REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE
There is no group of problem in any field of enquiry that has been completely and finally solved for all time. From little evidence and no conclusion to all the worthwhile findings of all reputable researches, research has brought the sum total of human knowledge upto the particular level of generalization. This point should be determined so that new worker in the field can begin there and standing on the shoulders of his predecessors, look ahead and spy out the best pathway for a new advance. So the evaluation of previous researches is a necessity. Robert A. Millikan of California Institute of Technology expresses this necessity that, the main purpose of education is to enable one to know that the truth of present and to understand the truth of past; in a word to enable to estimate correctly his own place and that of his contemporaries in the ever-expanding ocean of knowledge, for only with such understanding can be shaken off the inhibitions of the conventional, free from himself from the emotional futility of radial and put forth constructive effort for the real betterment of the world.

The review of the previous related work is a reflective process. In order to get a direction and impetus, it will ensure a good progress towards a similar goal. This means that the researcher analyses and evaluates critically every pertinent research report dealing at all with its close problem. Anything less that will neither be sensible nor scientific because it will violate the known method reflective thinking in good research.
An inclusive review of the related literature in the field of investigation is very essential for smooth conduct of the study. It provides a sound foundation for the formulation of hypothesis, tools and methodology. It prevents from repetition in the area of research. A brief summary of previous research and writings of recognized experts provides evidence that the researcher is familiar with what is already known and with what is still unknown and untested. An effective research must base upon past knowledge, the review helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done and provides helpful suggestions for significant investigation.

For the present study, the researcher has tried to find out the needed studies related to the leadership styles, interpersonal relationships and leadership effectiveness of the principals working in various schools. The variables under consideration were leadership styles, interpersonal relationship and effectiveness of the principals. During its hunt for the literature, after doing extensive survey and studying the literature, the researcher found that there is no such study available, which is parallel to the present study. The style of leadership approach tries to identify the styles of successful leaders. This approach received much attention by researchers in the 1950s and 1960s and identified three leadership styles authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire.

Human relations is the study of interpersonal relationships among people as they work together to achieve organizational goals and attain job satisfaction. Leadership effectiveness is studied in relation to personality characteristics, job satisfaction and situational variables. But no such study was done covering such a broad area of selection and
promotion in relation to leadership styles, interpersonal relationships and effectiveness of leaders who lead the schools of the same organization. The studies conducted had either different combinations of variables or were taken at different levels and on different samples.

Another difficulty with the study in searching literature is that this study has been done on two entirely different population i.e. recruited and promoted principals. A very few studies are found dealing with the source of appointment. Comparison done is rare. Therefore, the researcher tried to review and place the present study in the light of studies done abroad and in India under the following parts:

Part - I: Studies on Leadership Style

Part II: Studies on Interpersonal Relationship

Part III: Studies on Leadership Effectiveness

Part - 1: STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP STYLE

There are various studies, which divide leadership styles in many groups or categories. This division is purely a theoretical exercise, no one can profess to possess a pure style. Every leader, in fact practices all the styles mixed together to some or the other degree. Nevertheless, he may have a dominant style which may become characteristic of him than other styles. This style can be called as his orientation. C.S. Sham (1986) found the existence of mixed styles generally adopted by the administrators, which he termed as their orientation mixed. He appeals to the administrators to use their own reason and personality make up to determine their orientation mix and than composite style which would always differ from one person to
another and which would always remain a product of one's own
cognition, experience and personality which, therefore, always remain an
art to some or the other extent.

Historically, the whole psychological literature on leadership is
pervaded by the dichotomy of task versus people oriented style of
leadership. The dichotomy prevails due to the different approaches to
leadership styles. Desai (1979) has charted leadership profile of Vice-
Chancellors. He is a typical academic bureaucrat dedicated to public
services. Educational leadership can be described in terms of the
leadership scale viz; initiating and consideration. In general, leadership
style influences teachers morale. There was predominance of
consideration style of leadership in administrative behaviour. The
existing style of leadership appeared to be related to teachers attention to
the jobs Shukla (1981). On the other hand Kaushik (1979) found that
principals of colleges were highly ego-centric interactive, flexible and
achievement oriented. Pattern of real and ideal administrative behaviour
were found to differ. Acceptance of leadership is a function of extra-
centric, interactive democratic-programmic, flexible, achievement
oriented and tolerant behaviour.

The studies Daftuar and Krishna (1971; Pandey (1974); Sinha
and Sinha (1977); Kakar (1971) in general have indicted that the people
oriented participative leaders are more effective. However, there is
inconsistent finding too. Pestonjee and Singh (1973) reported a high
positive orientation between authoritarianism of a leader and morale of
subordinates. Verma (1982) in her study of bank organization has also
reported a positive relationship between indicators of efficiency and
authoritarianism. Fleishman and Harris (1962), Korman (1966),
Filley and House (1969) have shown that initiating structure type in resented by the subordinates and it is a source of dissatisfaction. Till now leadership styles have been related to outcome variables of organizations such as effectiveness, job satisfaction etc.

Patel (1974) carried out a study in 162 high schools to determine effective leadership style with organizational climate, teacher morale and supervisory practices. It was found that the schools made improvement in instruction. It certainly was significantly related to various leadership characteristics, climate, teacher morale, competent supervisor and the like. The schools having open and autonomous-climate were found to be more progressive and the teachers of such schools believed their educational leaders to possess all the essential qualities of a leader.

Anand (1974) studied on the difference between 'Ideal School Principal' and 'What School Principals are' as viewed by male and female teachers. A simple questionnaire seeking teacher's views on what constituted ideal school principal and what they are in reality was constructed and administered on them. The teachers in their responses highlighted that there was no significant difference between male and female teachers expressing punctuality and cooperation as essential characteristics of an ideal principal. Both the parties supported that an ideal principal should be democrat, highly educated and impartial. Women teachers laid more emphasis on 'values of life'. The study gave very interesting results while explaining characteristics expected to be present in the ideal principal and the principal in reality. Whereas on the one hand an ideal principal was considered to possess the qualities of good administrator, honest and interested in
component-curricular activities, on the other hand the teachers declared their principal to be most "undemocratic" and "dishonest". Most of them were not even liked by their staff. They were not even good administrators and had not a pleasing conduct. This study poses a great challenge to educationists.

Darji (1975) conducted an investigation on Panchmahal District in 100 schools in order to study the leadership behaviour patterns of principals, the teachers morale, the overall organizational climate of the school and the inter-relationship between relationship behaviour of principals of secondary schools and organizational climate, teachers morale, innovativeness of school and motivation of pupils towards the school and ultimately building up a picture of the achievement of pupils in terms of the secondary school certificate.

The results of the study showed that

i. Leadership behaviour dimensions and patterns played a crucial role in organizational climate, staff morale, academic motivation, school innovativeness and academic status;

ii. The percentage of principals manifesting the HH Pattern of leadership behaviour was the highest (49%);

iii. All the principals of open climate school manifested the HH leadership behaviour patterns;

iv. The percentage of the principals manifesting the HH pattern went on decreasing from high morale schools to low morale schools;

v. There was no direct relationship between pupil motivation and leadership behaviour of principals;

vi. Most of the schools having 'high innovativeness' had principals
who manifested the HH and HL leadership behaviour patterns;

vii. Most of the schools of high academic status had principals with the HH leadership behaviour patterns;

viii. The leadership behaviour dimensions and patterns were found to be significant in relation to variables of climate, morale and innovativeness but not in relation to pupil motivation towards schools and academic status of schools.

**Panda** (1975) undertook a study to examine administrative behavior of headmasters in 168 schools of Rajasthan selected through stratified random sampling. The study was taken up to find out the real and ideal trends and patterns of administrative behaviour of headmasters and the relationship between real and ideal administrative behaviour and between the behavioural trends and reputation of the institution.

The study reported that

(i) Headmasters in their real administrative behaviour were on the one hand more self-oriented, authoritarian, traditional, adequately apathetic and reflecting and less effective in communication, less cooperative, less outcome oriented, permissive on the other hand.

(ii) Headmasters in their ideal administrative behaviour were just the opposite - others' oriented, outcome oriented, permissive cooperative, constructive and adaptable.

(iii) The least desired traits were authoritarian, academically apathetic, traditional and reflecting.

(iv) Headmasters of effective schools were more others-oriented, less authoritarian and less rejecting.
Headmasters of boys schools were less authoritarian, less communicating, less outcome oriented and less permissive than headmasters of girls schools, and

The background factors related to headmaster’s administrative behaviour were teachers’ indifference to carry out work, groupism among teachers, student’s indifference to education, level of literacy in the surrounding community, interference in administration by authorities and poor self-perception.

Shukla (1981) in his study selected 500 basic schools teachers to evaluate the existing educational leadership with regard to the dimensions of initiating structure and consideration, to probe into the relationship that might be existing between the styles of educational leadership as measured in this study and teachers’ morale, to study the relationship between the styles of educational leadership and teachers’ attitude towards their job, to study if there was any impact of sex on educational leadership, and to study if there was any difference between perceptions of rural-urban leadership at this level of education.

The findings of the investigation were:

i. The teachers perceived the leadership in educational administration at the district level to be positive and desirable.

ii. The consideration style of leadership was more dominant in the administrative behaviour of the educational leaders at the district level.

iii. The general educational leadership including both the dimensions was perceived in the girls’ schools to be more positive and desirable than in the boys’ schools.

iv. The teachers in the girls’ schools as compared to the teachers in
the boys' schools perceived the existing leadership as adopting more of initiating structure style of administration.

v. The rural and urban school teachers perceived alike the existing educational leadership in general as well as dimension-wise.

vi. High desirable leadership of the administrators generated higher morale in the teachers, while low desirable leadership caused low degree of morale.

vii. The 'initiating structure' and 'consideration' dimensions of educational leadership also emerges significantly correlated with teachers' morale.

viii. There was linear positive correlation between educational leadership and teachers' attitude towards their job.

ix. The 'initiation structure' dimension of leadership also appeared to be significantly related with teachers' attitude towards their job. The 'consideration' dimension did not seem to be related to the teachers' attitude towards their job.

