1.1 Principal as an Administrator of a College

The principal is the academic and administrative head of the college around whom the operations of the institution revolve. The administrators of the college enable teachers to believe in their capabilities and bring out their best of which they are capable of and inspire them for better and productive efforts. Principals in their capacity control the institution in such a manner that both teaching and non-teaching staff work as a unit. They offer adequate liberty for both the staffs of the college so as to develop their abilities for the advancement. The college head is equipped with knowledge, abilities and approaches and discharges the leadership role efficiently. Leadership is a process of persuading the individuals to work towards the accomplishment of an objective in a given context. More or less, leadership is about accomplishing a given objective with and through individuals. It has been witnessed that one organisation doesn’t display good results or gets worsened under one principal/person-in-charge in every manner and other organisation displays marvellous developments under another principal/person-in-charge with more or less the same staff. This might be because of policies, abilities, capabilities, competencies, skills, strategies and decisions they opt. Disparities in their decisions, policies, strategies, and techniques alongside different elements may likewise be credited to the distinctions in their personality characteristics and their behavioural orientation.
The intense focus of institutional head is on teaching and learning, similar to that of classroom teaching. The scope of classroom teaching is narrow as the teacher focuses on the definite number of students with particular areas of interest, while as the principal is engaged with the education and all-round development of all the enrolled students of the college. An educational administrator today, conveys the point of view regarding organising and directing the different territories of learning. In spite of the fact that teachers are estimated upon to have an in-depth comprehension of particular subject in their educational program, while as administrators are expected to fetch the efforts of individual instructors into equilibrium by managing the various undertakings of the students throughout the years they spend in college.

A principal is accountable for all the happenings that take place in and around the institution. His leadership not only sets the tone of the learning climate in colleges but also plays an instrumental role in the success of the students (Akpan & Archibong, 2012; Goddard & Miller, 2010; Gulcan, 2012; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Marks & Printy, 2003; Marzano, Walters, & McNulty, 2005; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008). He is the one, who builds or encourages self-esteem of teachers (Wagstaff, 1973). His way of life, his thoughts, his qualities, his educational philosophy and his notions about the human relations assume a major role in development of the institution. The prime concern of a principal is to make a prodigious educational environment and conduct the educational and co-curricular events of the college in the role of a coordinator, teacher, supervisor and a self-vigilant (Ramawat & Pandey, 2010).

The competent and able administrator is viewed as one of the most important figure in shaping the future of a country. The role played by them in advancement of their institutes is of great importance and worth recognition. A principal is a superstar, kingpin, an icon and a role model of an educational system. Without any doubt, the progress and prosperity of students depends upon the principals much more than any other. Nobody can effectively take their place or influence children in the manner and to the degree they do.

The principal, acts as a torch bearer, occupies the central positions of chief, leader, liaison, observer, disseminator, orator, entrepreneur, trouble handler, resource allocator, and negotiator (Mintzberg, 1976). The principal is the leader of the college and plays an indispensable part in defining the conditions under which teachers perform (Lam, Chen, & Schaubroeck, 2002). The success, failure and direction of an institution largely depends on the principal as they carry out a vibrant role (Cohen, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Myerson,
& Orr, 2007; Phillips, 2005), including students accomplishments, motivation of value educators, institutes vision and objectives, resource allocation, and the infrastructure to strengthen teaching and learning (Horng, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2009, p. 1).

The principal, as an academician, embraces and enfolds the assignments, like, outlining the time-table, circulation of work load, arranging co-curricular activities (seminars, conferences), sorting out classes, in-service training courses and so forth. As an administrator, the principal embraces activities like outlining the rules and regulations of the institute, executing the college plans, educational inventions, criteria for the selection of students, sustaining regularity, supervision of instruction, college environment, well-being of the students, college finance and so on. The social category includes activities like celebrating the days of national importance, preparation of social functions, scheduling club activities, arranging college exhibitions, directing games and sports, and many more. In every situation the charge of completing these tasks will be carried out by the head of the institutions, remembering academic progress of the institution with timely decisions by sharing the errand obligations to the staff and students.

The research on personality characteristics of leaders is substantial in the field of management. On the other hand, in the field of educational management, the theories developed elsewhere are yet to find any ground (Miyan & Khan, 2002). The present research is focused on the Principals of colleges of the Kashmir valley, particularly on their ability of Decision Making, Emotional Intelligence, Personality Characteristics and Job Satisfaction. The variables taken into consideration, for the study are discussed below.

1.2 Personality

The field of personality can be traced back to 1937, when Allport published Personality: a psychological interpretation, Stagner’s Psychology of personality and Murray’s 1938 book Explorations in personality magnified its horizon. These developments in American put together earlier philosophical, psychiatric and psychological, efforts (e.g., William James) and in Europe (e.g., Sigmund Freud, Pierre Janet, Kurt Lewin) (Lombardo & Foschi, 2002). As it advanced, the subject of personality reformed its conceptualizations, some themes lasted long and some faded. Diverse perspectives came into existence (see table 1.1). On one hand these perspectives pleased some and on the other hand they displeased others. Besides this, the internal dialogue between personality psychologists, psychologists of various disciplines and the public at large got influenced and responded to these
advancements. As part of a larger academic discourse, the various theoreticians, through their varying worldviews (Freud’s pessimistic prominence on repression and sexual conflict, Skinner’s standing with environmental determinism, Maslow’s optimism regarding human potential, and the possibility of a Utopian community, to name a few), promoted their acceptance or rejection of personality theories, depending on their compatibility and perceived usefulness for individual lives (Koltko-Rivera 2004).

1.2.1 Milestone in the History of Personality

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Contributor</th>
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<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>William James</td>
<td>Principles of Psychology</td>
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<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>Sigmund Freud</td>
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<td>1907</td>
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<td>1908</td>
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<td>1910</td>
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<td>1935</td>
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<td>1937</td>
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<td>Karen Horney</td>
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<td>1950</td>
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<td>1987</td>
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<td>2000</td>
<td>Seligman &amp; Csikszentmihalyi</td>
<td>Positive Psychology: An Introduction</td>
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Table 1.1 Milestones in the history of Personality

The concept of personality helps us to describe, explain and understand the human behaviour. Derived from the Latin word “Persona” meaning “Mask” is a set of traits and behaviour characterises an individual. It is believed that every individual is unique with no two people being alike in terms of temperament, behaviour and preferences. Even the same individual behaves differently in similar situation. While every individual being unique and distinct, however, there are certain commonalities in the human behaviour, where people show similar patterns of behaviour in similar situations.

There is no doubt that individuals differ from one another. Discovering differences among individuals has been an area of exploration since Hippocrates 400 BCE. Why are there differences and how their behaviour is made up, is a query that many scholars have tried to answer. The one way to determine differences among individuals is to study personality. Personality is not only a confusing term which is challenging to define but it is
the only concept, which is useful to explain and classify human behaviour in workplace. Personality is a slippery concept, which is difficult to capture in a single term. In spite of this, scholars agree that personality is fundamentally a matter of human individuality. Individual differences exist and have been based upon heredity and environment.

Personality is that special thing in an individual, which makes him unique. It’s an inimitable and comparatively constant pattern of behaviours, opinions, and sentiments revealed by individuals, which allow people to possess a different pattern of traits and characteristics not fully repetitive in any other person (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Previous researchers like Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Hemphill & Coons, 1950; Hitt, 1988; Schein, 1985; Yukl, 1994 stressed that effective leaders/principals, need to own numerous skills that allow them to lead, control, preside, regulate and administer their campuses. These skills are determined by the personality characteristics that makes an individual distinctive.

Personality in its comprehensive context can be understood as sum total of behavioural and mental characteristics that distinguish one person from another. It is the representative of the total psychological structure of an individual. It is a general term that envelops the complete set of personal characteristics such as, attitudes, traits, adjustments and needs. In other words, personality of a person is an amalgamation of all the parts of one’s psychological life; the way one reasons, the way one feels, the way one performs, the way one manages and organises himself. All these things come under the banner of personality. It is because of this mishmash that makes a person distinct from the rest and that is an eternal feature of one’s behavioural patterns (Alderman, 1974). The structure of human personality is universal. Personality is analysed in culture, social settings, behavioural contexts, and a number of other instances where individuals try to comprehend human nature.

Every leader has his/her own personality that impacts “who we are, how we interact with others, how we learn, how we develop psychologically, and how we lead” (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). The success of any administration depends basically on the personality of a principal on which institution depends in building a sustainable environment. The effect of leader’s personality can be felt across the organisation and beyond, with a motivated workforce and a positive impact in society and the environment. The personality of a principal is responsible for articulating a strategic vision for the future. The personality of a principal inspires people and builds highly efficient team which empowers them to achieve the goals of the institution.
Copland (2001) believed that the principals are the leading figures in, whatever, happens in their institution. Personality of a principal influences the staff to work for the common goal of the institution. According to Copland (2001), “Personality trait is a major determinant of the leader’s work performance”. The relationship of principal with staff is of prime importance towards modification of attitudes in preparing the students to face the future with confidence and responsibility. It is pertinent that principals possess a good personality. Personality is a behavioural picture of an individual’s totality. It is an integration of all the characteristic of an individual, whether cognitive, affective or physical, which makes him/her distinct from others.

In general, the personality of principals is judged on the basis of the way they administer their institution, how they make interaction with their staff, students and other people around them in various states of affairs. Descriptions of personality are useful in understanding the surface behaviour of individual, a more in-depth analysis is necessary, if we try to gain insight, why people behave the way they do. The important questions are not so much that a person is aggressive or friendly or competitive, but why he/she is aggressive, friendly or competitive (Alderman, 1974). The answer to this question lies in the study of personality.

