CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership in any sphere of activity – whether it is political, social, commercial, or industrial – is always crucial. When we talk of education leadership becomes more significant, may be because a leader has to deal with diverse groups within the institution. This statement can be explained further – equally or at times highly qualified (than leader himself/herself) faculty, colleagues performing creative and innovative work on one hand, young, ambitious, talented and at times explosive students on the other hand, large groups of supporting staff with their own expectations and interests and highly demanding community around are the major groups to be handled by leader of any educational institution. This is certainly neither an easy task nor every academic’s cup of tea.

We keep listening from our colleagues, friends and relatives that this institution was built by that visionary leader, this school was popular when so and so was the headmaster, this university had attained the quality standards under the stewardship of that vice-chancellor etc. The implication of these statements is that few institutions are ‘built by leaders of this variety’ and many institutions are unlucky not to have leaders of this category. What makes one leader successful and the other not so successful or a failure? Answer to this question cannot be like doctor’s prescription. We all agree that leaders are not born, leaders are made – but ‘how’?
In this context, administration, from scientific point of view, is a development of the twentieth and present centuries. The administrative posts in schools have been increased and more administrative people are put in schools to assist the principal. Not only that, social expectations of the role of schools in preparing for the next generation have changed over time as the countries advance. In view of this, the school administration has to play a tougher and more challenging role now and in future.

Leadership effectiveness involves a group process with the leader as the main directive element. As Chester put it several decades ago, effectiveness is “the accomplishment of the recognised objectives of the co-operative action”. It depends initially on influence, but beyond that there are questions of value, such as how things are done to achieve what ends (Taj, 2001).

A transactional view of leadership effectiveness emphasises the leader-follower relationship in two major respects: first, it deals with the responsiveness of the group in gaining specified goods, and second, it means securing those goals with the greatest possible consideration for the individuals comprising the group. It depends upon the way things are done to produce desired group outcomes as well as the outcomes themselves. Leadership effectiveness means achieving a productive use of human and material resources, at or beyond potential. It contributes to organisational effectiveness, or is similar to it, but differs in its emphasis.

While there are no universal traits of leaders, certain requirements for leadership effectiveness do exit across diverse situations. Qualities of leadership effectiveness are not so much attributes of the leaders as they are requirements of the leader’s role. A comment from Stogdill (1974) is to the point: “Effective, as compared with ineffective,
leaders perceive themselves as letting subordinates know what is expected of them, informing them of policy changes, explaining reasons for decisions and getting group reactions before going with a new plan”. In a related vein, he has also commented that “the most effective leaders appear to exhibit a greater degree of versatility and flexibility, which enable them to adapt their behaviour to the changing and contradictory demands made on them”.

Different qualities may be required for leadership effectiveness as a result of the leader’s level in the organisation. In comparing managers and supervisors, Porter and Lawler (1968) found that managers described themselves more with respect to originality, initiative and boldness than did first line supervisors”. Leader’s competence was evaluated with respect to elements of consideration as well as initiation of structure. A classical study by Hemphil and Coons on the effectiveness of the department heads in university administration, demonstrates the importance of both of these factors (Taj, 2001).

Interpersonal qualities were found to be vital in leadership effectiveness, because it depends upon followers perceiving and responding to leader’s display of competence, fairness and identification. It also depends on the follower’s perception of leader’s fairness in rewarding good performance and withholding rewards for poor performance. Emotional stability was considered as a source of fairness and dependability. In addition, communication and unity of direction are also vital to the process of effective leadership. Further, leadership effectiveness also depends upon receiving, procuring, retaining and transmitting information, much of it, through talking with others.
There are as many viewpoints as possible regarding the identifiable qualities of an effective leader, but it has already been said that there are no universal traits of an effective leader, though certain requirements for effective leadership do exist across diverse situations.

The roles of principals as the leaders of educational institutions are many and complex. They have to follow instructions from the superiors in the department and ministry and implement the various new policies introduced by them. They have to manage, monitor and control at every stage to ensure success of these policies. At the top of that, they have to lead and run the organisations. How effectively the principals play their roles depends on many factors. Such factors include their job values, school climate, administrative experience, area of specialisation and ability to gain the support of the various stakeholders.

Basically, this study attempts to analyse the educational leadership effectiveness of high school principals in relation to their job values and school climate in Iran and India separately and then compare them. Their subordinates, teachers who work under them will perceive their effectiveness based on a few dimensions studied. Job values of principals will be asked from themselves and then school climate of the schools will be defined. Later, a relationship is hoped to be established between their leadership effectiveness and job values, and their leadership effectiveness and school climate.

1.2 LEADERSHIP

Leadership has been one of the most studied organisational issues. However, the lack of a consensually agreed – upon definition of leadership, particularly in the cross-cultural setting still remains among scholars. Definitions vary in terms of emphasis on
leader abilities, personality traits, influences relationships, cognitive versus emotional orientation, individual versus group orientation and appeal to self versus collective interests (e.g. Bass, 1990, 1996; Yukl, 1998). A recent definition proposed by House and his colleagues (1999), states that “leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members” (House et al., 1999, p.10).

Leadership is not a matter of command and automatic obedience. It consists of motivating and manipulating people to serve the goals of an organisation to the best of their capacity (Singh and Sharma, 2005).

1.3 VITAL CONCEPT IN LEADERSHIP

The concept “restructuring the schools” is mentioned very frequently in literature pertaining to improving the role of school leader. Perhaps, restructuring emphasises and includes the other concepts to be discussed in this study.

The National Association of Elementary School Principals emphasised the following pre-requisite characteristics of educational leaders in restructured schools:

(i) Being able to share governance of the school within which teachers will also have leadership role;

(ii) Preparing pupils in the public schools for a global economy and society;

(iii) Emphasising a highly specialised role for the principal of the school;

(iv) Exercising skills to lead in curriculum improvement so that pupils obtain necessary instructional experiences;

(v) Growing in skills to implement school based decision making;
(vi) Possessing interpersonal skills to work collaboratively with others including teachers, parents and society in general;

(vii) Learning theories which are relevant and need to be used to develop human potential and resources; and

(viii) Continuing professional education being needed to stay abreast of changes in the educational arena (quoted in Ediger and Rao, 2003).

New principals employed in the school setting should possess as many of these criteria as possible. It behooves those engaged in the interviewing process to ascertain which prospective principal would best meet the criteria. Accountability in interviewing and employing new personnel who possess high quality is a definite must.

1.4 A GLANCE AT THE LEADERSHIP LITERATURE

There is no shortage of writing on leadership. Thousands of papers and books have been written on what it means, why it is important and what it takes to be successful. The earliest stream of work is the trait theory of leadership, which conducted that genealogy was at the root of great men reaching positions of power. The overall theme of trait theory is that leaders are special individuals with intelligence, scholarship, persistence, adaptability and status (Stogdill, cited in Dastmalchian and others, 2001). In the late 1940s and 1950s, researchers started to focus on leaders’ behaviour rather than traits. The behavioural school converged on four common themes among leaders: support for employees, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis and work facilitation (e.g. Halpin and Winer, 1957; Katz and Kahn, 1952).

The contingency school of leadership is another school of thought and is focused on situational factors such as the task performed by the group, the leader’s discretion and
role expectations (e.g. Yukl, 1998). The most recent genre of leadership theories is a confluence of the previous schools of thought. It is alternatively referred to as charismatic leadership (Conger and Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977), Transformational leadership (Bass, 1985, 1997; Tichy and Devanna, 1986), visionary (Sashkin, 1988), or inspirational (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). The fundamental premise of this wave of theories is that leaders elevate the needs, values and aspirations of followers away from self-interest and towards collective interest. Charismatic leaders have strong self-confidence, are believed to be competent, are role models, articulate, engaging visions and high expectations and built subordinates’ trust (House, 1977; Conger, 1989). Bass (1985) and Yukl (1989) proposed that transformational leaders demonstrate individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. Burns (1978) suggested that transformational leaders elevate their followers from “everyday selves” to “better selves”.

1.5 THE ETIC AND EMIC OF LEADERSHIP

Most of the literature on leadership is based on research in industrialised countries. We have substantial pool of knowledge from North American and European countries, but our understanding of leadership in other cultures and countries is quite limited. A review of the literature on leadership in other countries prompted Chen and Velsor (1996) to conclude, “there is only a very limited knowledge base regarding leadership behaviours of non-traditional and non-western leaders”. The lack of rigorous research on leaders in other countries poses the question of universality of leadership; to what extent is the Western knowledge on leadership generalisable to other cultures and countries? Over the past 20 years, cross-cultural scholars have been striving to find the answer to this question.
Many researchers have argued for a direct impact of culture of leadership styles. They believe in the “emic” of leadership, arguing that specific cultural traditions, values, ideology and social norms are “bound to differentiate as much as of even more than structural factors between societies” (Lammers and Hickson, 1979). Hofstede and his colleagues provided further evidence that leadership style varied according to cultural cluster, as measured by how an individual scored on his four original cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980) and his subsequent fifth dimension (Hofstede and Bond, 1988). Erez and Earley (1993) have also argued for the impact of culture on leadership style and employee behaviour. They suggested that cultural norms help shape the manager’s and the employee’s psychological experience of self-identity and help generate the criteria that are used to assess a manager’s performance.

On the other hand, there are those researchers who believe in the “etic” of leadership, arguing that at least some aspects of leadership transcend national cultures and are universally accepted. They maintain that increasingly common technological imperatives (Woodward, 1958), common industrial logic (Adler, Doktor and Redding, 1986), generally accepted accounting principles, and global institutions all serve to harmonise management practices and structures (Child and Tayeb, 1983; Levitt, 1983; Yavas, 1995). Bernard Lewis (1995) provided an interesting account of cultural convergence in his description of a man sitting at a table in a coffee shop in a Middle Eastern city: “Drinking a cup of coffee or tea, perhaps smoking a cigarette, reading a newspaper, playing a board game and listening a half an ear to whatever is coming out of the radio or television installed in the corner”. On a closer look, this coffeehouse man, “probably wears Western style clothes – sneakers, Jeans, a T-shirt. The chair at which he
sits, the coffee he drinks, the tobacco he smokes, the newspaper he reads, all are Western imports. The radio and television are Western inventions. If our relaxing friend is a member of his nation’s army, he probably operates Western or soviet weapons and trains according to Western standards; if he belongs to the government, both his bureaucratic surroundings and the constitutional trappings of his regime may owe their origins to Western influence” (The Economist, 1996). Lewis’s conclusion is that “In modern times, the dominating factor in the consciousness of most Middle Easterners has been the impact of Europe, later of the west more generally, and the transformation – some would say dislocation – which it has brought” (1995, in The Economist, 1996, p.26).

Perhaps the most comprehensive and consistent set of research evidence for this school relates to the work on transformational leadership (Bass, 1985, 1997). The strength of the empirical support for transformational leadership led Bass to conclude that while cultural influences do exist, “None-the-less, certain generalisations appear warranted. The ideals and implicit theories of leadership tend to be transformational rather than transactional” (1997, p.137). While these two observations indicate some degree of acceptance of the concept, universality has not generally enjoyed strong support in the management literature and the debate goes on.

1.6 DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP

At the heart of leadership development is learning, leaders have to be learners to improve as leaders and to model the appropriate behaviour for the leader of a learning community. Just as this discussion has offered a number of propositions about leadership so it is necessary to offer propositions about learning in the context of leadership development:
• Learning is an individual, unique and subjective process;

• Learning is the result of a complex interaction of neurological, psychological and social variables;

• Learning is the most effective when the motivation is intrinsic;

• Learning requires challenge, not threat;

• Effective learning recognises different learning styles, multiple intelligence and varied teaching strategies; and

• The outcomes of learning are complex, diffuse and unpredictable.