Krishnaraj and Balasubramanian (1987) administered a study of leadership styles on heads of departments in colleges. The study indicated three predominant leadership styles exhibited by heads of departments – separated, related and dedicated styles. Separated style of management is highly inappropriate in a rapidly changing situation. Such leaders are highly oriented towards prescribed rules and regulations, they are highly conservative and resist change and innovation at the organizational level when situation demands. The related style of management is concerned basically to human relations. They can produce a work atmosphere of security and acceptance and care for human relations more. Related leaders are more sensitive to the technical system direct the work of their subordinates. The clearly
define the problem to be solved, generate alternatives themselves, and implement appropriate decisions.

The study found that the heads of departments exhibit both separated (low task orientation and low relationship orientation) and related (high relationship orientation) styles. There is no difference between men and women heads in their leadership styles.

Krishnaraj (1989) used LBPQ to measure 15 leadership behaviour patterns of principals of autonomous and affiliated colleges. The findings were: out of 15 dimensions of leadership behaviour, it is only in 2 dimensions, namely, representativeness and integration do the two types of colleges vary. The principals of affiliated colleges take more steps in speaking and acting as representatives of their institutions when compared to the principals of autonomous colleges. Moreover, the principals of affiliated colleges take more efforts in maintaining a well-knit organization resolving inter-member conflicts than the principals of autonomous colleges.

Baker (1979) attempted to find if there were significant relationship of the principals’ leadership style and job satisfaction of selected Mississippi teachers, and which styles of leadership Mississippi teachers perceived their principals as most often using. Results of analysis of data indicated no statistically significant correlations between median-production, median people leadership style of the principal and teachers. Job satisfaction Mississippi teachers perceive their principals to most frequently use the high production-low-people style of leadership. The median production – median people and low production – high people styles are the least frequently used styles.
Brown (1982) in her study tested the effects that four different leadership styles had upon groups' satisfaction, effectiveness and efficiency. Half of the groups were mature and the other half was immature. Half of the groups were led in the task by a leader whose style was appropriate to their maturity level, while the other half were led by an inappropriate leadership style. The results indicated that groups who were correctly matched with the appropriate style were significantly more satisfied than groups who were incorrectly matched. Inconsistent results were found – for effectiveness and efficiency. The results also indicated that mature groups out-performed immature groups even when both groups were correctly matched with an appropriate leadership style.

Roden (1983) investigated whether the measurable change in the leadership behaviour of 1st year elementary principals was significantly greater than the leadership behaviour change manifested by more experienced principals during the same one-year period, and the extent to which such changes appeared to be related to various demographic factors. The Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was mailed to 200 elementary principals (90 – first year and 110 experienced principals) in the fall of 1981 and in the spring of 1982.

Significant research results included the finding that there was a significant difference between 1st year principals and more experienced in the LBDQ. Examination of the LBDQ results provided interesting data relative to the leadership behaviour of the principals in the sample. First, although the concept of effective leadership was not addressed in this study, means of the sub-scales for the principals in this sample indicated that they were high on both dimensions (task and
people) when compared with the sample of school administrators drawn by Halpin. Secondly, when principals were compared on each item of the LBDQ, there appeared to be remarkable consistency in leadership behaviour.

Scafidel (1983) in his study investigated the relationship of the teachers’ perceived leadership style of the principal and the implementation of a continuous progress programme of individualized instruction.

The findings of the study indicated that there is a significant difference in the leadership behaviour exhibited by elementary and secondary school principals. The leadership behaviour does not differ in schools with respect to sex of the principal.

Duke (1984) conducted a study to highlight variations in leadership styles and relate them to teachers’ perception. Teachers’ perception was focused on principals’ effectiveness. The study showed no significant relationship between leadership styles of principals and teachers’ perception of effectiveness of principals.

Finger (1984) explored the relationship between the perceived leadership behaviour of the quasi-administrator and teacher job-satisfaction from New York City School system. The test instrument used was LBDQ and JSI and a personal data form. The results seem to suggest that teachers who perceive quasi-administrators as being high in both initiating structure and consideration will have a greater degree of job satisfaction than with those teachers who perceive their quasi-administrators as having any other leadership style.

Ortiz and Hendrick (1987) in their study investigated the results
of three separate studies of three different school superintendents *Fischer* (1983); *Hendrick* (1983); *Wissler* (1984) who through their differing leadership styles, developed different organizational cultures that were compared and contrasted. Each study demonstrated the relationship between leadership styles and organizational cultures they created.

The three superintendents of three separate schools, created a new culture from the old in a different manner. Most important, each applied a different style to ensure the creation of a lasting culture.

**O. Brien** and his associates (1974) felt that task structure and required collaboration and coordination in the task would determine the effectiveness of a leadership style. Similarly, **Hill** (1975) finds that an effective style of leadership has to be flexible and according to the requirements of the task. **Scontrino** (1972) found that the effectiveness of a style would be contingent on expectations of the followers. Thus, on the whole, the issue of leadership effectiveness has been made broader and situationally based. Furthermore, subordinates expectations are also being considered.

**Sinha** (1983) has formulated a model, which attaches importance of subordinates characteristics. While **Prasad** (1982) argues that the choice of a particular style of leadership does not determine the organizational climate rather it is the other way round, i.e. the climate determines the leadership style. Sinha’s model assumes a reciprocal influence relationship between the leader and his subordinates, in which a leader has to meet the expectations of the subordinates and he also tries to increase their competencies. In turn the subordinates want to bring change in the leader’s style. If a leader
willingly accepts the altered state of the subordinates then it will help both the leader as well as the subordinates. It will initiate them for their need gratification and for the realization of the organizational goals. On the other hand, a leader may feel threatened and insecure and he may respond negatively to his subordinates' changed attitude towards his leadership style. Hassan (1981) has made an attempt to establish a relationship between task characteristics and leadership styles.

There is a case to postulate that personality dispositions of a leader may play a role in determining his dealings with his subordinates. The personality disposition of a leader is of importance if we concentrate on the traits required for particular managerial positions in specific organizations. This approach 'holds constant' factors, such as organizational climate and employee characteristics. The value of personality approach for leadership effectiveness has become controversial as many psychological theorists have raised doubts. Their argument is that the consistencies in a person's behaviour (his/her personality) account for very little of what he/she does, the rest is a function of situation. This to predict future behaviour, we must consider the interaction between the individual and the situation Tannenbann and Schimdst (1958). Sinha has argues that leadership is personality free, while Singh's (1982) study upholds it. Singh reported that all five types of leadership styles (E-Type, B-Type, N-Type, P-Type and I-Type) were positively associated with the personality measures of intolerance for ambiguity, rigidity and dependency. The relationship between participative and rigidity and between task oriented and intolerance for ambiguity, were insignificant. The finding of Singh creates doubts because it suggested a positive significant correlation between tolerance for ambiguity and authoritarianism.
The relationship where rigidity and nurturance was also high and positive and dependency was found to have positive relationship with all the five styles. It is indeed surprising now an authoritarian leader is high on tolerance for ambiguity. Literally, it should have negative correlation with E-style. Similarly, rigidity should have positive relationship with E-style with dependency is thought o be positively associated with a N-style. Therefore, the findings of Singh are not sufficiently promising and to some extent they are redundant. The results of Singh led to curiosity and suspicion. Therefore, re-examination of the leadership between the leadership styles and some of the personality variables are needed.

One may also expect close relationship between leadership styles and interpersonal styles, i.e. how one deals with his superiors and peers on job as well as with others, outside the job. As it is human nature not to maintain clear cut demarcation line between work and non-work relationship and between superior peers and subordinates, a relationship between these variables will be explored.

To establish the evidence in favour of what determine a particular style, the major personality variables were machiavelliansim, interpersonal trust and internal external locus of control. Machiavelliansim as measured by the instrument developed by Christie and Merton (1968), Christie and Geis (1970) is essentially as aspect of the behavioural dimensions and personality structure. It refers to attitude and personality traits that are conducive to successful manipulations of others. Measures of Machiavelliansim (mach) assess a person’s general strategy for dealing with other people, in particularly they measure the extent to which he feels that
people can be manipulated. Persons high in Mach tend to view other people as subjects to be manipulated rather than an individual, with whom he might empathize. They think that people are weak, fallible and gullible and are capable of being manipulated for one’s own gain. Persons low in Mach display more affect in interpersonal relationship and persons high in Mach take utilitarian view of interaction. The emphasis is on getting them to do what one wants to do. They also regard other ‘untrustworthy’.

In social learning theory, interpersonal trust is defined as an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the world, promise verbal or written statement of an other individual or group can be relied upon Robbert (1967). One of the determinants of high expectancies in a given situation is the amount of experience one has held in that particular situation. Rotter (1967) has also explained that the high trustee likely to be unhappy, or maladjusted and is liked more often, both by low trustees and high trustee. People low in trust truly feel that other people cannot be trusted. There is less more pressure on them to tell the truth, and under some circumstances, they may feel that lying, cheating and similar behaviours are necessary for defensive reasons because all others are doing it to them. Obviously low trustees believe that high trustees are just plain dumb, because people who trust more are less likely to lie and are possible less likely to cheat or steal.

The underlying assumption here, is that, that the manipulation interpersonal trust and internal/external locus of control (whether a leader’s behaviour is controlled by internal or external factors), will determine the choice of a particular style. For example, high manipulation and low interpersonal trust, should have a positive
relationship with authoritarian style. The interpersonal trust should have strong association with participative and nurturant type. Therefore, the degree to which a leader uses either of these personality dispositions, will reflect his leadership style. It is also presumed that the concept of men will determine the interpersonal relationship and the organizational climate will be the product of different types of men, employed in an organization. Therefore, an overall rating of men in an organization should also be obtained.

Self-concept, Work Values, Power Preference Sensitivity in Work:

The self-concept has been looked upon as an important segment of personality. Beginning from William James (1880) came across a number of definitions. The self as known or Me is in the broadest sense everything that a man can call his. The imperial self of James, includes four categories of self i.e. spiritual self, material self, social self and bodily self. According to Lewin's field theory the self-concept lies within the life space region as a core area in the individual's psychological universe. A life space includes the individual's universe of personal experience, his goals, his perceptions, his evaluations and his ideas etc. Kelly (1955) in his personal construct theory refers to self as an other construct. To him, it is a construct that enables self to be an individual differentiated from others. Carl Rogers (1959) has pointed out that 'self-concept may be thought of an organized configuration of the perception of the self. The value qualities, which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideas which are perceived as having positive and negative valence'.

