CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

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2.1 Introduction

The history of leadership research is a fitful one. Certainly as much, and perhaps more than other social phenomena, conceptions and inquiry about leadership have shifted about. The psychological study of leadership in this century began with a primary focus on personality characteristics which made a person a leader. But the yield from this approach was fairly meagre and often confused, as Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) among others documented in their surveys of this literature. In the 1930s, Kurt Lewin and his co-workers (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939) turned attention to the 'social climates' created by several styles of leadership, that is, authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire. Together with developments in the sociometric study of leader–follower relations, (e.g., Jennings, 1943) this work marked a significant break with the past.

Two residues left by Lewin's approach fed importantly into later efforts, even with the limited nature of the original study. One was the concern with 'leader style', which still persists, especially in the work on administrative or managerial leadership (e.g., McGregor, 1960, Preston and Heintz, 1949). The other was the movement toward a view of the differential
contexts of leadership, ultimately evolving into the situational approach which took firm hold of the field by the 1950s (Gouldner, 1950).

For the most part, the situational movement was spurred by the growing recognition that there were specialized demands made up for leadership, depending upon the nature of the group task and other aspects of the situation. Clearly, a deficiency in the older approach was its acceptance of 'leader' as a relatively homogeneous role, independent of the variations in leader-follower relationships across situations. The disordered state in which the trait approach left the study of leadership was amply revealed by Stogdill in his 1948 survey, which marked and point of departure for the developing situational emphasis. The publication in 1949 of Hemphill's 'Situational Factors in Leadership' contributed a further push in this direction.

The main focus of the situational approach was the study of leaders in different settings, defined especially in terms of different group tasks and group structure. Mainly, though not entirely, through laboratory experimentation, such matters as the continuity in leadership across situations with variable tasks was studied (e.g. Carter, Haythorn, Meirowitz and Lanzetta, 1951; Carter and Nixon, 1949; Gibb, 1947). The findings of this research substantially supported the contention that he who became a leader depended in some degree upon the
nature of the task. With this movement, however, there came a corresponding de-emphasis on the personality characteristics of leaders or other group members. Though a number of studies systematically placed people in group on the basis of their scores on certain personality dimensions (e.g. Berkowitz, 1956; Haythorn, Couch, Haefner, Langham and Carter, 1956; Scodel and Mussen, 1953; Shaw, 1955), more typically laboratory experimentation tended to disregard personality variables.

In McGrath and Altman's (1966) review of small-group research, for example, they reported that of some 250 studies reviewed, only 16 employed such measures as variables of study. Thus, in little more than a decade the pendulum swung very much away from the leader as the star attraction.

2.2 Concept of Leadership

Leadership is so important to group accomplishment that mankind has been concerned about it since the beginning of recorded history. The quality of organization is often judged by the perceived quality of the leadership. Leader is an outstanding member of the group. He tends to have somewhat higher intelligence than the average of their followers, have broad interests and activities and strong personal motivation to keep accomplishing something (Milton, 1958).

Bass (1967) defines that, when the goal of one member, A, is that of changing another member, B; or when B's change in
behaviour will reward A or reinforces A's behaviour, A's effort to obtain the goal is leadership.

Good (1945) defines the term 'leadership' in his Dictionary of Education that, the ability and readiness to inspire, guide, direct or manage others.

Barnes (1928) defines leadership as a process of focusing the attention and releasing the energies of people in a desired direction.

Smith (1935) speaks of leadership as the management of inter-individual tensions.

Gurnee (1936) La Piere and Farnworth (1949) define 'leader' as agents of change, as persons whose acts affect other people more than other people affect them. It also conforms to Smith's (1948) conceptualization leadership is conceived as an interaction between leader and members rather than merely an act by leader, because whether or not leader reaches his goal involves activity or inactivity by members. Subordinate's activity will reinforce leader's behaviour, modify leader's subsequent actions.