1.2.2 Definitions of Personality
Definitions of personality highlighted the distinct concerns of each perspective.

Personality is commonly defined as “the coherent pattern of affection, cognition, and desires (goals) as they lead to behaviour” and “individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving” (Revelle, 2013; APA, 2017, in Ackerman, 2017).

Behavioural definitions are typically sparser, focusing on behaviour itself, and the behavioural habits formed by experience. Personality has been defined as a person’s distinguishing pattern of feeling, thinking, and behaving (Myers, 2007). Burger (2004) defines personality as “consistent behaviour patterns and intrapersonal processes originating within the individual” (p. 5), while Ryckman (2000) explains it as “the dynamic and organised set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviours in various situations” (p. 5).

Eysenck (1972) defines personality “as more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person’s character, temperament, intellect and physique which determines his unique adjustment to the environment”.

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Allport (1937) defined personality as ‘the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to the environment’ (p. 48). “Dynamic Organisation” emphasizes the fact that personality is constantly developing and changing; although at the same time there is an organisation or system that binds together and relates the various components of personality. The term “Psychophysical” reminds that personality is neither exclusively mental nor exclusively physical. The ‘organisation’ entails the operation of both body and mind, fused into a personal unity. The word ‘determine’ makes clear that personality is made up of determining tendencies that play an active role in individual’s behaviour. Personality is something and it does something. It is what lies behind specific acts and within the individual. This definition reflects that man’s personality is organised which is constantly evolving and changing. Man with the help of brain and body does something which makes him different from others. Therefore, every human being is unique in time, place, person, adjustment and quality. Personality is the mode of survival.

People differ from one another in many aspects of personality. Friedman & Schustack (2004) have given a list of eight key aspects of personality which help to understand the nature of an individual. First are the unconscious aspect and forces that are not in moment-to-moment awareness but affect the person. Second, an ego force provides a sense of identity to the individual. Third is the biological aspect of personality, which includes genetic, temperamental and psychological nature. Fourth, includes the environmental aspects which conditions and shapes the human personality. Fifth is concerned the cognitive dimensions like thinking and interpreting the world around. Sixth is the collection of specific traits, skills and predispositions of an individual. Seventh, related to the spiritual dimension enabling and prompting individuals to think over the meaning of their existence. The eighth and the last aspect, is the continuous interaction of the individual with his environment.

1.2.3 Major Theories of Personality

According to Friedman and Schustack (2004) the roots of personality psychology can be traced back to ancient human history. However, modern personality psychology can be traced in the biological sciences during the nineteenth century. Charles Darwin has states that individual characteristics are passed in organisms from one generation to another, which enabled scientists to study human behaviour scientifically.

Personality theories can be classified as per the underlying similarities such as trait theories, phenomenological theories and psychodynamic theories. These theories give
emphasis upon the individual as a unit of analysis. As has been stated by Colman (1944) personality of each individual can be described, measured and changed, systematically.

Modern personality theory as influenced by the work of Allport, Murray and Lewin began to take formal shape in the 1930s. Allport has given attention to the uniqueness and dignity of the individual. He has collected more than 50 personality definitions and categorized them under theology, law, philosophy, sociology, external appearance and psychology.

Similarly, Lewin, a Gestalt psychologist, emphasized the active and integrative nature of perceptions and suggested that the whole may greater than the parts and their sum. His approach being dynamic, he always looked for the systems that underlie the observable behaviour. He stated that the forces that affect a person’s personality change from time to time. Modern personality theorists have taken this as a reference while understanding current position of a person in a particular situation.

Murray, who studied personality broadly, defined it as a branch of psychology concerning with the study of human lives and the factors that affect their course and investigate the individual differences. Allport, Murray and Lewin have set the stage for the modern personality theorists by stating that the whole human being should focus of study.

The most important theories followed by the modern personality theorists are as follows. Psychoanalytic approach includes all the diverse theories that have been put forward by Freud in 1923. Freud has divided personality into three components: id, ego and superego. Freud believes that the behaviour of a person is outcome of these three components. Id operates according to the pleasure principle. Ego is guided by reality principle and superego is guided by the moral principle. Human personality arises from the conflict between aggressive pleasure seeking biological impulses and the social constrains on them. The Classic Psychoanalytic Perspective approaches the understanding of individual behavioural differences by declaring that it is the unconscious mind and the experiences of childhood that are responsible for these differences. Freud was followed by a number of psychologists, like, Jung, Adler, Horney, Sullivan, Fromm and Erickson later all of them varied their theories from Freud in one way or the other. Carl Jung, for example, gave his transpersonal view with a more spiritual streak. Similarly, Adler’s approach is called individual psychology which also varied from Freud from many aspects (Myers, 1992). On the other hand the Neo-Freudian and Contemporary Psychoanalytic Perspectives, the emphases move toward the conscious efforts that result in individual differences.
Behavioural approach which developed in the mid twentieth century with the works of Watson is based on the premise that scientific psychology should only study observable behaviour. It states that personality is composed of those aspects of behaviour acquired in a social context. Human beings learn to satisfy their needs by observing outcomes of behaviour and event. In other words this approach encompass the belief that all behaviours are the result of an organism’s interaction with its environment and that only those constructs that can be observed and measured are viable in the study of development. These theories have been established based upon the empirical research rather than clinical intuition. Skinner has shown how environment and conditioning shape characteristics and behaviour of an individual.

The Genetic and Evolutionary Perspectives on personality development centres around the idea that, although children are not born with integral, fully developed personalities, neither are they the “blank slates” as once thought. It is now a widely held opinion among psychologists that personality, like other genetic traits, is in part a result of biological inheritance. Thus it should not be surprising that, increasingly, the development of personality as an evolutionary phenomenon is also being considered (Burger, 2004).

The Humanistic approach developed as a reaction to earlier two approaches, namely, psychoanalytic and behavioural approaches. It added a new perspective to the study of personality, emphasizing upon the unique qualities of human beings, particularly, freedom and potential of personal growth. The Humanistic Perspectives emphasize the role of free will and individual experiences in the development of personality. It believes that human beings can control their biological urges and can rise above their animal heritage.

Phenomenological approach considers human personality in terms of the perception of human being, other people and his environment. The need of man to resolve incongruities and refashion his maladaptive interpretations results in motivation, learning and adjustments (Eysenck, 1972).

The Cognitive Perspectives deal with individual personality differences as being the result of the way individual people process information. Cognitive theory based on constructive alternatives states that interpretations of the world are subject to revision and replacement. Behaviour of people always changes with respect to their environment. Creatively representing the environment, they respond to their representations. Depending upon the perception, if one perceives the world as an adventure, they live life with adventure
and excitement. Similarly, if some see life as obstacle, they approach it without fear (Carver & Scheier, 1988).

1.2.3.1 Big Five Factor Approach

It has been discovered that personality has a vital impact on the behaviour of individuals in workplace (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Essentially, personality yields its effect on the activities of an individual by shaping the manner in which a person experiences and perceives the world (Goodstein & Lanyon, 1999). A well-researched conceptualization of personality known as the “Big Five” consists of five basic dimensions on which people vary: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism (McCrae & Costa, 2003). These factors are mostly desirable than others and can be deemed as having both positive and negative connotations. The Big Five-factors commonly known as OCEAN are described below

1.2.3.1.1 Extraversion (E)

Positive affectivity or extraversion is that trait of personality, wherein individuals experience a positive emotional state, good feeling about themselves and the world around them. Jung states that extraverted people have an objective view of the world. While as Eysenck (as cited in Feist and Feist, 2006) states that extrovert people are impulsive, sociable, optimist, lively and similar other traits, enabling rewards for them for their association with others. Such people are enthusiastic, dominant, energetic, sociable, trusting, active, expressive and excitement-seeking; they possess positive affectivity and dominance. People who are more extroverts, exercise extra leadership, are physically more operational, friendly and outgoing than others (Costa and McCrae, 1992).

Introverts on the other hand experience a high level of arousal and low sensory threshold. They experience stronger reactions to sensory stimulation, to maintain an ideal level of stimulation. They avoid situations that can cause too much excitement. They are more formal, distant and reserved in their relationships with others, as compared to the extroverts. They are also considered as careful, unsociable, passive, quiet, thoughtful, pessimistic, submissive, retiring, shy and controlled. Introverts are subjective in their outlook and tend to be less active in social situations. They are not friendly rather are reserved, are followers rather than being independent.

1.2.3.1.2 Agreeableness (A)

Agreeableness has been described by George and Jones (1996) as the difference between people who get along well and who do not. It is dimension of interpersonal
tendencies, which distinguishes soft-hearted from the ruthless people. People who score higher on agreeableness are more selfless, ethical, peace loving and committed to friends. They are also sympathetic cooperative and helpful and more likely to experience low stress. While as those, who have score low on agreeableness are more hostile, cold-hearted, confrontational, antagonistic, suspicious, critical, competitive, unkind and rude.

1.2.3.1.3 Conscientiousness (C)

It has been described as impulse control, social conformity, cautiousness, organised, attentive, dutiful, competent, devoted, dependable, responsible, punctual and hardworking. Those persons who have conscientiousness have fewer goals and exhibit self-discipline with focus. Such focused persons have academic and career achievement and are difficult to distract. People with conscientiousness address conflict situations in an organised way and are central for social roles like leaders, executives and administrators.

1.2.3.1.4 Neuroticism (N)

Neuroticism or emotional stability refers to the tendency to experience negative emotional state and stress. People with higher neuroticism, tend to be more nervous, tense and worrying. People who score high on neuroticism tend to be more anxious, temperamental, emotional and vulnerable to stress and related orders. Individuals high on neuroticism utilise poor coping tactics like wishful thinking, self-defeated, self-blame, hostility, depression, anxiety and are totally dissatisfied with their job. On the other hand individuals who score low on the neurotic scale are emotionally stable, remain calm, tempered unemotional and confront nerve-wracking situations without any trouble.

