

Chapter – 3

Styles of Cooperative Leaders

3.1 Introduction

Leadership is a universally accepted concept. If there is no leader, no one can speak for the community and the effective community action is aborted". (*Sanderson & Palson, 1939, p. 85*). Concept and phenomenon of Leadership have been lately attracting attention of researchers of social studies. Research into this area provides a guideline to understand group behaviour and human relations. Leadership is defined as inter-personal influence, exercised in situation and diverted through the communication process towards attainment of specified goals. "Some are born leaders, some achieve leadership and some others have leadership thrust upon them."

According to *Bennis and Nanus (1997)*, "Leadership is a word on everyone's lips," and "Everyone agrees there is less of it than there used to be". They go on to point out that although specific leadership competencies have remained more or less the same over the years, theories of what exactly leadership is, how it works, how it is learned, and how it is applied have not remained as quite as constant. Bass (1990) declares that the appearance of the word "leader" in the English language goes back as early as the year 1300 and the word "leadership" did not appear until the first half of the nineteenth century. Furthermore, he claims that it did not reveal itself in the most other modern languages until recent times. Leadership has been a complex phenomenon about which many theories have been developed. There are numerous definitions about what it is and under what conditions it reveals itself. For ages, people have been looking for direction, purpose and meaning to guide their collective activities. Leadership is needed to foster purpose, direction, imagination, and passion, especially in times of crisis or rapid change. At such times people look at leaders hoping for inspiration, and a pathway which will lead them to somewhere more desirable (*Bolman & Deal, 1994*).

A cooperative organization is a democratic unit. Policy-making in a cooperative is a function of leaders chosen or elected with the consent of at least a majority of members of the cooperative. Leadership is the element that makes democracy dynamic. In absence of leadership there is no organized movement. There is only drift or stagnancy. Leaders are an important requirement in human affairs. People coming together for achieving common objectives must have leaders whose function is to take initiative, assume responsibility for carrying out policy and proposals, give directions and inspire and activate the followers to achieve the objectives. The function of leaders in cooperative is to show the way ahead to their fellow-cooperators. In the promotional stage, leaders have to convince the prospective members that the cooperative will provide solutions to their problems— whether it is marketing of produce or getting loans or buying consumer goods. In a cooperative, the leaders guide the members to set up the organization, to undertake business and conduct it through proper decision-making process. The society once set up has to be managed with the support of confidence and loyalty of members (which is also cultivated systematically) and progress is maintained within the limitations of external circumstances. People with greater acuteness of mind and more penetrating foresight; guide those having less of these qualities in decision-making which ensures progress and prosperity for ‘the society and its members. Through persuasion and by obtaining maximum consent as required by the democratic process and by setting model example through subordination of the individual interest, they take the organization, its owners and employees to higher levels of achievements. Cooperative leaders must maintain close contact with the general body of members. They must set tasks before members as they would be willing to take at any given time. In emergency, of course, more radical steps may have to be taken by him. Whatever the vision of the leaders, this pragmatic approach in relation to the members cannot be overlooked.

As leadership had a great impact on the culture, history, and civilization of humankind, theoretical explanations for it have been proffered throughout

history. Although the term leadership is mostly associated with industry and business, it is of great importance to education as well. Firstly, this section will provide a historical background to theories of leadership as rooted in business and industry. Secondly, it will focus on the recent approaches to leadership one of which is the primary concern of this study, namely leadership frames. Finally, it will end by elaborating on management of cooperatives, focuses on duties and responsibilities of elected board members, processes of election etc.

This chapter presents the theories in leadership, management of cooperative societies, duties and responsibilities of cooperative leaders, and the leadership styles adopted by respondent leaders.

3.2 Leadership Theories

As mentioned before, especially within the past century influential theories for leadership have been developed. The Trait Approach that endured up to the late 1940s claimed that leadership ability is inborn. In the late 1940s to late 1960s Behavioral Approach became dominant advocating that effectiveness in leadership has to do with how the leader behaves. In the late 1960s to the early 1980s the Contingency Approach became popular suggesting that effective leadership is dependent upon the situation (*Bryman, 1993*). Recent approaches to leadership focus on vision and charisma, the term used by sociologist Max Weber to describe leaders who can lead but who do not hold a “sanctioned office” (*English, 1992*). Later, Burns (*cited in Deluga, 1995*) introduced the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership. In 1991, *Bolman* and Deal categorized leadership into four frames : the structural, human resource, political and symbolic frame which constitute the background for this particular survey research.

3.2.1 Trait Theories of Leadership

The study of special traits of leaders emerged from the belief that leadership and abilities such as intelligence were inherited. In addition to intelligence other factors such as birth order, status and liberal parents highly correlate with leadership abilities (*Carlson, 1996*). This approach dominated the study of leadership up to the 1950s. It tried to define any distinguishing

physical or psychological characteristics of the individual that explains the behavior of leaders (*Hoy & Miskel, 1991*). It claims that leadership ability is inborn. As the distinguished philosopher Aristotle (*cited in Hoy & Miskel, 1991*) enunciates that “from the hour of birth, some are marked out for subjection, others for rule.” However, some shortcomings of this approach were identified. Firstly, it is not clarified which of the traits are most important and which are not. Secondly, some traits overlap. For example, tact, judgment, and common sense are listed as separate traits but the last one covers the preceding ones. Thirdly, trait studies do not distinguish between traits helping to become a leader and those enabling it to be maintained. Fourthly, most trait studies are descriptive. There is an assumption that the leader’s traits existed prior to leadership and most of them have failed to approach the study of personality as an organized whole (*Gouldner, 1965*). Several studies were conducted to identify leader traits. Mann’s later reviews suggested 750 findings about the personality traits of the leaders. However, many of the traits found in one study undermined or were found to be unimportant in others. Gibb (*cited in Campell, Corbally & Ramseyer, 1966*) argues that failure to outline leadership traits should not be accounted for their absence, but for lack of measurement and comparability of data from different kinds of research. Recent trait studies utilized measurement procedures focusing on managers and administrators. Gary-Yukl emphasized leader effectiveness rather than leader traits based on the assumption that becoming a leader and becoming an effective leader are different tasks (*Hoy and Miskel, 1991*).

3.2.2 Behavioral Theories of Leadership

The failure of tracing “gold” in the trait “mines” urged researchers to examine the behaviors that specific leaders exhibited. Behavioral studies of leadership aim to identify behaviors that differentiate leaders from non-leaders (*Robbins, 1998*). Behavioral theories of leadership support that a set of particular behaviors can be named as a style of leadership. Leadership style refers to a distinctive behavior adopted by persons in formal positions of leadership (*Campell, et al., 1966*) and several studies were conducted to identify those.

1) The Hawthorne Studies

The Hawthorne studies were carried out between 1927 and 1932 at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Plant in the United States. In one of these studies a group of women workers who were assembling relay switches for telephones was moved to a special room and a series of changes were introduced whose impact on productivity was investigated. The researchers concluded that every change increased production. Employees inferred that management cared about them and responded by working more productively. The “Hawthorne effect” is named after this phenomenon of working harder because of feelings of participation in something important (*Roberts & Hunt, 1991*).

2) The Iowa Studies

An attempt to identify different styles of leader behavior on the group was conducted at the University of Iowa by a group of scientists. The researchers came up with three leadership styles to determine their effect on the attitudes and productivity of the subordinates.

Authoritarian leader were very directive and did not allow any participation in the decision-making process. They assume full authority and responsibility from initiation to task completion.

Democratic leaders promoted group discussion and decision-making. They encouraged subordinates to express their ideas and make suggestions.

Laissez-faire leaders let the group decide on their own and gave them complete freedom. In other words, they do not provide any leadership at all. Some of the implications of the research were that of the three styles of leadership, subordinates preferred democratic style the best. They also preferred laissez-faire leadership style over the authoritarian one. Authoritarian leaders receive aggressive or apathetic behavior from their subordinates. Productivity was slightly higher under the authoritarian leader than under the democratic one. However, it turned out to be the lowest under the laissez-faire leader’s supervision (*Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996*).

3) The Ohio State Studies

The Ohio State Leadership studies represents an interdisciplinary undertaking. Psychologists, sociologists and economists were the major contributors. Not all projects used the same methods to measure leadership behavior, but the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (*LBDQ*). This questionnaire has been used in order to study the leadership behaviors of commanders, and crew members of bomber crews in the Department of the Air Force, commissioned officers, non-commissioned personnel and civilian administrators in the Department of the Navy, foremen in a manufacturing plant, executives in regional cooperative associations, college administrators, school superintendents, principals and teachers, leaders in a wide variety of student and civilian groups and organizations (*Stodgill & Coons, 1957*).

The question of how a leader behaves was an important motive which urged the researchers to develop a method. The way a leader carries out activities had become the major core of interest common to all individual research activities of the staff members. Therefore, it was decided to make the development of a leader description instrument which aimed at identifying the methods and strategies of a leader (*Hemphill & Coons, 1957*).

After an extensive factor analyses of all the items in The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, two scores were obtained: *Consideration* refers to behavior on the part of a leader which is characterized by warm and friendly relations with the group members and concern for the welfare of the group.

Initiating structure also refers to activities on the part of a leader that introduce new ways of doing things, and new procedures for solving group problems (*Hemphil, 1957*).

Halpin (*cited in Hoy & Miskel, 1991*) contends that initiating structure represents any leader behavior that clearly outlines the relationship between the leader and the subordinates establishing defined patterns of the organization, channels of communication, and procedures at the same

time. However, consideration reflects leader behavior that shows friendship, trust, warmth, interest, and respect.