Reeves and Dempster (1998) offer a model of a professional development strategy which:

• Uses a voluntarist, self-help approach…;

• Relies on commitment from network of colleagues;

• Moves from individual and collective skills of those who participate;

• Models information based learning;

• Values personal experience but exposes it to a broader perspective;

• Treats principal problems as worthy of research; and

• Can be used to build bridges between researchers and practitioners.

Almost every one of these factors in denial of the performance management approach. The emphasis on leadership learning being mediated through shared and collaborative strategies is particularly important. While the leadership will retain personal, contractual accountability, his or her effectiveness as a leader will be significantly determined by collaborative working. The emergence of the leadership group is a powerful collaboration of this point. The most effective leadership learning is
participative, a complex interaction of the individual and the group. The notion of open, shared and collaborative leadership requires open, shared and collaborative learning.

1.7 EFFECTIVENESS AND EFFICIENCY

Chester Bernard (as cited in Shelat, 2002) defines effectiveness as relating to the accomplishment of the co-operative purpose, which is social and non-personal in character and efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individuals motives and is personal in character. Effectiveness depends on the relationship between expectations and behaviour while efficiency depends on the relationship between needs and behaviour. Hence the test of effectiveness is the accomplishment of common purposes while the test of efficiency is the eliciting of sufficient individual wills to co-operate. When the needs of individual and the goals of the system are congruent, there is a feeling of identification with the system and if the needs of the individual and the expectations of the role-set are congruent, there is a feeling of satisfaction and belongingness in the system. However, the principal may find he cannot accomplish both since he has a choice of behaviour to conform either to his needs or to the expectations, he can choose one at the expense of the other. After principals choose to conform to expectations and thereby retain high effectiveness although at great internal cost to themselves.

The authors interpret efficiency as including the criteria for effectiveness as well. Hence one can offer a description of the leader in specific dimensions of behaviour and independently evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of the behaviour, for a leader operates in a matrix, which determines the effectiveness of his work.

The organisational climate of a school has as its constituents the principal’s behaviour and the teacher’s behaviour, which filters down to the behaviour of the
students and the tone of discipline in the students also play a significant role in building the climate of the school. Effective leadership behaviour of the head begets healthy, open climate where teachers are motivated for better teaching and learners motivated for higher achievement index. Halpin’s study indicates that the administrative environments, which reflected both institutional direction and stability and consideration for the individuals are the most effective.

His foremost task is to see that the organisation is kept dynamic enough so that the personell work towards fulfilling their assigned roles and there are co-ordinated efforts for goal achievement. The energy for operating the organisation is provided by the principal and if his leadership is effective the personnel generate enough energy by themselves to keep the organisation moving towards achieving its goal or accomplishing its tasks.

1.8 EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

Our use of the term “effective” is not derived from any empirical correlation with student attainment nor indeed from any outcome measures of school performance. Effectiveness, we recognise, is a contested notion and one that has to remain open to question, to challenge and to refinement (Riley and MacBeath, 2003, quoted in Bennett, Crawford and Cartwright, 2003). Leadership is the key for managing personnel and the smooth running of an organisation. Effective leadership depends upon the extent to which an administrator is able to:

(i) develop good relations with people working in the organisation;
(ii) manage and resolve conflicts arising among these people;
(iii) motivate and stimulate staff in achieving the organisational goals;
(iv) develop effective communication with the staff; and
(v) involve the staff in decision-making (Bhayia, Briggs and Bhayia, 1990).
Undoubtedly, the quality of leadership in education systems has to be enhanced to make our administrators more effective. The leadership issue again brings us to the consideration of organising training for developing leadership qualities. It is desirable to organise short-term orientation programmes for the top level administrators holding key positions in the departments of education who are mainly responsible for providing leadership in the field of education. To be able to perform their leadership role effectively, they are required not only to have a thorough awareness of the existing system of education and the current educational policy, and an appreciation of problems and innovative ideas and practices in the field of education and of modern management techniques for planning and administration but also to develop skills for developing good relations with their subordinates, motivating them, resolving their conflicts, communication with them effectively and taking right participatory decisions.

1.9 COMBINING LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

What are leadership and management and what is their relationship with each other? Does one depend on the other? Can a person be successful in one and not in the other? This section attempts to provide straightforward, practically oriented answers to some of those questions. In it, we do not attempt to duplicate the already written excellent works on the theoretical foundations of leadership, leadership theory and management. We will provide a bibliography of such works.

Several terms considered to be of great importance to high school principals are: manager, leader and administrator, and the corresponding terms management, leadership and administration. In the next pages, these terms and their relationship to each other will be explained. I rationalise that high school principals should be all of these – manager,
leader and administrator – and further those high school principals must be all of these to be effective in coping with the changing demands of the role.

1.9.1 Management

Management is characterised, defined and explained in many ways:

• “Planning, organising, integrating and measuring”, a definition adapted by General Electric Company;

• A judicious use of means to accomplish the end;

• Getting things done through others; and

• Conducting or supervision of something.

Changing demands requires changing management – in both philosophy and practice. More than ever – especially for high school principals – management assumes a readiness and willingness to change, with the concomitant effort necessary not only to adapt to those changes but also to ferret out the ‘facts’ and deal with the ‘necessary’.

Krajewski, Martin, and Walden (1983) define management as “working with and through people – both individually and in groups – to accomplish organisational goals”. Further, they consider management description and to be a subset of leadership. Certainly high school principals fit the management description and therefore management should be one of the integral components of their job. By virtue of the definition of management and its pictorial application, management is therefore the achieving of organisational goals through leadership.

Managerial functions including planning, organising, motivating and controlling and these functions remain relevant with respect to all organisations and all levels of management within the organisations. For management personnel to successfully carry out these various functions, three skill areas are necessary:
(i) **Technical Skill Ability** to use knowledge, methods, techniques and equipment necessary for the performance of specific tasks acquired from experience, education and training.

(ii) **Human Skills Ability** and judgement in working with and through people, including an understanding of motivation and an application of effective leadership.

(iii) **Conceptual Skills Ability** to understand the complexities of the overall organisation and where one’s own operation fits into the organisation. These knowledge permit one to act according to the objectives of the total organisation rather than only on the basic of the goals and needs of one’s own immediate group (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972).

**SKILLS NEEDED**

![Diagram of skills needed at various management levels]

**Figure 1.1: Skills and their applications at various management levels**

Figure 1.1, (quoted in Krajewski, Martin, and Walden, 1983), indicates the skills and their applications at various management levels. In this figure, we see that high
school principals fit best at the middle management level. Skill requirements at this management level are different from those at the top management and lower management levels. Top management personnel require fewer of the technical skills than conceptual skills, whereas with supervisory management personnel, the opposite is true. At all three levels, human skills are transmitted to the workers. Our version of the adaptation reveals that high school principals are definitely managers whose managerial tasks must be affected via interaction with people.

It can be theorised that principals must be effective managers before they can be effective leaders. As was mentioned, middle management requires approximately equal proportions of technical and conceptual skills. The human skills are all the more important at the middle management (principal) level because of the equal importance afforded to the conceptual and technical skill requirements.

1.9.2 Administration

Administration, as management, is defined or characterised in many ways (quoted in Krajewski, Martin, and Walden, 1983):

- A social process involving both problem solving and decision-making (Halpin);
- A tool through which the fundamental objectives of the educational process may be more fully and efficiently realised (Moehlman);
- That phenomenon which co-ordinates the interdependent activities of individuals in achieving a common goal – the education of children (Hark et al.);
- A social process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling and unifying formally and informally organised human and material energies within a unified system designed to accomplish predetermined objectives (Knezevich);
• Management – the coordination of many small tasks so as to accomplish the overall job as efficiently as possible (Taylor).

Like management, administration is subjected to changing demands and changing emphases. Administration here is considered to be slightly more encompassing than management. Whereas management may be considered mainly as the accomplishment of organisational objectives, administration is not only accomplishing the objectives but also relating them to each other so that there is more unity throughout the organisation towards goals and their achievement. Pictorially, then, we see administration relating to management and leadership as follows:

1.9.3 Leadership

As with management and administration, leadership is defined in many ways:

• Inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations – the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations – of both leader and followers;

• Influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation;

• Initiating a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an origination’s goals and objectives or for changing an organisation’s goals and objectives;

• Influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives.

Lipham’s emphasis is on ‘new’ and ‘changing’ and he emphatically differentiates between administration and leadership by saying that administration uses existing procedures and structures to achieve an organisational goal or objective (quoted in Krajewski, Martin, and Walden, 1983).
We see leadership as encompassing all of the above – and even more (see Figure 1.2). We see leadership as incorporating both self-growth and the growth of others. To accomplish these, the leader must be willing to take risks and not be afraid of occasional failure. Risk-taking almost necessitates occasional failure before it will bring about successes, change and growth. We also see leadership as an attempt to meet personnel needs that may be classified, as belonging needs. This latter aspect is perhaps the most significant of the changing demands of leadership.

In past years, life seemed to be less fast paced than today. Instant communication, rationalisation for the moment, “live for today and to hell with tomorrow” had not yet come into focus. The family was considered a unit; social organisations were important in most individual’s repertoires, as was the church and church-related activities. A sense of
belongingness was felt within these units. However, today’s fast paced, always-on-the-go, non-stop way of living leads us to a lifestyle in which we as individuals have fewer of our social and belonging needs met at home and in social organisation.

This leaves only one place to effect satisfaction of those social and belonging needs at work. The work arena, however, increasingly satisfies needs for money and perhaps esteem, the first need being extrinsic and the second being intrinsic. Sorely needed and missing is the satisfaction of those needs that have to do with belonging; and those needing require satisfying the most.

All educational institutions have certain people in the leadership positions. Only few of them are privileged to have leaders in leadership positions. Others have either administrators or managers.

In the viewpoint of Mukhopadhyay (2004), administrators manage rules, regulations and protocols. Managers manage tasks and people. Leaders manage dreams and visions.

![Figure 1.3: Workspace of administrators, managers and leaders](image-url)
Administrators operate within the small circle tied down by rules, regulations and protocols. Managers operate in large workspace; they subsume administration with primary concern for tasks and people in the organisation as they exist. Leaders create much large workspace with their own dreams and visions; they subsume both administrators and managers as much as they contribute to realisation of their dreams and visions of the organisations. Leaders inspire and influence people in the organisation to cherish dreams, construct, and move into the future. “Leaders create and change cultures” (Schein, 1992); managers live with them. “Leaders are also people who have the capacity to motivate and inspire others to think beyond their current frameworks to what is desirable, necessary and possible. They enjoy the sprit and energy, creating optimal environment for information, quality and enterprise. They change mind-sets and practices and gain co-operation and commitment, even in an environment initially characterised by low trust and low morale. They define and reform organisations” (Latcham and Hanna, 2001). Robbins and Finley (1997) credit organisational change to “talented leadership”; whether in the top levels of the organisation or the team levels. Institution building, which is a creative process of organisational change, is directly related to leadership, if not restricted to only “talented leadership”. For institution building, then, having leaders in leadership position is a necessary condition. In extension, a non-leader as head of an institution spells its doom, the beginning of the end of the organisational decay.