1.2.3.1.5 Openness (O)

Openness refers to the degree wherein individuals are original and are open to wide variety of stimuli. According to Fiest and Fiest, it separates individuals, who favour diversity from individuals, who support closure and gain comfort in their association with familiar people and things. The individuals who are possessed with openness personality traits are effective in imagination, have aesthetic sensitivity, remain attentiveness to internal feelings favouring of variety, own intellectual curiosity and exhibit independence to decisions. In addition to that they are curious about their internal and external worlds and are eager to think about novel ideas and alternative values.

1.2.4 Conclusion

Human personality is a complex phenomenon. It is concerned with all the behaviour of the individual both over and under the skin. Therefore, to understand the nature of
personality is not a simple thing. Several theories of personality exist. There are biographical, behavioural, dynamic and existential approaches to describing personality just to name a few. Buss (1989) states, “The behaviourist, dynamic, and social cognition perspective on personality derive from other areas of study, outside the domain of personality: respectively, learning, abnormal, and cognitive social psychology. They are necessary for a complete understanding of personality, but they do not define personality. What distinguish personality from other specialties are the individual differences called personality traits” (p. 1387).

If style is the outward practices of a leader, then personality is the inward emotions of a leader. The study of personality is a vast field and its theories are rooted deep in psychology. They sought to explain why people differ from one another by identifying fundamental personality traits. Personality is a concept, which is used to recognise stability and consistency of behaviours across different situations, uniqueness of the person and individual differences.

1.3 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a new subject of study, though the roots go back to the period of Darwin, who speculated that emotional expressions were essential for survival (McPheat, 2010). After that Thorndike (1920) recognised the term social intelligence. He identified three intelligences: mechanical, social, and abstract. Thorndike explained social intelligence as “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations” (p. 228). After that David Wechsler in early 1940s mentioned the intellective as well as non-intellective factors viz. affective, personal and social, which determine one’s capacity to prosper in life. In the course of forthcoming years, the forefront researchers hardly pay any attention in building emotional intelligence as a separate concept (Goleman & Cherniss, 2001).

Though the term emotional intelligence appeared again in 1983, when Gardner projected his concept of multiple intelligences which included both interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Gardner declared that interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences were essential types of intelligence that were usually measured by IQ tests (Cherniss, 2000). Without any doubt the origin of emotional intelligence can be traced back to early 1900’s, but one must know that the majority of the research and books on emotional intelligence has emerged with in last fifteen years.
The term emotional intelligence was put into practise in a scholastic manner by Mayer & Salovey (1990). Undoubtedly the construct of emotional intelligence was put into practice by Mayer and Salovey; but the concept did not gain any attention by the researchers and academicians. The credit for popularizing the concept goes to Daniel Goleman, who brought the term into the forefront, when he wrote the bestselling book in 1995, *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, and straightaway it started to gain attention not only from scholars and academicians, but it also received instant consideration from various associations, and the mass media as well. With the result the term became extremely significant in both kingdoms-educational and commercial. Nowadays, emotional intelligence has turned out to be a popular subject in both educational and commercial fields and some researchers view emotional intelligence as a form of real-world intelligence (Fox & Spector, 2000; Sternberg & Wagner, 1993).

The world is experiencing an insightful transformation than any time in recent memory. The rules for work are changing. These rules have little to do with academic abilities and are mainly insignificant to this standard. We are being assessed by a different yardstick. Not just by how smart we are, not by our preparation and proficiency, but also by how well we manage ourselves and each other. The new yardstick takes for granted the rational ability and practical proficiency to perform our jobs. Instead, it focuses on personal qualities like empathy, initiative, flexibility, adaptability and persuasiveness. Goleman has proposed to call these abilities “Emotional Intelligence” (Goleman, 1995, 1998). These abilities are key elements for perfection at work and are fundamental for leadership and administration.

Emotional intelligence works on the theory that knowledge and ability assist an individual to become successful; it demands an emotional comprehension of oneself and those around. Emotional intelligence impacts the general capacity of a person to deal with the natural requests and uncertainties. When one grasps, understands and realizes the circuit of emotions and thoughts he/she flourishes into a developed individual. Thus helps in managing unreasonable fears, stressful situations, understanding strengths and knocking out the weaknesses to cope up with challenges.

There is a considerable difference of opinion between the researchers about the precise meaning of Emotional Intelligence. As the construct is miscellaneous, therefore the scholars are constantly modifying their own statements (e.g., Goleman, 1998; Salovey and Mayer, 2000). Some investigators considers it as cognitive ability just as I. Q. (e. g. Mayer
and Salovey, 2000); some view it as the assemblage of traits (e.g., Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007) and others imagine that it is a combination of perceived capabilities and traits (e.g. Schutte, et.al., 1998).

Emotional intelligence is the ability of an individual to identify and recognise his own feelings and those of others, and to manage emotions within themselves and in their relationships with others (Goleman, 1998). Institutions are exclusively concerned of having emotional intelligent leaders, so that they may receive the rewards in terms of their levels of emotional intelligence. A leader with high level of emotional intelligence will have a better effect on institution than a leader with low level of emotional intelligence (Cherniss, 2003). “Leadership today requires individuals to be secure and skilled enough, in handling their own emotional reactions so that, they may deal effectively with others” (Eisenberg & Goodall, 2004, p. 257).

Organisations have understood that emotional intelligence is an indispensable part of an administrative practice. With the current emphasis on team building and adjusting to change, emotional intelligence turns out to be more critical (Goleman, 1998). Emotional intelligence stimulates the performance of a leader significantly (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Amazing leaders have the ability to work through emotions (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Goleman’s studies of emotional intelligence were specifically related to the domain of work performance. He examined how emotional intelligence affected individuals and leaders in the business world. Over and over again, a substantial case has been made keeping in view emotional intelligence among leaders inside the institutions over the past decade (Bradberry, & Greaves 2004; Cherniss, 2003; Goleman, 1998).

Researchers view emotional intelligence as a broad collection of skills of awareness and ability to control emotion in a way that promotes interpersonal connections (Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; George, 2000; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008, 2011; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence positions itself distinct from traditional intelligence as it is a collection of emotional abilities, rather than visual, spatial, arithmetic, vocabulary, or other general knowledge capacities (Goleman, 1995). Emotional intelligence can be comprehensively characterized as the capacity to know about emotions in self and of others and to deal with the emotions in self and of other people. Emotional intelligence can actually be more pervasive with an individual’s success in life both personally and professionally than cognitive intelligence (Goleman). Brown, George-
Curran, and Smith (2003) declare that “emotion is related to one’s purpose, goals, plans, and needs” (p. 380). They further give three causes why emotion influences career choice: Firstly, “emotion motivates and energizes action”. Secondly, “emotion controls and regulates action” and finally, “emotions are able to access, orient, and develop narratives about careers” (p. 380).

What makes a leader effective? Goleman (1995, 1998) and Cooper and Sawaf (1997) argued that powerful leaders have more practical abilities to carry out a job. They utilise qualities, like, initiative and compassion or empathy, adaptableness and persuasiveness - capabilities of emotional intelligence. High emotional intelligence has been associated with greater organisational work force as revealed in a study at Johnson and Johnson (Cavallo and Brienza, 2002). According to Goleman (1998, p. 94) “EI is the sine qua non of leadership”. Leaders have their impact in the organisation and they are responsible for the results of the institution. They have to have incomparable abilities to get through the troubles and lead the organisation to remarkable heights. Therefore, it is pertinent that all the principals of college should remain distinct in their own styles while facing any situation.

1.3.1 Definitions Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Researchers view emotional intelligence as an elusive concept (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998) and a considerable body of research, which offers the basis for competencies significant in almost any job (Chernis, 2000).

Weisenger (1998) states emotional intelligence as “the intelligent use of emotions: one intentionally makes one’s own emotions work for one by using them to help guide one’s behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance one’s results” (p. 1). Weisenger further advocates that emotional intelligence bring into play both intrapersonal (helping-yourself) and interpersonal (helping others) skills.

According to Steiner & Perry (1997) "Being emotionally intelligent means that you know what emotions you and others have, how strong they are and what causes them. Being emotionally literate means, you know how to manage your emotions because you understand them (p. 12)".

Salovey and Mayer (1990) first defined EI as "ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p.189). They revised their theory a bit to emphasize the cognitive component and talked about a hierarchy of mental abilities. It is “… the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate
feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth”. Mayer and Salovey, 1997 in their book “Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence” further defined, “emotional intelligence may be defined as the capacity to reason with emotion in four areas: to perceive emotion, to integrate in thought, to understand it and to manage it”.

The following models of Emotional intelligence will help us to understand the concept more clearly.

1.3.2 Models of Emotional Intelligence

The most difficult job about emotional intelligence is that, there remains a disagreement between the investigators and scholars precisely on what vocabulary to be used while defining emotional intelligence. Never the less there are numerous definitions, which categorize it as assemblage of mental abilities, collection of traits and set of both abilities and traits

In any case, three models of emotional intelligence widely recognised and used have been developed in an attempt to define the construct completely

1.3.2.1 Ability Model

Ability model is a model, which seeks to define emotional intelligence as the mental abilities.

1.3.2.2 Trait Model

Trait model is a model, which seeks to define emotional intelligence as collection of traits situated at the lower levels of personality hierarchies.

1.3.2.3 Mixed Models

Mixed models are those models, which view emotional intelligence as a combination of abilities and some personality traits and characteristics.

The above mentioned models are described below in brief:

1.3.2.1 Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

This model of emotional intelligence was developed by Mayer and Salovey in 1997 as depicted in figure 1.1. They define emotional intelligence as: “The ability to Perceive Emotions, integrate emotions to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth”
1.3.2.1.1 Emotional Perception

Emotional perception is the capacity of an individual to recognise his emotions and to understand the emotions of others expressed in pictures, voices and faces. The basic skill involved in emotional intelligence is that until and unless you can’t perceive emotions you won’t be able to manage them.