On the basis of the above discussion a self-concept may be
viewed as the global perception of one’s own self and perception of his personality which is a sum total of all physical, social emotional and intellectual abilities of an individual. The underline assumption is that an individual’s personal theories about his self will influence his leadership styles. For example, if a leader has low self-concept then he will feel insecure and his insecurity will lead him to authoritarian style. Likewise, a leader with high self-concept will feel confident, he will encourage free participation he will help the subordinates in their career planning and so his leadership style will be participative nurturant type.

Similarly, there are some work values that throw light on the job behaviour of the superior. There are studies ‘Aldag and Brief (1975); Blood (1969)’ which propose that in new work values hard work punctuality and orderliness are pronounced. In India, the National Labour Institute (NLI) studies e.g. De (1974); Nilkant (1975); Srivastava (1976) etc. have delineated factors, which are conducive to better work culture. Sinha and Sinha (1974) have also proposed six dimensional approaches to India work values. Out of six, only four relevant work values are retained Verma (1979) commitment to work is one of them, which would mean attachment, willingness and loyalty to work.

In short, value has been defined as “preferential behaviour” C.P. Moris (1954); Sinha and Sinha (1974). It is hierarchical ordering of our preferences, and preferences are manifestations of values as such. In addition to values, on other set of factors, which are considered crucial for effective job behaviour of an executive is power.

Mecleland’s need for power has been used on the assumption that people derive power by using different strategies and styles to
achieve the organizational goals.

**Part-II: STUDIES ON INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP**

Human relation is the study of interpersonal relationships among people as they work together to achieve organizational goals and attain job satisfaction. Recognition of the field began during the middle part of the 19th century and originated as a concern for improving worker output and increasing efficiency. Without doubt, human behaviour is complex and not understood easily. Our roles as family members, friends, students, teachers and leaders provide many opportunities for personal interaction with others. Yet individual reflects dissimilar experiences, aspirations and attitudes.

Recognition of the field began during the middle part of the 19th century and originated as a concern for improving worker output and increasing efficiency. Since educational administration proceeds smoothly till good human relations are prevailing, that this aspect is being given much importance. In an educational organization it is the quality of interpersonal relations, which exist among its members that has a direct relation to the achievements of the organization. In educational organization, no individual acts in isolation from others. Every “educational personnel is characterized by a system of closely interlocking roles”. The interlocking roles result in typical chain reactions which encompasses all the personnel. There are very few studies available regarding interpersonal relationship in educational management though the aspect of studies of human relations is very prominent in the field of research. During the late 1800s F.W. Taylor participated in research that led to the development of scientific management, which had a considerable impact on the work place. The
major concern of this movement was division of job duties into series of smaller tasks. It was felt that the workers could increase performance by using their knowledge of simplified responsibilities to perform specialized work duties.

But scientific management was criticized on the basis of that it did not consider interaction among workers on the job. Taylor’s main concern was knowing how to perform jobs and having capable employees do the work in the best possible way. Nevertheless the attention given to job performance potential of individuals represented a beginning for additional research that further refined the human relations’ movement.

In the 1920s the Hawthorne studies concluded that feelings of personal importance and informal workers’ relationship were worthwhile outcomes. Even though some researchers have noted that no detailed report was ever published, the Hawthorne projects generally a classic study of behaviour in the work place.

Due to severe economic problems and the depression of the 1930s there was diminishing interest in the field of human relations. During the 1950’s, 1960’s emphasis shifted to the importance of interpersonal communication and group behaviour. The field of human relations moved beyond an era in which “workers worked and managers managed”. These developments led to the emphasis on teamwork and participatory management that characterized the 1970s. Significant advances in application of technology characterized 1980s. Computers, robots and satellite – communication capabilities influence the nature of human relationships.
Historically, job satisfaction has been a primary concern. A study of that appeared in Personnel and Personnel Journal for fifty-four year period (1927-1980) shows that almost 10 per cent of the articles were related to this issue which remained dominant during 1980s. The increased recognition of workers, the importance of relationship among persons and effectiveness of communication is the dominant themes of the 1990s.

Human relation integrates knowledge from the discipline of psychology, sociology and anthropology. Psychology, the study of why we behave in certain ways, facilities understanding of learning, thinking and developmental process. Sociology is an enquiry into how people behave in groups and focuses on impact groups have on our behaviour. By examining symbols and artifacts, anthropology studies culture of the past and is concerned with discovering how past occurrences influence our behaviour. Human relations draw on knowledge of the behavioural sickness, unifies this information and applies to the study of human inter-relationship.

Each individual in an organization is a perpetual dilemma and often faces value conflicts on personal conflicts because he or she simultaneously is playing roles in each or several social systems. Thelen (1960) concluded that alignments among groups are made to solve the conflicts by establishing harmonious relationships, which depends upon interpersonal relationship.

Morale is sufficiently precise word to designate the capacity of a group to pull together towards goals that its members accept. Bell (1961), Jay (1971) emphasized on the fact that morale of an individual helps in building good relationship. Jay (1971) said that “.... This
shared sense of all belonging together, this shared understanding and recognition of what it is we belong to .... Is the hardest to build and the hardest to destroy...” (P. 683). Morale definitely is related to expectations and to the pattern of accommodation that individuals develop in coping with their own and other expectations.

The role of the principal in providing leadership to the professional staff has changed drastically during recent years. As schools have become larger, for example, opportunities for the principal and the teachers to interact have become less frequent and interpersonal relationships have become more formalized. Professional negotiations have also altered substantially the traditional power leadership in the bureaucratic structure Timothy M. Sinnet Jack H. (1996). These factors together with more demanding certification requirements and improved teacher training programmes have generated a feeling of autonomy and self-reliance among teachers who no longer will tolerate a paternalistic principal – even the benevolent one who views himself the spokesman for “his faculty”. The emerging professionalism of teachers holds numerous implications for the leadership role of the principal. The principal who would be leader of the staff, therefore, must embark on a well-planned staff personnel, must acquire the interpersonal skills for the effective interpersonal relationship to achieve the objectives of the schools.

Mahajan (1970) conducted a study to examine critically the supervisory role of principals of Delhi Higher Secondary Schools. The study highlighted that the government schools have been placed better with respect to principal-teacher relations but staff meetings, individual conferences, orientation and induction as instruments of teachers’ growth, and specific in-service education techniques such as action
research, inter-class visitation, inter-school visitation, seminars, workshops at school level find little place in school life. Most of the principals fail to play an effective leadership role in the academic field in the schools because of limited time and energy. Lack of proper knowledge of concept of supervision and cooperation from the teachers are also contributory factors. Principals ignore helping and guiding teachers in the area of subject content and teaching methodology even though they are distinctly related to classroom teaching. Principals confess that they have to play the policemen role but feel despite their best efforts they cannot do much in respect of teachers who waste time in classes and go to classes unprepared. The leadership aspect of stimulating teachers to improve diary writing is a weak feature. The observation of classroom teaching is more for inspecting teachers than helping them. The principals in most of the cases have failed to win confidence of teachers and, the visits to their classes offer a little help to them.

Vats (1972) conducted a study on officers at Directorate level to study the leadership behaviour patterns of educational administrators, assess their relevance and efficiency for implementation of educational policies and programmes, identify differences in self-role expectations of teachers or observers, pinpointing the inadequacies in the existing leadership role of educational administrators and suggesting the directions for improvement.

Major observations were:

i. The most important aspect of career development was an officers’ own motivation and his effort for self-development.

ii. There was a need for improvement of personal efficiency.
discipline and personnel system, methods and practices.

iii. As regards institution building, more than sixty per cent leaders at all levels had said that there was practically no attraction for developing new ideas and new programmes.

iv. Administrators at all levels had a reasonably clear perception of their role. If they were given more time for self-development and were suitably trained, they might be able to play a meaningful leadership role.

v. Problematic situation was increasingly becoming the basis of leadership; another field wanting in leadership role was the incapability of administrators in taking decision.

vi. Administrative leadership appeared to be somewhat personalistic, further, there was a formal type of relationship in the education department and the life of the subordinates was made difficult because of the administrative inaptitude.

vii. The interference of the politicians in day-to-day administration was found to be non-conducive to a flourishing leadership role.

**Diwan** (1992) conducted a study of leadership behaviour and value patterns among school Academic Administrators. It is basically the case studies developed and presented in the form of profiles for principals of senior secondary schools in the West District of Delhi. This research study assumes schools principals as academic administrators who perform the functions of academics and administration at the apex position at the school level. It is an attempt to investigate in depth the values possessed by school principals on pattern or sets in the organizational context and the leadership behaviour they exhibit while managing schools – government, aided and unaided. Leadership Behaviour Descriptive Questions (LBDQ) developed by
Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University. The analysis of value patterns by school principals is done using a tool on "Value patterns in the organizational context" developed by the investigator himself.

The findings and conclusions of the study are as the following:

i. Basically school principals resort to either task or relationship or a balance of both in their styles of behaviour while managing the academic and administrative functions effectively in order to get maximum cooperation from their group members and living a good school performance.

ii. The leadership behaviour is not influenced by either age, experience of principal as head of the school he serving in or total experience as head, whether selected at younger age through Public Service Commission or at an older age through departmental promotion. But leadership behaviour of school principal depends more upon their perception of their respective school situations. They have individual perception of their roles specific to the situations, they are placed in and as such act according to demands of situation.

iii. Principals behave in accordance to the demands of situations, the principals who are high on the dimensions of initiative structure, persuasiveness, productive emphasis and role assumption show high task and production-oriented behaviour.

iv. Value patterns possessed by school principals depend upon their liking and disliking of certain things. The principals who possess values of 'dedication', sincerity, discipline, punctuality and regularity among 'personal value pattern' believe more
interpersonal than functional dimensions of value patterns.

v. The value patterns possessed by principals and the leadership behaviour differ with the nature of institution.

Mahant (1979) carried out a study on 277 schools and 1084 teachers to develop and standardize a tool to evaluate administrative behaviour of secondary school principals, to develop procedures to evaluate effectiveness of the administrative behaviour of school principals, to study the relationship between the administrative behaviour of principals and pupils' control ideology and some personality traits of teachers, to find out the relationship between principals' perceptions of their own administrative behaviour and the perceptions of the same of teachers of their schools, and to study the effect of some personal variables like age, sex, qualifications, etc. on the administrative behaviour of school principals.