1.10 LEADERSHIP AND VALUES: TOWARD VIRTUOUS REALITY

Exploration of the deep structure of the leadership process in the context of Indian organisations yielded to us a strong normative focus of Indian managers while they described the qualities of an effective leader. “A leader should be seen to be honest”, “He
ought to be unbiased”, “He must be ethically above-board”, were some of the recurring comments of the managers studied in the research survey (Joshi, 2002). The following column describes the shift in managerial perspective on leadership from management to leadership orientation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management Orientations</th>
<th>Leadership Orientations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong work-ethic</td>
<td>Strong ethics in work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predominantly skills-based</td>
<td>Primarily values-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated by love for power</td>
<td>Inspired by power of love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplined by organisational control</td>
<td>Relies on self-discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective communication</td>
<td>Authentic communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality-centred</td>
<td>Principles-centred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focussed on appropriate behaviour</td>
<td>Focussed on character</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.11 THE PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL PREPARATION OF THE PRINCIPAL (HEADMASTER) FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

To become a leader in the school, the principal should understand the place of the school in the social order and the function it should perform. He should recognise that there are other institutions and agencies in the community, which are engaged in the education of youth and understand their relation to the school. He must be in a position to understand the socio-economic and political changes taking place in our society and explain their meaning for the school and the students who are attending it. He must make the teachers aware of these changes. To achieve these ends he must have knowledge of educational sociology, philosophy of education, organisation, supervision and administration of education, comparative education, educational psychology and secondary curriculum. It will help him in his professional preparation.
For this technical preparation for educational leadership, he must have knowledge and skill, which enable him to administer the high school. To develop knowledge and skill, he should study student activity and guidance programme. To acquire knowledge of methods and procedure, through which he may be of assistance to teachers, the principal should have courses in supervision of instruction, foundations of methods in teaching, and construction of courses and curricula. He should also have competency in measurement and evaluation. As a result of this, he will be in position to assist his teachers in measuring outcomes of their own instruction and the educational programme. The teachers can determine the area in which improvement is needed and may also evaluate the results at their effort to improve.

1.12 THE QUALITIES AND PERSONALITY OF THE PRINCIPAL

One of the important elements in educational leadership is the personality of the principal, for his personality traits influence the personality of the teachers. Personality here may be thought of as a composite of all the mental, emotional and physical characteristics, which an individual may possess. Through their overt manifestation he impresses others. The mental and emotional traits are the more significant in their influence upon others reactions. The principal should develop these aspects of his personality so that he shall possess a pleasing personality to influence others.

1.12.1 Desirable Personal Qualities of the Principal

The principal, as the leader, must have the ability to organise and assist the faculty in formulation of a programme for the improvement of instruction in the school. He must inspire the teachers, secure their co-operation in developing the supervisory programme and stimulate them for their active participation.
The principal should be enthusiastic and should work with zeal for the development of the school. He should have vision, initiative, originality, self-reliance, and confidence. He should have the qualities of sincerity, frankness, and genuineness. To solve the problem of differences of opinion concerning methods, procedures or other aspects of the programme, he should possess the qualities of self-control, fair-mindedness, tactfulness, adaptability, sound-judgement, open-mindedness, and resourcefulness.

Qualities like a sense of honour, sense of vocation, integrity, scientific attitude and friendship are also to be developed in the principal. He should allow freedom to the teachers, treat them sympathetically, and respect their personality. He must have superior mental abilities, intelligence, deep intuition, and logical reasoning. All teachers should be loyal to him and must look to him for guidance, counsel and inspiration. He should be a man of high moral character.

He should have faith to humanism. He should try to humanise the de-humanised individuals. Organisation should be such, which will fulfil its proper function, i.e. ‘education of whole man’ through the programme of humanising the students under the leadership of the principal. Describing the qualities of a principal, Ryburn (quoted in Dash, 2003) says, “it is essential, therefore, that he be not only a man of high character, but also that he be a man of faith in his vocation, faith in his pupils, faith in human nature, and faith in his staff”. A man, who is not definitely superior in all these respects, should forego his supervisory responsibility, as he happens to be the keystone of educational arch. If he does not possess these qualities, the structure of education will collapse like a house of cards.
1.13 CONCEPT AND MEANING OF VALUE

The Webster’s New Collegiate Dictionary describes ‘value’ as “the quality or fact of being excellent, useful or desirable”. In the English language according to Rescher (as cited in Sinha and Yunus, 2000), “the word is used in a somewhat loose and fluctuating way”. To exhibit the diversity in the concept of value, as well as looseness with which various writers use the term, Rescher had quoted some very pertinent definitions of values from a list compiled by Kurt Baier (1969). These are “a thing has or is a value if and when people behave toward it so as to retain or increase their possession of it”.

Allport and his associates (as cited in Sinha and Yunus, 2000) take this term to mean as “the relative prominence of the subject’s interest, or the dominant interests in personality”. Murray (1951) considers values as adjustments to his need/press rationale rather than as separate dimensions for investigations. Because needs always operate in the service of some value or with the intent of including some end state, he argued that values should be considered in any analysis of motives. “A value is not just a preference” believes Kluckhom (1952) “but is a preference, which is felt and/or considered to be justified morally or by reasoning or by aesthetic judgements, usually two or all three of these”.

In the words of Perry (1954) “a thing-anything have value, or is valuable, in the original and generic sense when it is the object of an interest-any interest, or whatever is object of interest is ipsofacto valuable”. Morris (1956) has defined the study of values as the science of preferential behaviour and has made some useful distinctions in regards of values. There are “operative values, which are the behaviours of organisms in which they
show preference for one object or objective rather than the other. There are also “conceived values” the preference of an individual for a symbolised object. Honesty is the best policy is much a conceived value.

Values are directing agencies, which in very significant ways, mould and condition human behaviour. “A value” observes Bronowskki (1959), is not mechanical rule of conduct, and not is it a blue print of virtue. A value is concept, which groups together some modes of behaviour in our society. Basic values according to Clough (1960) “reflect in essence the choice, which men have made out of a wide range of possibilities as to the way they live, the wants and desires, which they try to satisfy, and the order with which they strive to achieve recognised goals”.

“Values”, Rokeach (1966) believes, “are criteria for guiding action, for developing and maintaining attitudes towards relevant objects and situation, for justifying one’s and others actions and attitudes, for normally judging self and others for comparing oneself with others”. Finally Rokeach asserts, “a value is a standard employed to influence the values, attitudes and actions of at least some others”. According to Kurt Baier (1969) “values are dispositions to behave in certain ways, which can be ascertained by observations; these are tendencies of people to devote their resources (time, energy, money) to the attainment of certain ends”.

Stagner (1961) writes, “the term value is generally employed to designate a relatively generalised attitude”. According to Wolf and Schwartz (1959) “values are long range attitudes, convictions, wishes, hopes, dreams and faiths . . . ” Braunstein and Moscovich (1966) have defined values “as the meaning of reality for an individual”. As feeling, preference, set and action are interconnected it would be proper to consider
feeling, preference, set and action as component of values. Values must be interpreted as
generalised dynamic disposition of personality, which directs and determines the type of
the individual’s behaviour toward varied situations confronting him in his daily life.

Allport (1961) writes that there are two main approaches worthy of note in order
to study the values. These approaches are his own and that of Morris (1956). Allport says
that the first approach is to seek for the unifying philosophy in terms of some standard
classification of values and the second approach implies that much or most of the unity in
the life come from following the value orientation of one of these standards. Morris has
constructed a questionnaire, which represents thirteen ‘ways of life’ based on a study of
the world’s religions. One, for example, would stress ‘sympathetic concern for other’;
second ‘stoical self-control’; third, ‘group activity and enjoyment’; forth, ‘dynamic
integration of diversity’ etc.

From the definitions cited in the foregoing pages, it becomes clear that there is no
consensus among the social psychologist and sociologist on an agreed definition of the
term value. Almost all agree on one point that values lie at the core of all human
behaviour. An analysis of the conspicuous role of values in the explanation of behaviour
is therefore obviously a question of substantial interest.

The value pattern of an individual takes shape right from one’s childhood. Factors
such as hereditary endowment, family background, parents, peer groups, teachers,
education and culture influence the value pattern. Values are largely determined by social
structures and cultural patterns (Friedlander, 1965). When an individual reaches
adolescence and completes education, one will have acquired a set of predisposition of
values ready to be discharged, while one enters a profession (Shanthamani, 1977, p. 373).
Values system is an integral part of an individual’s personality structure. It is relatively permanent and influences his/her attitudes or behaviours (Crits, 1961; Rokeah, 1968). The human values, therefore, play a significant role in influencing one’s work values or work attitudes. The same work is seen differently by different people through projection of their own concept of values.

Chitakra (2003) believes that values are ideas, standards, principles, a moral code or a code of ethics. Values are the cultural norms of the society in which the individual is brought up. Hence, individuals imbibe them at a young age both in school and at home. Values influence and guide our behaviour both directly and indirectly. They scripted in our consciousness. Goel (2002) believes that values are formed as a result of the interaction of man with his environment.

1.14 NATURE OF VALUES

Education in human values is rendered contentious not only by the plurality of values and value systems but also by the divergent conceptions of the terms and processes of underlying the values (Ranganathananda, 1995). The sociologists emphasise upon the ecological aspects: role of culture, economy and polity in transmission of values across generations. However, the psychologists suggest multiple approaches for value inculcation, the cognitive psychologists place more premium on development of decision-making skills and reasoning (Kohlberg, 1976; Leicester and Pearce, 1997). While the behaviourists suggest concentration on the expressed behavioural characteristics, still others adopt a mixed approach such as combining cognitive and phenomenological approaches, which call for self-reflection and drawing meaning (Pant, 2001). According to Pant (2001) the various social science disciplines differ considerably
in the nature of values available for elicitation, and mostly those assumptions are limited by the psychological and context in which the researcher functions.

1.15 CLASSIFICATION OF VALUES

Values can be personal, social, moral, spiritual and behavioural.

(i) **Personal Values**: Those values which are desired and cherished by an individual irrespective of his social relationship, e.g. ambition, cleanliness, courage, creativity, honesty, punctuality, simplicity, etc.

(ii) **Social Values**: The values concerning to the society are social values, e.g. accountability, courtesy, freedom, justice, gratitude, love, etc.

(iii) **Moral Values**: Values related to an individual’s character and personality conforming to what is right and virtuous and moral values, e.g. honesty, sense of responsibility, integrity, etc.

(iv) **Spiritual Values**: They are ultimate ethical values, e.g. purity, devotion to God, self-discipline, meditation, etc.

(v) **Behavioural Values**: Behavioural values refer to all good manners that are needed to make our life successful and joyous, e.g. cordiality, friendliness, etc.

Values are always beneficial to both the individual and society. Values are detrimental to the individual and society if they benefit to a few and they can not be considered as values but they are disvalues. They arise due to denial or deprivation of basic needs.

1.16 EVALUATION OF VALUES

Education of human values is a very difficult task. It is generally agreed that education and training in human values is a developmental process and cannot be taught
as an exclusive subject of study. Nevertheless, it is important to make continuous
assessment of students at different stages. Certain components like punctuality,
regularity, initiative, enthusiasm etc. can be assessed by means of paper pencil test
techniques, observations by teachers, evaluation by peers, parents or self. Checklists or
institutional performance tests can also be used for the purpose of assessment
(Khandelwal, 2001).

1.17 VALUES AND LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

Based on the preceding discussion we may say that the role of educational
administrators with respect to values is to participate with teachers and students in
establishing a curricular and a school and classroom life, which promote values learning
and the well-being of those involved in and effected by schooling. But what room does
this leave for leadership? Given a democratic approach to value inquiry and school
renewal, in what sense can administrators be described as leaders in value matters?