Mary Follett (1941) reports that 'leader' and 'teacher' are synonymous term, and also Herrold (1947) conveys teacher-ship as leadership in which the teacher assists students to
express their needs, participates as a member of the classroom group, guides students to define and organizes course, aims, objectives and appraisals. Since teaching is leading, it is not surprising to find that leading party involves teaching.

Gibb (1950) considers leadership as an interaction between members of a group. Mackenzie and Corey (1954) say the conception of leadership can probably best be understood if leadership is viewed as a natural accompaniment of the goal-seeking behaviour of human beings.

For Hemphill (1954) leadership acts are limited to those concerning alternation of consistent patterns of interaction within a group. Excluded are signals, task analyses, expressions of attitudes, information giving or asking, request for suggestions, proposals to accept or reject earlier suggestions. Each of these acts generally will be regarded as leadership by their definition, although it will depend on the function of the specified acts.

From last decade the leadership has been delegated to behaviour instead of traits. The particular situation and the ways how leader solves problems have been concentrated. It will be greatly increased in our understanding of leadership phenomena, if we abandon the notion of leadership as a trait, and concentrated instead upon an analysis of the behaviour of leaders (Halpin, 1966).
Leader behaviour is focussed on motivating other or initiating means for other to cope with their needs. The behaviour of leadership is not constant, it varies widely from one leadership situation to another.

Sanford (1952) certainly summarises 'leader' and 'situation' that, (1) there are either no general leadership traits or, if they do exist, they are not to be described in any of our familiar psychological or common sense terms, (2) in a specific situation, leaders do have traits which set them apart from followers but what traits set, what leader, apart from what followers, will vary from situation to situation.

Stogdill and Coons (1957) mention five types of definition of leader behaviour, (1) behaviour involved in the execution of a given position, (2) all the behaviour of the individual selected as leader, (3) any positive influence act, (4) behaviour of any individual that makes a difference in the behaviour or characteristics of the group, and (5) behaviour of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group.

Gibb (1967) found from his "In Search of Leader" that, the most effective leader is one who acts as a catalyst, a consultant and a resource to the group. His job is to help the group to grow, to emerge and to become more free.

In administration, leadership is behaviour oriented to initiating new organizational structure or to changing the
goals of the organization (Lipham, 1964). He argues that leadership and administration are incompatible since administration functions to maintain organizational equilibrium. Although equilibrium maintenance may require organizational change.

Leadership by definition involves a positive attitude toward innovation. Lipham (1964) has written:

"We may define leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals and objectives. Note that the emphasis here is upon initiating change. Presumably, two routes are open to leader who would attempt to change established organizational relationships and goals. He may utilize delegated status and exert authority in terms of his role, or he may utilize achieved prestige and exert influence in terms of his individual personality. Perhaps both role and individual strength would be brought to bear. In either event, the leader is concerned with initiating changes in established structures, procedures, or goals; he is disruptive of the existing state of affairs.

The administration, on the other hand, may be identified as the individual who utilizes existing structures or procedures to achieve an organizational goal or objective. As in the case of the leader, the administrator may bring to bear the authority of his role or the
influence of his personality in his relationship with other members or the organization. But the administrator is concerned primarily with maintaining rather than changing, established structures, procedures or goals. Thus, the administrator may be viewed as a stabilizing force". (pp. 69-70)

Katz and Khan (1966) see no difference between leadership and administration. For them leadership may take place at any point in the organizational hierarchy. However leadership at different levels require different personality traits and intellectual skills and demand different behaviours by the leader. At the highest level the leadership described is identical to Lipham's description. At lower levels of the organizational hierarchy, leadership is manifested in imaginative use of existing structure. According to Katz and Khan, leadership consists of all acts of influence which affect matters of organizational relevance with special emphasis on an increment influence which goes beyond that which formally accrues to a role incumbent. That is, a school principal who simply implemented school policy would not be considered, normally, to be performing a leadership act.