1.3.2.1.2 Emotional Use

Emotional use is the capability to bring into play the emotions of individuals in order to perform mental activities. Individuals with high emotional intelligence can think through the situation by utilising their emotions in order to get to the bottom of the problem.

1.3.2.1.3 Emotional Understanding

Emotional understanding is the ability of an individual to perceive and recognise the shades of emotions about how unlike emotions interact with one other. The capacity also embraces understanding how emotions evolve across a certain period of time.

1.3.2.1.4 Emotional Management

Emotional management is the ability of an individual to control his emotions and the emotions in others. The persons possessed with this ability in high amounts can regulate positive or negative emotions and manage them in a way that facilities the conclusion of required tasks.

The central idea of this model was that emotions are ways of information that is beneficial in integrating in social environs and social relations. It is pertinent to mention here that all individuals have not the same ability to manage emotional information and then to correlate information to whole cognitive processes. The ability model (see figure1.1) lays emphasis on the cognitive components of emotional intelligence and conceptualizes emotional intelligence in terms of capability for intellectual and emotional intelligence growth (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, and Dorheim, 1998).
1.3.2.2 Trait Model of Emotional Intelligence (Petrides, 2009)

The latest model of emotional intelligence is developed by Petrides in 2009. The model (see figure 1.2) scripts a break from the notion that EI is ability-based. Instead, it put forward that individuals contain, as a feature of their personalities, various emotional self-observations and emotional traits. These traits aren't assessed in the scientific sense; nevertheless, they are rather evaluated by the report of the respondent filled by the respondent. Obviously, with the help of self-report, the respondents portray their own traits precisely.

![Figure 1.2 Trait ‘EI bottom up’ theory](image)

It is important to mention here that, EI must be seen in combination with a complete investigation of a man's personality. The model is different from former models, which place that EI is a mind based capacity. Trait emotional intelligence theory offers an operationalization that identifies the innate subjectivity of emotional experience. As the model of emotional intelligence is the latest it will require some serious time before it can be completely inspected and confirmed or rejected by the researchers at large. “Trait emotional
intelligence concerns a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies” (Petrides, et al., 2007). In simpler terms, Trait emotional intelligence is concerned with the perceptions of the individuals about their personal emotional abilities, such as empathy, emotional expression, adaptability, and self-control, which are psychometrically not linked to mental ability.

1.3.2.3 Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

There are three mixed models of emotional intelligence which are briefly described as below.

1.3.2.3.1 Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence (1997)

Bar-On’s (1997) model of emotional intelligence (see figure 1.3) is one of the most well-known mixed models. This model was basically constructed on the personality characteristics. Five broad areas of emotional intelligence were proposed in this model briefly mentioned in the figure 1.3.

![Figure 1.3 Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence](image-url)
1.3.2.3.2 Goleman of Emotional Intelligence (1995)

Goleman model is the most admired, acknowledged, recognised and known mixed model of emotional intelligence (see figure 1.4). He considers emotional intelligence as an aggregate of personal and social competencies. Personal Competence finalizes how we cope ourselves, whereas Social Competence finalizes how we manage our inter-personal relationships. These competencies are briefly described below.

**Emotional Competencies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal Competencies</th>
<th>Social Competencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Self-Awareness</strong></td>
<td><strong>1. Empathy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Awareness,</td>
<td>Understanding others,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accurate Self-</td>
<td>Developing others,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment and Self-</td>
<td>Service Orientation,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>Leveraging Diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Self-Regulation</strong></td>
<td><strong>2. Social Skills</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Control,</td>
<td>Influence,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness,</td>
<td>Communication,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness,</td>
<td>Conflict Management,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability and</td>
<td>Leadership,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation</td>
<td>Change Catalyst,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Motivation</strong></td>
<td>Building Bonds,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement Drive,</td>
<td>Collaboration and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment, Initiative</td>
<td>Team Capabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Optimism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.4 Goleman (1995) Model of Emotional Intelligence**

1.3.2.3.2.1 Personal Competences

It consists of two dimensions of emotional intelligence viz., self-awareness, and self-management. Self-awareness is the capacity of an individual to observe how we feel in the moment and having a realistic understanding of our own abilities with a strong sense of self confidence. Self-aware individuals are self-confident; they assess their respective selves and are open to positive criticism. Self-management is the capacity of an individual to regulate emotions, so that they don’t interfere but facilitate. It enables an individual to translate their deepest and truest preferences into action in order to improve and succeed.
1.3.2.3.2 Social Competences

It comprises of two dimensions namely, social awareness and relationship management. Social awareness is the ability of an individual to sense and understand situations from others’ perspective. It is the ability to cultivate relationships with a diverse range of people. While as relationship management is the ability to feel and get concerned for others, take their perspective and treat people according to their emotional reactions. People with this ability are experts in generating and motivating others.

1.3.2.3.3 Goleman Model of Emotional Intelligence Competencies (2001)

In the later version of the emotional intelligence model, Goleman (2001) proposed four components of emotional intelligence: Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness and Relationship Management (see figure 1.5). He warped the original twenty-five competencies into four domains. The first component is the ability to know what one feels; the second component involves the ability to regulate the distressing effect of negative emotions and to inhibit emotional impassivity; the third component deals with empathy; and the fourth component involves the skill to handle human relationships effectively.
1.3.3 Conclusion

To conclude we can say that Dealing with our emotions is something very unique, rather than restricting we should understand and utilise emotions for our advantage. Emotional intelligence is not a sole capacity of an individual; rather, it is the combination of well-defined emotional and thoughtful capacities: sensing, understanding, and managing emotions. It is the ability of an individual to apply your intellect in practice in response to particular circumstances. Individuals, who are emotionally adjusted, sufficiently recognise and handle their feelings; they efficiently examine the emotions of others and grow leaps and bounds in any aspect of life. On one hand Individuals who are filled with emotional abilities are expected to be satisfied, content, comfortable and successful in their lives, grasping the repetitions of mind that encourage their own efficiency, on the other hand, individuals who can’t organise control over their emotional life, fights inner battles that damage their capacity for concentrated work and clear thought. Possessing high emotional intelligence doesn't imply that the individuals never freeze or lose their cool. It implies that the person regulates his emotions and guides them into constructive practices. Emotional maturity is the capacity to bring crazy emotions back into line.

Emotional intelligence is the capability to harmonise cognition and emotion. It is the ability of an individual’s ability to comprehend and regulate not only their own emotions, but also identify and manage those of others. It is a method of perceiving, understanding and opting how to reason, sense and perform. It influences our communication and makes us aware of ourselves. It is adaptively advantageous on the grounds that it evacuates the impulsive part of emotional responses.

1.4 Decision Making

Decision making is an integral part of life. People make decisions in every walk of their lives. Our life is full of decisions and an individual makes hundreds of decisions in a day. Decisions made in early life can direct the lifecycle to bliss. Making a choice, simply, is the method of selecting. The method includes the capability to live with ambiguity, the state of being in flux between ends and the symbolic logic involved with a non-linear situation—with blurred options and outcomes (Carlsson, Fedrizzi, & Fuller, 2004). Even escaping from making a choice is a decision. To quote Harvey Cox “Not to decide is to decide” and according to Neil Peart “If you choose not to decide, you still have made a choice”. “Our mind is continually making decisions. There is no more conscious activity that occupies the
mind than decision making” (Ressler & Ahrens, 2005). Good decision making commences with a purposeful, successive, and strategic thinking process. Vohs, et.al. in (2014) highlighted that good decision making offers a lot of thinking which is the ultimate human resource. Right decision encourages individuals to recognise and pick preferences constructed on the standards and likings of the decision maker. If a correct decision is made, it empowers the capacities of life to continue without complications. A decision is an outcome of at least two or more options and alternatives, emerging in a vast number of circumstances with the purpose of a hindrance to the application of a strategy. A good decision is always an end product of high intention, honest effort, intelligent direction, and proficient execution. A good decision represents a wise choice among many alternatives. The decision makers with fewer restraints have a tendency to vim and vigour about their job in relation to the organisation and are able to examine circumstances in a small amount of time and explain their solutions in brief sentences (Ford, 1977). These effective decision makers are regarded as progressive intellectuals. The efficient decision makers display confidence, examine evidence and learn from previous involvements. When such attributes merge with personality characteristics of an individual, it reveals their decision making.

Administrators, educational managers and college principals are assessed often by the results, they obtain from their decisions. All the principals of colleges are required to make choices in many times and situations. Every day, college principals have to deal with devastating variety of concerns, complications, and challenges that require solid and consistent decision-making (Schomburg, 2008). The motivating force in their decision-making often rests on what is demanding, depending upon the nature of the tasks, various conditions arise in institutions, viz. social, administrative and academic. The ability to improve the standard of education in any country resides within the mandate awarded to educational administrators to make decisions. Decision making is an important tool in the hands of a college principals through which they are able to accomplish their goals. Decisions are a product of deliberation, assessment and reason. The option chosen by the decision maker should be sensibly great if not perfect. To settle on a decent and intelligent decision, it is fundamental for the top level and the centre level leaders in an administrative organisation to follow successive arrangement of steps viz.: 1) Identification of the problem; 2) Analysis of the problem; 3) Realizing the possible choices; 4) Assessing the impact of possibilities; 5) electing one, and; 6) Execution of the decision (see figure 1.6).
Decision making is a practise by which a course of action is intentionally chosen from available options in order to arrive at required results. Decisions can be of any kind, when leaders select one option over another, they are making a choice. Decision-making can also be categorised as 1) Programmed and Non-programmed 2) Major and Minor 3) Routine and Strategic 4) Policy and Operating 5) Organisational and Personal 6) Long-term, departmental and Non-economic Decisions are made to solve a problem. The process of decision-making is a challenging, but knowledge and good consideration comforts the administrator and leader to settle on better decisions in order to improve their performance.