The type of leadership that is appropriate might be described as reciprocal
leadership or contextual leadership. The term ‘leadership’ typically implies that the one
leading has greater knowledge or wisdom than the one(s) led. This is a very important
idea, one which unfortunately has sometimes been neglected by ‘soft’, ‘progressive’ or
even ‘critical’ pedagogues. Every time we go to the dictionary, for example, we are
appealing to some one else’s superior knowledge. In every day life time and again we go
to a consultant, teacher, friend or acquaintance because of their superior ‘authority’ – and
hence capacity to ‘lead’ us – in a matter of importance. But the crucial point to recognise
is that this leadership is contextual; it depends on the particular case. It does not mean
that in general the other person has superior insight; on the other matters, they may well come to us for advice. The leadership, then, is not one-way but rather reciprocal.

Now it may be true that certain people, on average, have more value insight than others. However, even if this is the case it is difficult to see what practical significance it has. For one thing, the research and calculation involved in establishing who is on average superior in values is so great that we could really be sure we had carried it out adequately. Secondly, and even more to the point, since values insight is contextual, it does not matter who across the board has more of it; what matters is who has more insight (and in what respects) on the question in hand. This is something it is not safe to judge beforehand, since value inquiry can take surprising twists and turns and brings us to entirely new territory. Accordingly, to say that in value matters of type x and administrator – vice-principal, principal, superintendent of curriculum or ministry official, for example – will definitely know best is risky.

Another consideration is that no matter how much general knowledge and experience an administrator may have in a value area, the individuals affected by judgements and decisions in that area will have particular knowledge and concerns which go well beyond the insights of the administrator. Hence, there is no escaping participatory inquiry into a value question. For example, a school principal after years of experience, reading and reflection may have deep knowledge about what kind of reading program will bring most satisfaction and personal development to the highest Grade students. But it would be foolhardy indeed to prescribe in detail the program, the mode of pursuing it and the particular life issues to be considerate, this regarding the interests, concerns, needs and preferences expressed by the students and identified by teachers who have
personal knowledge of the students. Curriculum development in value areas (perhaps in all areas) should be a joint enterprise of administrators, teachers and students.

It should be remembered, moreover, that the selection of an educational administrator is based on a wide range of considerations. While the writings of Hodgkinson, Greenfield, Sergiovanni and others (quoted in Beck, 1999) have made us much more aware of the importance of ethical vision and value insight in administrators, a particular administrative appointment may be made because of a person’s special capacity for community building, public relations, fund-raising and careful ‘management’ in somewhat restricted sense. The staff of a school or school board should constitute a team; if this is so, not all-outstanding qualities need reside in one person. Leadership in values may in a particular school come more from members of the teaching staff and student body than from an administrator, although obviously administrators have to play their part in the values arena.

It is true that administrators should in some sense be good at facilitating value inquiry. They must know how to ensure that it takes place in the school. But facilitation may take many forms, including at times “getting out of the way” so others have greater freedom to contribute. The facilitation an administrator provides in value matters may include making time available for value inquiry in the school and ensuring that people (staff, students, parents and others) who have special interests and abilities in particular value areas have the support they need to “take a lead”. Being a good facilitator in values does not require having superior value wisdom, any more than being a good basketball coach requires being able to play basketball better than all (or any) of the members of one’s team.
It is sometimes said that a major part of the role of educational administrators is to model good values. However, this idea has all the same problems as the notion of the administrator as the values leader. Of course administrators should “set a good example”, but no more than anyone else in an educational community. A heavy requirement of values modelling places educational administrators under too much pressure, and can even lead to their pretending to have virtues they do not have, which does nobody any good. It also implies that administrators have in general better values than those “underneath”, something has been argued is not necessarily the case. Finally, and most importantly, too strong a requirement to model good values can hinder administrators in their own value development. All Learning involves experimentation and risk taking, and if administrators are required to have already solved their value problems so they can model the correct solutions - if they are not permitted to express their doubts, fears, concerns and problems - it will be very difficult for them to grow beyond their present level. Somewhat paradoxically, administrators will be better able to help students in value development if they are co-learners with them rather than value “leaders”. The main object of value in the whole educational process and progress should be the pupils and their development (Nigal, 2001).

Having said all this, however, we must not forget that educational administrators have been placed in a “leadership role”, just like the captain of a team, the chair of a meeting, or the conductor of an orchestra. Certain initiatives and decisions are expected of them simply by virtue of this appointment. They are “it”, so to speak and people will look to them to ensure that certain things are done. But the implications of this should not be exaggerated. Their having been appointed as administrators does not mean that they
must be – or must be seen to be – wiser in value matters than others. Rather it means they
must see to it, in one way or another, that extensive value learning (including their own)
takes place in schools and that the well-being of students, teachers, administrators,
parents and others affected by schooling is promoted to a significant degree in and
through the school.

1.18 VALUE-BASED LEADERSHIP

While the previous sections describe leadership, bringing out some of the critical
competencies that are hallmarks of good leadership, it fails to lay stress on value-
based/moral/ethical issues in leadership. This is an intangible quality that goes beyond
mere technique. It is my firm belief that no person can really don the mantle of true and
lasting leadership without a strong grounding in values.

Throughout most of this century, educational leadership has focused on concepts
of leadership based on theoretical models from business management, e.g. T.Q.M.,
Quality Circles, etc. (Ranade, 2002). However, several thinkers have now begun to
express their dissatisfaction with the present concept of leadership, which stresses
empirical and technical aspects over humane considerations, and have called for a shift in
emphasis, towards the morality/spirituality dimension in leadership (Joshi and
Pushpanadham, 2002).

Sergiovanni (1992) says: “An overemphasis on the empirical and technical
aspects of leadership is not likely to provide … the insights necessary for successful
leadership in our schools. Preparation programs for school administrators . . . will need
to give far more emphasis to a concern for values”. Murphy (1995) and Bolman and Deal
(1995) have drawn attention to the signs pointing toward morality, spirit and soul as the
essence of leadership. Creighton (1998) points out that there is growing consensus that we need a new paradigm to move beyond the traps of conventional and traditional thinking. Or perhaps we may need to rediscover and renew an old paradigm: one that has the necessary humanistic and spiritual components.

Attempts are being made to identify the core values essential for true leadership. Clawson (1999) has discussed four cornerstones of the moral foundation of effective leadership, namely, truth telling, promise keeping, fairness and aspects for the individual. While the four principles can be distilled down to the last principle, “respect for the individual”, the four principles are different windows on to the same core moral concept of integrity in relationships. Covey (1998) has described leaders with spirituality as those who demonstrate a true “caring” for all in the organisation, so the approach to problem solving is synergistic, not individual. According to Creighton (1998), such leaders value differences and see them as strengths rather than weaknesses. They seek first to understand without the intent to manipulate others for personal gain. He believes that individuals who work to impact society and school leaders must be motivated by a set of deep personal values and beliefs.

1.18.1 Value-based Leadership: Future Perception

The influence of society, technology, economy and politics on education has been very strong and it will go on affecting in multiple dimensions in future too. In such circumstance the work of educational leaders has become much less predictable, less structured, and more conflict laden. Increasingly, present educational leaders encounter value conflict situations in which consensus can not be achieved, rendering obsolete the traditional rational notions of problem solving. For a better future, we need value based
transformational leaders. Educational leaders can be transformed as value-based effective educational leaders with the help of proper value-based approach. Take the extreme examples of Rishi Balmiki, due to a proper value approach transformed himself from a thief to highly respected educational leader (quoted in Biswal and Das, 2002). For a proper educational leader there is a need of proper value-based, which can be acquired through proper training, practice, exposure, experience and approach. There is a need of proper proportionation of pragmatic elements with traditional elements in preparing educational leaders, which is essential to our educational system to make it effective. Educational leaders should act as role models for the society and for other leaders in the society. To make and to create value-based leaders for educational system, there is a need of change in its approach and process. In the preparation of present educational leaders, there should be shift from Intelligence Quotient (IQ) to Emotional Quotient (EQ), from management to management by heart to make leaders valued.

In this context, a value pyramid of leadership is highlighted, where different bases of values are given which can lead to the highest value of leadership for effective educational leaders. There is need for understanding different other aspects of value pyramid to emerge oneself as a proper educational leader. There is need to acquire some sorts of values at different levels to become a post-conventional leader, as a post-conventional leader has to pass the stages of conventional and autonomous leadership. Details of values needed at different stages are discussed along with the value pyramid.

**Personal Values:** For the achievement of leadership, it is essential to acquire and to practice some sorts of personal values, which from the lowest base of the leadership value pyramid. The values include in this base are courage, curiosity, devotion, dignity of
individual, dignity of work, discipline, good manners, gentlemanliness, honesty, helpfulness, kindness, proper utilisation of time, punctuality, quest for knowledge, self-discipline, self study, self support, self reliance, self control, self restraint, simple living, spirit of inquiry, tolerance, loyalty to self, etc. These values would help a person to lead him/herself effectively.

**Societal Values:** Societal values come next to the personal values in the leadership value pyramid. Apart knowing and leading him/herself, one has to know and lead the nearby community and society. Societal values include here are citizenship, consideration from others, cooperation, common cause, common good, equality, humanism, national unit, national consciousness, national integration, peace, non-violence, patriotism, respect to others, social justice, social service, solidarity of mankind, sense of social responsibility, socialism, sympathy, secularism, tolerance, etc.

**Organisational/Institutional Values:** Organisational and institutional values come next higher to the societal values in the pyramid. These values are related to belongingness to the organisation to serve own-self and to the society. These values are duty, discipline, faithfulness, forward look, initiative, integrity, loyalty to duty, obedience, resourcefulness, regularity, sincerity, truthfulness, loyalty to organisation, etc.

**Administrative Values:** Administrative values come next higher to the organisational and institutional values in the pyramid. These values are needed to make a leader autonomous and creative to make his/her organisation work effectively. These values are appraisal of cultural values of others, cooperation, democratic decision-making, equality, equity, friendship, faithfulness, fellow feeling, freedom justice, respect to others, self help, self respect, self confidence, sympathy, team work, team spirit, truthfulness, etc.
**Moral and Human Values:** Moral and human values come in the highest part of the value pyramid. Without personal, societal, organisation and administrative values one can not achieve moral and human values to lead as a leader with leadership. These moral and human values can lead a person to post-conventional level where s/he can achieve leadership. These values will help a person to be free from social and political forces and pressures. Those moral and human values are purity, love, positive thinking, sense of discrimination between good and bad, tolerance, universal truth, God belief, God fear, helpfulness, respect to other, spiritual consciousness, etc.

![Value Pyramid for leadership](image)

**Figure 1.4: Value Pyramid for leadership**

**Leadership:** No other values are associated with leadership value. It is the only one value placed at the top of the leadership value pyramid. This step can not be achieved without other values given in the pyramid, as leadership is an empowering process of learning how to learn. This value can only be achieved with the achievement and practice
of other values in the pyramid in a proportionate. Persons with this value will be leaders with permanent followers.

1.18.2 Value-based Leadership in Iran and India Today

Today, practically in all walks of life, we see a paucity of moral leadership. There are not many people whom we can look up to as our leaders, or who can inspire us. There are no role models or people of outstanding calibre whom we would want to emulate. The present educational scenario is not much different. We see educational leadership paying only lip service to core values and beliefs such as honesty, integrity, commitment and responsibility. It is necessary to examine the causes of this decline.