However the principal who supplemented on existing policy or who imaginatively interpreted such a policy might be thought to be exercising leadership.
For Unrun and Turner (1970) leadership may be defined as the discovering, exploring, releasing and stimulating of the talents, abilities and skills of the staff in their co-ordination and direction. Curt Kampmeier (1976) refers Greenburg's concept of leadership as:

"Leadership is the ability which enables an individual to get other people to do willingly what they have the ability to do but might not spontaneously do on their own. Leadership implies that an individual has a special effect on other which commands their respect, admiration or affection and causes them to follow him. In other words, leadership consists of getting a positive response from others and utilizing that response to bring about a desired attitudes or course of action. This implies a certain amount of assertiveness in the sense that the leader projects some part of his personality or will on others. It does not mean aggress on or force, or coercion. Whether the leader influences by personal example, persuasion or empathetic feedback, he wins others over by influencing their willingness to act rather than by forcing their compliance. He strives to become aware of the abilities of his subordinates or associates so that he can guide them only toward which realistically they are capable of attaining". (p. 79).

2.3 Dimensions of Leadership

Leadership consists of behaviour, it is behaviour by one
member of a group toward another members of the group, which advances some joint aim. Not all organizationally useful behaviour in a work group is leadership; leadership behaviour must be distinguished from the performance of non-interpersonal tasks that advance the goals of the organization. On a common sense basis, then, leadership is organizationally useful behaviour by one member of an organizational family toward another member or members of that same organizational family.

Defined in this manner, leadership amounts to a large aggregation of separate behaviours, which may be grouped or classified in a great variety of ways. Several classification systems from previous research have achieved considerable prominence and are described as:

2.3.1 Ohio State Leadership Studies

In 1945, the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University undertook the construction of an instrument for describing leadership. From extended conversations and discussion among staff members who represented various disciplines, a list of nine dimensions or categories of leadership behaviour were postulated. Descriptive statements were then written and assigned to one or another of the nine dimensions, and after further refinement, 150 of these were selected as representing these nine dimensions and were incorporated into the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire.
Two factor analyses attempt to simplify its conceptual framework further. Hemphill and Coons intercorrelated and factor analyzed group mean scores for 11 dimensions for a sample composed largely of educational groups, and obtained three orthogonal factors.

(1) **Maintenance of Membership Character**

Behaviour of a leader which allows him to be considered as 'good fellow' by his subordinates; behaviour which is socially agreeable to group members.

(2) **Objective Attainment Behaviour**

Behaviour related to the output of the group; for example, taking positive action in establishing goals or objectives, structuring group activities in a way that members may work toward an objective, or serving as a representative of group accomplishment in relation to outside groups, agencies, forces and so on.

(3) **Group Interaction Facilitation Behaviour**

Behaviour that structures communication among group members, encouraging pleasant group atmosphere and reducing conflict among members.

Halpin and Winer (1957) made an analysis using data collected from air force crews, revising the original measuring
instrument to adapt it to the respondent group. Only 130 items were used, with appropriate rewarding, and the number of dimensions was reduced to eight. Treatment of the data indicated that five of eight were sufficient for describing the entire roster, and the correlation of the 130 items with these five dimensions was regarded as a matrix of oblique factor loadings. These items loadings were then factor analyzed and the results rotated, producing four orthogonal factors.

(1) **Consideration**

Behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth.

(2) **Initiating Structure**

Behaviour that organizes and defines relationship or roles, and establishes well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and ways of getting jobs done.

(3) **Production Emphasis**

Behaviour which makes up a manner of motivating the group to the greater activity by emphasizing the mission or job to be done.

(4) **Sensitivity (Social Awareness)**

Sensibility of the leader to, and his awareness of social interrelationships and pressure inside or outside the group.
The Halpin and Winer analysis has been the more widely known and used. Because the investigators dropped the third and fourth factors as accounting for too little common variance, 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' have become to some extent identified as "The Ohio State" dimensions of leadership.

2.3.2 Survey Research Centre Studies

Concurrent with the Ohio State studies was a similar programme of research in human relations at the University of Michigan Survey Research Centre. Approaching the problem of leadership or supervisory style by locating clusters of characteristics which (1) correlated positively among themselves and (2) correlated with criteria of effectiveness. This programme developed two concepts called 'employee orientation' and 'production orientation' (Katz, Maccoly and Morse, 1950).