Principals not only need to produce the right decisions but also need to make these decisions without delay. They contrast in their ways and they settle on decisions based on their standards, insights, and individual drives (Hunsaker, & Hunsaker, 1981). Decision making styles are abilities that persons practise across wide ranges (Hodgkinson, Langan-Fox, & Sadler-Smith, 2008). Arroba (1977) defined decision-making style as the way an individual approaches, recognises, and performs in any decision-making situation. A decision-making style is “a learned way of processing information and making decisions, it is a habit acquired through past experiences” (Hunsaker & Hunsaker, p. 23). Complexity and degree of focus are two components, where decision making process varies among peoples (Hunsaker, & Hunsaker). Complexity is the amount of data and material a person utilises to make decisions, while degree of focus is the number of options/solutions the individual produces from the data. These styles display the personal traits that decide how tasks are finished. The styles can be replaced after frequent failures or can be reinforced after successes (Williams & Miller, 2002). To conclude we can say that Decision-making style is a

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**Figure 1.6 Decision Making Cycle**

![Decision Making Cycle Diagram](image)
“learned, habitual response pattern exhibited by an individual when confronted with a
decision situation” (Scott & Bruce, 1995, p. 820).

1.4 Decision Making Models

Administrators are frequently confronted with the responsibilities, where decision
making is required. The main aim of the decision maker/principal is to find a solution to the
problem and improve the success of the institution (Caruth, Caruth, & Humphreys, 2009). The
process of decision-making empowers managers and college principals to assess the
current situations and plan for the future (Akdere & Altman, 2009). The decision maker
depends on numerous factors. According to Ireland and Miller (2004), “Formal analysis
techniques, behaviours, personal characteristics, and power politics are all important parts of
decision making processes that influence the making of each decision” (p. 8). Years bygone,
decision making models have been developed to describe the processes that individuals use
while making decisions. The models are frameworks that describe how they process data and
reach conclusions (Harren, 1979). Following are few important models of decision making.

1.4.1 Rational Models of Decision Making

In rational model of decision making, the individual collects data, evaluates
alternatives judiciously and more importantly makes a choice built on the goals and priorities
of the individual. In this model of decision making, the decision maker is an unemotional
person with stable likings, and the capacity to assemble and use data about alternatives
(Phillips, 1997). He is a systematic and non-impulsive person in the rational model. This
approach to decision making was categorized as true reasoning.

The rational model of decision making concentrates on the awareness of the situation
and investigation of the data by the decision maker. A model proposed by Tiederman and
Ohara (1963), which inspected all phases of the decision making process, comprising how
decisions would be implemented. A seven step model of decision making was developed by
Krumboltz and Hamel (1977) built on the rational approach. Phillips (1997) labelled the steps
by Krumboltz and Hamel as “DECIDES steps (see figure 1.7): defining the problem,
establishing plan of action, clarifying values, identifying alternatives, discovering probable
outcomes, eliminating alternatives systematically, and starting action” (p. 277).
1.4.1.2 Alternatives to Rational Models of Decision Making

The earliest critics of the rational model of decision making were Simon (1955). He contended that decision makers in any way could not be able to deal with all the data required to achieve a rational decisions. He also stated that human beings have limited mental capacities and he calls these restrictions as bounded rationality. The decision maker is also susceptible to miscalculations combined with a dearth of adequate data to predict future events (March, 1978). Simon was one of a group of researchers who inferred that the rational model did not reveal the reality of what the decision maker is confronted with (Phillips, 1997). Kahneman, Slovic, & Tversky (1982) investigated the prejudices and heuristics that happen when people attempts to settle on decisions. Kahneman et al. discovered that there were errors in reasoning that restricted the accuracy of a rational approach to decision making.

The opinions of Simon (1955, 1957) bring about a class of models mentioned as adequate models. The adequate models stick up on the notion that humans discover acceptable or adequate solutions over ideal solutions. Tversky (1972) put forward that individuals don’t assess all the options in the process of decision-making instead they focus only on those alternatives that are productive to them. The adequate models reproduce methods of reasoning that bode well to people (Phillips, 1997). While evaluating alternatives for example, decision makers utilise limited rather than comprehensive searches for information (Katsikopoulos & Gigerenzer, 2008).
Different models have been created that demand the logical way to deal with decision making. Political models are developed as possible options to the rational models (Eisenhardt, 1997). The chief distinction between the political and rational model is the problem defining stage of the decision making process (Betts, 2009). During the stage the political model emphases on the “constraints and preferences of those involved in and affected by the decision” (Betts, p. 9).

The Reflective political model of decision making, McKenna and Martin-Smith (2005) recognised the unstructured nature of most decision making processes. However, McKenna and Martin-Smith argued that the structure discovered by Mintzberg, Raisinghani, and Theoret in 1976 is no longer applicable. In its place, McKenna and Martin-Smith viewed theories of chaos and complexity to assist managers in the process of decision-making. McKenna and Martin-Smith observed that complexity is mysterious and deterministic approaches are inadequate for decision-making processes. McKenna and Martin-Smith also suggested that decision makers must look at the effect of their decisions on those outside the organisation.

1.4.1.3 Information Structure and Decision Style

The variables that influence administrators’ decision style is the Information structure (Mock, Estrin, & Vasarhelyi, 1972). Mock et al. observed that “the same information is processed differently by different decision makers and that this difference in information processing affects the decision outcomes or actions taken” (p. 182). Mock et al. recognised that understanding an administrator’s decision approach was critical in outlining the effective administration framework.

Expanding the work of Mock et al. (1972), Driver and Mock (1975) developed four decision styles that were contingent on the manner in which administrators process data. As per Driver and Mock, the decision maker is a human information processing system, compelled by the unpredictability of the environment, personality factors, and the conceptual structure. They recognised the four decision styles as decisive, flexible, hierarchical, and integrative. The decisive style uses the least amount of information to reach a conclusion. The administrators with decisive style are more concerned with speed, consistency, and efficiency. The decisive administrator emphasises short range plans and the importance of meeting deadlines.

The flexible administrator banks on intuition and a “play it by ear” approach to reach conclusions (Driver & Mock, p. 428). The flexible administrator concentrates on personal
goals with little stress on organisational goals. The hierarchical administrator put emphasis on thoroughness, precision, and perfection. The hierarchical administrator rests on analysis of immense amounts of data while making a decision. The hierarchical administrator also focuses on personal goals but develops and elaborates plans to achieve the goals. The integrative administrator uses massive amounts of data to reach conclusion. The integrative administrator brings together both organisational and personal goals to determine the suitable course of action.

Table 1.2 illustrates the goal orientation behaviour associated with each decision style, and was adapted by Hunsaker and Hunsaker (1981) from the observations of Driver and Mock (1975).

**Goal Orientation and Decision Style**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision Style Characteristics</th>
<th>Decisive</th>
<th>Flexible</th>
<th>Hierarchical</th>
<th>Integrative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goals</td>
<td>Organisational Self</td>
<td>Focus on Self</td>
<td>Focus on Self</td>
<td>Focus on Self &amp; Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals</td>
<td>External Origin</td>
<td>External Origin</td>
<td>Internal Origin</td>
<td>External &amp; Internal Origin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1.2 Goal-Orientations and Decision Style**

1.4.1.4 Cognitive Function and Decision Style

The analytical effort of Jung (1971) into cognitive style shaped the basis of succeeding exploration on decision-making style. Jung recognised sensing, thinking, intuition, and feeling as the four cognitive style capacities. Applying the Jungian typology, Mason & Mitroff (1973) assumed that sensation and intuition identify how people perceive the world, while thinking and feeling narrate how individuals assess the world. An inclination for sensation suggests that the individual basically rests on the information received through the senses. The individual who fancies intuition banks on objects as possibilities.
Furthermore, primitive research on decision-making style aimed on how people think logically to arrive at decisions. The logical individual, according to Huysmans (1970), inspects fundamental relationships in an effort to explain problems. The logical individual directs all his efforts to find relationships and conclude at an ideal solution. The heuristic individual searches those solutions that are effective. Huysmans noticed that it was hard to ascertain the foundation for a decision prepared with a heuristic approach. In defining the heuristic approach, Henderson and Nutt (1980) remarked that “common sense and intuition play an important role for the heuristic decision maker” (p. 372).

McKenney and Keen (1974) created a model that categorised the cognitive style of administrators in a way in which the administrators assembles and assessed information. The assembling of Information ran on a continuum from receptive to perceptive approaches. The receptive individual concentrates on the points of interest and the stimuli to establish which data to gather. The perceptive individual inspects the association between the information and precepts that the individual holds key to classify and gather data.

McKenney and Keen considered information assessment as a sub-process of problem solving. Individuals were categorized as systematic or intuitive in their approach to information assessment. The systematic individual come up to problems with an analytical/rational, step-by-step methodology on the other hand the intuitive individual gave attention to signs/ cues. McKenney and Keen observed that the intuitive director/administrator is least interested with the analytic process but wishes to “discover what he can trust in order to make useful predictions” (p.87).