1.19 THE CHANGING VALUE SYSTEM

In the millennium that has drawn to a close the world has undergone changes in mind and body that have made every idea which once looked unalterable and most satisfying, eventually redundant and even harmful. The result was that the 20th century became more a battleground of death and destruction than a haven of life and boundless happiness as the godless materialistic philosophies promised. Even seeming success in the last century has been a proven failure and the world is now bereft of stability and security at all levels.

Several factors have contributed to the changing value system. The major factor is Westernisation of society due to exposure through media – cable TV, TV, radio and newspapers. General awareness has increased exponentially. The break-up of the joint family system, increased literacy rates, one-up man ship, keeping up with the Jones’ and media advertisement blitz aimed at children as well as adults have made it a materialistic society. The number of potential officers who volunteer for the services instead of the
fighting arms has increased. A look at the civil services shows that persons opting for the customs and Revenue Services have also increased phenomenally. Is not this an indicator of the changing value system?

It is difficult for an honest person to win elections due to the faulty election system. The spread of corruption is also due to the failure of the judicial system. The common man sees criminals amassing wealth through illegal means and getting away with it. Cases keep pending in courts till they are forgotten, thus even the honest man gets demoralised. As predicted by Alvin Toffler (quoted in Chitakra, 2003), the pace of life has increased and will continue too. Things have to be done quicker and better. The temptation to grease palms to make things move is much greater as the value of time increases there is lesser time available for reflection. Time spent with children is reducing, as in most homes; both parents need to work to meet increasing expenditures. There is less emphasis on spirituality and religion and hence, the value system inculcated in the growing years is changing.

1.20 JOB-VALUE AND ITS INTERPRETATION

Work is an activity in which one engages for paying to make a living or to earn money the activity that occupied much of his waking day (occupation), the activity that utilises his abilities or skills in some social or economic enterprise (employment), the activity which he contrasts to do (job). Work does not have the same meaning for all individuals, meaning vary as jobs and people vary.

The concept of work is dedication to physical and mental activity, which results in better performance and results (Mohan, 1999). As enlisted by Friedman (cited in Sanghi, 1999), work is the meaning of maintaining a certain level of existence and also some
higher level or standard. It is a source of self-respect away of achieving recognition or respect from others. It defines one’s identity one’s role in the society of which he is a part. Work provides the opportunity for association with others for building friendships. Work also allows self-expression and provides the opportunity for creativity for new experiences. Finally permits one to be of service to others. Today it has been recognised that motivating human workers is not so simple. Human motivating is complex. Every person has certain needs, desires or wants, which he strives to fulfil through his work. Two individuals with different sets of needs even though working in the same job with similar working conditions and similar compensation would not necessarily exhibit the same level of job satisfaction. So it is important to know, what does the worker want from his job? Performance of an individual depends upon organisational support and individual abilities and traits motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, which leads to satisfaction.

Figure 1.5: Factors influenced on performance
1.20.1 Casual Factors in Job Satisfaction

1.20.1.1 Work

Work attributes that have been found to be related to work interest and satisfaction include: opportunities for new learning, creativity variety difficulty, amount of work, responsibility, non-arbitrary pressure for performance, control over work methods and work pace (autonomy), job enrichment (which includes increasing responsibility and control) and complexity. While each of the above factors is conceptually distinguishable from the others, one element, which they share in common, is the element of challenge. If the challenge in work is sufficiently great and is accepted by the employee, he should become both interested and involved in the job (Patchen, 1970).

Just as too little challenge can result dissatisfaction so also too much. If the degree of challenge is so great that the individual can not successfully cope with it, he will experience a sense of failure and frustration with his work. If the challenge is moderate in the sense that success is difficult but possible, then the individual will experience pleasure and satisfaction. It has been found in numerous studies that achievement on the task or success in problem solving or in reaching specific standards of competence is an important determinant of task and work satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Locke, 1965; Turner and Miclette, 1962; Vroom, 1964). Thus there must not only be successfully overcome for the individual to experience pleasure.

1.20.1.2 Pay

A monograph by Lawler (1971) has summarised most of the research to date on the subject of pay satisfaction. Lawler contrasts “discrepancy” theory the view that pay satisfaction depends upon the difference between obtained pay and valued pay and
“equity” theory the view that pay satisfaction is a function of obtained pay in relation to the individuals prescribed inputs and outputs in relation to other people holding similar jobs.

Factors that have been hypothesised to determine equity level include: (i) individual traits such as age, security, education and experience; (ii) individual actions such as effort, experience output quantity, output quality creative innovation; and (iii) job attributes such as challenge level of responsibility, time span and discretion. According to equity theory, these factors are judged on a compensatory basis so that an individual who possesses more of certain traits or works harder or has a more demanding job than another individual thinks he should be paid more money. It is clear that individuals who believe they are inequitably paid are dissatisfied with their pay. Equity theory also predicts that overpayment will lead to just as much dissatisfaction with pay as under payment. Laboratory research indicates, however, that individuals who are overpaid are just as satisfied with their pays as and not more satisfied than equitably paid subjects.

1.20.1.3 Promotion

Satisfaction with promotion can be reviewed as a function of the frequency of promotion in relation to what is desired and the importance of promotion to the individual. Employee could appraise the promotion system in his company as fair and yet still be dissatisfied with his changes for promotion simply because there was none. Such an individual’s value standard would depend upon his personal ambitions and career aspirations.

Alternatively, an individual might view the promotion system in his firm as unfair and still be personally satisfied with it because he does not desire to be promoted, since
promotion ordinarily entails increase in responsibility and work difficulty. An individual who does not feel up to such a challenge will desire to be promoted or will at least be in conflict at the prospect. Promotions, which require the individual to give up other important values, may also be unattractive to some employee (Bray, Campbell and Grant, 1970).

The roots of the desire for promotion would include the desire for psychological growth, the desire for justice, desire for higher earnings and the desire for social status. It is well known that business executives value promotions highly (Bray, Campbell and Grant, 1970; Campbell et al., 1974). This reflects the very high degree of personal ambition in these individuals. One who expects that self-esteem and self-confidence would affect the desire for promotion at all occupational levels, although his issue has not been frequently researched.

1.20.1.4 Verbal Recognition

All employees value being praised for their work and being given credit, which is due, especially by supervisors and colleagues whose judgements they respect. Similarly, most employees disvalue being criticised or not getting credit for their work accomplishment. Locke (1965) found recognition to be one of the singles most frequently mentioned causing job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction especially among blue-collar workers. Researchers using Herzberg methodology found it to be one of the most frequently mentioned satisfactions and also found it to be the fourth most frequently mentioned dissatisfier (using people rather than evidents as the units of analysis).

Another important fact of recognition for work is that it provides feedback concerning the competence of one’s job performance. The desire for recognition is
typically attributed to the desire or need for self-esteem or a positive self-concept. A motive for recognition that has not received emphasis is the desire for justice and desire for knowledge.

1.20.1.5 Working Conditions

Employees value physical surroundings, which are not dangerous or uncomfortable with respect to features such as temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting and noise. Moderate rather than extreme degrees of these failures are preferred since extreme cause physical discomfort and reduce one’s ability to work. Most of the employees also value a location of work place close to home, new buildings, cleanliness and adequate tool and equipments. Working conditions must provide all required facilities for the workers.

The basic principles underlying the employee’s preference for pleasant working conditions are: (i) the desire for physical comfort based on his physical needs; and (ii) the desire for conditions, which facilitate the attainment of his work goals. Both Herzberg (1966) and Whyte (1955) have observed that complaints about physical working conditions are sometimes symbols or manifestations of deeper frustrations and soon disappear when these problems are resolved.

1.20.1.6 The self

One of the relatively unresearched subjects in the field of job attitudes is the individual’s view of himself and the way in which his view affects what he seeks for pleasure on the job and how various job experiences and conditions affect him. The concept of self-esteem is clearly a crucial factor in this regard. Korman (1968) has reported that whereas high self-esteem employees get more pleasure from task success than from failure, as compared to low self-esteem persons.
The concept of self-esteem as affecting one’s satisfaction can be received in the light of modern attribution theories (Hyder, 1958; Kelley, 1971; Jones and Davis, 1965; and Weiner, 1970). Attribution theory is concerned with the causes one perceives for his success and failure. Thus attributed causes have a direct relevance to the behaviour in the situation concerned. The whole issue of attribution of causality is now being researched on a wide scale of personality theorists (Weiner, Frieze, and Kukla, 1970). Many investigators, (e.g., Lewin, 1968) have found that people tend to dissociate themselves from failure by projecting it on to external sources. This defence mechanism or what attribution theorists call self-biases is motivated by the desire to protect self-esteem against threat. On the positive side, Arguris (1964) has argued that individuals will experience pleasure with success only to the degree that they perceive themselves as casually responsible for it.

1.20.1.7 Supervisors – Co-workers and Subordinates

It has been found that subordinates like supervisors are “considerate” (Vroom, 1964) and “employer centred” (Likert, 1961). The term consideration emerged from the Ohio State factor analytical studies (Halpin and Weiner, 1957). The item in the consideration scale involve such supervisory traits or actions and friendliness praising good performance, listening to subordinates opinion and taking a personal interest in them (Fleishman, 1971). The item employee centred emerged from the Michigan Studies and has similar meaning.

While not denying the above findings, a somewhat different perspective on the issue is taken here. This perspective is based on a distinction between the different types of human relations; these types may be called Functional and Entity relations. In a
functional relationship the bond between two or more persons consists of specified services they can provide for each other, e. g., a Shopkeeper providing a customer with a product in return for money. An exchange of specific actions or material value is involved. Each person is valued for what he can do for the other rather than as an end in himself.

In an entity relationship the bond is between persons not services. The attraction is based on mutual liking of or admiration for the other person qua person rather than an exchange of specific services. It is typical for both types of relationship to play a role in determining the degree of attraction between supervisor and subordinates and among co-workers at the same hierarchical level specifically.

(i) Since the basis of a functional attraction is the gaining of the values, a subordinate will like his superior to the extent that he sees the superior as providing him with or helping him to attain important job values. These values can be divided into two broad classes:

(a) Task related values, interesting and challenging work help in attaining work goals, freedom from interruption, good equipments, etc.

(b) Rewards for task performance, promotions, pay raises or high earnings and verbal recognition.

In this model, the supervisor is seen as a value facilitator.

The concept of value facilitation would also explain the attitude of a supervisor toward his subordinates. A supervisor should value his subordinates. A supervisor should value his subordinates to the degree that they help to attain the supervisors work goals. The supervisors should like subordinates who are reliable and competent and cooperative
in accepting and completing work assignments. Similarly employees should like co-
workers who help them with their work tasks or to achieve some common goal and who
facilitate their getting rewards.

(ii) Entity relationships are based on attraction between persons qua persons, rather
than persons qua value facilitations. As superficial type of entity attraction to
other person will generally occur when that other person has a “vice personality”,
viz., when he is pleasant, friendly, polite, benevolent and the like providing he is
viewed as sincere. A more profound type of entity attraction, however, requires a
perception of fundamental similarity in basic attitudes values or philosophy
(Byrne, 1969). Individuals are generally attracted to and feel most comfortable
with people who are “like them” or “see things” the way they do. Certain actions
of one person toward another may facilitate attraction even though they have no
direct functional significance. One of these is taking a personal interest in the
other person. Example of such action on the part of a supervisor would involve
interactions with his subordinates, which were not directly related or required by
the job, e.g., asking about and being aware of his subordinate’s health or personal
problems, discussing personal matters, discussing of the job activities being aware
and considerate of the subordinates idiosyncrasies, personal tastes, preferences
and feelings.