Employee orientation is described as behaviour by supervisor, which indicates that he feels that the 'human relations' aspect of the job is quite important, and that he considers the employee as human beings of intrinsic importance, takes an interest in them, and accepts their individuality and personal needs. Production orientation stresses production and the technical aspects of the job, with employees as means for getting work done; it seems to combine the Ohio State dimensions of initiating structure and production emphasis.
Katz and Khan (1951), writing from a greater accumulation of findings, presented another conceptual scheme, with four dimensions of leadership.

(1) **Differentiation of Supervisory Role**

Behaviour by a leader that reflects greater emphasis upon activities of planning and performing specialized skilled tasks, spending a greater proportion of time in actual supervision rather than performing the men's own task himself or absorption in impersonal paper work.

(2) **Closeness of Supervision**

Behaviour that delegates authority, checks upon subordinates less frequently, provides more general, less frequent instruction about the work, makes greater allowance for individuals to perform in their own ways and at their own paces.

(3) **Employee Orientation**

Behaviour that gives major emphasis to a supportive personal relationship, and that reflects a personal interest in subordinates; being more understanding, less punitive, easy to talk to, and willing to help groom employees for advancement.
(4) Group Relationships

Behaviour by the leader that results in group cohesiveness, pride by subordinates in their work group, a feeling of membership in the group, and mutual help on the part of those subordinates.

Differentiation of supervisory role corresponds in part to what the Ohio State studies refer to as initiating structure or objective attainment behaviour, and clearly derives from the earlier concept of production orientation. Closeness of supervision, on the other hand, has something in common with maintenance of membership character, consideration and employee orientation, but also with objective attainment behaviour, initiating structure and production orientation. Employee orientation clearly corresponds to the earlier concept by the same name, while group relationships is to some extent similar to the interaction facilitation behaviour and social sensitivity of the Ohio State studies.

In still another conceptualization, combining theory with review of empirical data, Khan (1958) postulated four supervisory functions.

(1) Providing Direct Need Satisfaction

Behaviour by a leader not conditional upon behaviour of the employee, which provides direct satisfaction of the
(2) **Structuring the Path to Goal Attainment**

Behaviour of the subordinates toward feeling personal needs through attaining organizational goals.

(3) **Enabling Goal Achievement**

Behaviour that removes barriers to goal attainment.

(4) **Modifying Employee Goals**

Behaviour that influences the actual personal goals of subordinates in organizationally useful directions.

Direct needs satisfaction clearly resembles consideration and employee orientation, enabling goal achievement seems similar to initiating structure or objective attainment behaviour; structuring the path to goal attainment and modifying employee goals are probably closer to the Ohio State production emphasis factor.

2.3.3 **Studies at the Research Centre for Group Dynamics**

Cartwright and Zander (1960), at the Research Centre, for group dynamics, on the basis of accumulated findings, described leadership in terms of two sets of group functions.

(1) **Group Maintenance Functions**

Behaviour that keeps interpersonal relations pleasant,
resolves disputes, provides encouragement, gives the minority a chance to be heard, stimulates self-direction, and increases interdependence among members.

(2) Goal Achievement Functions

Behaviour that initiates action, keeps member's attention on the goal, develops a procedural plan, evaluates the quality of work done, and makes expert information available.

These descriptive terms clearly refer to broader constructs than consideration or initiating structure. Group maintenance functions, for example, include what has been termed consideration, maintenance of membership, character, or employee orientation, but they also include functions concerned with relationships among group members not in formal authority positions. This concept is in some ways similar to group interaction facilitation behaviour in the Ohio State factor analysis of Hemphill and Coens. Goal achievement functions seem to encompass what the Ohio State studies referred to as initiating structure and production emphasis or objective attainment behaviour and what early Survey Research Centre studies called production orientation.