4) University of Michigan Studies

Katz and Kahn (1966) consider leadership to be over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directiveness of the organization as an organization consists of human beings in positions of authority and power rather than computers. In terms of the differences between the cognitive orientation and effective style of the leader, there are two basic dimensions of the leader follower relationship which are task direction and socio-economic supportiveness.

There are two distinct styles of leadership: *Production-oriented* and *Employee-centered* which are at opposite ends of the same continuum. Production-oriented leaders valued mission or task accomplishment and the technical aspects of the job. Employee-centered leaders delegated decision-making and assist followers in satisfying their needs in a supportive work environment. (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

In terms of effectiveness, a leader who successfully integrates primary and secondary relationships within the organization is the best. Primary relationships refer to face to face interaction and tend to be person specific such as relationships in the families or among friends whereas secondary relations refer to interpersonal relationships required by organizational role such as in the case of division of labor. Thus, a successful leader integrates organizational requirements with the needs of persons and he does this in ways which are not damaging to the organization, but enhancing it. The leader achieves this through promoting group loyalty and showing care for persons as persons (Katz & Kahn, 1966).

5) The Managerial Grid

The Managerial Grid or recently called as The Leadership Grid is a framework to classify leadership styles that focus on a leader's concern for task accomplishment and people at the same time. *Concern for production* involves results, the bottom line, performance, mission, and profits. *Concern for people*

involves group members and co-workers. Concern for production is conceived as the attitude of a supervisor toward a number of issues like the quality of policy decisions, processes and procedures, creativeness of research, quality of staff services, work efficiency and volume of output. Concern for people envelops degree of personal commitment toward goal achievement, maintenance of self-esteem of employees, interpersonal relationship, responsibility, trust and obedience and good working conditions. The managerial grid exposes the following types of management leadership styles.

1) Impoverished Management

Impoverished or deserter leaders are little concerned with work and people.

2) Benevolent Management

Benevolent –synonym to the missionary type leaders is little concerned with production and work but show highest involvement in people’s welfare. This is similar to people-oriented style of leadership.

3) Autocrat Management

These leaders are highly concerned with task and production paying little attention to people.

4) Executive Management

These leaders display the highest degree of involvement to people and work. This is the peak of leadership style.

5) Compromiser Management

These leaders strike a comfortable balance between people and production leading to effective work performance with greater employee satisfaction.

The managerial grid is an enriched technique to identify and classify manager’s action and behavior into suitable styles in the context of objectives. But the success and failure of managers do not depend primarily on the choice of leadership style but also on varying factors like managers’ personality, employees’ personality, ability and training of managers, the organizational environment and other situational factors. Dubrin: 1997.

3.2.3 Contingency Theories of Leadership

The contingency view of leadership emerged from systems theory and its impact on organizational and administrative theory. According to this model, specific leader behaviors relate to group performance and satisfaction. In order to achieve this, certain variables interact with each other such as the leader himself, the position he holds, group members, internal, and external environment of the organization. A successful match between the leader and the group's performance and satisfaction is "contingent" upon these variables. Three situational variables intervene between the leader's style and effectiveness which are leader-member relations, task structure, and power position. Groups are classified as either favorable or unfavorable based on this criterion (*Monahan & Hengst, 1982*).

1) Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fiedler (1967) claims that if organizational performance is to be improved, we must cope not only with the leader's style but also with the situational factors which influence him/her. Organizational performance can be improved either by the leader's fit to the situation or the situation's fit to the leader. Fiedler (1961) also states that leadership traits, if exist at all, would be exposed to many outside effects. Therefore, they are difficult to identify. He argues that a variety of causes may force a man to become a leader, many of which are totally unrelated to personality attributes one of which is inheritance of leadership.

He suggests that dealing with leadership effectiveness would be more logical and beneficial on the grounds that the ability to motivate other people may well be dependent upon one or more personality traits. A leader is effective to the extent to which he renders his group more productive. Thus, a leadership effectiveness trait can be termed as a consistent and measurable personality attribute which separates effective leaders from ineffective ones. However, the behavior related with these traits will reveal itself only under appropriate conditions.

Fiedler also developed a semantic differentiating instrument through which the leader rated the co-worker with whom he worked least well called “Least Preferred Coworker Questionnaire (*LPC*)”. Leaders who rated their least preferred co-worker positively and favorably were classified as “relationship motivated” and those who rated their least preferred co-worker negatively and unfavorably were defined as “task motivated” (*Monahan & Hengst, 1982*).

Cognitive Resource Theory is an updated version of Fiedler’s contingency theory. According to this theory, cognitive resources are abilities and a leader’s directive or non-directive behavior. Directiveness is most helpful when the leader is competent, relaxed, and supported. When the leader is under stress, experience is more important than ability. There is less leader impact when the group support is low. When the leader is non-directive, group member ability becomes the most important component and there is strong support from the group members (*Schermerhorn, Hunt Osborn, 1994*).

2) Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Theory

According to this approach, leadership is the process of influencing an individual’s or a group’s activities in their efforts to goal achievement in a given situation. The focus of the situational approach to leadership is on observed behavior, not on any hypothetical inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. Utmost importance is attached to the behavior of leaders, their group members (followers) and various situations. Thus, training individuals in adapting styles of leader behavior to varying situations is of prime importance. Therefore, through education, training and development most people can increase their effectiveness in leadership roles. By observing frequency or infrequency of certain leader behavior in numerous types of situations, theoretical models can be developed so as to aid a leader to adopt the most appropriate leader behavior for the present situation (*Hersey & Blanchard, 1969*).

This model claims that the most effective leadership style is contingent upon the readiness level of the group members. It has two components: Ability

refers to the skill, knowledge and experience an individual or group brings to a particular task and willingness refers to confidence, motivation, and commitment an individual or group has in order to achieve a specific task. The crucial aspect of situational leadership theory is that a leader should depend more on relationship behavior and less on task behavior as readiness level of the group members increases. Minimum of task and relationship behavior is required when a group member is very ready (*DuBrin, 1995*).

3) Leader Member Exchange Model (Vertical Dyad Exchange Model)

This model developed by George Graen and his followers challenge the well- established assumption that leadership behavior is consistent. It proposes that a leader might be caring and considerate toward a team member yet uncaring and strict toward another (*DuBrin, 1997*).

Each of these pairs of relationships or dyads must be evaluated in terms of whether the group member is “in” or “out” with the leader. The leader’s first impression of a group member’s competency has a strong impact of the group member’s belonging to the in-group or the out-group. In-group members have similar values and attitudes with the leader. However, out-group members do not have much in common with the leader and act somewhat detached from him. In-group members can become a part of a smooth functioning team whereas out-group members are unlikely to achieve good teamwork (*DuBrin, 1997*).

4) House’s Path-Goal Theory

Path-goal theory focuses on how leaders influence followers’ expectations. Robert House, the originator of the theory, proposes a model in which leader behavior is acceptable when employees regard it as a source of satisfaction (*Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995*). In addition to this, leader behavior is motivational when it eliminates factors that hinder goal accomplishment; provides guidance and support to the employees, and grants meaningful rewards in return for success. House claims that the leader should stay on the right path to achieve challenging goals. In contrast to Fiedler, who supports that leaders have one dominant leadership style, House believes that leaders can display more than one.

Directive leadership is providing guidance to employees about the task to be accomplished and ways to do it. Supportive leadership is being friendly, approachable, and concerned for the well-being and needs of the employees. Participative leadership is collaborating with the employees and taking their ideas into consideration during the decision-making process. Achievement-oriented leadership is setting high standards and challenging goals for the employees by encouraging them to perform at their highest level (*Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995*).

5) Leader Participation Model

Leader Participation Model is based on five modes of decision-making, which ranged from highly autocratic to fully consultative. The effectiveness of a model depended upon several contingent factors which can be summed up as information sufficiency, structure of the problem, and subordinate attitudes and relationship with the *leader* (*Sinha, 1995*). This theory is normative in nature as it prescribes a set of rules to determine the form and amount of participative decision making in different situations. The model was composed of a complex decision making tree involving seven contingencies whose relevance can be assessed by answering “Yes” or “No” questions and five alternative leadership styles. The model was revised by expanding the contingency variables to twelve, ten of which are answered along a five-point scale. This model indicates that leadership studies should be geared towards the situation not the leader. It is probably more sensible to talk about participative and autocratic situations than leaders who possess these characteristics as leader behavior alters depending on the situation and a leader can adjust his or her style to different situations (*Robbins, 1998*).

3.2.4 Recent Approaches to Leadership

In this section, the theories developed to understand leadership put aside all the complex and sophisticated explanations about leadership behavior and attempted to examine leadership from the point of view of ordinary and simple people (*Robbins, 1998*).

1) Attribution Theory of Leadership

According to this theory, people have hidden leadership theories in their minds about what makes a good leader or, in another words, they have a leadership prototype; an image of a model leader. These implicit theories or prototypes refer to a mix of specific and more general characteristics. The leader is favorable provided that he or she appeals to the implicit theories of the followers.

Leadership is regarded as something to be largely symbolic and in “the eye of the beholder” (*Schermerhorn et. al., 1994*). One of the most interesting aspects of this theory is that effective leaders are associated with consistency in the decision making phase (*Robbins, 1998*).