It is logical to assume that the greatest degree of overall liking for another person in the
work place will arise when both entity and functional attractions are high. However, it is
clearly possible to like, e.g., one’s supervisor as a supervisor but not “as a person” and
vice versa.
1.20.1.8 Company and Management

The organisation can determine the nature of individuals work tasks, his workload, his degree of responsibility, his promotional opportunities, his rate of pay and the physical conditions of work. In fact, the organisation has more ultimate control over these factors than does the employee’s immediate supervisor.

The concept of entity attraction (as primarily explained) does not apply as obviously to the relationship between an employee and the organisation as it does to that between an employee and his supervisor, since the former is a more impersonal type of relationship than the latter.

Two other concepts have been used to describe organisational policies are:

(i) Role conflict, the degree to which role expectations are incompatible or self contradictory;

(ii) Role ambiguity, the degree to which role expectation are vague unclear or undefined.

Thus job satisfaction results from the attainment of values, which are compatible with one’s needs. Among the most important values or condition conducive to job satisfaction are: (i) challenging work with which the individual can cope successfully; (ii) personal interest in the work itself; (iii) work which is not too physically tiring; (iv) rewards for performance which are just informative and in the line with the individuals personal aspirations; (v) working conditions which are compatible with the individual’s physical needs and which facilitate the accomplishment of his work goals; (vi) high self-esteem on the part of the employee; and (vii) agents in the work place who help the employee to attain job values such as interesting work, pays, and promotions,
whose basic values are similar to his own and who minimise role conflict and role ambiguity.

Organisational consultation is an important and rapidly growing field of professional activity. Most of the published literature on the subject, however, deals with the private or profit-making sector. The organisational consultant and those interested in becoming consultational consultant and those interested in becoming consultants to public or non-profit organisation have had to rely either upon the incomplete literature on working in non-profit area or upon the literature about profit making organisations. Such a reliance can be problematic as there are a number of important differences between non-profit and profit-making organisations, differences which have major consequences for those consultants who were to be successful with either of these kinds of organisations.

1.20.2 The Public Sector-Private Sector Organisations

In order to improve organisational effectiveness, the sociologist Max Weber (as cited in Sanghi, 1999) proposed that all organisations operate in highly logical and impersonal fashion. Such a rational organisation he termed a bureaucracy and its main virtues were its cold logical approach and the exclusion of as rational or non-rational considerations form its operations. Human beings who worked in such organisation could readily be substituted for one another, as spare parts and the basic underlying value of such organisations was to operate in accordance with the logical and carefully prescribed procedures. Weber regarded bureaucracy as technically superior to any other form of organisation because of its rationality, efficiency and competence.
To-day bureaucracy has come to mean organisational waste and inefficiency especially in the public sector. Why? Apparently the private sector with its emphasis on task accomplishment and consequent profit does not reward those who follow “proper procedures”, “cleaning it through channels” and so on. Rather rewards and promotions are more likely to accurate to the innovative and task-oriented individuals, who find a way to get the job done, although the informal organisational norms are almost always followed. It is primarily in the public sector, with its innumerable volumes of rules and regulations where success is evaluated by whether or not the rules and regulations have been obeyed rather than by task accomplishment that bureaucracy has flourished. It can be noted, in this connection, that many very large organisations in the private sector (public utilities, e.g.) tend to be as bureaucratic in their organisational life as those in the public sector.

The major point of this digression however is that many organisations in the public sector are ordinarily not task oriented but rather are bureaucratic, especially well established “old line” agencies. This means that doing things properly is more important than getting things done in any approach, which can best be maintained in organisations without a profit motive. As Eddy and Saunders (1972) note, most governmental organisations were built upon and still conform to this traditional bureaucratic model. The focus is on efficiency and rationality, a pyramidal (hierarchical) authority system a differentiation of tasks into separate bureaus, sections or offices and an explicit system of rules and regulations to control the behaviour of all who work there.

Public sector organisations are subject to diverse pressures at many levels, what Golembiewski (1969) terms “multiple access to multiple authoritative decision makers”.

50
By this he means that public sector organisations are both responsible to and responsive to not only the executive branch of government in which they are embedded, but also the legislative branch, which creates and finds them.

Lastly, the mass media carefully monitor much of what is done in the public sector, determined to expose and root out bureaucratic incompetence and the like. All of these pressures suggest that public business is viewed from a variety of different perspectives and must be responsive to a greater or lesser degree, to each of these. In contrast, business and industrial organisations operate much more privately and do not need to be as responsive to such pressures. These pressures tend to make public agencies cautious and fearful of innovation lest they be chastised for being wasteful and lacking in proper concern for the public good. Further, there is a strong norm of “covering your ass” in order to prevent being identified as responsible for any such failures in such public agencies. In public agencies the top level of management tends to be filled by political appointment rather than by career service personnel.

Golembiewski (1969) suggested “habit backgrounds”:

(i) In public agencies there is “layering of multiple levels of review” that tends to centralise power and to decrease innovation and self-direction anywhere in the agency.

(ii) In government agencies, roles are much clearly defined than in the private sector and there is greater reluctance, to move out of what has been specifically defined as one’s appropriate role.

(iii) Military and defence agencies have a need for keeping their work out of the public domain thus the need for security has extended into all areas of government.
(iv) Government agencies have a tendency to stress procedural regularity and caution. In practice, however, this tends to mean a blizzard of paper work and profusion of signatures and counter-signatures and an unwillingness to be seen as the individual responsible for having made a decision.

(v) The concept of the professional manager is less well-developed in public sector than in the private. In private sector managers are brought in from outside the organisation with great regularity, selected primarily for their proven managerial competence. In the public sector the salaries for top level managers are significantly lower than those in the private sector.

There has been little attempt to deal with the relationships between personality variables and job satisfaction in theoretical terms and most of the empirical work represents an effort to establish a relationship between measures of adjustment and neuroticism and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a direct result of individual differences in personality, some people are satisfied and others are dissatisfied regardless of the nature of their work roles.

1.20.3 Job Values and Job Satisfaction

Many studies have been conducted to study the relation between job satisfaction and job values. It has often been proposed that job values can be classified as intrinsic and extrinsic, according to intrinsic and extrinsic job factors. Individuals can be classified as intrinsically oriented and extrinsically oriented. Individuals, giving more value to intrinsic than extrinsic or in Herzberg’s terminology to “motivators” than hygiene job factors, can be classified as “intrinsically” oriented and individuals giving more value to extrinsic than intrinsic factors can be classified as “extrinsically” oriented. If employees
in low level jobs rate the extrinsic factors as more important than the intrinsic factors, the conclusion drawn was that employees of low-level jobs would receive greater satisfaction from the extrinsic job factors than from intrinsic job factors.

Herzberg et al. (1959) concluded that job satisfaction results primarily from extrinsic job factors. According to their hypothesis, it can be predicted that those persons whose orientation is toward intrinsic features of the job would have a higher level of satisfaction than the extrinsically oriented ones. On the other hand (those who support this means that) the intrinsic factors are not necessarily a source of satisfaction rely that some individuals can be content with satisfying only the need underlying the extrinsic factors, consequently the orientation toward the intrinsic or extrinsic factors does not make any difference in the level of satisfaction, what really matters is satisfying ones own orientation. According to this view factors of individual differences such as need type, job level, age and sex are determinants of orientation and orientation determines which job factor would be satisfier and which would be dissatisfier. One factor can operate as satisfier in one case and as dissatisfier in another. According to this approach it can be predicted that intrinsically oriented persons at lower job level and in non-competitive job will be less satisfied with their jobs than extrinsically oriented persons.

Recognition is one of the principle sources of satisfaction. Recognition arises through the interaction of the individual with his superiors, his subordinates, his equals, his customers or clients or with others in his community. Herzberg’s line can not be accepted that supervisions and interpersonal relations are dissatisfiers, interpersonal relations are most important means for transmitting recognition, of course, the individual may not like his supervisor, particularly when he receives no recognition. Recognition
follows achievement and reinforces it, organisations have devised many forms of formal recognition. There are strong desires by individuals for affiliation and friendship. It is through affiliation ties that we gain recognition. The degree of recognition is likely to follow the status of the work role but all shares in some group feelings, hence satisfying affiliation needs.

1.21 WHERE DO JOB VALUES COME FROM?

Charles N. Halaby (2003) has proposed a theory to explain why differences in social origins, including gender and cognitive ability generate different systems of belief regarding the qualities of a good job. Following Miller and Swanson (as cited in Halaby, 2003), the theory posits two major systems of values, the entrepreneurial and bureaucratic. Actors mix these values and thereby form their beliefs about the desirable properties of jobs, by weighing expected returns against expected risks in the pursuit of opportunities for future economic welfare. Whether actors embrace an entrepreneurial or bureaucratic orientation is determined largely by entrepreneurial ability and attitudes toward risk, which in turn are shaped by family background, schooling, gender, and cognitive ability. The findings yield a big picture that is statistically powerful and theoretically coherent. The pattern of results is comprehensible, because it nicely complements what is known about the process of socio-economic achievement. The same early family and schooling forces that favour adult achievement and the same personal attributes that yield achievement advantages, also generate expressions of preference that favour entrepreneurial relative to bureaucratic job properties.

The most powerful sources of variation in job values are, first, cognitive ability and gender, and then years of schooling. The findings on cognitive ability and gender are
especially noteworthy, since evidence from other studies is virtually non-existent for cognitive ability, and uneven and contradictory for gender. The magnitude of association of these two factors with job values is dramatic: both cognitive ability and gender have a more powerful impact on job values than they appear to have on attainment itself. In both cases the proposed theory is confirmed: cognitive ability increases the odds of favouring entrepreneurial over bureaucratic values and men express a stronger preference for entrepreneurial relative to bureaucratic properties than women. The influence of attained schooling is not quite so powerful, but just as consistent with the theory: actors with more schooling favour entrepreneurial at the expense of bureaucratic values.

There are other noteworthy patterns. First, the socio-economic standing and education of the family have a powerful affect on the job values that adults express later in life. Parental education, occupational status, self-employment and income press in the direction of entrepreneurial over bureaucratic job properties. Second, the findings on the social psychological aspects of schooling and schooling itself add an intriguing dimension to the role of these forces in the attainment process. Significant others’ influence, educational aspirations and years of schooling, aside from favouring entrepreneurial over bureaucratic values, produce an especially strong preference for esteem over all other job properties. This creates a paradox, for social esteem has not been a theme of contemporary stratification research. On the contrary, models of status attainment and mobility are definitely not about esteem at all. Nevertheless, esteem does appear to be implicated in the value system surrounding attainment.

Beyond these details, Halaby’s (2003) study has revealed a new structure for the effects of social origins, gender, and cognitive ability on job values. The results
reconfigure the standard intrinsic-extrinsic scheme and thereby challenge traditional thinking about the social sources of beliefs about the desirable qualities of jobs. The conventional portrait locates pay and esteem among those other extrinsic properties like job security and fringe benefits that are purported to have especial appeal to those with less education and from lower social classes (Kohn and Schooler, 1969). But the evidence accumulated in his study points tentatively in a different direction: a preference for pay and esteem sits alongside the preference for “intrinsic” characteristics like autonomy and variety in so far as it too is rooted in advantages enjoyed by reason of family background, cognitive ability and gender.