The major findings of the study were:

i. About 35 per cent of the sampled schools belonged to most effective type of administrative behaviour whereas about 37 per cent belonged to least effective category.

ii. Sex, age and experience did not influence administrative behaviour.

iii. School size, management type, location or advanced status of the place had no influence on the effectiveness of administrative behaviour.

iv. The teachers' and the principals' perceptions did not show relationship with the administrative behaviour.

v. The schools having open climate had more effective administrative behaviour than the schools having closed climate.
vi. The principals showing effective administrative behaviour were less dogmatic than those with less effective administrative behaviour.

vii. The schools with effective administrative behaviour and those with least effective administrative behaviour differed significantly in the degree of pupil control ideology.

viii. The personality of the teachers was significantly related to their perception of the effectiveness of the administrative behaviour of their principals.

Rajeevalochana (1981) in his study took 150 schools to measure the administrative behaviour of the principals or headmasters/headmistresses of the secondary schools in Tamil Nadu, measure and find out the relationship among administrative behaviour, organizational climate and teachers' morale, measure and establish relationship between the administrative behaviour and the traditional or progressive character of schools, measure teachers' morale and find out its relationship with the traditional or progressive character of the school, and measure the perceptions of teachers about their principals on the ABDS and find out its relationship with the principals' perception of themselves on the ABDS.

The major findings of the study were:

i. There was no significant relationship between the administrative behaviour of principals and organizational climate of the schools.

ii. There was close relationship between the HH pattern of the administrative behaviour of the school principals and their supervision work resulting in high achievement of teaching.
iii. The administrative behaviour of the school principals influenced the traditional or progressive character of the schools.

iv. There was negative relationship between the dogmatism of the school principals and the teachers' morale.

v. There was no significant difference between the perceptions of the teachers about the administrative behaviour of their principals and the perceptions of the principals about their own administrative behaviour.

Darji and Dongre (1982) confined their study to 25 secondary schools to identify the leadership behaviour patterns of school principals of Baroda district and Baroda city, to identify the organizational climate types of the schools, the nature of organizational health of the schools, and to look into the organizational health of the schools through the leadership behaviour patterns of principals and organizational climate of the schools.

The findings of the study were:

i. Among the schools studies, 44 per cent had principals manifesting HH patterns of leadership behaviour and 34 per cent had principals with LL pattern.

ii. Closed organizational climate was prevalent in 32 per cent schools, open climate in 18 per cent schools and autonomous climate in another 18 per cent schools.

iii. Open as well as closed climates were more in district schools than in city schools.

iv. The mean scores on various dimensions of organizational health ranged from 24 to 29. The highest scores were on goal focus,
cohesiveness, problem-solving adequacy, and the lowest scores were on communication adequacy and optimum power equalization. From organizational health point of view, the picture was encouraging.

v. The teachers in district schools were more cohesive than those in the city schools.

vi. The schools with principals manifesting HL pattern of leadership behaviour were the best in goal focus, innovativeness and problem-solving adequacy.

vii. The schools with principals of HH pattern of leadership were the best in innovativeness.

viii. The schools having principals manifesting LH pattern of leadership were poorer than the other schools.

ix. As one moved from openness to closedness, the mean scores on almost all the dimensions of organizational health decreased. The autonomous schools were the highest on goal focus and resource utilization.

x. Communication adequacy was poor in the paternal and closed schools.

Naik (1982) in his study undertook 100 schools to study the leadership behaviour of the headmasters of the secondary schools of South Gujarat, the morale of teachers of the secondary schools of South Gujarat, the relationship between different dimensions of leadership behaviour of the headmasters and different dimensions of the teachers’ morale, the relationship between the leadership behaviour of the headmasters and the area, sex, size and management of the school and the relationship between the teachers’ morale and the area.
The major findings of the investigation were:

i. There was no significant relationship between the twelve dimensions of LBDQ and the experience of the headmaster.

ii. Teachers' morale had no significant relationship with the type of school, area of the school, and size of the school.

iii. LBDQ had no significant relationship with the type of school, area of the school and size of the school.

Patel (1983) in his study aimed at identifying leadership behaviour patterns of principals of higher secondary schools of Gujarat State as perceived by principals and teachers in reality and according to their ideals and studying inter-relationships among leadership behaviour of principals, organizational climate of schools and professional development of teachers.

The major findings were:

i. There was a positive relationship between the two dimensions of leadership behaviour of the school principal, viz. initiating structure and consideration.

ii. The principals of the schools manifested mostly the high consideration (HH) and low consideration (LL) pattern of leadership behaviour leaving middle positions sufficiently vacant.

iii. The HH pattern of leadership behaviour was associated with open, autonomous and controlled climates; the LL pattern of leadership behaviour was associated with closed climate.

iv. Morale of teachers increased when the actual leadership behaviour of the leader approximated the desired behaviour as perceived by
v. Significant mean differences were found between leaders’ self-perception and faculty perception of his actual leadership behaviour.

vi. Male and female principals perceived their own leadership behaviour as being significantly different on the ‘consideration’ dimension.

vii. No significant differences were found between male and female administrators as perceived by teachers and by themselves on ‘initiation structure’ and ‘consideration’.

viii. The principal’s effectiveness was a significant predictor or organizational climate.

ix. The professional development of teachers of higher secondary schools was quite encouraging because on dimension was the score less than sixty per cent.

x. The schools showed a tendency towards being closed rather than open.

xi. The teachers scored highest on professional development under the leadership of principals manifesting the HL pattern of leadership behaviour in contrast to teachers working under the leadership of principals manifesting the LL pattern.

xii. The teachers working in schools where a paternal climate prevailed scored highest on their professional development and lowest in schools with familiar climate.

xiii. The rural-urban dimension did not play any significant role in case of any of the dimensions of leadership behaviour.

xiv. Professional qualifications of principals did not play any significant role in the professional development of teachers and teachers.
in shaping the climate of the schools.

xv. Professional qualities significantly correlated with values, attitudes and motivation and negatively correlated with ‘consideration’.

xvi. Esprit significantly correlated with ‘intimacy’, ‘thrust’ and ‘aloofness’.

xvii. ‘Aloofness’ significantly correlated with ‘production emphasis’ and ‘thrust’.

Sampuran Singh (1985) in his study aimed at determining the pattern of organizational climate, leadership behaviour and moral development in the elementary and secondary schools; examining school to school differences on various dimensions of organizational climate, leadership behaviour and moral development of heads of these schools, and the relative variability of organizational climate, leadership behaviour, and moral development of heads of elementary and secondary schools and determining the relationship between different dimensions of organizational climate, leadership behaviour and moral development.

The findings of the study were:

i. Elementary and secondary schools were found to be similar in teacher behaviour in a task-oriented situation, teacher thinking with regard to their principals and the principals’ efforts to move the organization.

ii. Elementary school teachers were higher in esprit and intimacy than secondary schools teachers.

iii. The leadership behaviour of the two types of schools did not differ.
iv. The heads of the two types of schools equally varied in leadership behaviour.

v. On moral development also, heads of the two types of schools were alike.

vi. On production emphasis, 14 per cent of the elementary and 20 per cent of the secondary schools were high.

vii. On the dimension of consideration, 18 per cent of the elementary and 16 per cent of the secondary schools were high.

viii. In the case of leadership behaviour, 22 per cent of the elementary and 14 per cent of the secondary schools were high on initiating structure.

ix. In the case of moral development, 14 per cent of the elementary and 22 per cent of the secondary schools were high.

x. Consideration was most dominantly related with all other dimensions of school climate in both elementary and secondary schools.

xi. The relationship between initiating structure and consideration was high and positive.

xii. Initiating structure as a dimension of leadership behaviour was significantly related to the dimensions of school climate like esprit, intimacy, production emphasis, thrust and consideration.

Bala (1990) attempted to study the leadership behaviour of college principals as perceived by their respective teachers in the State of Haryana.

The study found that

i. Principals’ have been rated high on all the dimensions of leadership behaviour when taken separately, that is,
representation, demand reconciliation, tolerance and uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, superior orientation and leadership as a whole. The leadership be of the principal is almost distributed on all the dimensions of leadership and leadership as a whole. The classification of principals on the basis of effectiveness reveals that some of them are relatively effective in their task.

ii. The leadership behaviour of college principals on the whole in comparison to other professional leaders ranks at number two. It cannot be said that the leadership behaviour of college principals is inferior to other professionals.

iii. Leadership behaviour is not significantly related to personality factors, age, sex, teaching experience and administrative experience.

Kumar (1991) in her study revealed diverse kinds of behaviour of principals as perceived by their respective staff. It was found that school heads exhibited task oriented behaviour but in a humanly and motivating manner. But at the same time, the teachers also showed a negative feeling towards the principal, perceiving his behaviour as sometimes bureaucratic and impersonal in nature. Thus the teachers showed both negative and positive feelings.

Hemphill (1955) studied the relationship of leadership behaviour of 22 departments' chairmen with their administrative reputation. He found that older and more matured faculty members had a larger proportion of reputation than less matured or new members of faculty. It was also concluded that good administration was highly related to the
leadership behaviour of chairmen of departments.

Lewis (1959) attempted to analyze the leadership behaviour of practicing high school principals in 11 western states. Most of the principals indicated a strong desire for allotting a larger percentage of time and effort in functioning like evaluation and reorganization of curriculum, supervision of instruction, working with committees interested in improving school-community relations, selecting competent staff, fostering the organization of the guidance programme, supervising and managing the school building, working to improve instructional processes and procedures and establishing good staff relationship. They showed their favours for the improvement and betterment of school activities by scheduling their time if they were free to determine the division of their school time. They showed their urge to bring about improvements in school by (a) doing something towards improving the curriculum, (b) improving their supervision of instruction, (c) developing better guidance and counseling programme, (d) promoting community relations, and (e) holding more parent conferences.

For the betterment of an educational institution, the principals also suggested more work on student activities, developing better remedial teaching programmes, improving budgeting procedures and planning school plant improvements.

Gross and Herriott (1966) took up a study on 175 elementary school principals in order to determine characteristics of executive professional leaders. It was found that the characteristics required for the appointment of elementary school principals are: a high level of academic performance in college, a high order of interpersonal skills,
motive of service, and willingness to commit off-duty time to their work.