2.3.4 Likert's New Pattern of Management

Rensis Likert of the University of Michigan Institute for Social Research (1961), building upon many of the findings
of the Survey Research Centre and the Research Centre for Group Dynamics as well as upon his own early work in the same area for the Life Insurance Agency Management Association, describes five conditions for effective supervisory behaviour.

(1) **Principle of Supportive Relations**

The leadership and other processes of the organization should be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in his interactions and his relationships with the organization, each member will, in the light of his background, values and expectations, view the experience as supportive, and as one that builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.

(2) **Group Methods of Supervision**

Management will make full use of the potential capacities of its human resources only when each person in an organization is a member of one or more effectively functioning work groups that have a high degree of group loyalty, effective skills of interaction and high performance goals.

(3) **High Performance Goals**

If a high level of performance is to be achieved, it appears to be necessary for a supervisor to be employee-centred, and at the same time to have high performance goals.
and a contagious enthusiasm as to the importance of achieving these goals.

(4) **Technical Knowledge**

The (effective) leader has adequate competence to handle the technical problems faced by his group, or he sees that access to this technical knowledge is fully provided.

(5) **Co-ordinating Scheduling, Planning**

The leader fully reflects and effectively represents the views, goals, values and decision of his group in those other groups where he is performing the function of linking his group to the rest of the organization. He brings to the group of which he is the leader the views, goals, and decision of those other groups. In this way he provides a linkage whereby communication and the exercise of influence can be performed in both directions.

2.4 **Morale**

Previously, the term 'moral' was referred to the satisfaction in performance of any organization. The study of morale is aimed to find out the ways to earn more production in the business and industry. It is called theory of performance and satisfaction. The researchers like Crockett, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, Campwell, Vroom, Scott, Dewis
etc., proposed many models of 'satisfaction and performance'. The variables concerned with the job satisfaction like motivation, reward, punishment, salary, benefit and so on were also studied by many scholars and the domain of research in morale then spread to other field of organization.

Halpin and Croft (1963) used the word 'esprit' in their OCDQ instrument to determine the morale of organization as well as business and other organizations.

In the year 1970, Bentley and Rampel constructed PTO instrument to assess the morale of individual and group in organization. This instrument is adopted in the present study.

However, this section is an attempt to clarify and explain the term 'morale' for the present study.

2.4.1 Concept of Morale

Morale is a complex concept. It is related to individual as well as group. It is also a related rather than absolute concept. It connotes predisposition, attitudes, feeling of belongingness, identification or ego involvement in one's job, satisfaction and maximum adjustment.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines the term 'morale' as prevailing mood and spirit conductive to willing
and dependable performance, steady self-control and courageous, determined conduct despite danger and privations, based upon a conviction of being in the right and on the way to success.

For Shillard (1949), 'morale' refers to series of attitudes that influences one towards a given situation.

Blum (1949) defines 'morale' as a group phenomenon with four components: (1) group solidarity, (2) group goal, (3) observable process towards the goal, and (4) individual's participation in reaching the goal.

American Association of School Administrators describes 'morale' from an administrative point of view that, a disposition on the part of persons to behave in ways which contribute to the fulfilment of purpose of the enterprise. The details of description can be quoted as:

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

Getzels and Guba (1957) : 'morale' means triangular approach; (1) belongingness, (2) identification, and (3) relationability for goal achievement.

Keith (1957) : 'morale' is the attribute of the individuals and groups toward their work environment and toward voluntary co-operation to the fullest extent of their ability to the best interest of organization.

Guba (1958) defines the (morale) as a predisposition to exert extra effort to carry out institutional tasks. In the same year Vanee (1956) says that 'morale' is the prevailing mood or spirit which is conductive to willing and dependable performance tasks requisite to the attainment of organizational objectives.

Moreover, Yoder, Heneman, Turboull and Stone (1958) give the concept of 'morale' that, morale is sometime used to describe the degree of frustration felt by the group of
employees. Harrell (1958) defines 'morale' as the combination of attitude toward job, company and immediate superior.

In the year 1959, Yoder defines the 'morale' in his book, "Personal Management and Industrial Relation" that morale is an overall 'tone' or 'climate' vaguely sensed among the members of a group, society and association.