This last finding must be viewed with caution in light of the numerous ways this study differs from past research. First, anchoring the analysis in the attainment model and the WLS helped to minimise omitted variable bias by supplying a broad and reliably measured set of family background and schooling variables, not to mention an excellent measure of cognitive ability. This last should be underscored, since cognitive ability has a very powerful effect and yet is omitted from virtually all other studies of job values. Second, he eschewed the job value scales used by most other studies in favour of examining simultaneously preferences for each of nine core job properties. Third, the use of ranking measurement model and the rank-ordered logic model effectively showed how the trade-offs entailed by expressions of job values are structured by family background, schooling, gender and cognitive ability. Finally, the 35-year spread between the data on preferences and the data on family and schooling background leaves little doubt that social origins have an enduring impact on beliefs about the desirable qualities of a job.
There is still a question of how the process that generates job values is distributed over the life cycle. To assume that job values are rooted in family and schooling experiences prior to the transition to adulthood and by the experience of gender and cognitive ability during this same period, says nothing about the mechanisms that link such experiences to expressions of job values decades later. The possible alternatives are captured by the twofold logic of direct and indirect effects that has been part and parcel of research on job values for decades. The direct effect is represented by the development prior to adulthood of values that may not only endure, but may “immunise” (Preston, Hill, and Drevenstedt, 1998) actors against acquiring competing job values later in life. Past studies, including Miller and Swanson, have endorsed the logic of direct effects as relatively unproblematic.

The effects of social origins on job values may also be indirect and mediated by the job conditions actors’ experience as adults. Over the last three decades, the idea that job conditions may affect directly job values as well as psychological functioning has become a stylised fact in the sociology of work. This view rests in significant measure on the research of Kohn and Schooler (e.g., 1973, 1978), Mortimer and Lorence (1979) and Lindsay and Knox (1984), all of whom used longitudinal data to deal with the bias that would be introduced to estimators of direct effects by self-selection into jobs on the basis of prior values. Yet longitudinal data cannot deal effectively with bias due either to endogenous selection or unobserved heterogeneity unless treated with estimation methods that were virtually unknown when these studies were conducted. Neither these studies, nor any others, of which we are aware, secure the claim of direct effects of job conditions on job values. Whether changes in job conditions bring in their wake changes
in job values is still very much an unsettled issue. Hence, the idea that social origins shape job values indirectly via job conditions must itself be unsettled and open to doubt. This reinforces the case for direct effects early in the life cycle.

1.22 SCHOOL CLIMATE

Dewly (as cited in Sharma, 1978) stated that learning is dependent on experience and the nature and quality of educational experiences are largely determined by the characteristics of the learner’s environment. Bloom characterised environment as follows:

“... we regard the environment as providing a network of forces and factors, which surround, engulf and play on the individual. Although some individuals may resist this network, it will only be the extremes and rare individuals who can completely avoid or escape from these forces. The environment is a shaping and reinforcing force which acts on the individual” (Sharma, 1978).

Baylay, Pace, Stern (1970) and others also view environment as a powerful determinant of behaviour. School environment is a powerful force and plays a pivotal role in the all around development of the student. School is a social institution where a number of teachers having different personality traits, values and dispositions have to work together for the harmonious development of the children’s abilities, attitudes and the personality as a whole. Needless to mention, interaction goes on among the teachers and between the principal and the teachers, which weaves an intricate and delicate web of the school climate.

Thus, school can be viewed as network of interpersonal relationships, with an interaction system resulting in a particular kind of climate, affecting teaching-learning activity substantially. The social climate of the organisation is the product of all the
relationships that reflect it. This climate results from the conscious and unconscious efforts of all who are involved therein.

It has been established beyond doubt that schools differ from one another with respect to their organisational climates and also to several aspects of teaching and learning. Research efforts in this area have great significance for promoting organisational effectiveness and teaching efficiency leading to better teaching-learning process (Ganihar and Sheikh, 1991). The atmosphere in which the school conducts itself is technically known as its organisational climate. The psycho-emotional environment in which the process of education takes place in schools speaks for their organisational climates. It is this climate which can be found conductive for the teachers to teach and the students may also feel like learning in it. The other side of the coin is that school organisational climate may work to develop an apathy in the minds of the teachers for teaching and at the same time it can prove to be instrumental in creating a distaste for learning in the minds of the learners. It may be said that organisational climate projects the nature of a teaching-learning situation that is believed to prevail in a school (Anand, 1992).

Organisational climate is reflected in members’ overall perceptions of policies, practices, goals and methods of goal attainment in an organisation. Climate presents how things are done and the way things are in an organisation (Sleutel, 2000). Organisational climate in the resultant accumulated effect of the ways in which the principal interacts with teachers and the teachers interact among themselves and with the principal. The interaction takes place within the sociological framework of the school (Khan, 1995). Organisational climate was addressed in the academic literature for a much longer period
than in the trade literature. For example, the terms “organisational climate” and “leadership climate” were used as far back as 1950s (e.g. Fleishman, 1953; Argyris, 1958 as cited in Glisson and Lawrence, 2002). More recently, the culture and climate of government, non-profit and human service organisations have received attention. As in the business, non-profit sector, culture and climate are thought to be useful in explaining how organisations influence the behaviours, attitudes and well-being of members; why some organisations are more innovative and quicker to adopt new technologies; and why some organisations are more successful than others (cited in Hoy, 1990; Barker, 1994; Schneider, Gunnarson, and Niles-Jolly, 1994; Tesluk, Farr and Klein, 1997; Ashkanasy, Wilderom, and Peterson, 2000; and Payne, 2000). The main purpose of these investigations was to find out how an organisation could be a success.

In school settings, organisational climate is of interest to administrators, teachers, parents and students as it has been found to affect many teacher outcomes, including effective behaviour, values, professional growth and satisfaction. School organisational climate refers to the overall atmosphere of the school that one can sense almost immediately on entering the building, which appears to be the key factor in determining “a school’s success or failure as a place of learning” (Pashiardis, 2000). Although it is very difficult to define this concept, school climate is a relatively enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants (administrators, teachers, students) and the one that influences and affects their behaviour concerning their teaching and the achievement of the school’s goals. Lindelow and others (1989) define school climate as the feeling an individual gets from experiences within a school system. More specifically, climate is the composite of norms, expectations and beliefs characterising
the school social system as perceived by its members. Although experts differ over measurement techniques, several systems for characterising organisational climate (by measuring staff communication patterns) have been devised. In short, the school climate serves a crucial role in determining “what the school is and what it might become” (Norton, 1984).

1.23 ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE OF SCHOOLS

One who visits few schools quickly notes how schools differ from each other in their “feel”. Even though the organisation of all the schools is the same, some schools are bustling and efficient, some easygoing while some are humane and a few hard and cold. In one school the teachers and the principal are zestful and exude confidence in what they are doing. They find pleasure in working with each other and this pleasure is transmitted to the students who are thus given a chance to discover that school too can be a happy experience. In second school, discontent is palpable, the principal tries to hide his incompetence and lack of sense of direction behind a cloak of authority. The psychological sickness of such a faculty spills on the students who, in their own frustration, infest the teachers with a mood of despair. The next school marked by neither joy nor despair but a hollow ritual. Here one gets a feeling of watching an elaborate charade in which teachers, principal and students are enacting out their parts, which seems to be smooth and even glib, but it appears to have little meaning for the participants. As we move to other schools, we find that each appears to have a distinctive “atmosphere” and “personality” of its own. It is this “personality” which we describe as the “organisational climate” of the school. Analogously, “personality is to the individual what organisational climate is to the organisations” (Halpin and Crofts, 1963). Thus, the
organisational climate shows of a work group its whole social system. When the workers find a suitable climate they work hard as it gives them a sense of personal worth.

Although there are inevitable variations in the personalities and behaviours of the people in any school, this complex network of social relations and regularly recurring interactions between different individuals and groups creates conditions in which the behaviour of people in the school can become closely interdependent. Especially, those in formal authority, such as the headmaster and those who emerge as leading members of informal groups of teachers and pupils can have extensive influence on the pattern of behaviour which develops and influences the behavioural norms. Individual personalities and requirements of the job interact to produce a climate that can be significant for both the individuals and the organisations. Thus, the organisational climate plays a significant role in promoting and achieving the organisational objectives, including academic achievement of the students. By way of its unique interaction with individual characteristics and personalities, a particular organisational climate could be stimulating or supportive or neutral or hostile or destructive to the academic performance of the students.

1.24 HOW ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE IS CREATED?

Figure 1.6 shows that the organisational climate of a school is produced by the dynamic interaction of four variables: ecology, milieu, organisation and culture (Owens, 2004). People, who work in the school as well as the students there, experience this interaction. Their perceptions of the organisations are inevitably moulded by that experience. They thus come to understand what the place stands for, what is valued and what is not, what is true even if unvoiced and what is true or untrue of what is voiced.
But although all of these subsystems have an impact on the formation of organisational climate, it is generally thought that they do not have equal impact, though there is scant evidence to support that widely held belief. However, there are the levers for change available to the school leader who seeks to shift the organisational climate of a school. Given the dynamic ways in which these subsystems interact, changes in one of them will result in changes in the others.

For many years, scholars as well as practitioners have tended to concentrate their efforts to change organisation on such things as restructuring the organisation, retraining the employees or hiring new people, building new buildings or using new technology. The expectation usually is that changing one of these will in time result in commensurate changes in other of the organisation’s subsystems and thus involve the entire organisation. However, by the beginning of the twenty-first century, organisation theorists as well as practising leaders were overwhelmingly in agreement that organisational culture is powerful in determining the course of change in an organisation. Not a few believe that it is often the most powerful determinant.

Robert G. Owens (2004) further described organisational climate as having four dimensions. The first dimension, ecology, refers to physical factors such as age, design, technology, size and condition of the building. Second, milieu, is the social dimension which includes all factors relating to the people in the organisation such as race and ethnicity, socio-economic levels, educational level of the teachers, morale and motivation, as well as the level of job satisfaction. Third, social system, refers to the organisational and administrative structure, i.e., how decisions are made and who is involved in making them as well as the communications patterns among people. Fourth,
culture, refers to the “values, belief systems, norms and ways of thinking that are characteristics of the people in the organisation”.

![Image](image.png)

**Figure 1.6:** The organisational climate of the school is the product of the interaction of the four internal dimensions, or subsystems: ecology, milieu, organisation and culture.

### 1.25 CHANGING SCHOOL CLIMATE

It is essential for a transforming school to offer to its clientele a best, positive and dynamic learning environment that nurtures change. The school head can make use of a number of instruments to study the existing climate of the school and make efforts to improve them. As one attempts to break the age-old tradition, there is a feeling of
uncertainty, ambiguity and risk among the staff members during the transition period. The head should be prepared for these kinds of feelings and help the staff accepts uncertainty and creates an environment conducive for mutual trust and risk taking.

There are a number of constructive steps that the principal needs to take up after the process described is completed. A comfortable support and understanding of staff requirements must exist before undertaking constructive steps in order to avoid the conflicts with existing beliefs and concepts. In words of Diwan (2000) this can be done in the following ways:

First, the principal can begin to build greater staff support for the school change efforts by reviewing existing conditions, policies, and practices in the light of staff attitudes towards them. A causal survey can be done for this purpose. It is essential for the principal to be ready to take prompt and drastic action to remedy the situation.

Second, he can engage in a realistic programme to build staff support. Such a programme may include the elimination of the causes of legitimate staff grievance or if this is impossible, the exploration of why it cannot be done and can include in the school’s new vision of itself.

1.26 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present investigation is entitled as “A Comparative Study of Educational Leadership Effectiveness of High School Principals in relation to Job-Values and School Climate in Iran and India”.