Nolan (1969) took a study to analyze the behaviour of school administrators by using LBDQ on 97 superintendents and 105 elementary schools of the state of New Jersey. Four dimensions were considered to be vital in studying their behaviour:

i. Initiating structure,
ii. Consideration,
iii. Role assumption, and
iv. Tolerance of freedom.

The study found that there is a progressive trend towards increased professionalisation of administrators. Teaching and administrative experiences were not found to be significantly related to leadership behaviour.

Morsink (1970) attempted to compare the leadership behaviour of 15 men and 15 women school principals. It was found that there was no difference in the behaviour of women and men in school situations. The study emphasized that without any sound justification, no discrimination on the basis of sex should be done. This study denies the assumption that men perform appropriately as administrative leaders than women. Hence, women principals can be considered as an equal contributing member as male principals.

Gilbert (1974) attempted to identify skills and competencies for elementary school effective principals. He found that effective principals display more characteristics such as welfare of students, maintaining high personal standards, more orientation towards people,
fairness, sense of human and knowledge. They allow their staff initiation, decision and action and provide leadership to staff in determining objectives and needs of the school.

Haroldson and Smith (1974) also identified some behaviour competencies and functions of effective and ineffective elementary principals but by different procedures. While Haroldson used observation technique, Smith analyzed and synthesized findings of 26 students and found fifteen statements describing effective actions. Some of the statements were common in both the studies such as facilitating mutual communication, stimulating personal and professional growth and development of staff, relationship with parents and students, providing instructional leadership. Smith identified some other competencies also such as positive relationship with superintendent of Board of Education, working and planning cooperatively with staff, understanding between home and school, supporting the teachers, incorporating combined judgement, building organization, unity and cooperation within staff working towards continuous development of education profession, promoting positive working, demonstrating competencies in schools' organizations and maintaining desirable student behaviour patterns.

Brookover et al (1979) emphasized highly on involvement of teachers and pupils in the issues concerning them in order to create a favourable organizational climate. His style should be democratic as the researcher found that there is a need to maintain smooth, orderly system wherein the problems and hindrances are easily handled. This would assist in maintaining discipline. There is rather the need for developing the staff professionally, to delegate responsibility to show
meaningful direction and to develop sound monitoring system. High expectations both of staff and the principal, role clarity of both the parties, cooperation and sharing among them serve as principal’s day-to-day managerial behaviour towards teachers and pupils.

Loisres (1979) conducted a study to determine the perception of teachers regarding their principals’ leadership behaviour and ascertained the relationship between teachers perception of school organizational climate and principal leadership behaviour. It was interesting to note that all the teachers in this study perceived their principal as an effective leader. There was a significant relationship between organizational climate and principals’ leadership behaviour, however, no matter how teachers perceived their school organizational climate, they still perceived their principal as an effective leader.

Wilson (1980) undertook a comparative study on ideal and actual role perceptions of elementary principals, junior and senior high school principals in Los Angeles schools. It was found that there were significant discrepancies between their actual and ideal role perceptions in areas of instructional leadership personnel administration, student guidance activities and behaviour, school environment, community relations and professional development. So far as the three categories of school leaders no significant differences were found so far their ideal and actual role perceptions were concerned.

Green, Ronald, Charles (1981) in their study identified characteristics with the principals: level of participation in negotiations, process, age, seniority in the principalship, school type and size of school staff. Leadership behaviour is not associated with level of participation in the negotiations process.
Wyne (1981) showed principals of more effective schools clearly conceptualize goals for the schools. Even the teaching staff of such schools exhibits open, accepting and honest behaviour. Principals were found to be quite balanced. They possessed more stable characteristics of healthy and positive self-concept and higher degree of morale.

Daniel (1981) in his study attempted to determine and compare school principals and teachers with respect to principal’s leadership behaviour, teacher satisfaction and student achievement. It also ascertained whether significant relationships existed among dimensions of leadership behaviour, teacher satisfaction and student achievement and each of the following variables: sex, marital status, age, education, race, experience and years spent with the principal. It was found that (1) the teachers expected a higher level of performance than the perceived behaviour in the leadership dimensions of initiation structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption and consideration; (2) the variables of age and years spent with the principal does influence the relationship with the teachers; (3) the dimensions of tolerance of freedom and role assumption played dominant role in the perception and expectations of inner city elementary school teachers.

Kondy (1981) in her study focused on dimensions of leadership behaviour, particularly initiation structure and consideration, self-perceived degrees of responsibility, authority and delegation and demographic data relative to the administrator’s age and length of service.

Three major instruments were used – Least prepared co-worker (LPC) scale, LBDQ XII and RAD scale. The findings of the study
were, low LPC administrators did not differ significantly (.05%) from the high LPC administrators in regard to their consideration and initiation structure scores. The RAD scale scores of high LPC administrators did not differ significantly (PL.05) from administrators with low LPC scores. There was no significant correlation (PL .05) between scores of superintendents, assistant superintendents on LPC scale and the scores of perceived degrees of responsibilities and authority and delegation of residential services directors.

**Emenalom** (1987) in his study investigated the reasons for lack of trust in secondary school principals that has resulted in teachers developing negative attitudes towards the principals’ leadership behaviour. The purpose of the study was to determine relationship of principal leadership behaviour as perceived by teachers as well as principals perception of themselves in selected secondary schools of Nigeria.

The results show that teachers mean percentages ranged from 81.4% to 61.1% with principals rated highest, on the average of initiation of structure and lowest on tolerance of uncertainty. Principals self ratings ranged from 91.2% to 69.5% rating themselves highest on integration and lowest on tolerance on uncertainty. Self ratings by Principals were significantly higher than teachers’ ratings of themselves on tolerance of uncertainty, prediction, accuracy, integration and superior orientation. In general, principal rated themselves higher on leadership behaviour measured by the LBDQ than the teachers rated themselves. As shown in the data, the number of male and female principals indicated a balance in both groups; showing that the government is encouraging females to undertake leadership roles in
education. The conclusion was that there was a strong relation between teachers perception of the principals leadership behaviour and the principals perceptions of themselves.

Flumer (1983) observed about the need of improved human relations. Views of employees are based on their experiences, attitudes and opinions, individual concept or rejected organizational philosophies and practices. If their views are considered, employees are more likely to exert greater on the job efforts and to develop loyalty. When employers are perceived negatively, indifference toward job responsibilities lessens productivity causes morale problems. Workers want their contribution valued and they seek respect from bosses. Effective leader strive to build employee confidence and to strengthen human relationships.

The Margaret Chase Smith Centre for Public Policy at the University of Maine conducted the external evaluation of the Academy. Their report, “Programme Evaluation: Maine Academy for School Leadership” Johnson et al (1993) describes changes largely into arenas: in leaders' attitude, beliefs, confidence and understanding of leaderships, and in their behaviours with colleagues at school. They summarized the Academy’s outcomes as follows:

The participants believe that through the Academy’s efforts they have had many significant learnings and have acquired skills which they have been able to apply at their sites for the benefits of all learners - students, teachers, administration and staff... Participants expanded their knowledge of interpersonal collaboration, group facilitation, leadership toward school achievements, and theories of leadership and educational change. They developed a greater capacity
for evaluating staff-school conditions and their impacts on student’s outcomes. Nathan (1992) observed that it is a surprise that number of members sought to shift relationship with their principals who desire to influence the school more positively, their relationships with principal would need to change.

Connie (1992) concluded through interpersonal skills development and classification of beliefs and standards, several found ways to take action with staff who were not working to their expectations. Much to their surprise, there encounters almost always were rewarded by both better relationships and better performance.

Sergiovanni (1992) observed that leading engages head, heart and hand. To succeed so their beliefs and values – their “hearts” needed to be aligned with their new actions and ideas. Although “head” or cognitive changes often come out easily, “heart” changes or changes in their belief, commitments and their interpersonal relationships, come with more differently, “hands” changes or changes to their behaviours often needed to be preceded by the other two. He concluded that leadership depends almost totally on interpersonal factors. Interpersonal relationship challenges have a certain universal quality. Building trust, clarifying meaning, establishing common purpose, facilitating mutually agreeable decisions, and resolving conflicts or hurt feelings are constant interpersonal activities for the school leaders.

Dubin (1970) relates human relations to authority. He concluded that the significant orientation to a human relations approach is to seek an understanding of how people behave in organizations. Members of organization understand authority and leadership and their functions. The real problem is to make leadership and the exercise of authority
operate according to the accepted values and beliefs of our society.

Schultz (1958) observed that one can understand the feelings that group members have about each other's behaviours, and the kinds of steps that they, and the groups as a whole, take in dealing with these feelings, as belonging to the final level - that of interpersonal relations. For examples, feelings of liking, affection, annoyance, anger, apathy or hurt, stemming from such issues as control and submission, inclusion and exclusion, or closeness and distance are all major aspects of the interpersonal relations level of group work, as are the ways people have of addressing those feelings.

While work at the interpersonal level can pose risks that must be met with great skill (perhaps more so than at any other level) it can also turn out to be the most rewarding personality to group members. Interpersonal problem solving can be seductive to group, that is, it can become so rewarding and so engrossing an activity that a group can fail to come to grips and adequately with the overall mission or task to be performed.

As it is conceived that human relations practice attempts to influence to accomplish organizational objectives that result in satisfaction for the individual involved. The consequences of effective human relations practice, then, are more effective organizations and higher level of individuals need satisfaction who would say, then, that human relations is bad if all concern parties - individuals, organizations and society - stand to benefit? According to Kalz, the interpersonal skills are required for interpersonal effectiveness in an organization.
Despite the number of texts highlight the meaning, objectives, resolution, interpersonal skills used in human relations. Corkhutt (1969), Gazda, Asbury, Childres and Walters (1977) and Egan (1975), Long (1978), Witmen and Myrock (1974) and Gordon (1970) employ a basic communication model in their treatment of human relations. They concluded that there are certain interpersonal skills and qualities that facilitate certain core conditions essential in interpersonal relationships. The core conditions are warmth, genuineness, empathy, respect, concreteness, self-disclosure, immediacy and confrontation. These mentioned in the definition are thought of a behaviour that can be integrated into a person's repertoire by systematic training. It is true that communication skills, as a whole is known as a vehicle facilitating interpersonal relationships.