2) Charismatic Leadership Theory

Sinha (1995) defines charisma as a “magical aura” which only a few leader may be granted. Max Weber (*cited in Sinha, 1995*) maintains that there are three bases of authority which are traditions, rights and privileges and charisma which is synonymous with heroism and an exemplary character of a person. Owing to his character, strength and skill, super human qualities are attributed to a leader who saves his followers from a crisis or a catastrophic event and becomes an idol providing direction and inspiration to his followers. The charismatic leader attaches utmost importance to his vision, speech, capacity to take risks and above all the emotions of his subordinates (*Sinha, 1995*). Robert J. House (*as cited in DuBrin, 1995*) identified nine effects which charismatic leaders have on their followers such as group member’s trust in the correctness of the leader’s beliefs, congruence between the leader’s and the group’s beliefs, acceptance of the leader, affection for the leader, willing obedience to the leader, identification with and admiration for the leader, emotional involvement of the group member in the mission, challenging goals of the group member and belief in the accomplishment of the mission.

Later, these nine effects were statistically clustered into three dimensions:

Referent power refers to the ability of the leader to influence others with the help of his desirable traits and characteristics;

Expert power refers to the ability of the leader to influence others through his specialized knowledge and skills;

Job involvement refers to the ability of the leader to encourage group members toward the accomplishment of the job (DuBrin, 1995).

Bass (1990) categorized charismatic leaders into five types:

Socialized charismatic: a leader who is in pursuit of fulfilling the needs of the group members and providing intellectual stimulation to them.

Personalized charismatic: a leader who offers consideration, help, and support to group members only when it helps to achieve their own goals.

Office holder charismatic: a leader who owns respect and recognition through the office or status he holds not because of his personal characteristics.

Personal charismatic: a leader who exerts influence on others owing to his personal traits and skills not his high status or position.

Divine charismatic: a leader who is believed to be endowed with a gift or divine grace.

3) Transactional and Transformational Approaches

If one attempts to examine transformational leadership theory, it can be clearly seen that it is epistemologically based on positivist/empricist foundation on which traditional conceptualizations of leadership have been formulated (Allix, 2000). Burns (*cited in Deluga, 1995*) holds that leadership cannot be separated from followers' needs and goals. Its essence lies in the interaction between the follower and the leader. This interaction takes fundamentally two different forms: transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership occurs when there is an exchange between people which can be economic, political or psychological in nature. The relationship between the leader and the follower is purely based on bargaining and it does not go beyond this.

However, transformational leadership occurs when the leader and the follower elevates one another to higher levels of motivation and morality.

Carlson (1996) points out that Burns felt that leadership theories developed up to the mid-seventies were lacking ethical/moral dimensions so he elaborated on his exchange theory which maintains that followers play a crucial role in the definition of leadership. This theory is made up of power relations and entails bargaining, trading and compromise among leaders and followers.

This transactional model has a political basis and emphasizes the need to look closely at sociocultural aspects that have an impact on the leader-follower relationships. According to *Stodgill (1997)* these can be external factors such as the availability or scarcity of resources, changes in the society, and a competitive environment that influences an organization which also in return affects the leadership of the group as well. Transactional leaders encourage subordinates by appealing to their self interest and offering rewards in exchange of work effort which are contingent reward and management by exception.

The former urges the leader to tell the followers what to do in order to achieve a desired reward for their efforts, whereas the latter one allows the leader to interfere with the subordinates' work only when specifications or standards are not met (*Hunt, 1991*).

Bass (1961) also maintains that individuals form a group for getting reward or avoiding punishment. They are more attracted to the group if they expect more reward or reinforcement from grouping together. Some members will try to change the behavior of others if there are hindrances to rewards or avoidance of punishments. Transformational leaders urge followers to go beyond their self-interests and be concerned about their organization. They help followers to realize and develop their potential. These leaders identify the needs of their followers and then consider those needs to enhance development. They gather their followers around a common purpose, mission or vision and provide a sense of purpose and future direction. Furthermore, they act as role models for their followers and encourage them to question problems that underlie basic assumptions from different perspectives. They want their followers to regard challenges as opportunities and they cooperate with them to

elevate expectations, needs, abilities, and moral character (*Bass & Avolio, 1997*).

In the 1990s Bass and Avolio developed the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) so as to identify four distinct characteristics of transformational leaders, which are called as ‘‘4Is’’:

Idealized influence or charisma: Based on follower reactions and leader behavior. Followers identify with and admire these leaders. Such leaders are deeply respected, have referent power, set high standards and challenging goals for their followers

Inspirational motivation: Depends on how much followers wish to identify with the leader. The leader makes use of symbols and images to raise awareness of shared and desired goals.

Intellectual stimulation: Followers let go of their past. They are encouraged to question their own beliefs, values, and expectations, as well as those of the leader and the organization itself

Individualized consideration: Different but equal treatment of the followers. The leader delegates assignments to followers to provide learning opportunities and coaches them if they need it (*Bass & Avolio, 1997*).

Leithwood (1994) suggests that transformational school leaders adopt a widely shared vision for the school and clarify its meaning in terms of its practical implications and instruction. In addition to this, they make use of all available resources and opportunities to communicate the school’s vision to staff, students, parents and others. They also focus on teachers’ professional goals and if possible align these goals with those of the school.

Moreover, they make use of the school goals in the decision making process. They encourage their staff to be innovative, hardworking and professional and they also search for these qualities when they recruit staff. In terms of administrative processes, they delegate responsibility and power for leadership widely throughout the school by providing teachers with autonomy in their decisions.

DuBrin (1995) states that charismatic and transformational leadership are closely related with each other in literature, but reminds the reader that not all leaders are transformational until they bring about a change in their organizations.

3.3 Leadership Competencies, skills and styles

1) Leadership Competencies

Based on Herringer's (2002) description of a competence assessment, competence can be defined as the ability of an individual to perform a task using his/her knowledge, education, skills, and experience. Competencies, especially when used in competence assessments, should relate to the specific tasks required to perform successfully in a given position. The identification of key competencies provides for individual and organizational growth, and helps the organization meet future demands (*Pickett, 1998*). Pernick (2001) identified three ways in which organizations determine critical leadership competencies:

- (1) Use generic leadership competencies found in theory,
- (2) Build their own competencies, or
- (3) Derive competencies from the organization's mission statement and core values.

As a result of organizational differences, such as size and structure, and the different methods of identifying leadership competencies, there is no universal set of leadership competencies appropriate for all organizations.

2) Leadership Skills

Within an organization, identifying critical leadership competencies required for effectiveness helps define what skills leaders need (*Pernick, 2001*). According to Katz (1955), a skill can be defined as "an ability which can be developed, not necessarily inborn, and which is manifested in performance, not merely potential" (p. 33- 34). Similarly, Nahavandi (2000) defined a skill as "an acquired talent that a person develops related to a specific task" (p. 49). Katz (1955) identified three categories of skills needed by leaders: technical skills, human skills, and conceptual skills.

Each skill is necessary for successful leaders to possess, but the amount of each skill may vary depending on position within the organizational hierarchy. Technical skills are more important at the lower levels of administration (Goleman, 1998; Hicks & Gullett, 1975; Katz, 1955). As a leader moves up in the organizational hierarchy, he/she relies on the technical skills of followers more than on his/her own technical skills (Hicks & Gullett, 1975). Human skills are essential throughout all management levels (Hicks & Gullett, 1975; Katz, 1955). Conceptual skills are perhaps most important at top management levels where policy decisions, long-term planning, and broad scale actions are required (Hicks & Gullett, 1975; Katz, 1955). Newer approaches to leadership skills have been built upon the technical, human, and conceptual skill classification, but are slightly different. Goleman (1998) outlined three domains of leadership skills: purely technical skills, cognitive abilities, and competencies that demonstrated emotional intelligence. There are five components to emotional intelligence: self-awareness, self regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill.

Goleman (1998) included emotional intelligence as a set of leadership skills because he saw it as the distinguishing competence of senior leaders. In fact, he reported emotional intelligence to be twice as important as the others when applied to all levels of jobs within the organizational hierarchy, and found emotional intelligence, rather than conceptual skills, to explain 90% of the difference in the effectiveness of star performers and average senior level leaders. Within the Extension system, Ayers & Stone (1999) have supported the link between emotional intelligence, communication and core competencies of leaders. The theoretical framework for this study was based on leadership skill areas cited in the literature (Goleman, 1998; Katz, 1955; Robbins, Bradley, & Spicer, 2001). The major leadership skill areas that served as the basis for this study were: human, conceptual, technical, communication, emotional intelligence and industry knowledge skills (see Figure 3.1).