Burtt: 'morale' is a tendency to work enthusiastically for a common purpose.

For Guion, extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives the satisfaction stemming from his total job situation.

Stogdill gives the meaning of 'morale' that, the degree of freedom from restraint exhibited by a group in working hard towards a goal objective.

Kay and Palmer (1961) give a compact word to define the term 'morale' that morale is the general enthusiasm of a group, it's esprit-de-corps.

Monroe (1969) gives one word definition of mental hygiene as morale where personal relationship is the pivot for mental health.

Fare and his group (1967) describe the term 'morale' that, morale is composed of a complex of factors, which range
from satisfaction with the material and the non-material aspects of the job and with interpersonal relations, to specific work behaviours, such as efficiency, productivity and dependability of workers. However, underlying all of these are vitality and enthusiasm for the task, which are fundamental of morale. The level of this vitality and enthusiasm is strongly dependent upon the degree of meaning that a man finds in his work, the extent to which he contributes to, and identifies with, a goal of his job.

For Cleugh (1970), morale can be described in terms of the congruence between individual's perception of himself and what he would wish himself to be. It can be high in certain fields and low in others. He says that good morale is important not only because it is pleasanter but also because it is conducive to more and better work and learning.

For Caplow (1976), morale is satisfaction with an organization, not with life in general. An organization has high morale when most of its members (1) accept its goal, (2) obey its important rules and (3) continue to participate in its programme. These conditions are favourable to the happiness of the participating individuals.

However, a persisting belief is that if an individual is satisfied or his morale is high, then his performance will
be higher than that of an individual who is unsatisfied or whose morale is low (Scott, 1973). Hence the central concept of morale is identification of the personnel of an organization with its goal or goals. Such an identification generates in individuals with remarkable energy to move whole-heartedly towards the targets on goals set to the group for achievement.

Again, the meaning of 'morale', psychologists and social scientists have been interested for long in the study of the worker's effectiveness and its improvement. They have come to the conclusion that the worker's disposition or attitude towards his job determines his productivity as well as production. They have called it 'morale' or the indicator of the 'level of aspiration' of the individual. Morale is considered an important dimension in the description of groups. "Morale has come to be regarded as the prime requisite for an efficient and effective organization in education as well as in business". Many definitions of morale, a few of which are the following:

According to Tead, morale is the group's awareness of itself as a working entity", and imposition "by itself on itself those standards of individual and group behaviour which it finds necessary to improve in the interests of group effectiveness in carrying on its work".
Viteles says, "Obedience to external circumstances having as its source of authority the mean or the groups constitutes morale". It is the product of a direction of the individual feelings and intellect towards a common objective that serve the purpose of the entire organization.

For Zeleny, morale is the shared feeling of "likes" among members of a group.

Tiffin regards attitudes and morale closely related because "the productivity of a man is determined very largely by the way he feels about his job, and his attitude toward the company that employs him".

According to Krech and Crutchfield "Morale refers to the level of group functioning, the unity and solidarity of the group, its esprits decorps".

Staff Relations in School Administration, "from the viewpoint of administration, morale is a disposition on the part of persons engaged in an enterprise to behave in ways which contribute to the purposes for which the enterprise exists".

Wiles says, "Morale is the emotional and mental reaction of a person to his job".
"Morale is, says Schneiders, the general attitude or outlook of an individual or a group toward a specific situation ... Morale may very seriously affect both well-being and performance, and is closely related to what is called "espirit de corps".

From these and other similar definitions we conclude that:

Morale is -

(1) an individual's general emotional and mental disposition, or attitude and feeling, towards his job or any other specific situation,

(2) the mainspring of an individual's behaviour towards his fellow-workers and the organization or institution of which he is a part,

(3) the prompter of efforts and pursuits for the realisation of group goals,

(4) the determinant of the individual's productivity and production,

(5) the promote of the health and well-being of the individual and the group.