Underlying the focus on the leadership since the human relations School and Hawthorne studies is what Seashore (1973) describe as "commonly accepted theorem": Leadership in a work situation has been judged to be important because of its connection to some extent assumed and to some extent demonstrated, to organizational effectiveness. Effectiveness, moreover although, it is operationalized in a variety of ways, has often been assumed to be unitary characteristic. Their assumptions define a commonly accepted theorem of that leadership is always salutary and its effect and it always enhances effectiveness.

Gardener (1963) highlights the importance of interpersonal relation in response to leadership effectiveness. Without some grasp to the meaning of his relationship to the whole it is not easy for the individual to retain a vivid sense of his own capacity to act as an individual, a same sense of his own dignity and an awareness of his roles.
and responsibilities. He tends to accept the spectator role and to sink into passively.

Undoubtedly, one’s grasp of “meaning of his relationship to the whole” results from the effects of the various cultures of which one is the part. However, it appears that each person becomes basically oriented by his or her culture as either a local or cosmopolitan.

The manner in which society and the individuals within it, set and maintain internal standards for individual performance has been explored by Merton (1948), Reisman (1950), Getzels and Guba (1957), Thelen (1960), Homans (1963) and Abbott (1965) among others. These researchers concluded that there are identifiable relationships among structures, positive roles, personalities and behaviours. Such relationships determine the problem of social system.

G. Balasubramanian (1999) highlighted the importance of interpersonal relationship in his article “Need for Change”. According to him, the thought process of the individuals have a great impact in shaping the person, one’s life style, one’s achievements and interpersonal relationship with one’s community. Education as a powerful tool of facilitating the human mind to discover one’s potentialities and an instrument bestowing the human mind with the ability to discriminate between the good and the bad, the right and the wrong has a significant role to play in the direction of change. The principal must emphasize the link between staff supervisor relationships influencing the staff-student relations. A participatory management policy of the school will mean a participatory and open atmosphere in the classroom. On the other hand, a dictatorial approach will mean dictatorial and closed classroom. By precept the
principal and supervisor can show the way for a teacher to be more democratic and less democratic with their students.

A balanced relationship within the ‘whole’ as the school leads to the emergence of receptive teachers who can be facilitators, helpers, guides and a source of inspiration for the student who is the ultimate focus point of a school. A receptive teacher if nurtured in the right environment can then go on to mould him/herself into a good teacher. The teacher and student relationship is also essential for better achievement. Each one works towards increasing the effect of the magic word that a teacher has “touch”. By becoming more approachable, by listening to them and by being stoically impartial a teacher is able to hypnotize his/her class under a spell of love, care and understanding once the rapport is established the teacher and taught can embark upon the exciting journey of discovering knowledge and processing it to become wisdom. It is the road to the growth of both and is infinite in its goals.

Ted Ward (1991) observes “Leadership is a serving relationship that has the effect of facilitating human development. “The principal of the new millennium would be a facilitator of learning – facilitating learning to himself, in his colleagues, students, parents and the community at large. It is essential for a leader to develop a network of relationship in the school premises where everyone should be inseparably attached one thing – that is learning for excellence” (P. 105).

Strengthening Interpersonal Relationship:

Diwan (2000) in her book “Dynamic School Leadership” highlights the importance of interpersonal relationship in the field of
educational, administration by the educational leaders, she suggested various ways to strengthen interpersonal relations among the teachers and all who are concerned with the school.

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

Trust in the principal is determined primarily by the behaviour of the principal. Trust in the principal comes directly from the principal’s collegial behaviour that generates a climate of teachers professionalism. Teacher professionalism combines with collegial leadership to generate a strong trust in the leader. Openness and authenticity are the key ingredients of trust relations. Trust has been called “Foundation of School Effectiveness” Cunningham and Gresso (1993). Trust allows individuals to focus on the task on hand and, therefore, to work and learn more effectively. Productive relationships build effective schools.

Wayne Hoy and his colleagues have engaged in over a decade of research on trust in schools. They found teachers’ trust in their colleagues as well as principal are important elements of the trust in a

**Part-III: STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS**

(a) Intellectual Characteristics and Leadership Effectiveness  
(b) The Social Characteristics and Leadership Effectiveness  
(c) Affective Characteristics and Leadership Effectiveness  
(d) Miscellaneous Characteristics and Leadership Effectiveness

Despite some eighty years of intensive research, a comprehensive theoretical understanding and explanation of leadership remains to be developed. The currently accepted view is that leadership effectiveness depends upon the interaction between variable associated with the leader (i.e. personal characteristics) and behavioural factors) and situational variables. It seems apparent that leader emergence or acceptance if appointed from outside the working group depends upon the interaction of similar variables. These current theories of leader effectiveness attempt to identify the ‘best fit’ between leader behaviour, style indicators and situational variables. It seems relevant to state that majority of studies on leadership indicates that leadership effectiveness is contingent upon personality characteristics. What type of personality characteristics contribute and to what degree do they contribute to leadership effectiveness can be understood in the context of the structure of personality.

Psychologists agree that personality is composite of intellectual,
social affective and other miscellaneous characteristics. It, therefore, seems sensible to examine leadership in the context of these personality components. Consequent upon this assumption, studies on leadership will be reviewed under the following heads:

A. Intellectual characteristics and leadership effectiveness
B. The social characteristics and leadership effectiveness
C. Affective characteristics and leadership effectiveness
D. Miscellaneous characteristics and leadership effectiveness

A. **Intellectual Characteristics and Leadership Effectiveness:**

A bulk of studies have yielded evidence which indicates the leaders are superior to followers in such intellectual characteristics as intelligence, scholarship, specialised knowledge, judgement and decision-making ability, insight and originality, component of creativity. It seems relevant to examine the results drawn in studies conducted with a view to find out relationship between each one of these intellectual factors and leadership. The succeeding sections will present the studies of leadership as being influenced by:

i. Intelligence

ii. Scholarship

iii. Specialized knowledge

iv. Judgement and decision-making ability

v. Insight

vi. Originality

(i) **Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness**
Research workers have tried to find the relationship between the intelligence and leadership for the last six decades. Their interest in such research venture emanates from the theoretical position of intelligence being an ability to adjust with new situations. They, therefore, thought and assumed that intelligence being an ability to adjust should be of some value in helping individuals to exercise their influence on other individuals. Such an exercise obviously is nothing but leadership.

Accepting of the validity of this assumption has motivated the research workers to conduct studies for the exploration of relationship between intelligence and leadership. Such research workers include Terman (1904), Webb (1915), Kohs and Irle (1920), Nutting (1923), Con (1926), Bellingrath (1930), Cowley (1931), Brown (1933), Partridge (1934), Flemming (1935), Simpson (1938), Dunkerly (1940), Howell (1942), Gibb (1949), Green (1950), Bass (1951), Gordon (1952), Riggs (1953), Stopler (1953), Cattle and Stoce (1954), Gowan (1955), Stalei (1955) and Singh (1978). The result drawn by aforementioned investigators indicate three distinct trends in respect of intellectual characteristics of leaders:

(a) **First Trend:** Contribution of intelligence to leadership is significant.

(b) **Second Trend:** Contribution of intelligence to leadership is insignificant.

(c) **Third Trend:** Contribution of intelligence to leadership is uncertain.

(a) **Contribution of Intelligence to Leadership is Significant:** Doll and Claire (1953) Riggs (1953), Stopler (1953), Cattle and Stoce (1954), Gowan (1955), Stalei (1955) and Singh (1981) indicate that leaders are
brighter in intelligence than their followers. However, of the two types of intelligence, verbal and non-verbal, in the context of which effectiveness of leadership has been studied, it has been found that verbal intelligence, relatively speaking contributes more to leadership effectiveness than non-verbal intelligence.

(b) Contribution of Intelligence to Leadership is Insignificant: As against the conclusion drawn in studies of the first trend, a few of the investigators have found evidence, which suggests that intelligence, is as insignificant contributors to leadership effectiveness. Notable among such research works are Bellingrath (1930), Eichler (1934), Simpson (1938) and Howell (1942). Results drawn by them show that in terms of intelligence, there is no difference in intellectual characteristics or what is usually termed as intelligence between leaders and non-leaders.

(c) Contribution of intelligence to leadership is Uncertain: The third trend emerging from studies conducted on intelligence and leadership suggest that there is too great differences in the intelligence, which militates against leadership. This trend is supported by results drawn from the studies conducted by Warner (1923), Miller (1925), Hallingworth (1926), McCuen (1929), Finch and Caroll (1932).

(ii) Scholarship and Leadership Effectiveness:

Besides intelligence scholarship is an attribute, which has been found to contribute to leadership in academic situations. A host of investigators, as for example Terman (1904), Webb (1915), Caldwell and Wallman (1926), Crawford (1928), Balwin (1932), Buttgereit (1932), Sward (1933), Ackerson (1942), Howell (1942), Reynolds
(1944), Nayar (1962), Abraham (1966) and Schultz (1984) have found that leaders in general are superior in scholarship as compared with non-leaders. But Nutting (1923) is quite opposite to these investigators found that leaders are poorer in scholarship than their followers. But the conclusion drawn by this investigator is indeed very peculiar individual case and, therefore, it cannot form the basis of generalization.

(iii) **Specialized Knowledge and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Specialized knowledge is contributing in leadership in specialized academic situations. This generalization emerges from the studies conducted by Michels (1915), Caldwell (1920), Nutting (1923), Reininger (1927), Broich (1929), Detroit (1929), Buttgereit (1923), Stray (1340), Flemming (1935), Burk (1938), Zeleny (1939) conclusion drawn by all these research workers need to be taken with caution that the tools used by most of them for measuring leadership effectiveness and specialized knowledge were not as valid as reliable as than are today. Moreover, these studies have date back to almost half a century and educational research has undergone much change during this period.

(iv) **Judgement, Decision Ability and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Judgement about the group aspirations, group forces and dynamics and ability to take decisions as well as to make the group accept the decision are intellectual characteristics, which go along with leadership effectiveness. Researchers like Webb (1915), Baligrath (1930), Cowley (1932), Flemming (1935), Dunkerley (1940), Hanawalb, Richardson and Hamilton (1943), Drake (1944) and Qulee (1983) in separate studies conducted by them have found significant
relationship between leadership on the one hand and judgement and decision-making ability on other. Balkrath, Drake and Webb have reported significant correlation between these correlates that range from 0.34 to 0.69.