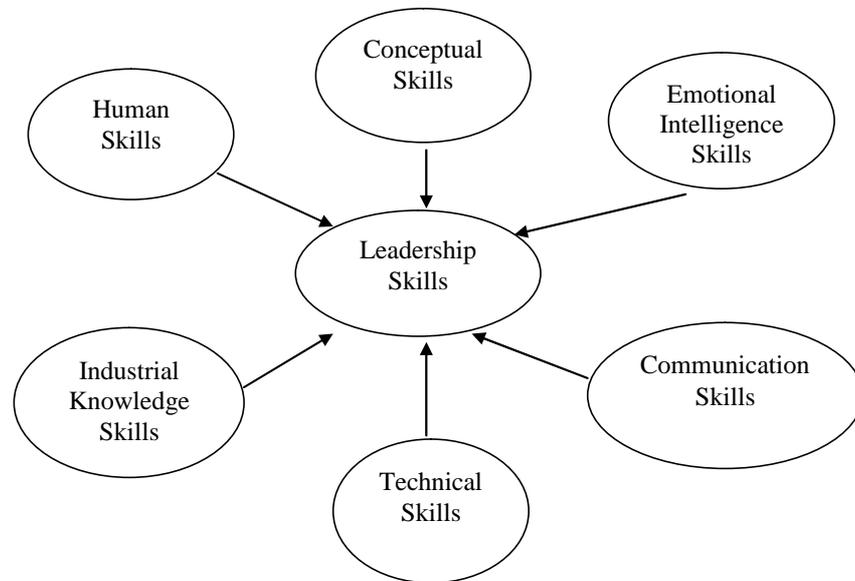


Figure 3.1 Conceptual Framework of leadership skills

3) Leadership Styles

Various approaches and theories of leadership throw light on the development of leadership- how a person occupies the position of a leader. After assumption of the position, how he behaves with the group members and in the organization of great concern. Why a leader is characterized as good or bad and successful or failure? The answer lies in his ways of action and behavior which can be said as leadership style. Bolman and Deal (1994) claim that leadership is inherently symbolic for leadership is contextual and leaders should have a deep understanding of the cultures with which they are integrated. Effective leaders value symbols and recognize the importance of articulating a vision that provides purpose, direction and meaning to an organization. A number of styles of leaders have been recognized so far either by experience or by research studies. Various leaders use several styles depending on their traits, value and situation. Those styles can broadly be classified into various heads enabling in turn to classify leaders.

4) Motivational Styles

A number of motivators are used by leaders to induce their subordinates to work, of which some are positive while others are negative motivators. On this basis, leaders may be of two types: positive leader and negative leader.

(i) Positive Leader

To get work done, the positive leader takes recourse to rewards such as financial and non-financial. This leadership provides job satisfaction to the employees leading to greater performance with the minimum of costs.

(ii) Negative Leader

A leader who while taking work from the subordinates uses threats, penalties, wage cut and reprimand, is called a negative leader. Such leaders may achieve good performance at times but it has high human cost resulting into huge wastage of human energy, time and resources. In modern age, negative leaders are looked down upon and are sure to face failure.

These are the two extremes of leadership style and a good leader uses both the styles somewhere on the continuum on realizing situation and subordinate's behavior, striking a judicious balance.

5) Power Styles

An attempt to identify different styles of leader behavior on the group was conducted at the University of Iowa by a group of scientists. The researchers came up with three leadership styles to determine their effect on the attitudes and productivity of the subordinates.

Authoritarian leaders were very directive and did not allow any participation in the decision-making process. They assume full authority and responsibility from initiation to task completion.

Democratic leaders promoted group discussion and decision-making. They encouraged subordinates to express their ideas and make suggestions. A democratic leader's one who permits consultation and participation of group members in performing works. Decentralization of power takes place and subordinates are allowed to use their discretion and judgment in assigned work. The democratic style also varies from one range to another giving rise to two types of leaders – consultative leaders and participative leaders or supportive leaders.

(i) Consultative Leaders

These leaders are semi-democratic and have more reliance on their people but with slight suspicion. They make use of the subordinate's initiative; creativity and opinions. They use more positive motivators than negative allowing upward and downward communication. Power is delegated to the subordinates keeping major policy decision power at the top and other decisions at lower levels. But whatever decisions on any issue are taken at the top, group members are consulted on those issues before its final decision. However, such leaders are not bound to take note of consultation.

(ii) Participative Leaders

Participative leaders are also known as democrats. Such leaders have full confidence and trust in their employees. Proposed actions and decisions in an organization are taken in consultation with group members and with their Participation. Authority and power are decentralized throughout the organization. Positive and constructive rewards or motivators are used for workers. They engage in upward, downward and cross communication. The leader and group act as a social unit. Workers find supportive environment for the fulfillment of their aspirations. Owing to these qualities of leaders, workers feel themselves involved in the organization and show more loyalty, sincerity and truthfulness towards it.

A manager, who follows democratic style, do others do work with great success by creating congenial organizational climate. The greatest defect of the style is that if members of the organization are not mature, qualified and farce and few people become the architect of entire power and activities. This is the reason why democratic cooperative societies in India are blamed for the domination of a few cooperative leaders.

Laissez-faire leaders let the group decide on their own and gave them complete freedom. In other words, they do not provide any leadership at all. Free – rein leaders are those who allow their employees complete freedom in decision-making, goal setting and execution of work. Workers motivate themselves and leaders do not contribute anything in this performance. These

leaders act in contact with the external environment and they try to supply information and resources required to the group. In other words, such leaders are dependent on their subordinates who enjoy high degree of independence. Normally, this is not a good style but in some cases this style is generally used where managers allow the subordinates to take their decision confining to specific section or activity of any organization.

Some of the implications of the research were that of the three styles of leadership, subordinates preferred democratic style the best. They also preferred laissez-faire leadership style over the authoritarian one. Authoritarian leaders receive aggressive or apathetic behavior from their subordinates. Productivity was slightly higher under the authoritarian leader than under the democratic one. However, it turned out to be the lowest under the laissez-faire leader's supervision (*Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996*).

6) Orientation Styles

Sometimes managers, irrespective of their powers and motivational factors, concentrate more either on people or work. They show their leadership talent for developing their workers and try to provide all possible facilities to them. Similarly, some managers use their leadership qualities to improve work and working conditions to have higher production and productivity giving rise to two leadership styles.

(i) Employee – Oriental Leaders

Such leaders have humanistic approach toward their employees. They are more concerned with the satisfaction of human needs, desires aspirations and expectations of their employees. They try to build team spirit among people. They favorably treat individual problems and place higher importance on people in comparison to work. These leaders are most popular among people as they achieve higher job satisfaction with lesser degree of grievances, turnover and less tension within the organization. Despite high popularity, they may face some adversities in work, production and productivity.

(ii) Task-Oriented Leaders

These leaders give much importance to work and most of their abilities are diverted to improve work, production and productivity. They are in constant search for better methods of work, keeping people always busy in work and persuading them for more production and better performance. They may ignore employee's facilities and conveniences for work. Such leaders obtain higher performance and productivity but at the same time job dissatisfaction, grievances, turnover and stress may be more in the organization.

So far as the relationship between the two styles is concerned, both are interrelated with independent existence also. They are two points on the leadership continuum but not necessarily two extreme points. A better understanding, of work and people-oriented leadership styles, requires developing knowledge about the managerial grid developed by Robert Blake and J.S... Mounon.

3.4 Leadership in Cooperatives

According to Retired General Colin Powell (1996), leadership in the new millennium will be essentially the same as that of great leaders of yesterday-it will require that people have a vision of where they want to lead, how to choose the right people, and how to accomplish objectives that flow from visions. Powell goes on to state the one major difference affecting leaders of the 21st Century - the transformation occurring in our nation's industrial, political, societal, and economic realms. Accordingly, this transformation is occurring due to the fast-paced and globally centered information and technology revolution. All leaders positioned within this new era must be able to use the powerful tools offered by this global revolution.

Cooperation is a way not only for strengthening our democracy but also for carrying the people particularly weaker section of the community towards better life. Several leaders, thinkers and writers have applauded the cooperation. Our great leader Mahatma Gandhi had said, "People were starved not for want of food but for want of the cooperative efforts". Follower of

Gandhiji and writer, Kaka Sahel Kalelkar had said. "Conflict and competition are the facts of the life. Cooperation is the law of life." Our ex-President late Dr. Radha Krishnan had said, "The cooperative movement occupies an important place in our scheme for building a socialist society and I hope all concerned with the movement will set an example to the rest of the community by efficient organization and selfless service for the welfare of the common people of the country." Our ex-Prime Minister late Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru said, "No individual has, of course, absolute freedom. But if we value individual freedom."

As many of us do, how are we to find a balance between preserving that individual freedom and at the same time getting away from the clutches of an acquisitive society. The cooperative movement seems to offer a philosophy, which would aim at this kind of social pattern." Our ex-Prime Minister Late Smt. Indira Gandhi has said, "I know of no other instrument as potentially powerful and full of social purpose as the cooperative movement." A great cooperative leader Late Shri Vaikunth L. Mehta had said, "No Society can rest on a really democratic basis, as someone has remarked, unless it applies the democratic method to its industry as well as to its agriculture. Such a democratic basis is provided by the cooperative form of organization."