2.4.2 Teacher Morale

Morale is subjective and individual. It consists of in
feelings that the members have about their work, and therefore, it is difficult to measure and easy to ignore, however, the head of the institution cannot afford to ignore it. When teachers are enthusiastic, their morale is high and when they are disheartened, their morale is low. Outward behaviour of teachers gives little evidence of how they feel inwardly about the school.

Morale is not a permanent feature of individuals. It changes from time to time. It changes according to the changed circumstances in a situation as a whole. So morale is collective as well as individual. A principal cannot satisfy every need of every teacher and there is bound to be little dissatisfaction among the teachers.

Staff morale is a significant responsibility that rest mainly in the hands of the principal. It depends on the relationships developed comparatively by the principal with his staff.

2.4.2.1 Characteristics of Teachers with High Morale

Generally speaking, high morale is found in people who are secure, unafraid, productive and loyal. Teachers are co-operative. They are eager to get on with their work, to take part in the staff meetings, or to do some little extra chore for some one on the staff. They are constantly
improving themselves, their methods, and their knowledge, through a variety of means. They initiate studies, look for problems that need solutions, design experiments in methodology and use reports on educational research.

In schools in which faculty morale is high, teachers make excellent use of all the auxiliary service because they know the process of instruction is thereby enriched. They all encounter with principals and supervisors and constantly approach them for ideas on improvement.

2.4.2.2 Characteristics of Teachers with Low Morale

Teachers with low morale are normally those that tend to be absent from work, committee meeting, faculty meeting, appointments with staff members.

They are frequently out of the building during free periods, and late with corrections and the distribution of grade given by them are either too high or too low. They are frustrated and hostile towards the school—wasting class time, and do not prepare and place their work. They have a general negative teacher reaction and constantly criticise colleagues or supervisors. They make, unfavourable comments on school and community and avoid meetings or keep silent at them. They have personal problems and shows a lack of personal responsibility for property, duties etc.
2.4.2.3 Factors Affecting the Teacher's Morale

Gleugh (1970) describes about factors affecting the teacher's morale that, there are some of the factors that appear to be relevant in considering the state of teacher morale at any one time, they are:

1. Public Esteem: How far teachers, as teachers, are respected by the general public.

2. Salaries: To some extent repeated salary claims are not only for money but also for a higher place in public esteem. Money is regarded as yardstick of this, and where salaries are low, they are resented not only in themselves, but as a sign that the general status of teachers is not as high as teacher would wish.

3. The way in which the total amount available (high or low) is allocated. Graded posts are a fruitful source of controversy, arguments and jealousies. There is evidence that they increase mobility between schools beyond the optimum, as teachers move from school to school in search of high allowances, and staffing instability results.

4. Wastage: The very high figures that are sometimes quoted in press articles may overstate the position, since many of the women who leave to raise a family
will return to teaching later, and movement to other posts in the educational service (e.g. to administration) is included as wastage but when these points are allowed for the number of those who start teaching and then give it up can be regarded as an index of job satisfaction.

5. Staff Turnover: Schools in some districts are notoriously more difficult to staff than others, but in 'good' districts some schools have a constantly changing staff.

6. Staff Absence: Happy people tend to be less ill than unhappy one and when they are ill, are more likely to make the effort to turn up at work. If very large schools, for example, were found to have higher absence rates than smaller ones, it could be an important index of teacher morale there.

7. Early Retirement: The number of those who retire as early as they can and sooner than must is sign of weak morale.

8. The Growing Complexity of Schools: It means a greatly increased burden of administration. It has been said, "If you double in size of a school, you quadruple the administration". The time table becomes immensely complicated and the cumbersome structure tends to be
unwieldy and not easily adaptable to meet necessary changes.

9. As schools become more impersonal, it becomes less easy for teachers to see the effectiveness of their work. When it is harder to see who is responsible for what, the less conscientious can get by, the more conscientious resent this, and the able become discouraged.

10. With earlier maturity on average resentment as populace grows and children become more difficult to control, so that more time is spent by the teacher in setting disturbances, with all round dissatisfaction among both teacher and children.