Studies conducted by Cowley (1932) and Dunkerley (1940) reveal that two components of judgement, namely, soundness and finality are the characteristics feature of leaders. Besides these components of judgement Cowley (1932) found that speed decision is also related to leadership effectiveness. Conclusion drawn by the aforementioned investigators find support from a recent study by Duke (1984). The latter too has reported positive correlation between leadership and decisiveness.

(v) Insight and Leadership Effectiveness:

The ability to see through beyond the data is insight. It is common observation that leaders have more developed insight than the non-leaders. An individual having insight into group structure, its motives, goals and inspirations, its characteristics and group forces has a greater chance to be successful as a leader than the one who is devoid of such behaviour, working on this assumption an array of research works Caldwell (1926), Cox (1962), Brow (1931), Buttgereit (1932), Dunkerley (1940), Fauquier and Guilchrist (1942) designed studies which have yielded results that indicate that insight into social or group environment contributes leadership effectiveness.

Besides these investigators Rowden (1926), Cheveleva and Sylla (1926), Marrian and Gosnell (1929), Buttgereit (1932) and
Thurston (1944) also found in studies conducted by them that ability to evaluate situations in a significant factor in leadership effectiveness. Significant relationship between social insight and leadership was found by Bowden (1926), Pigoras (1933), Haufmann (1935), Zeleny (1939) and Jennings (1943).

(vi) **Originality and Leadership Effectiveness:**

The relationship between originality and leadership has been studied by Cox (1962), Baligrath (1930), Flemming (1935), Burks (1938) and Drake (1944). These investigators have claimed to find a positive relationship between originality and leadership effectiveness. This suggest that a leader, in order to keep his influence over members of his group intact and durable, needs to be original in his approach and style of functioning. His group can feel him in high esteem only when they perceive him to be more original than them.

B. **Social Characteristics and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Leadership is essentially a social personality trait. Many investigators on the assumption that leadership being a member of the family of social characteristics have designed studies to find out the degree to which different social characteristics contribute to leadership effectiveness. Conclusion drawn by the investigators are neither identical nor contradictory. Most of the studies have generally confined their scope to examine the relationship effectiveness to such social characteristics as extraversion-introversion, dominance submission, Masculinity-femininity, Conservation-progressivism, responsibility, social and economic status, social skills and popularity. It is proposed to examine the research evidence in respect of the relationship between
leadership effectiveness and each one of the foregoing social characteristics. The succeeding sections will present the studies of leadership as being influenced by:

i. Extroversion - introversion

ii. Dominance - submission

iii. Masculinity - Femininity

iv. Conservatism - progressivism

v. Responsibility

vi. Social and economic status

vii. Social skills

viii. Popularity

(i) Extroversion-Introversion and Leadership Effectiveness

Extroversion is believed to be the basic characteristics of leaders whether is political or in social or in cultural or in academic situation. It is against this belief that investigators like Bass, Wurster et al (1953), Bargatta (1953), Stopler (1953), Cattle and Stoce (1954), Benter and Slater (1955), Bhushan (1969) and Bueler (1984) have designed studies with a view to find out the relationship between extraversion and leadership. The results yielded in all these studies indicate that there is a positive relationship between extroversion and leadership effectiveness. However, with the exception of Guilford-Zimmerman Scale, there is no single measure of extroversion, which has been found by these studies to be consistently related to
leadership. The median correlation between leadership and extroversion that has been found by the investigators in these studies is 0.15 and the highest correlation between these correlates is 0.42.

Evidence contrary to the one reported above has been found in studies by Cox (1926) and Middeton (1941). They reported that leaders are more introvert than non-leaders.

There are, however, studies, which neither support the conclusion reported initially nor the one reported later on. These studies suggest that extroversion-introversion does not bear any significant relationship with leadership effectiveness. Significant researches draw in this conclusion are Bellingrath (1930), Drake (1944), Sinha and Kumar (1968).

(ii) **Dominance-Submission and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Psychological researchers bear out that leaders are relatively more dominant than their followers. This finding draws ample support from studies conducted by Cox (1926), Jordan (1939), Drake (1944), Richardson and Hanewalt (1944), Cattelle and Donald (1946), Singh and Kumar (1966). All these investigators have found that there is a significant relation between dominance and leadership effectiveness. But there are studies, which claim to find evidences quite opposite to this. For example, researchers like Broich (1929), Haufmann (1935) and Jennings (1943) have reported that bossy and domineering persons are rejected as leaders.

Two of the investigators, namely, Webb (1915) and Eicher (1934) who have designed studies to find the differences between
leaders and non-leaders in regard to their personality traits of dominance did not observe any significant difference. In this regard their studies suggest that leaders are neither accepted nor rejected because of their dominance personality trait.

(iii) **Masculinity-Femininity and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Masculinity-Femininity is a personality factor which measures the extent to which an individual’s interests or preferences resemble those convince to his own or the opposite sex. This factor can be measured by such personality tests as Masculinity-Femininity Scale (MMPT) Guilford Zimmerman and Goodenough speed of association test. Research workers such as Ziley (1939), Carter and Nixon (1949), Bell (1952), Cobb (1952), Gordon (1952), Bass and Wurster (1953), Stopler (1953), Slater (1955) and Bangher (1982) have sought to study the relationship between Masculinity and leadership effectiveness. Conclusion drawn by the aforementioned investigators is that there is a significant positive relationship between leadership effectiveness and masculinity personality trait.

(iv) **Conservatism-Progressivism and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Relationship between conservatism-progressivism and leadership effectiveness has been studied by research workers as Cowley (1931), Hunter and Jordon (1939), Carter and Nixon (1949), Bass and Coates (1952), Bass and Megchee et al (1953), Bass and Wurster (1953), Stopler (1953), Holender (1954) and Mittal (1965). All of these investigators have found significant but negative relationship between leadership and conservatism. This conclusion implies that leaders in general are progressive. It can also be inferred
that progressivism contributes leadership effectiveness.

(v) **Responsibility and Leadership Effectiveness:**

An individual who is perceived by other individuals to be responsible and dependable has greater chance to be acceptable as leader than those who are perceived otherwise. Studies conducted by Webb (1951), Calwell (1930), Cox (1926), Baligrath (1930), Baldwin (1932), Moore (1932), Wetzel (1932), Flemming (1935), Burk (1938), Ackerson (1942), Jennings (1943), Bruke (1944) lend strong support to this view. Subjects of the sample of these studies rated their leaders to be somewhat higher than followers on such social characteristics as dependability, trustworthiness and reliability in carrying out responsibilities. These studies, therefore, suggest that to be a leader one needs to be responsible in his behaviour.

(vi) **Social, Economic Status and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Individuals hailing from socially affluent section of the society appear to have greater chance of being accepted as leader than those from poor section of the society. Studies conducted by such research workers as Bellingrath (1930), Brown (1934), Garrison (1935), Reals (1938), Remmelin (1938), Hunter and Jordon (1939), Chapin (1945) also tend strong support to this assumption. A correlation analysis made by these research investigators suggests that there is a positive relationship between leader and socio-economic status.

Result different from those drawn by the above investigators, however, was drawn by Goodenough (1930) and Balwin (1932). These investigators found negative difference among leaders differing in their socio-economic status.
Social Skills and Effectiveness:

Leadership seems to be contingent upon the development of social skills. A host of studies such as Sheldon (1927), Prosh (1928), Goodenough (1930), Moore (1932), Eicher (1934), Flemming (1935), Malloy (1936), Burks (1938), Tryon (1939), Middeton (1941), Ackerson (1942), Bonney (1943), Jennings (1943) and Newcomb (1943) found a significant relationship between leadership and sociability. These researchers have reported that leaders have more developed social skills than their followers.

Popularity and Leadership Effectiveness:

Leadership and popularity go hand to hand. One who is popular in his group has a greater probability of being accepted as a leader. The reverse of this, however, is not necessarily true. An individual in this sense may be a leader yet he may not be popular. Studies conducted by Michels (1915), Nutting (1923), Cox (1926), Bellingrath (1930), Garrison (1935), Tryon (1939), Zelexy (1939), Miler and Dallard (1941), Ackerson (1942) and Carlson and Harell (1942) have found a positive correlation between leadership and popularity. The value of coefficient of correlation found in these studies range between (0.23 to 0.82).

C. Affective Characteristics and Leadership Effectiveness:

The third component against which leadership has been studies and examined is the affective components. Theoreticians on leadership manifest fair degree of agreement on the assumption that effectiveness of leadership is to some extent the function of the affective characteristics of an individual for long. It has been
recognized that emotions provide the necessary energy which drives and individual to act in the direction of the goal. It is against this background that several research workers designed their studies with a view to ascertain the effectiveness of the leadership under operational influence of such affective characteristics as adjustment, self-confidence, integrity, emotional control, anxiety, neuroticism, values and assertiveness. An attempt has been made to review the studies on leadership and each one of the above affective characteristics.

The succeeding sections will present the studies as being influenced by:

i. Adjustment
ii. Self-confident
iii. Integrity
iv. Emotional Control
v. Anxiety
vi. Values
vii. Assertiveness

(i) **Adjustment and Leadership Effectiveness:**

The very concept of leadership effectiveness implies that effectiveness of a leader is contingent upon his ability to adjust with his followers. How far such as assumption is valid has been sought to be answered through carefully designed research studies. Research workers like Flemming (1935), Gordon, Carter and Nixon (1949), Dexter and Stein (1955), Gowan (1955) and Slater (1955) designed correlational studies with an objective to find out the degree of relationship between leadership scores and adjustment scores. Results drawn in these studies
indicate that there is a significant relationship between leadership effectiveness and leader's adjustment. Although adjustment bears a significant relationship the degree of correlation ranges between as low as 0.12 to as high as 0.53 with a medium correlation value. The fact that studies quoted above have found significant correlation between leadership effectiveness and adjustment does not mean that all studies conducted till date have also obtained similar results. Two studies for example, the one conducted by Singh and Kumar (1966) and the other conducted by Pal (1976) failed to observe any significant relationship between adjustment and leadership effectiveness. The number of such studies as have failed to notice a significant relationship between these correlations is rather few. The bulk of studies do support the view that adjustment contribute to leadership effectiveness.