1.4.2 Scott and Bruce General Decision Making Style (GDMS)

Decision-making style proceeded with the work of Harren (1979). He suggested a decision-making model that comprised of rational, intuitive, and dependent styles. Despite the fact, people with rational and intuitive styles varied in their way to deal with decision making, these people acknowledged the onus and outcomes of their decision making processes. The dependent individual is short of confidence and depends on others to decide. Harren found that the rational style was the adequate style however his exploration was constrained to undergrads in making their professional decisions. Scott and Bruce (1995) first mentioned that there were four decision-making styles. These styles are categorized as rational, intuitive, dependent, and avoidant. Than after factor analysis the duo came up with the fifth style and they name this style as spontaneous decision making. (see figure 1.8). These decision making styles are briefly described below
1.4.2.1 Rational Decision-Making Style

The rational decision-making style highlights the practice of scientific procedures, analytical models, and decision devices to support the decision-making process. Expert systems that imitate the thinking of humans are tools that the rational decision maker also uses (Ghosh & Kumaraswamy, 2002). The rational style depends on the utilisation of decision trees and systematic ways, by breaking down the decision process into sub-steps (Goodwin, 2009). The rational style is described by systematic process that concludes in a decision after sensibly assessing the options (Stanovich & West, 2000). The extensive recognition of the rational style of decision making is highlighted by the inclination of organisations to invest seriously in decisions, which aids managers to enhance their decision-making processes (Ilori & Irefin, 1997).

Kahneman (2003) proposed that utilisation of rational style depends on the amount of statistical training that an individual has obtained. Expanding the presumptions of Kahneman, Leaptrott (2006) found that administrators with advanced education depends more on rational decision making.

1.4.2.2 Intuitive Decision-Making Style

The intuitive style is an instinct driven decision, in which the decision maker quickly examines the complex concepts and comprehends the most critical issues. Sadler-Smith and Shefy in 2004 recorded that individuals who practise the intuitive style may confront with challenges in clarifying why they picked a specific approach except that the choice felt right. The intuitive style is suitable when actual evidences are not available (Sadler-Smith & Shefy, 2004). Instincts function as a link between imagination, creativity and analytical data (Kutschera & Ryan, 2009) where in experience is transformed into action (Klein, 2003) Hayashi (2001) emphasised that accomplishment at higher levels of management call for the utilisation of the instinct driven decisions on the account of uncertain and complex nature of
decisions confronted at senior administration levels. Hayashi, (2001) highlighted that the problems at a strategic level are often complex and are badly organised, decision makers in those situations have to depend on the instincts, heuristics, and uninformed judgments. During these circumstances, administrators are limited to their feelings, memory, likings and environment.

The intuitive style is a blend of past experience, learning, and awareness which is well-defined as an automated experience. Automated experience is applicable, when the administrators’ are habitual of making regular decisions. Miller and Ireland (2005) remarked that instinct include holistic hunches. These hunches integrate experiences with new data, with a feeling of being correct.

1.4.2.3 Avoidant Decision-Making Style

The avoidant decision-making style is viewed by the reluctance to settle on a decision or the tendency to pull out from decision making (Scott and Bruce, 1995). Ireland and Miller (2004) agreed that “failure to make the right decision or even to make any decision at all may have costly consequences for an organisation as well as for the person tasked with selecting value-creating choices” (p. 8). Administrators who utilise the avoidant decision-making style offer little structure and exhibit low levels of concerns toward their subordinates and organisation.

Bruine, Parker, & Fischhoff (2007) regarded decision-making as a blend of four skills that were identified value assessment, integration of beliefs and values and meta cognition. Meta cognition is an evaluation of how well people know their own capacities. People who scored low on decision-making capability will probably utilise the avoidant decision-making style. The skill of decision-making has been positively related with decision quality (Keren and Bruine, 2003). People who utilise the avoidant decision-making style are not liable to experience positive decision results.

1.4.2.4 Dependent Decision-Making Style

The dependent decision-making style is characterized by an over reliance on others to make decisions (Scott & Bruce, 1995). This style is meant to gain acceptance or to please others. Dependent decision making “involves seeking approval from others and making a decision that is based on the expectations of other people” (Singh & Greenhaus, 2004, p. 203). Singh and Greenhaus (2004) also noted it is the ineffectiveness of the decision maker to make decisions, since it is unrealistic to expect others to provide accurate advice without knowing the decision environment or the abilities of the decision maker. An administrator
who is low in confidence seeks the advice of others in decision making. The dependent decision maker refuses to take responsibility for decisions and projects and lays responsibility on others (Harren, 1979).

1.4.2.5 Spontaneous Decision-Making Style

Scott and Bruce (1995) arranged the spontaneous decision-making style as tendency towards making decisions rapidly instead applying any genuine effort in assessing choices. The spontaneous decision maker doesn't utilise rational or intuitive schemes. The spontaneous decision maker concentrates on necessity with a need to settle on decisions as fast as possible. Bruine et al. (2007) found that utilisation of the spontaneous decision-making style is connected with low decision-making ability. Low performing supervisors were more spontaneous in their decision-making style (Russ, McNeilly, and Comer, 1996).

1.4.3 Conclusion

To conclude we can say that decision making is the foundation of administrative activities. It is one of the important factors in administrative and managerial success. Decision making is the heart and soul of administration and leadership behaviour. It is viewed as treasured ability, both, for the success of the organisation and for the personal satisfaction of the decision maker.

1.5 Job Satisfaction

Man has a habit to represent himself in every area of his life, and job is one of his primary areas. It is a fundamental part of human life cycle and is the foundation of all types of accomplishments such as physical, psychological, emotional, and societal. On one hand, it is a source of earning a livelihood and on the other hand it assists numerous other functions for an individual as well. Sense of well-being, meaningful activities, or having some aim in life, are well and truly associated with one’s job. Job offers an individual a sense of creativity, joy, contentment, satisfaction and makes one a valuable social being. Therefore, one is expected to develop an optimistic attitude towards his job and reveal great satisfaction with it.

To comprehend job satisfaction, the notion of satisfaction in life must be understood first. There is a significant misunderstanding about the description of life satisfaction. Thinkers like Shin and Johnson (1978) advocated that the satisfaction of life can be viewed as an international evaluation of satisfaction of own life. In the same sense Ealias and George (2012) asserted that satisfaction of life is subjected to the contentment with one’s job. Hence,
if the employees indicate satisfaction in life, we can say they are more likely to be satisfied with their job in general (Coetzer, 2013).

Research on Job satisfaction was first commenced in the 1900s (Hersey, 1929; Strong, 1925). Hopcock in 1935 brought Job Satisfaction into limelight. Now, it is the most common researched issue in the Organisational research, with more than 10,000 studies published to date (Wright, 2005). The exploration of the job satisfaction during the 1900s merged with employee morale, work satisfaction and job attitudes as the investigators did not agree on a common theme (Wright, 2006). At present, the scholars of modern times have made it clear, that the fundamental theme of job satisfaction is grounded on motivation theories (Wright, 2006, Robbins 2003). With the result, it is viewed as one of the most extensively researched motivational concepts as more than 3000 analyses have been conducted on the topic (Metle, 2001).

The analysis of job satisfaction happened between 1924 and 1932, when Western Electric employees had their work environments manoeuvred somehow in an effort to establish whether their productivity will change or not (Mayo, 1949). The most famous example is the manipulation of workplace light levels. It was revealed, in any method if light levels were modified, productivity increases (Mayo, 1949). Other portions of the experiment included employees receiving a voice in how they executed their responsibilities for instance size of break-time, work day and the capacity to solve problem (Mayo, 1949). The outcome of the investigation was growth in productivity caused by employees. With slight manipulation of workplace light levels they felt that they were being observed, rather than from a change in conditions (Mayo, 1949). Therefore, it was realized individuals work other than economic advantage, led to carry on the research in the area of job satisfaction.

Presently, job satisfaction is closely related to one’s life satisfaction and success (Judge and Watanabe, 2004) thereby plays an important role in the nature of administration. Administrators having vim and vigour about their jobs portray higher degrees of results and remain satisfied with their jobs. They display excessive control everywhere, whether in their family life, institution where they work and in the society where they live. Administrators, who were satisfied with their jobs, are committed to their institution and with the result it enhances their enthusiasm, which assists them to achieve heights, in contrast to those employees, who are not satisfied with their jobs respond frequently to their job by coming late and being absent. Low job satisfaction is responsible for the deteriorating conditions in an organisation. Knowing the fluctuating role of a college principal due to high stress level of
managing the education at higher level, it is imperative to demand what motivates an individual to work as an administrator. Hoy and Miskel (1991) expressed work motivation as “the complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain work-related behaviours toward the achievement of personal goals” (p. 168). Therefore administrators, who were more motivated and enthusiastic, are more satisfied with their jobs.

1.5.1 Definitions of Job Satisfaction

The researchers did not come to an understanding, what precisely the phrase "job satisfaction" means. Some demarcated it as an attitude held in the direction of one's job (Brief, 1998; Miner, 1992). Similarly, another scholar elucidated job satisfaction as an overall liking for a job situation; he further mentions that intrinsic job satisfaction comes from the kind of work (Katz, 1978). Dawis and Lofquist (1984) outlined job satisfaction as the "worker's evaluation of the extent to which the work environment fulfils his or her requirements" (p. 55). Spector (1997) indicated job satisfaction is mainly the state of mind employees have towards various facets of their jobs and towards their job as a whole. Irrespective of the definition, job satisfaction usually is supposed to be an attitude (Wright, 2005).

Wright and Cropanzano (2000) opined that job satisfaction by and large denotes how contented employees are with their occupations. Job satisfaction comprises of both cognitive and emotional constituents. Muchinsky (2000) defined job satisfaction as “the degree of pleasure an employee derives from his or her job” (p. 271). Further Sipe and Frick (2009) also outlined that job satisfaction is the satisfaction or discontent thereof with one’s work environment.