From developmental and functional point of view, the cooperative movement may be deemed to have three distinct types of leadership.

a. Cooperative/Democratic Leadership

A democracy necessitates citizens with tastes, sentiments, and values, with a set of experiences that they can both practice and observe democracy (*Maxcy, 1995*). Cooperatives are basically democratic institutions. The successful operation of cooperative democracy in cooperatives depends on the democratic leadership. Democratic leadership is needed not only to develop the cooperative movement on sound lines which is a prerequisite for the success of the movement. The seminar on cooperative leadership and management conducted by the I.C.A. in Thailand in the year 1969, also felt that in cooperatives the democratic form of leadership should be the dominant type. A

successful democratic leader is one who is able to behave appropriately, direct and guide properly, and provide freedom to all member patrons without any discrimination. To be a democratic leader one must be enlightened, conscious of his ownership responsibility, understand the importance of democratic control, be aware of his rights and duties and actively participate in all the affairs of the cooperative. A democratic leader should always feel that every member has a part to play in the organisation. He must share his behaviour towards them, should be friendly and without any reservations, so that he can easily win their confidences. He should consider every member a potential leader and, therefore; always respect other member's feelings. He must be able to see honesty, goodwill and ability in them. A good democratic leader should never develop an attitude of superiority. The direct nature of cooperative democracy is supported by its local community basis. This sustains close contact and harmony between the sponsoring primary social forces and those managing the organization. It is true, at times; it has affected the development of professionalization of management. In this regard a lot depends on the conventions built up in the society and the persons occupying the managerial positions from time to time. A cooperative organization which grows in its size and complexity has to be managed by specialized whole time professional. Cooperative leadership includes elected members and office-bearers of the board of directors of a cooperative society. The elected directors are led by a president and all are honorary workers. Sometimes, promoters of the cooperative are also included in it. They are catalysts for articulating the aspirations and views of the ordinary members forming the general body. They act as preventive force restricting the cooperative to become either pseudo cooperative or purely a bureaucratic organization in principle. This can be styled as cooperative leadership reflecting right of ownership.

b. Management Leadership

Cooperative policy making and administration call for courage and leadership. Cooperatives need wise leadership with sufficient business skills, experience, aptitude and competence to conduct the business and to manage

affairs efficiently. The members have to elect able leaders who will accept the task of 'securing a high standard of managerial efficiency and carrying out the member's wishes in setting policies. Managerial efficiency does not include only the technical aspects of day-to-day management, such as, organisation, methods of business, accounting, etc. but also the wider issue of policy formulation, direction, supervision, personnel administration, etc. The leaders' primary job is to evolve proper goals for the development of the cooperative and to give proper direction to achieve the goals. Generally, this type of leadership covers whole time paid managerial personnel headed by chief executive. They are mainly responsible for the operational aspect of the cooperative by virtue of specialized knowledge, expertise and experience to handle business but to a greater extent influence policy matters also in practice.

The long existence of cooperative in business field helps development of cohesiveness, proficiency, competence and confidence among the employees of the cooperative. The people understand the larger issues of the organization as well as those that concern them. The potentials of such people are ready to make a breakthrough. However, the effectiveness of the group very much depends on the mode and pattern of leadership. The leader must be able to make a departure from natural state to managerial state. This shifting is possible if the manager successfully plans, organizes, coordinates, directs and controls the entire work, workers and organization following systematic and organized knowledge of management. The performance and achievement of an organization resulting from the application of the knowledge of management provide sufficient ground to convince the leader. Consequently, the leader makes a shift at a pace and in a manner to fit the needs, reciprocity and receptivity of each individual as well as organization and situation. The entire organization is streamlined with management techniques and employees are also oriented to the knowledge of management. This process is known as management leadership. The remarkable features of management leadership can be put as follows:

c. Government Leadership

A view of leadership offered by Burns (1978) argues that leadership is better understood as a political relationship emerging from the "chaotic, reciprocal interaction among people with potentially conflicting goals, values and ideals" -all of which impact the new technological era in which we are immersed. Thus, the leaders should focus on ways that organizational structures and systems, human nature, moral order, value development, effects of personal choice, and personal similarities and differences have upon ability to effect change. Bolman and Deal (1994) suggest that leadership is inevitably political as the power to get things done is very significant. When various individuals struggle for power to realize special interests, conflict is inescapable. However, political leaders view conflict as a means of acquiring cohesion and unity.

This leadership finds expression through the state government and cooperative department headed by the Registrar of Cooperative Societies. This position has been granted by the Cooperative Societies Act and Rules. The department performs leadership function in developing the cooperative movement as a whole in the State, legally. Sometimes, it may be referred to as political leadership because the political party in power gives direction to the cooperative movement according to its choice accelerating its development or neglecting it. Mirdha Committee on Cooperation (1964) had observed that a cooperative can function as "a school for educating the people in the fundamentals of political democracy". It observed later that it should also be used as a tool for promoting economic democracy. Prof. D. R. Gadgil held the view that as any other worker from any other vocation, political worker also has a legitimate right to be in the cooperative organization. "But", Prof. Gadgil observed, "When the political worker is inside the organization, he should look at the organization as a cooperator from within, and not externally, as member of a political party. As long as this happens, the political workers' contribution, a number of times, becomes valuable. Political involvement of cooperatives in India is the result of a certain historical process. Cooperatives

are functioning in a wider political system and some degree of political interference in cooperatives functioning because of the support of state finances and subsidies becomes inevitable and inherent in the emerging structure. But excessive political involvement has done more harm than good to cooperatives as economic institutions.

d. Change in Leadership- a paradigm shift

The paradigm is concerned with providing explanations of the status quo, social order, consensus, social integration, solidarity, need satisfaction and actuality. It focuses on the effective regulation, maintaining order and equilibrium and the control of social affairs (Burrell & Morgan, 1988). In that respect it reflects the basic assumptions of the political frame which purports that conflict is inherent in organizations and the main issue is to build negotiation and form coalitions to preserve the status quo (Bolman & Deal, 1991). The interpretive paradigm tries to explain the nature of the social world through individual consciousness and subjectivity. Social reality exists within the consciousness of a single individual.

White (1997) states that the most effective future leaders will build upon the skills of the past and present. White adds that to successfully lead others in the midst of constantly changing environments, leaders need to capitalize on the best strengths of past leaders, while staying flexible to explore unexpected byways, and taking calculated risks. In the democratic form of management of a cooperative society, the government leadership finds it extremely difficult to manage the growing volume of business and work. Increasing business complexities, competitive situations and awareness of the importance of management knowledge induce the cooperative leaders to encourage the development of cooperative leadership. Consequently, there emerges the managerial leadership different from the distinct form of cooperative leadership but mutually dependent. Both the leaderships have completely defined, clear-cut power, functions and jurisdiction. Cooperative leaders, being the owners of the cooperative society, retain supreme power and policy formulation decisions. The managerial leadership functions under it with delegated

authority and adequate freedom-authority for implementation and advisory capacity pertaining to policy matters. Practically both function in consultation with each other, maintaining separate existence and adequate autonomy in their jurisdiction.

3.5 Management of Cooperative Societies

3.5.1. General Body

Members are the masters of cooperatives. All the members put together constitute general body. The general body is therefore, the ultimate authority in a cooperative organisation, subject to; however, the cooperative laws of the State concerned. Law prescribes the following specific functions of the general body:

- (i) Election of members of the Managing Committee.
- (ii) Disposal of net profits of the society as declared in the Annual Audit Reports.
- (iii) Approval of Annual budgets of income and expenditure
- (iv) Approval of amendments brought forward to the by-laws.
- (v) Affiliations to the other societies and election of persons to represent the society thereat. Sometimes these functions are delegated to the Managing Committee.
- (vi) Removal of the members of the Managing Committee
- (vii) Expulsion of members
- (viii) Approval of Annual Reports to be sent to the Registrar.
- (ix) Review of business done by the society as well as the business done by members with the society.
- (x) Consideration of Annual Audit Reports and Compliance Reports thereon.
- (xi) Consideration of annual operational plan.
- (xii) All other policy matters and other subjects specifically prescribed in the State laws concerned.

3.5.2. Managing Committee

This is otherwise called “Board of Directors”. The general body shall elect the members of the Managing Committee. According to the Cooperative law of the State, the general body of the society shall constitute a managing committee in accordance with the by-laws and entrust the management of the affairs of the society to such committee. The term of the committee is fixed in the Cooperative Act of the State. If the society wants a lesser term, it may prescribe it in its by-laws, subject to the cooperative laws concerned. The strength of the committee is mentioned in the by-laws.

1) Elections: According to law, the incumbent committee is made responsible to conduct timely elections to the new committee by calling for general body meeting. Some State laws made the Registrar to conduct elections to the Committee by calling for the general body meeting for the purpose. The by-laws should specify the manner of conducting elections, by framing detailed regulations. If it is the Registrar to conduct elections, the law itself specifies the manner of conducting elections. However, if the society is made responsible to conduct elections, it is the responsibility of the society represented by its chief executive officer or president to ensure necessary preparations, like updating the list of voters in advance and to furnish all relevant information. Some societies opt for retirement of directors by rotation. In such a case, elections have to be conducted every year to replace the retiring directors. If this rotation system- is adopted, the by-laws should provide a clear procedure on the retirement and elections. Normally, the general body specially convened for election of directors or members of the committee, in whatever name it is called, shall elect the members to the new committee, by all the members. If the by-laws provide to elect members of the committee representing each group or territory, they should be made clear whether such a member representing a group or territory shall be elected by the respect the group or territorial members or by all the members of the society.

2) Election of office bearers: President/Chairman, Vice-President/Vice Chairman and any other post such as Treasurer, Secretary etc., are considered

to be office bearers. The by-laws should provide the number and nomenclature of office bearers to be elected. Normally the by-laws provide the election of office bearers from among the elected members of the Committee. Soon after the election of members of the committee by the general body, the meeting of the members of the newly formed committee will be called for, wherein, the election of office bearers, including that of President takes place. But Cooperative laws in some States prescribe that in the case of primary cooperative societies, President/Chairman shall be elected directly by the general body, along with the members of the committee. The directly-elected President/Chairman, in such a case, is considered to be an ex officio member of the committee.

3.5.3 Management Bodies: Powers and Functions

The management of the functions of the society vests in the management bodies and officers at different levels of the organisation structure.

1) General Body

The general body shall consist of all individual members and officers nominated by the state government, if any. There shall be two separate lists for individual members. List 'A' shall include individual members belonging to the weaker sections, while list 'B' shall contain other individual members. The general body in the general meeting shall transact the business of the society. It shall have two types of meetings -annual and other general meeting.