(ii) **Self-confidence and Leadership Effectiveness:**

A leader to be successful needs to be self-confident. No individual can lead his group if in challenging situations, he becomes nervous such as assumption has encouraged. Several research workers, as for example Webb (1915), Cowley (1931), Baldwin (1932), Buttegereit (1932), Moore (1932), Drake (1941) and Richardson (1943, 44) conducted studies with a view to find the relationship between leadership effectiveness and self-confidence. Results yielded by these studies indicate a significant and positive relationship between self-confidence and leadership effectiveness.

(iii) **Integrity and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Integrity of character is a such personality trait of a leader as is
believed to impress the followers. To ascertain the validity of this belief several researchers have designed research studies. Notable among those who have conducted studies on this subject are Cox (1926), Bernard (1928), Marrian (1929), Peck (1931), Middeton (1941) and Carlson (1942). Each of these researchers has claimed to find a positive significant relationship between leadership effectiveness and integrity. Needless to say these results tend strong support to the belief that the integrity of character a personality trait, which is associated with leadership effectiveness.

(iv) **Emotional Control and Leadership Effectiveness:**

A leader is supposed to keep control over his emotions even the face of emotion-rousing situations. He can lead his group to achieve its goal but only when he avoids behaving like other members of his group. He must show that emotionally he is different and can rise above petty passions and emotions. It is with this assumption that several researchers as for example Webb (1915), Zelexy (1939), Bhushan (1969) and Singh (1978) have conducted studies to investigate the relationship between leadership effectiveness and emotional control. The result yielded by these studies show wide divergence. In terms of significance and the magnitude of correlational values all these results can broadly be classified into three trends. The studies conducted by Winston (1937), Brake (1944), Bhushan (1969) and Singh (1978) indicated that there is a significant positive relation between emotional control and leadership effectiveness. This trend, therefore, implies that effective leadership have greater emotional control. These leaders who are rated ineffective.

As against the first trend, studies grouped under the second
category manifests a trend that implies that leaders have less control over their emotions than non-leaders. The studies conducted by Cox (1962), Sheldon (1927), Tryon (1939), Ackerson (1942) and Faquier (1942) manifest the results that belong to the second trend. They found that leaders are less emotionally controlled than their followers.

There are studies by Flemming (1935) and Zelexy (1939) who did not find any significant difference in the mean emotional control scores of the leaders and the followers. These studies indicate that emotional control neither positively nor negatively influences leadership effectiveness.

(v) Anxiety and Leadership Effectiveness:

Two views have been advanced in respect of the role played by anxiety in the growth of effective leadership. The first view is that leaders as a group have more anxiety than the followers as a group. Their anxiety emanates from the threats they apprehend from some emerging leaders within the group. The fear that his leadership can be challenged by an other member of the group makes a leader more anxious than ordinary member of his group. The second view as opposed to the first view is that leaders by and large are less anxious than their followers. Study supporting the first view was conducted by Singh and Kumar (1966) and studies supporting the second view are those conducted by Sharma (1964) and Duncan (1982).

(vi) Value and Leadership Effectiveness:

Values determine behaviour and establish goals for achievements. Individuals differ in their values. A leader has to be
value oriented. Without such value orientation he can hardly set the values before his group and motivate it to achieve these. This theory motivated the research workers to find out relationship between the leader’s values and their effectiveness. In a series of studies Kumar (1965, 66 and 69) arrived at the result that leaders are lower on theoretical and aesthetic values and higher on social and political values. The studies conducted on the subject, however, are so far as not to make it possible to draw a generalization of sufficient credence.

(vii) **Assertiveness and Leadership Effectiveness:**

The man who can assert can also lead. One who has not the ability to assert is less likely to be able to lead his group. Assertiveness is a significant characteristic associated with leadership working on this assumption Singh (1978) and Sukhabanu (1980) designed studies to estimate the validity of this assumption. Results drawn by these investigators indicate the leadership effectiveness is significantly related to assertiveness.

D. **Miscellaneous Characteristics and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Leadership, besides being studies in the context of intellectual, social and affective characteristics, has been also studied in the context of such miscellaneous factors as height, weight, physique, fluency of speech, appearance, experience and chronological age. It is obvious that the results drawn in the context of these miscellaneous factors vary from study to study. In a sense of these results are to highlight the finding drawn in respect of leadership effectiveness and each of the miscellaneous factors.

The succeeding sections will present the studies as being
influenced by:

i. Interpersonal sensitivity
ii. Height
iii. Weight
iv. Physique
v. Health
vi. Fluency
vii. Appearance
viii. Experience
ix. Chronological age

i. Interpersonal Sensitivity and Leadership effectiveness:

Interpersonal sensitivity is an attribute, which acts as centrifugal force to attract different members of a group to a leader. Social investigators have sought to find out the relationship between interpersonal sensitivity and leadership. Research workers worth mentioning in this are Zelexy (1939), Chawdhary (1949), Green (1949), Hites and Combell (1950), Bell (1952), Chowdhary and Newcomb (1952), Campbell (1953), Gaga and Extine (1953), Stopler (1953), Bell and Hall (1954), Green Galanter and Nodlie (1954), Smith, Jaffe and Livingston (1955) and Trapp (1955). Results obtained by these investigators in these studies indicate that there is a significant relationship between leadership effectiveness and interpersonal sensitivity. These studies suggest that an effective leader is significantly superior to his followers in his accuracy to estimate the opinions of members of his group and was more developed in insight.
ii. **Height and Leadership Effectiveness:**


iii. **Weight and Leadership Effectiveness:**

A few of the researchers have felt fascinated to find whether leaders are lighter or heavier than their followers. Studies conducted by them have yielded three types of results. Under type one are studies, which reveal that leaders are heavier than followers. Researchers claiming to arrive at this conclusion are *Gawin* (1915), *Bellingrath* (1930), *Goodenough* (1930), *Baldwin* (1932), *Partridge* (1934), *Sheldon* (1938), *Zelexy* (1939), *Moore* (1935) and *Howell* (1942) found that leaders are lighter in weight than non-leaders. *Garrison* (1938), *Sheldon* (1938) and *Schultz* (1984) did not find any significant difference between leaders and their followers in respect of weight.

iv. **Physique and Leadership Effectiveness:**

Physique of a leader has generally been regarded as important factor, which adds to his status. A few of the investigators, as for example, *Webb* (1951), *Bernard* (1928), *Sheldon* (1938) have sought to estimate the validity of this general impression. All of them found a
significant positive relationship between leadership effectiveness and physique of the leaders.

v. **Health and Leadership Effectiveness:**

An individual who is free from the effects of diseases and ailments is in a better position to guide, direct and manage his group than an individual who is not free from these effects. Bellingrath (1930), Baldwin (1932), Stray (1934) and Reals (1938) have reported that leaders in general are better in health than non-leaders. But such a conclusion is not shared by investigators like Bowden (1926), Baldwin (1932), Hunter (1939) and Ackerson (1942). None of these investigators found health and physical conditions to bear relationship with leadership effectiveness.

vi. **Fluency of Speech and Leadership Effectiveness**

Leadership effectiveness depends upon communication effectiveness and the latter itself depends upon fluency of speech of the leader. In fact, this assertion has been found to be true by a host of research workers like Terman (1904), Bernard (1928), Chevalanianovskala (1929), Goodenough (1930), Burks (1938), Simpson (1938), Tryon (1939), Henewalt, Richardson and Hamilton (1943) and Thurston (1944). These investigators in independent studies conducted by them reported that there is a significant positive relationship between fluency of speech and leadership effectiveness.

vii. **Appearance and Leadership Effectiveness**

There is an impression shared by layman that one who has a good appearance has a greater chance to be a leader than the one who does not have. Some research workers have sought to test the validity of this
layman impression. Whereas some investigators, as for example, Terman (1925), Barnard (1928), Baldwin (1932), Brown (1933), Partridge (1934), Flemming (1935), Tryon (1939), Dunkerlay (1940), Barker (1942) reported that leaders have better appearance and are better dressed than followers, some other investigators, as for example, Zenley (1939), Goodenough (1930) and Ackerson (1942) failed to confirm the findings of the earlier researchers. It seems there is not sufficient evidence to suggest that appearance is a necessary characteristic of effective leadership.

viii. Experience and Leadership Effectiveness

Experience is not only a great teacher but also an attribute which helps in vitalizing leadership. To be successful a leader needs to have a fairly good knowledge and experience of the structure of the group and the group forces operating within it. Some research workers ventured to find out whether this age-old belief is empirically true. Results drawn in studies conducted till date, however, have failed to give a uniform and consistent picture in this regard. Two of the investigators, namely, Kanya-Ngami (1982) and Tseng (1985) have found positive evidence supportive of the earlier mentioned layman view. Good leaders were found by these researchers to have more experience. But this finding did not receive any support from studies conducted by Singha (1978) and Gilmore (1984).

ix. Chronological Age and Leadership Effectiveness

Chronological age has emerged as a very significant factor in mental, social and emotional growth. Leadership is a behaviour, as borne out by research evidence reviewed in the preceding pages, which is dependent upon these very factors. It is, therefore, only logical that several research workers assumed that chronological age should have some say in the effectiveness of leadership. Empirical studies, conducted to test the veracity
of this assumption, have yielded three types of results.

The first type of studies yield results which indicate that leaders in general are younger than their followers. Notable research workers belonging to this type are Belligrath (1930), Baldwin (1932), Finch (1932), Garrison (1935), Remmelin (1938), Hunter (1939) and Kenya-Ngami (1982). As against this finding, there is the finding by some other research workers that leaders are older than their followers. Research workers arriving at this finding are Nutting (1923) and Bellingrath (1931), they concluded that chronological age has no say in leadership effectiveness.

Carolene Hodges, Persell and Cooksen (1982) reviewed more than 75 research studies and reports in order to find why some principals are more effective than others in running a school. They identified nine recurrent behaviours that a good principal displays. These are: academic goals, creating climate of high expectations, functioning as an instructional leader, becoming a forceful and dynamic leaders, seeking consultation from others, maintenance of order and discipline, tapping resources, time management, rationalizing and evaluating results. While there is no ‘one best way’ to effectively create a positive school environment, there appears to be a number of behaviours used by school principals that are associated with positive school climate and greater achievement.