Hopcock defined job satisfaction as, “any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say ‘I am truthfully satisfied with my job’. Locke (1976) associated job satisfaction to an emotional response to one's job. While describing job satisfaction, the reference which is frequently referred is Locke's (1976) explanation of job satisfaction as a “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”. The appraisal comprises numerous features linked to the job such as salary, working conditions, colleagues and boss, career prospects and, of course, the intrinsic facets of the job itself (Arnold, Cooper and Robertson 1998).
There are numerous elements, which are fundamental to an employee’s job satisfaction factors like pay, promotion, benefits, supervisor personality, co-workers and safety on the job. These factors assume how an employee feels about his/her job. In addition to that there are other elements, which contribute towards the job satisfaction of an employee, including, personality types and rudiments of workplace culture. According to Arnold, Cooper and Robertson (1998) the concept of job satisfaction has achieved importance for two important causes. Firstly, job satisfaction can be an indicator for someone’s overall mental well-being. If an individual is unhappy at work, it doesn’t seem likely that this person will be happy in general. Secondly, the general notion is that happiness at work improves work motivation and, in consequence, job performance. Although, the factors concerned with the job and the factors describing the job situation function as goals for the employee, the nature of the motivating qualities of the two kinds of factors are essentially different. Factors in the job situation meet the needs of the individual for avoiding unpleasant situations. In contrast to this, motivation by meeting avoidance needs the job factors rewarded.

1.5.2 Theories of Job Satisfaction

To hand, there are a number of theories about work motivation that correlate with job satisfaction. Therefore it is essential to comprehend the theories, why an individual toils hard to understand what elements dissatisfy individuals from their jobs.

1.5.2.1 Two Factor Theory

The theory which has significantly affected the research on job satisfaction is Herzberg two factor theory or Motivation-Hygiene Theory, (Friesen, Holdaway & Rice, 1981). Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959). The theory ended up with a memorable study of engineers and accountants, in which, the investigators recognised two kinds of elements that encourages job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. The two elements proposed in the theory that there are motivators that encourage job satisfaction and hygiene aspects that have also an unbiased influence on job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 2010; Sodoma & Else, 2009; Wilson, 2009). (see figure 1.9)

The motivators are the intrinsic factors and the hygiene factors are extrinsic factors (Oplatka & Mimon, 2008). The motivating factors proceed to positive job satisfaction are linked to the notion of self-actualization. These motivating factors consist of opportunities for advancement, achievements, recognition, the work itself, and the level of responsibility of the job (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Sodoma & Else, 2009). Hygiene factors can initiate job dissatisfaction, but are not important to job satisfaction. Hygiene factors comprised of salary,
possibility for growth, working conditions, job security, personal life, interpersonal relationships, supervision, and company policy (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 2010; Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

Figure 1.9 Two Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction

Herzberg advocated that individuals are more pleased by the motivators and are negatively inclined by the hygiene factors (Wilson, 2009). Job satisfaction has been connected with different stages of professions. The new member begins with excitement, enthusiasm and possesses a positive approach towards their job. As an employee steps towards the middle period, leaving a place of employment is more improbable, yet a specialist's job satisfaction is low for various years. As the employees age, they discover their specialty, interests widen, and they start to demonstrate an upsurge in job satisfaction once more (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 2010). Herzberg’s theory carries on inspiring research in educational job satisfaction.

With Herzberg’s ideas, Lawler (1969) put forward that there are extrinsic and intrinsic rewards that can inspire people into action. It is also essential for the people to appreciate the reward and also understand an association between hard work and reward. If the association is not made and the person either does not appreciate the reward or does not understand the effort involved in achieving it, the person will continue to remain unsatisfied in their prerequisites and are likely to be dissatisfied in their job (Lawler, 1969).
1.5.2.2 Maslow’s Theory of Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow (1970), a clinical psychologist, came up with a need hierarchy theory to describe human motivation. Maslow (1970) put forward that human needs have five stages and all stages of needs ought to be partially met (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). The theory proposes that all individuals are motivated to gratify the needs like food, shelter, and clothing, to safety/wellbeing, to love and belongingness, to self-regard, and to self-realization. Maslow expressed, "man is a wanting animal and rarely reaches a state of complete satisfaction except for a short time. As one desire is satisfied, another pops up to take its place" (Maslow, p. 24). The hunger is the foundation for Maslow's theory of motivation. Individuals have certain desires that must be satisfied before they carry on to another task. As indicated by Maslow, the most fundamental need is physiological, for example, the physical requirement for sustenance or food. An individual with no food is interested to find food and on a lesser amount, he is likely to concentrate on gaining personal appreciation (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983). Once the physical need has been satisfied, different set of requirements appears entitled as safety needs, which embraces the requirements for security, stability, assurance, flexibility, protection, freedom from fear and so on. Although, safety needs are requisite for the physical existence and can also develop at the place of work. Impulsive administrative decisions, disordered work environment and discrimination can produce an unfriendly atmosphere that lacks the desired safety (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983). Afterwards appears the need for love and belongingness. An individual desires to be adored followed by self-esteem needs, and lastly the need to self-actualize or fulfil one's potential. Esteem and self-actualization are linked with recognition, ability to self-express, and status and the position of the principal. Social needs can affect group dynamics in the place of work. Interpersonal relations between a principal and teachers can be a motivating feature in job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Positive interpersonal relations at place of work can gratify one’s social need. The needs of greater degree like esteem and self-actualizations are more demanding to fulfil, although remain elements in an person’s motivation in the place of work. Maslow (1970) also expressed that greater degree needs are likely to develop after the lower degree needs are
satisfied. The lower degree needs are more crucial for existence and develop before the higher level needs.

1.5.2.3 Affective Event Theory

As per Thompson & Phua (2012) the affective event theory was established by Psychologist Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) to describe how emotions and state of mind encourage job satisfaction. The theory describes the relationships between workers’ inner influences viz. cognitions, emotions, mental states and their responses to events that occur in their workplace that influenced their functioning, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction (Wegge, van Dick, Fisher, West & Dawson, 2006)

The theory is Very much related to Locke’s (1976) Range of Affect Theory. The main principle of this theory is that satisfaction is decided by a difference between what an employee desires in a job what he has in a job. The theory additionally expresses the amount one admires a given feature of work (like the level of autonomy) assesses how satisfied or dis-satisfied one gets, when desires are or not met. At the point, when a worker prefers a specific feature of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both (when desires are met) adversely (when desires are not met), contrasted with the one who does not give importance to any facet. Nevertheless, a lot of a specific aspect will deliver stronger feelings of dissatisfaction the more an employee values that feature (Spector, 1997).

1.5.2.4 Equity Theory

The theory of Equity was explored by Waster, Berscheid & Waster (1973), which demonstrates how an individual observes impartiality with respect to social connections. The theory presumes that in the course of social exchange, an individual identifies the measure of information received from a rapport contrasted with the output; in addition the person categorizes how much effort another person puts forth. Further, in the light of Adam (1963) theory, Huseman, Hatfield and Miles (1987) advocates, if a worker is of the view that there is an disparity between two social groups or individuals, probability is there, the worker will get distressed or dissatisfied because the information (input) and the outcome (output) are not alike.

Inputs include the quality and the commitment of an employee towards work. Sources of inputs include: time, effort, hard work, commitment, ability, responsibility, capacity, versatility, adaptability, resistance, assurance, adaptability, flexibility, tolerance, determination, enthusiasm, personal sacrifice, trust in superiors, support from co-workers and colleagues and skills. Output (outcomes) in contrast is the end result (positive or negative)
that an employee observes and experiences in comparison with another. Sources of outputs embrace job security, esteem, salary, employee benefits, expenses, recognition, reputation, responsibilities, and sense of achievement, praise, thanks, and stimuli and so on.

In any position in the association, a worker feels that their commitments, contributions, offerings and work execution should be remunerated with their pay. In the event, if the worker senses underpaid, he gets disappointed and along these lines he turns out to be argumentative, unresponsive, aggressive and unsympathetic towards the association and colleagues, with the result the employee feels low in confidence and execution.

From this consideration, when the employee notice that their contributions and offerings are reasonably remunerated by outcomes, then they feel content, joyful, satisfied and more importantly they display interest towards their work. On the other hand, when they observe that their ratio of input-outputs is less beneficial than they become de-motivated. As indicated by Adams (1963), when a person became conscious about inequity, it causes a retort in them, possibly some kind of tension/strain that is ‘proportional to the magnitude of inequity present’. It is for the reason that this tension that an individual might retort in a way that decreases the strain in him.

### 1.5.2.5 Expectancy Theory

Vroom (1964) was more worried with why individuals picked specific occupations, how much they were satisfied in their selected fields, and the degree to which they were successful in their fields. The job satisfaction model Vroom supposed individuals work only to make a living because it is better to work than not to. Vroom (1970) in his expectancy theory of motivation brings together the aspects of both Maslow and Herzberg. The new model “views motivation as a response in a person’s needs to a specific goal that person seeks” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983, p. 141). This theory proposes that individuals have a necessity to realize goals. Every individual has uncommon motivators that will precede them to distinct goals. By merging the ideas of Maslow and Herzberg, Vroom developed a theory of motivation that is highly individualized as the aims of people varies. Moreover, Vroom advocated that individuals work to accomplish a needed goal for the purpose that they expect something in return. As per Vroom, work gives compensation, salaries, income, which permits the person to be beneficial, useful and permits communication with others, and to a certain extent, expresses the social status of the worker. Vroom expressed, "The more satisfied a worker, the stronger the force on him to remain in his job and the less probability of his leaving it voluntarily” (p. 175).
Supervision seems to play a part in job satisfaction. "The more 'considerate,' 'supportive,' or 'employee-orientated' the supervisor, the greater the extent to which his subordinates will strive to do their jobs well" (Vroom, 1964, p. 212). Vroom also assumed that collective decision-making and the feedback provided by the supervisors to subordinates also performs a part in employee motivation, profitability and production.