11. Condition in schools have improved considerably over the last 20 years. Buildings are better, much more money is spent on equipment, and more technical help is available to look after it. Teachers work in more pleasant physical surroundings than they used to do.

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

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

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

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

4. Curriculum Development and Morale: Teacher morale is related to staff judgements of the success of curriculum development programme. The programme are successful where the relationship with the superior and teachers are good. Hence it is the principals who fosters high morale. However the high degree of satisfaction is not conducive in bringing out changes in the programme.

5. Student-Teacher Relationship and Morale: No amount of pleasant colleague relation, good working condition, high salary or decision making could really boost up the
morale of teachers unless they are interested in and satisfied with the age group of students they teach.

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

7. Performance and Morale: The greatest significance to job satisfaction and morale is that of its relationship of job performance. The administrator should insure that his best teachers are the most satisfied teachers and thus maximizing the relationship between satisfaction and productivity, because performance is the function of interaction between reward system and the individual expectations for reward for superior work.

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

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

2. Economic Factor: As the teacher grows older, economic security becomes more important. If this security is threatened or affected, his morale gets lowered down.
3. Intellectual Factor: For teachers the intellectual basis for morale is highly important. Most teachers value a satisfying intellectual climate.

4. Poor Leadership: It depresses the morale of the professional groups like teachers very much.

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

Bentley and Rampel (1970) concluded 10 factors that may affect the teacher morale. They are:

1. Teacher rapport with the principal
2. Satisfaction with teaching
3. Rapport among teachers
4. Teacher salary
5. Teacher load
6. Curriculum issues
7. Teacher status
8. Community support of education
9. School facilities and services
10. Community pressure
2.4.3 Measurement of Morale

Morale is still an imprecise although highly important term. Some authorities consider morale to be the emotional and mental reaction of a person to his job. It may be best be conceived of as a continuous variable. The level of morale is then determined by the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied, and the extent to which the individual perceives satisfaction as coming from the total job situation. High morale is evident when there is interest in and enthusiasm for the job. What is important in morale is what the person believes and feels, rather than the conditions that may exist as perceived by others.

Bentley and Rampel (1970) define the term 'morale' that, morale refers to the professional interest and enthusiasm that a person display toward the achievement of individual and group goals in a given job situation.

This definition recognizes the satisfaction of both individual of group needs and these effective harmonization as a basis for morale. Given a certain task to be accomplished by the group, morale pertains to the factors in the individual's life that bring about a hopeful of energetic
participation on his part so that his efforts enhance the effectiveness of the group in accomplishing the task at hand.

Many different instruments and devices to measure morale and job satisfaction have been developed. Some supposedly, have general application to many kinds of job; others have been prepared appropriate to a particular occupation, e.g. nursing, railroad work, governmental employment etc. A few scales have been developed designed more specifically to measure teacher morale, but they have had limited use since they seem to have unknown validity and reliability.

In general, two basic approaches have been used. In one approach, the individual estimates his own morale or job satisfaction. This was the technique used by Hoppock in his comprehensive study of job satisfaction of teachers in 1935.

The other approach consists of asking the individual to make qualitative judgements and express his feelings about himself or herself and things in his/her environment that may be related to his/her morale. These responses are appropriately weighted and qualified so that, a total score or index can be assigned. It was this approach that was used in the present study.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter aimed at making clarification about the
leadership and some aspects of morale. From the brief account of the attempts of various types of leaders in various institutions. It is very clear that they accept the two dimensions of leadership behaviour viz., initiating structure and consideration depicted by Halpin and Hemphill. Everybody seems to agree on the point that effective and efficient leaders are those who receive high scores on both the dimensions, low score on both the dimensions are indicative of poor leadership behaviour. Another point which is worth noting is that the LBDQ developed by Halpin and Winer is a very useful instrument for appraising the two dimensions of leadership behaviour.

The second part of the chapter described the significance of the present study, concept of morale, characteristic of teacher with high and low morale, factors affecting the teacher morale and measurement of morale. In the next chapter, a brief review of the related literature.

2.6 References