2) Annual General Meeting: The society, in every cooperative year, after the preparation of financial statements and annual reports and completion of audit, shall convene its annual meeting before 30th November. The society may convene the meeting after this period also but with the permission of the registrar. The Annual General Meeting shall have the following functions:

- 1) To approve plan and programmes for next cooperative year prepared by the managing committee.
- 2) To elect directors of the managing committee as per the provisions of cooperative law and by-laws, if any and also to elect a chairman and vice-chairman among the elected directors.

- 3) To consider last year's accounts/balance sheet and annual report.
- 4) To consider last year's audited accounts, audit reports and certificate.
- 5) To decide maximum borrowing power of the society for the next cooperative year.
- 6) To appropriate net surplus.
- 7) To consider budget of the society for the next cooperative years.
- 8) Any other matters, if any.

3) Other General Meeting: The managing committee, whenever it considers it necessary to transact business of the society, shall convene the general meeting of the general body which may be called Ordinary General Meeting. The general meeting of the general body shall also be convened by the managing committee, if the registrar or one-fifth of the ordinary members of the general body request in writing for such meeting. This meeting shall be convened within a month after the receipt of the request which is called Special General Meeting. If the managing committee does not convene such a meeting, registrar can authorize a person to convene this meeting. For convening the meetings, a notice indicating purpose, date, time, venue and agenda is circulated to members fifteen days in advance. Generally, specific issues are discussed in the special meeting. The quorum for the general meeting is one-fourth of the total membership. In case, the quorum is not full, the annual general meeting will be postponed to such date and time as decided by the members present. The postponed meeting shall be held and business will be transacted in the presence of members which may be half of the quorum or as specified in the cooperative law. However, the requisitioned meeting stands cancelled if quorum is not complete within one hour of the fixed time. Each meeting shall be presided over by the chairman and in his absence the vice-chairman will act as chairman. In case both are absent, members present shall elect a member among themselves to preside over the meeting. Resolutions shall be passed by majority voice vote or ballot voting.

4) Powers and Functions: The management of the society shall vest in the managing committee, a small body which is elected by the general body in the

general meeting. The powers and functions of the managing committee are described below. Tenure of the Managing Committee Subject to the provisions of the State Cooperative Law, the tenure of the managing committee shall be three cooperative years including the year of election of the committee members. No member shall be elected to the managing committee if he wholly or partially had held the post of director for two consecutive terms. If any post of elected directors falls vacant, the rest of the directors of the managing committee shall co-opt a member fulfilling the eligibility conditions to become a director for the remaining period of the tenure.

5) Power and Functions of the Managing Committee: The managing committee shall be responsible for the management and conduct of the business of the society. Under the provisions of the Cooperative Societies Act and rules and by-laws, the committee shall enter into all such agreements, organize all such systems, perform all such work and has the right to do all such jobs and use authority which are essential for the proper management of the functions of the society so that its objectives can be achieved and interest is protected. In the light of the above general right, the managing committee shall have the following right and duties:

- 1) To accept membership, allotment of shares and transfer of shares.
- 2) To sanction loans and advances on suitable terms and recover them.
- 3) To borrow funds and invite deposits.
- 4) To prepare and recommend annual reports, balance sheet, provisions of bad and doubtful loans and appropriation of surplus.
- 5) To purchase, hire or take on lease land and building for conducting the business of the society.
- 6) To appoint a managing director and to provide assistance to him in managing the affairs of the society, it can appoint other employees, discharge them, punish them, and can fix salary and wages.
- 7) To protect and manage cash, important books of account, agreements, insurance, security etc.
- 8) To construct a godown, hire it and maintain it.

- 9) To settle disputes related to loans.
- 10) To purchase shares and send representatives on behalf of the society.
- 11) To purchase and sell items related to agriculture, domestic articles and consumer goods.
- 12) To make an agreement with the members for the sale of their agricultural and other produce through marketing society or other society.
- 13) To arrange grading, packing, transportation, etc. for marketing.
- 14) To hire agricultural equipments and implements and provide services on rental basis. 15. To install processing units for members' produce.
- 15) To sanction expenses for the work of the society.
- 16) To prepare programmes of development and implement them.
- 17) To plan manpower, decide salary structure and other service conditions of the employees.
- 18) To prepare provisions of by-laws for the better conduct of the society.
- 19) To prepare description of audit report and fix audit fees. Chairman and Vice-

6) Roles and responsibilities of Board members:

a) The Roles

Boards are made up of an odd number of directors and usually contain four officers—the president, vice president, secretary and treasurer.

The president is the chief executive officer and has many responsibilities. Typically, they call the meetings of the membership and of the board, prepare the agendas and lead deliberations. The president is basically the person who runs the meeting—they are in charge of opening it and they make the motion to close. They are the person who ultimately signs stock certificates and proprietary leases. Other than that, the job is really to oversee and chair meetings.

Other presidential responsibilities include ensuring actions of the board are legally carried out, acting as the board's agent in supervising building staff, approving expense reimbursements, speaking for the building community and assuming executive responsibilities to manage the building.

The vice president's main responsibility is to take over the meeting if the president isn't there and fills in. It is common for a vice president to become president after serving their term.

A treasurer is the chief financial officer for the building and usually performs duties relating to any monetary issues affecting the Cooperative or the community. They implement the financial policies, pay the bills, collect debts, keep the books and report on the financial affairs to the other board members at each meeting. Often times they also chair a finance committee and advise the membership on appropriate steps to take to ensure the financial health of the building.

The secretary signs stock certificates, proprietary leases and banking documents. They also keep and distribute minutes of meetings, maintain records, inform members of meeting times and agendas, and carry on correspondence that does not fall to the responsibility of the president or treasurer. Those serving on their board who don't hold one of these positions are normally simply referred to as directors, although some buildings come up with different titles for some members, depending on their role and responsibilities.

b) Responsibilities of Directors

Members of the board of directors of a cooperative have the same duties and responsibilities as do board members of any other business. In addition, they have a few other responsibilities that are unique to cooperative board members.

(i) **Unique Duties and Responsibilities:** Cooperatives are member organizations, unlike most other businesses. This places a unique responsibility on cooperative directors to be sensitive to the needs of members and balance their conflicting interests. Therefore, director decisions are based not only on

what is most profitable, but also on what the needs of the members are. One important function of the cooperative board is to educate members about their organization. Effective member control is impossible without information. It is the duty of the directors to provide the membership with that information.

(ii) General Duties and Responsibilities: The standard of conduct required of directors of any business is found in state statutes and court decisions. A director shall discharge his duties as a director, including his duties as a member of a committee:

- (1) In good faith;
- (2) with the care and ordinarily prudent person in a like position would exercise under similar circumstances; and
- (3) In a manner he reasonably believes to be in the best interests of the corporation.

In discharging his duties a director is entitled to rely on information, opinions, reports, or statements, including financial statements and other financial data, if prepared or presented by:

- (1) one or more officers or employees of the corporation whom the director reasonably believes to be reliable and competent in the matters presented;
- (2) legal counsel, public accountants, or other persons as to matters the director reasonably believes are within the person's professional or expert competence; or
- (3) a committee of the board of directors of which he is not a member if the director reasonably believes the committee merits confidence.

A director is not liable for any action taken as a director, or any failure to take any action, if he performed the duties of his office in compliance with this section.

3.6 Leadership Style

A total of 18 style parameters were identified within three major leadership style areas. This instrument was designed to identify the leadership style of the respondent leaders in the study area and to examine how their

leadership style relates to other styles. This questionnaire is designed to measure three common styles of leadership: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. This section contains rating scales and the items are in a consistent leadership style sequence:

- Authoritarian leadership (sum of the responses of items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, and 16),
- Democratic leadership (sum of the responses items 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, and 17)
- Laissez-faire leadership (sum of the responses items 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, and 18)

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for importance and proficiency within each style category (see Table 3.1). Reliability statistics was based on 16 leaders rating. In terms of how important pilot study participants perceived the leadership styles within each frame to be, Cronbach's alpha for each leadership style were: $\alpha = .875$ for authoritarian leadership style, $\alpha = .867$ for democratic leadership style and $\alpha = .882$ for Laissez-faire leadership style. In terms of how proficient pilot study participants perceived they were in each leadership styles were: $\alpha = .767$ for authoritarian leadership style, $\alpha = .822$ for democratic leadership style and $\alpha = .801$ for Laissez-faire leadership style.

Table 3.1

Cronbach's Alpha for Importance and Proficiency for each style (N=16)

S.NO	FACTORS	RELIABILITY	
		Importance	Proficiency
1.	Authoritarian leadership	0.875	0.767
2.	Democratic leadership	0.867	0.822
3.	Laissez-faire leadership	0.882	0.801

According to Penfield (2001), reliabilities of greater than 0.90 are considered high, those greater than 0.80 are considered moderate to high, and those greater than 0.70 considered low. Therefore, these estimates were deemed appropriate and the instrument was not changed as a result of the pilot test.

To confirm reliability of the instrument, Cronbach's alpha for importance and proficiency within each style category was calculated after final data collection (see Table 3.2). In terms of how important study participants perceived the parameters within each leadership style to be, Cronbach's alpha for each style were: =.911 for authoritarian leadership style, =.897 for democratic leadership style and =.842 for Laissez-faire leadership style. In terms of how proficient study participants perceived they were in each leadership styles were: =.881 for authoritarian leadership style, =.875 for democratic leadership style and =.823 for Laissez-faire leadership style.