Lawler (1969) throws in some points in the expectancy theory of motivation by suggesting that there are three key principles so far as one’s motivation to work is concerned. The first is the “performance-outcome expectancy,” which advocates that individuals operate in a particular way in an attempt to get certain rewards (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983). The second notion mentions that every reward has a valence or latent value, which can be collected by the individuals, who performed the work efficiently (Lawler, 1969). The third notion is the “effort performance expectancy” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983) that is comprised of evaluating the individual’s assessment of the success probability for behaviour. Lawler (1969) makes use of Maslow’s theory and put forward that every single valence is observed by the individual depending on how well it will fulfil a need. A valence will be noticed as greater if it better fulfils the needs of individuals, which will then motivate individuals to aim the work more efficiently.

1.5.3 Conclusion

To conclude, we can say that job satisfaction is an emotional reaction towards one’s job, ensuing from the incumbent’s comparison of actual outcomes with those that are required. It is well-thought-out degree to which people relish their jobs within an emotional, attitudinal and intellectual reaction. Therefore, we can say that, a satisfied employee is the key components of a healthy organisation (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994) and the production and reliability will be greater if the organisation have employees, who are pleased with their jobs.

1.6 Need and Importance of the Study

Quality education is an outcome of excellent administration. Administration is not merely a managerial profession; it is also a new dimension of knowledge, practice and skill. Presently, administrators are confronted with numerous problems in their respective organisations. Earlier, administrators controlled and manipulated the organisations at once because organisations were less complicated and situations were more stable. Nowadays, countless multifaceted forces have become known and are apparent like the market needs.
Continuous changes in leadership authenticity demand planning, initiating, managing, delegating, coordinating, decision-making, communicating and evaluating in administrations and organisations.

The Principal is the Foundation in the arch of College administration. Colleges rise to fame or sink to darkness due to the charge of the principals. He/she echoes the tone and efficiency of the college. He/she is the heart of the educational endeavour. The Principal not only is represented as a group leader, who knows how to involve people, how to arrange conditions but how to initiate processes that will bring out the best in every member. The Principal is the leader, who directs and stimulates collective effort. In the College Management, the position of a Principal is unique. He/she is considered as a centre of instructional relationships. He/she is viewed as a dispatching station, whose focus is educational endeavour.

The significance of emotions at work has been recognised in various studies. However, the emotional experiences and views of College administrators, however, have not been explored to the same degree. Only few studies have investigated the emotional elements of leadership in Colleges. Although measured as a fad, the importance of emotional intelligence and the successfully dealing with emotions has caught the interest of some popular leadership books. Emotional intelligence is essential to the process of leading and should be considered an indispensable component of effective leadership. Emotional intelligence has received serious explanation through empirical research, unpublished studies and dissertations. Emotional intelligence is deemed to be a valuable predictor of job performance. There are enough evidences that will suggest us that leaders with high emotional intelligence are more skilful in influencing, inspiring, intellectually stimulating, and growing their staff.

Research endorses that the organisation survives on decision-making. The wellbeing of all the College staff and the existence of the College deeply depend upon the decision-making skills of managers. For this reason, the most crucial task in an organisation is the process of deciding a desirable course of action in order to encounter problems and opportunities within the organisation.

“Work is one of the most absorbing things men can think and talk about. It fills the greater part of the working day. For the fortunate, it is a source of great satisfaction; for others it is the source of great grief” (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959, p. 3). Job satisfaction is a critical determinant of an individual’s decision to stay with an organisation,
including the academic administrators. Examining the perceived sources of administrators’ satisfaction and dissatisfaction with their work has strong implications for policies and practices that can be implemented to increase administration retention. Various studies have been conducted on job satisfaction have concluded that there is positive relationship between principals effectiveness and job satisfaction.

Since decisions made by the principals have its impact on the larger population within the organisation. It is observed that educational leadership is not able to cope with the problem related to rapid expansion of students. Therefore, not only a thorough renovation of this system is need of the hour but a proper training for administrators is urgently required.

The researcher has made an attempt to examine the Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction of College Principals.

1.7 Statement of the Problem

The role of educational administrators today is extensively different; because an administration with incompetent and unskilled administrators cannot survive; while the same administration, with the help of brilliant administrators can survive. Emerging challenges in higher education sector calls for appropriate skills and competencies on the part of educational administrators to prepare the institutions to take on the challenges of tomorrow. Administrative machinery, which is not equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitude and which is not in harmony with the needs of progress, can retard the pace of development. A flexible pattern of organization, which is responsive to the changing needs of society, global trends and knowledge, can be a powerful factor in accelerating progress. Rao and Sridhar (1997) in a trend report on Organization, Administration and Management of Education write, “There is an urgent need to conduct a series of research studies on management styles in higher education (universities and colleges)”.

In an era of collaborative education, globalization and competition, the higher educational institutes will have to be managed and administered more professionally. The traditional administration tools will have to give way to modern management techniques with qualified, professionally trained and pro-active administrators. Educational administrators must possess the essential qualities of leadership, determination, confidence, innovativeness, and motivation. The ability to make sound decisions and to organize and coordinate work efficiently is essential. The job of an administrator is to interact with students, parents, teachers, and the community. Therefore, the administrator must be equipped with strong
personality and emotional intelligence skills that will make him an effective communicator and motivator.

A number of researches have been conducted by various investigators in the field of educational administration and management education. Adeniyi (2014) indicate that there exist a significant correlation between personality traits and administrative effectiveness. Ibukun, Oyewole, & Abe (2011) found that there is a significant difference between principals age and their leadership effectiveness on the other hand it was also found that there exists no significant difference between male & female principals. Aggrawal (1983) revealed that there is positive relationship between administrative effectiveness and teachers’ job satisfaction. He further concluded that the adjustment of principals to the teachers is found to be significantly related to their administrative effectiveness. Speath (2007) discovered that principals regularly use emotional intelligence competencies while dealing with problematic concerns. Raz (2008) revealed that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and decision making.

The present study is concerned with the personality characteristics, emotional intelligence, decision-making styles, and job satisfaction of college principals. Hardly any studies have been explored with regard to college principals in relation to their gender, length of service and academic qualification in foreign and Indian conditions. With particular reference, it is pertinent to mention that no such attempt has so far been made with respect to the state of Jammu and Kashmir, which is in every way different from rest of the country. It seems to be more appropriate with reference to Jammu and Kashmir to explore the contents referred to in the field of my research. The state of Jammu and Kashmir in India is a developing area particularly in context of educational administration. Hence, there is great need to probe into the personality characteristics, emotional intelligence, decision-making styles, and job satisfaction of principals in relation to selected variable.

In the light of this research gap the researcher justifies the need to conduct a study stated as under:

“A study on Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction of College principals in Relation to Gender, Length of Service and Academic Qualification”.

1.8 Objectives of the Study

The objectives and the sub objectives of the study are as follows
Chapter 1

Objective 1

To find out the differences in the college principals Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction in relation to Gender.

Sub Objectives

1.1 To find out the differences in the College Principals Personality Characteristics in relation to Gender.

1.2 To find out the differences in the College Principals Emotional Intelligence in relation to Gender.

1.3 To find out the differences in the College Principals Decision Making Style in relation to Gender.

1.4 To find out the differences in the College Principals Job Satisfaction in relation to Gender.

Objective 2

To find out the differences in the College Principals Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction in relation to Length of Service.

Sub Objectives

2.1 To find out the differences in the College Principals Personality Characteristics in relation to Length of Service.

2.2 To find out the differences in the College Principals Emotional Intelligence in relation to Length of Service.

2.3 To find out the differences in the College Principals Decision Making Style in relation to Length of Service.

2.4 To find out the differences in the College Principals Job Satisfaction in relation to Length of Service.

Objective 3

To find out the differences in the College Principals Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction in relation to Academic Qualification.

Sub Objectives

3.1 To find out the differences in the College Principals Personality Characteristics in relation to Academic Qualification.

3.2 To find out the differences in the College Principals Emotional Intelligence in relation to Academic Qualification.
3.3 To find out the differences in the College Principals Decision Making Style in relation to Academic Qualification.

3.4 To find out the differences in the College Principals Job Satisfaction in relation to Academic Qualification.

**Objective 4**
To examine the relationship between Personality Characteristics and Emotional Intelligence of the College Principals.

**Objective 5**
To examine the relationship between Personality Characteristics and Decision Making Style of the College Principals.

**Objective 6**
To examine the relationship between Personality Characteristics and Job Satisfaction of the College Principals.

**Objective 7**
To examine the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Decision Making Style of the College Principals.

**Objective 8**
To examine the relationship between the Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction of the College Principals.

**Objective 9**
To examine the relationship between Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction of the College Principals.

**Objective 10**
To find out, whether the predictive variables viz. Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence and Decision making style would significantly predict the Job Satisfaction of the College Principals.

**1.9 Research Questions**
A research question is an answerable inquiry into a specific concern or issue. It is the first active step in the research project, which forms the foundation of the dissertation. In the present endeavour the researcher has formulated research Questions on the bases of the objectives.
Chapter 1
Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

1.9.1 What are the differences in the Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction of College Principals in relation to Gender?

1.9.2 What are the differences in the Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction of College Principals in relation to Length of Service?

1.9.3 What are the differences in the Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction of College Principals in relation to Academic Qualification?

1.9.4 What is the relationship between Personality Characteristics and Emotional Intelligence, Personality Characteristics and Decision Making Style and Personality Characteristics and Job Satisfaction of the College Principals?

1.9.5 What is the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Decision Making Style, Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction, Decision Making Style and Job Satisfaction of the College Principals?

1.9.6 How much Predictive Variables viz. Personality Characteristics, Emotional Intelligence and Decision Making Style effect the predicted variable Job Satisfaction of College Principals?

1.10 Summary
The chapter deals with the conceptual and theoretical aspects of the study, so that one became familiar with the variables under study. In this chapter the researcher has highlighted the role of principal as administrator of the college. Further the researcher has briefed about the need and importance, statement, objectives followed by null hypothesis, operational definitions and the delimitations of the study.

The review of related literature is presented in the next chapter.