Table 3.2

Cronbach's Alpha for Importance and Proficiency for each style (N=528)

S.NO	FACTORS	RELIABILITY	
		Importance	Proficiency
1.	Authoritarian leadership	0.911	0.881
2.	Democratic leadership	0.897	0.875
3.	Laissez-faire leadership	0.842	0.823

Although the reliabilities of some of the scales changed, all of the scales had moderate to high reliabilities. Therefore the reliability of the scales, and the instrument as a whole, was considered acceptable.

3.6.1 Analysis of Leadership style of the respondents in the study area

The table 3.3 shows the mean and standard deviation for the 18 parameters considered for three leadership styles in the present study.

Table 3.3
Mean and Standard Deviation

S.No.	Leadership Style parameters	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Employees need to be supervised closely, or they are not likely to do their work	528	3.03	1.280
2.	Members need to be a part of the decision-making process	528	2.85	1.132
3.	In complex situations, leaders should let employees work problems out on their own	528	2.98	1.175
4.	It is fair to say that most employees in the general population are lazy	528	3.22	1.319
5.	Providing guidance without pressure is the key to being a good leader	528	2.98	1.183
6.	Leadership requires staying out of the way of employees as they do their work	528	3.06	1.494
7.	As a rule, employees must be given rewards or punishments in order to motivate them to achieve Society objectives	528	2.82	1.144
8.	Most employees want frequent and supportive communication from their leaders	528	3.01	1.328
9.	As a rule, leaders should allow employees to appraise their own work	528	3.05	1.178
10.	Most employees feel insecure about their work and need direction	528	2.16	1.002
11.	Leaders need to help subordinates accept responsibility for completing their work	528	2.12	.901
12.	Leaders should give subordinates complete freedom to solve problems on their own	528	2.14	.997
13.	The leader is the chief judge of the achievements of the members of the society	528	2.17	.945
14.	It is the leader's job to help subordinates find their goal	528	2.56	.997
15.	In most situations, employees prefer little input from the leader	528	2.98	1.201
16.	Effective leaders give orders and clarify procedures	528	2.91	1.151
17.	People are basically competent and if given a task will do a good job	528	2.99	1.209
18.	In general, it is best to leave subordinates alone	528	3.23	1.082

The table 3.3 shows the mean and standard deviation of the leadership style parameters from which it can be revealed that the statement in general, it is best to leave subordinates alone with the mean and standard deviation of 3.23 and 1.082, similarly it is fair to say that most employees in the general population are lazy with the mean and standard deviation 3.22 and 1.319 and leadership requires staying out of the way of employees as they do their work with the mean and standard deviation 3.06 and 1.494 from the above statement it can be shown that these three statement which are the more agreeable statements when compared with that of other leadership styles in the present study. The table 3.4 shows the frequency of the respondent leaders belong to the three leadership styles depending on the 6 parameters considered for each leadership style in the present study.

Table 3.4

Classification of the respondents based on their Leadership Styles

Sl. No.	Leadership Style	Sum of Mean Scores	No. of respondents
1	Authoritarian leadership (sum of the responses of items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, and 16)	16.31	171
2	Democratic leadership (sum of the responses items 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, and 17)	16.51	173
3	Laissez-faire leadership (sum of the responses items 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, and 18)	17.44	183

As the Table 3.4 indicates, the leaders mostly use the Laissez-faire leadership with the mean score of 17.44 followed by the Democratic leadership with the mean score of 16.51 and Authoritarian leadership with the mean score of 16.31. However, it is worth mentioning that the leaders scored high on the Laissez faire leadership style and comparatively low on the authoritarian leadership style which shows that they do not think that they are being authoritative. This is due to the fact that being authoritative has negative

connotations echoing concepts such as power, networking and coalitions when compared with more humane counterparts such as needs, skills and compromise. Laissez-faire leaders engage in laissez-faire behaviors when they abdicate responsibility, delay decisions, offer no feedback, and make little or no effort to help followers satisfy needs, achieve goals, or grow personally. It is a "hands-off" approach to leadership (Northouse, 2001).

3.6.2. Analysis of socio-economic variables and Leadership style of the respondents in the study area

Table – 3.5

Socio economic variables and the Leadership Style

Variables	df	Z	F	Sig.	Decision
Gender of the respondents	526	2.197		.028	S
Age of the respondents	3		30.668	.000	S
Marital status of the respondents	2		52.087	.000	S
Literacy level of the respondents	5		18.706	.000	S
Training programme attended by the respondents	2		43.028	.000	S
Community	3		123.118	.000	S
Members in the family	2		101.578	.000	S
Own house	2		70.816	.000	S
Agricultural land	2		129.676	.000	S
Primary occupation	4		85.437	.000	S
Annual income of the respondents	3		62.842	.000	S
Family annual income	3		33.450	.000	S

The figures in table 3.5 represents the difference between socio economic variables and leadership style among the respondents in the study area. The socio economic variables such as gender of the respondents, age of the respondents, marital status, literacy level, training programmes attended by the respondents, community, agricultural land, own house, members in the family, their primary occupation and annual income of the individual and family show the significant values (i.e. $p < 0.05$). Therefore these variables show a significant difference between them when it is compared with leadership styles of the respondent leaders.

3.6.3. Social Mobility towards Leadership style

Table – 3.6

Social affiliations and the Leadership Style

Variables	df	F	Sig.	Decision
Member of any other organisation in Puducherry	12	78.448	0.000	S
Co-operative department/ union officials come to your society to meet	3	57.743	.000	S
Government officials come to your society to meet	3	53.290	.000	S
NGO's come to your society to meet	3	92.549	.000	S

The above figures 3.6 reveals the difference between socio affiliation and proficiency in leadership style among the respondents in the selected area. The socio affiliation variables such as having membership in a social organization, visiting by cooperative department/union officials, government officials, NGO's shows the significant variables (i.e. $p < 0.05$). Therefore these variables shows a significant difference between them when the socio affiliation of the respondents compared with proficiency in leadership style.

Table – 3.7**Mass media exposure and the Leadership Style**

Variables	df	F	Sig.	Decision
Reading Journals/Magazines/Books/Newspapers related to cooperatives	3	34.413	.000	S
Hearing Radio	3	33.795	.000	S
Watching TV	3	47.737	.000	S

The figures in table 3.7 highlights the differences between Mass media exposure and Proficiency in leadership style among the respondents in the study area. The mass media variables such as reading journals/ magazines/ books/ news papers related to cooperative news, hearing radio, watching television exhibit the significant variables(i.e. $p < 0.05$). Therefore these variables show a significant difference between them when the mass media exposure of the respondent leaders compared with proficiency in leadership style.

Table – 3.8**Political affiliations and the Leadership Style**

Variables	df	F	Sig.	Decision
Member of any political party of Puducherry	3	17.164	.000	S
Level of participation in the party	4	157.989	.000	S

The figures in table 3.8 throws light on the differences between political affiliation and proficiency in leadership style among the respondents in the selected area. The political affiliation variables such as having membership in a political party, the level of participation in the political party shows the significant variables (i.e. $p < 0.05$). Therefore these variables shows a

significant difference between them when the political affiliation of the respondents compared with proficiency in leadership style.

Table 3.9.

Cooperative Leadership and the Leadership Style

Variables	df	Z	F	Sig.	Decision
Position held in the society	526	4.389		0.000	S
Duration of your membership in the society	3		20.815	.000	S
Tenure of office as board member	3		29.618	.000	S
Position in the co-operative society in previously	2		18.367	.000	S
Member in any other co-operative society in Puducherry	3		92.967	.000	S
Motivated you to become a leader of the co – operatives	4		58.279	.000	S

The figures in table 3.9 revealed the differences between cooperative leadership and proficiency in leadership style among the respondents in the selected area. The cooperative leadership variables such as position held in the society, duration of membership in the cooperative society, tenure as a board member, position held previously in the society, member in other cooperative society and the motivated factor to become leader shows the significant variables (i.e. $p < 0.05$). Therefore these variables shows a significant difference between them when the cooperative leadership of the respondents compared with proficiency in the leadership style.

3.6.4. Effect of Socio-Economic variables on leadership style of the respondent leaders in the study area

The multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the effect of socio-economic variables on leadership style of the respondent leaders in the study area, which is portrayed in the following table 3.10

Table –3.10

Multiple Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: leadership style of the respondents

Variables	Regression Coefficients (B)	Std. Error	Z	Sig.
(Constant)	51.830	4.034		
Gender	1.756	0.382	14.599	**
Age	0.333	0.028	12.038	**
Marital status	-1.415	0.264	-5.362	**
Literacy level of the respondents	5.077	0.512	9.918	**
Training programmes attended	-0.707	0.137	-5.155	**
Annual income (In Rupees)	2.483	0.827	4.003	**
Agricultural land ownership	1.690	0.704	2.401	*
Membership in any other organization	0.489	0.178	2.746	**
Level of participation in political parties	0.917	0.170	0.396	**
Tenure of office as board member	0.423	0.135	3.129	**
Human skills	1.750	0.208	8.406	**
Conceptual skills	0.528	0.103	5.111	**
Technical skills	1.104	0.118	9.354	**
Communication skills	2.730	0.147	18.511	**
Emotional intelligence skills	1.380	0.253	5.464	**
Industry knowledge skills	1.404	0.149	9.405	**

R	R Square	F	Sig.
0.826	.682	72.604	**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

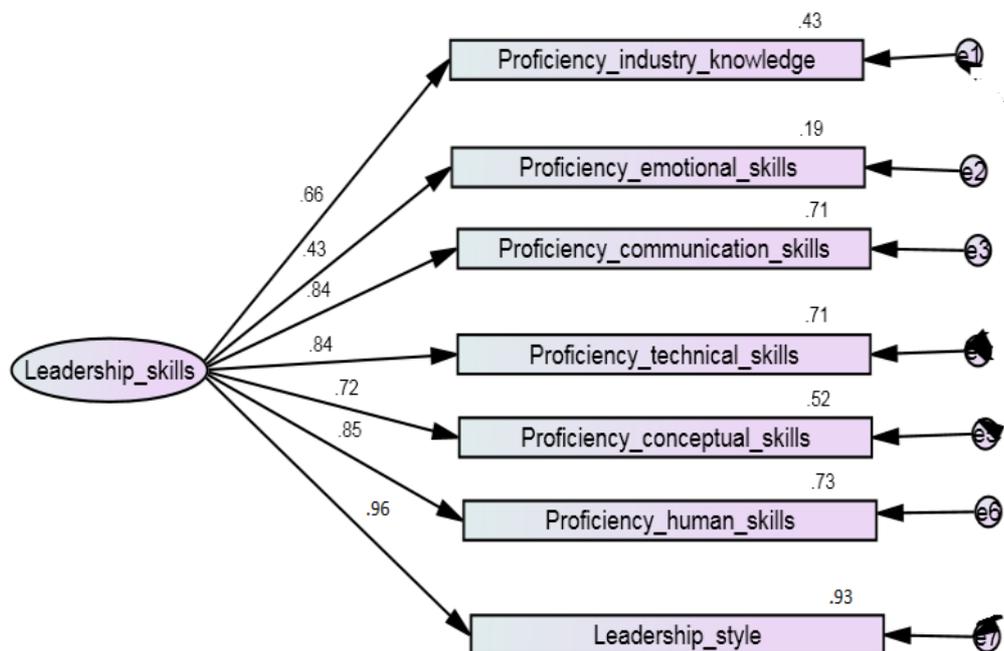
It was observed from the figures given in table 3.10 that the multiple correlations between the selected independent variables and leadership style of

the respondents (Dependent) was 0.826, which indicated that there was a high level of correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variables. The F-test value was significant showing 72.604. The R² value (0.682) indicated that 68.2 percent of variations in leadership style of the respondents were influenced by the related independent variables.

Individually, from the regression coefficients, it was found that proficiency in Human skills (1.750), proficiency in Conceptual skills (0.528), proficiency in Technical skills (1.104), proficiency in Communication skills (2.730), proficiency in Emotional Intelligence skills (1.380), proficiency in Industry Knowledge skills (1.404), age (0.333) literacy level (5.077), gender (1.756), annual income (2.483), agricultural land ownership (1.690), membership in any other organization (0.489), level of participation in political parties (0.917) and tenure as board member (0.423) have a positive effect on leadership style of the respondent leaders, whereas training programmes attended (-0.707) and marital status (-1.415) have negative effect on leadership style of the respondents. However all these independent variables significantly affect the overall leadership style of the respondents as indicated by the results hence the hypothesis was rejected.

3.6.5. STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELING (SEM)

Figure 3.2 SEM Model



From the figure 3.2, the leadership style, proficiency in human skills, proficiency in conceptual skills, proficiency in technical skills, proficiency in communication skills, proficiency in emotional intelligence skills and proficiency in industry knowledge are considered to be the exogenous variables and leadership skills is considered as endogenous variables, which means that for those factors the value have been assigned already and identified as the observed variables. Similarly the e1, e2, e3, e4, e5 and e6 are considered to be the error residuals for the above said factors respectively.

Model consists of following factors

- One dependent variable – Leadership skills
- Seven independent variables – leadership style, proficiency in human skills, proficiency in conceptual skills, proficiency in technical skills, proficiency in communication skills, proficiency in emotional intelligence skills and proficiency in industry knowledge
- Arrow mark (→) - Shows the relationship between the seven observed and one unobserved variable.
- Error terms - The error terms is measured by using e1, e2, e3, e4, e5, e6 and e7.

The standardized regression weight and the correlation estimates for the figure 3.2. is shown in the below tables

Table 3.11
STANDARDIZED REGRESSION WEIGHT

Factors			Estimate
Proficiency in Industry knowledge	←	Leadership skills	0.656
Proficiency in emotional intelligence skills	←	Leadership skills	0.435
Proficiency in communication skills	←	Leadership skills	0.842
Proficiency in technical skills	←	Leadership skills	0.841
Proficiency in conceptual skills	←	Leadership skills	0.722
Proficiency in human skills	←	Leadership skills	0.854
Leadership style	←	Leadership skills	0.965

From the table 3.11, regarding the regression weight shows the level of relationship between the variables considered reveals as leadership style (0.965), proficiency in human skills (0.854), proficiency in conceptual skills (0.722), proficiency in technical skills (0.841), proficiency in communication skills (0.842), proficiency in emotional intelligence skills (0.435) and proficiency in industry knowledge (0.656). It shows a positive relationship between the factors considered.

Table 3.12
SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS

Factors			Estimate
Proficiency in Industry knowledge	←	Leadership skills	0.73
Proficiency in emotional intelligence skills	←	Leadership skills	0.522
Proficiency in communication skills	←	Leadership skills	0.706
Proficiency in technical skills	←	Leadership skills	0.712
Proficiency in conceptual skills	←	Leadership skills	0.189
Proficiency in human skills	←	Leadership skills	0.43
Leadership style	←	Leadership skills	0.932

From the table 3.12, the correlations shows the strength and association between the variables i.e., leadership style (93.2%), proficiency in human skills (43%), proficiency in conceptual skills (18%), proficiency in technical skills (71.2%), proficiency in communication skills (70.6%), proficiency in emotional intelligence skills (52.2%) and proficiency in industry knowledge (73%).

Table 3.13
CASUAL AND EFFECT

Particulars	Score value
p value	0.046
Confirmatory factor index (CFI)	0.982
Goodness of Fit (GFI)	0.962
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.048

From the table 3.13, it shows that the p value is 0.046 which is less than that of the significant value 0.05 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004), shows there exists an association between the factors considered, the confirmatory factor index (CFI) is 0.982 which is greater than that of 0.95 (Fan, Thompson, and Wang, 1999), goodness of fit (GFI) is 0.962 which is greater than of 0.95 and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is 0.048 which is less than 0.08 (MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara (1996), by the above it shows that model is fit and there exists a cause and effect between leadership styles with that of the proficiency in leadership skills, i.e., proficiency in human skills, proficiency in conceptual skills, proficiency in technical skills, proficiency in communication skills, proficiency in emotional intelligence skills and proficiency in industry knowledge.

Table 3.14

PATH DIAGRAM AND SIGNIFICANT LEVEL

Hypothesized relationship		Significance	Decision
Proficiency in Industry knowledge	←	Leadership skills ***	S
Proficiency in emotional intelligence skills	←	Leadership skills ***	S
Proficiency in communication skills	←	Leadership skills ***	S
Proficiency in technical skills	←	Leadership skills ***	S
Proficiency in conceptual skills	←	Leadership skills ***	S
Proficiency in human skills	←	Leadership skills ***	S
Leadership styles	←	Leadership skills ***	S

*** p<0.01; NS – Not Significant

From the above path significant table 3.14, it shows that proficiency in leadership skills such as proficiency in human skills, proficiency in conceptual skills, proficiency in technical skills, proficiency in communication skills, proficiency in emotional intelligence skills and proficiency in industry knowledge is significant towards the leadership styles and hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Which shows that there exists relationship between the variables considered to that of the leadership skills.

3.7 Summary

Researchers have attempted to define leadership throughout history. The trait theorists claimed that leadership ability is inborn. People become leaders for the traits that they own such as intelligence, appearance, language ability, etc. Behavioral theorists maintained that effectiveness in leadership is directly related to the behavior of a leader. On the other hand, contingency theorists supported that effective leadership is dependent upon the situation and a particular style of leadership is appropriate in some situations but not necessarily all. Recent theories about leadership have dealt with vision and charisma. Among these recent approaches, transactional leadership suggests that the relationship between managers and employees is based on bargaining whereas transformational leadership supposes that the relationship between the manager and the employee is of mutual trust and characterized by four factors: charisma, inspiration, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation.

When the organizations are constantly becoming dynamic in their pursuit of becoming effective and sustain the shocks of competition, there is a dire need to have an effective leadership, which should be equally dynamic i.e., to possess the ability to quickly adapt his/her leadership style to match the dynamics of internal and external environment. Several theories explain the concept of leadership and leadership potential among people in the organizations. Essentially, leadership is all about influencing people towards a goal or a vision that the leader himself creates or helps to create. Leadership is a practicing art which goes beyond the managerial techniques, skills and practices. Viewing the above leadership traits from the cooperative perspective,

it is widely believed that cooperatives created more Leaders and the capabilities of the workforce in cooperative sector, requires constant harnessing to transform these traditional leaders into 'Effective Leaders'.

Gordon H. Ward, an F.A.O. cooperative specialist stated, "A successful institution is the shadow and projection of the personality of a leader, that behind every successful cooperative there is a person of integrity, vision, driving interest, dedication and perseverance. A leader must have strong faith in the movement." Prof. Georges Lassere of Paris University says, "A good cooperator is one who understands the cooperative ideal, adheres to it and makes it part of himself. In him, the cooperative becomes a personal cooperative creed." He should always look into the interests of the members- and keep them loyal to the movement.

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