In the course of history, sometimes leader is introduced as a great human being, sometimes a person with natural or gained special characteristics. However, recently the “leadership theory” developed an insight required for leadership analysis, leadership
detention, to evaluate the leadership, position and limitation of leadership, stages and amount and ability of leadership. These concepts and investigations are distinct and clear horizons for studying leadership role of school principal. The space in which whole opinions, instruction philosophies and design of education are fulfilled is school environment. Relinquishment of extent, situation, complexity and advancement of school, it is the place giving the children and teenagers opportunities for learning and the direction of this instructional organisation is bestowed on principal charge.

Are administration and supervision the main tasks of the principal? Or leadership in school affairs into facilitate learning and teaching process, is his/her task, too? Whether the principal should influence the teachers to improve performance training and learning statement or s/he should think merely about slight affairs like a good secretary? As Hajari (1995) showed principals spend more time for office and performance affairs and they emphasise on office and superintendence role more than leadership role. In reply, we should say that it is by applying managerial leadership in an educational institution that teachers and students can attain the goals that in turn lead to individual growth. In other words, the facilitation of the teaching ability of the teachers and the learning ability of the students is possible by devolving leadership behaviours (Mirkamali, 2004).

A manager, who has leadership strength, enables others to spend their time to educate and to learn in educational environment without any exhaustion and conflict feeling (Smith and Andrews, as cited in Hajari, 1995). If the principals employ the educational leadership effectiveness and use one’s influence educational activities, the schools leading to success.
All the research findings on the effective schools confirm that the principals who care educational leadership role much and deal with school management as an active and strong leader (Richardson, 1993), administer schools effectively. Some researchers studied relationship between leadership effectiveness on one hand and job/work values and school climate on the other. Diwan (1993) found that principals exhibit leadership behaviour in accordance with the value patterns they hold. The behaviour of principals in making decisions in consonance with the beliefs they hold play a dominant role in making the school principals acceptable to the group members. Kumar (2002) revealed that work values of the principals is significantly related to administrative effectiveness. Power-based work value and job, freedom-based work value were found to be relevant aspects of effective administration. However, Burke (1982) claimed that there is no significant relationship between leadership and job satisfaction.

Weiss (1984) found that: (i) number of years of teaching experience might be related to instructional leadership effectiveness. Effective instructional leaders have taught more years than their effective counterparts; and (ii) number of years of administrative experience was also found to be related to instructional leadership effectiveness. Effective instructional leaders have administered at least two fewer years than ineffective instructional leaders.

Wafa (2000) found that there were significant differences between the leadership effectiveness of male and female principals. A significant relationship was found between length of management experience and leadership effectiveness of principals. Area of specialisation and educational level did not have significant influence on the leadership effectiveness of principals. Edwards (1991) found that there were no
significant differences between principals with respect to three demographic variables, namely, years of experience, educational level and age.

Some researchers postulate that leadership effectiveness is contextually dependent (e.g., Griffith, 1999). Leadership theories such as Fiedler’s contingency leadership, Hollander’s transactional leadership, House’s path-goal leadership, and Bass’ transformational leadership “understand effective leadership as dependent on the appropriate match between leader behaviours and the nature of the organisational context and the environment in which the organisation operates” (Griffith, 1999). Nazari (1991) found that leadership behaviour of the principals affects the organisational climate of schools significantly. Dhillon (1991) indicated that a significant relationship existed between leadership behaviour of the school administrators and organisational climate of the schools. However, Mahashabde (1990) found that relationship between leadership effectiveness and institutional climate was not significant. Bukhair (1978) also indicated that statistically there was no significant relationship between school climate and leadership behaviour.

The present study emerges out of the conflicting results of the earlier researches documented above, research gap as regards to the relationship of educational leadership effectiveness and job values, inadequacy of research evidence as regards to the effect of school climate on leadership effectiveness of the principals and as there is no specific comparative study conducted between Iran and India to know the educational leadership effectiveness of the high school principals.

Thus, in this study, we try to find out the relationship, if there is any, between the above variables – job values and school climate – and leadership effectiveness of the
principals. And also to find out the association between secondary variables like gender, school management, length of management experience and area of specialisation with leadership effectiveness of the principals.

1.27 NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Doubtless, as we are training teacher for each lesson and in addition to specialised subjects, we teach them, how they can use basics and methods of psychology, learning psychology and rest of the sciences, we must investigate abilities and specialisation of persons who want to co-ordinate and administer a school with some teachers and several students. Doubtless, all teachers should be undertaken persons and have necessary abilities and insights to identify instructing and teaching problems. However, in addition to the above qualities, our principals should introduce coordination between all elements of school organisation and should guide the personnel too.

The educational leadership role of a principal necessitates him/her to supervise all existing activities and micro-systems in school like curriculum, social communications, training accompanied by work, extraordinary activities and activities related to them; and makes firm separated micro-systems with the best way, till educational organisation be able to continue its efforts as creator to meet the person and society needs in relation to changing environment. Hence, school principals not only should reply to the staff and attend to their needs, but also in higher level should reply requests, expectations and needs of various social groups who includes the schools (Smith and Andrews, as cited in Hajari, 1995).

Students, staff and common people are supervising the school. School principal cannot sit on his/her chair behind the closed door and hopes fulfilling all work on time
and well. In other words, educational organisation cannot and shouldn’t act in vacuum, however, a strong, active and firm force should administer school and that force is school principal (Richardson, 1993).

School principal has the administrative and guidance responsibility of the school. Although s/he is not able to do all devolved affairs alone, s/he should has enough knowledge for leading the whole work aspects. Row and Dark (as cited in Hajari, 1995) suggest that organisational basic changes must be produced and a person as a services co-ordinator in ordinary and office affairs help the principal in order to free the principal to do educational leadership activities.

Nowadays educational organisation effectiveness is admitted as a principle and experts attention instead of old motto 3R (Reading, Writing and Reckon) is turned to 4E (Efficiency, Effectiveness, Excellence and Equality) (Bear and others, 1991). Substantially authorities and personnel of education are inquiring methods to enable the schools to act as an intermediary for another organisations leading to more effective, and the society will go into the growth and development way. This is evident that schools effectiveness depends on the principal's leadership effectiveness and that is necessary to recognise all organisational factors and to compare leadership styles with having in mind position too. Even based on some experts’ opinions (e.g., Mirsepasi, 1994) 40 per cent of organisational effectiveness is related to organisational right leadership and supervision.

Prior to 1960, it was assumed that effective leaders have certain unique personality qualities. Not every one succeeds as a leader. Only those persons who are endowed with certain personality traits are likely to succeed as leaders. Then came the behavioural approaches during 1960’s which shifted the emphasis from personality traits
to actual behaviours of the leaders and tried to identify those behaviours that make for success as leaders (Taj, 2001). Since this approach also could not stand the test of research, it was supplanted by a more flexible and realistic point of view put forth by contingency theorists, which emphasised that the effectiveness of the leadership is a function of an interplay between leader-behaviour and the situation in which leadership is exercised. Hersey and Blanchard (1990) brought into picture a third dimension, the work environment or the situation, which makes leaders effective or ineffective. Further, the path-goal theory and Grid concept of leadership and so on have added several dimensions to leadership effectiveness and have unfolded several other aspects of leadership, which make him either effective or ineffective.

In spite of all these developments, the accurate leadership effectiveness remained neglected, the same old leadership effectiveness style subject, which was being done before 1960’s to measure leader behaviour and that, which cannot discriminate the effective leaders from ineffective ones are repeatedly used by the researchers. Therefore, to fill this lacuna an attempt is required to study covering almost all aspects of leadership effectiveness (combining traits, situations, work environment, work motivation, etc.).

This study is related to three important variables, namely, Leadership effectiveness, job values and school climate. Leadership problems have become very complex. Shortage of high-talent managerial resources, several of job values and absence of favourable climate limit the ability of a school which can otherwise attract huge capital and increase effect utilisation of resources. The three variables taken for the study have their own impact and these are directly concerned with human psychology. On the other hand, these three variables are also inter-related with one another. Leader who perceives
the climate is to conform to his/her values, favourably tends to become highly effective in
his/her duties (Lehal, 2003). Many of the research efforts have so far been directed
towards problems related to policies and programmes, training and teaching, leadership
styles, etc., for improving productivity of a school. Although many studies have been
conducted individually either on school climate and a few about work-values, this study
is an effort to understand the concept of leadership effectiveness of principals deeply and
to study its relation to job values and school climate in Iran and India separately, then
compare the results of the study between the two countries.

This study seems necessary also, because, at the first time, it specifies the major
factors that affect on educational leadership effectiveness of the principals and with this
action, based on findings of this study, planners will be able to create a method for
schools’ principals to learn behaviours caused more effectiveness in leadership; and
secondly, since this research is conducted in the two different countries, educational
leadership effectiveness of high school principals is studied at least out of a specific
country and may investigate this subject in the international level to some extents and
results may used at least by these two countries.

1.28 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
1. To study the perceptions of teachers about leadership effectiveness of the high school
   principals of Iran and India and influence of gender, school management and
   professional experience of teachers on their perceptions about various dimensions of
   leadership effectiveness of the principals.
2. To identify the levels of leadership effectiveness of the principals in Iran and India
   and their association with gender, school management, length of management
   experience and area of specialisation of the principals.
3. To compare and contrast the dimensions and levels of leadership effectiveness of the principals in Iran and India.

4. To find out the extents of job values of the principals and influence of gender, school management, educational background, length of management experience and area of specialisation of the principals on them in Iran and India separately.

5. To compare and contrast the job values of the high school principals in Iran and India.

6. To study the perceptions of teachers in Iran and India about school organisational climate of high schools and influence of gender, school management and professional experience of the teachers on their perceptions about various dimensions of school organisational climate.

7. To identify the types of school climate of high schools in Iran and India and their association with gender, school management, length of management experience and area of specialisation of the principals.

8. To compare and contrast the dimensions and types of school organisational climate of high schools in Iran and India.

9. To study influence of job values of the principals on their leadership effectiveness in Iran and India and its comparison.

10. To study association between leadership effectiveness of the principals and school organisational climate in Iran and India and its comparison.

1.29 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

1. There is no significant mean difference on various dimensions of leadership effectiveness between principals of Iran and India.
2. Gender, school management and professional experience of teachers have no significant influence on their perceptions about dimensions of leadership effectiveness of the principals.

3. There is no significant association between various levels of leadership effectiveness of principals and the country to which they belong.

4. Gender, school management, length of management experience and area of specialisation of the principals have no significant association with various levels of leadership effectiveness.

5. There is no significant mean difference between principals of Iran and India on their job values.

6. Gender, school management, educational background, length of management experience and area of specialisation of the principals have no significant influence on their job values.

7. There is no significant mean difference on various dimensions of school organisational climate between high schools of Iran and India.

8. Gender, school management and professional experience of teachers have no significant influence on their perceptions about various dimensions of school organisational climate.

9. There is no significant association between various types of school organisational climate existing in high schools and the country to which they belong.

10. Gender, school management, length of management experience and area of specialisation of the principals have no significant association with various types of school organisational climate of the high schools.
11. Principals with different levels of leadership effectiveness do not differ significantly on their mean job values.

12. There is no significant interaction effect between country and leadership effectiveness of the principals on job values.

13. There is no significant association between leadership effectiveness of the principals and school organisational climate of high schools.

14. There is no significant difference between Iran and India on association between leadership effectiveness of the principals and school organisational climate of high schools.

1.30 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF CERTAIN TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Although a number of definitions are put forth by different scholars, the investigator has selected only such of the definitions which are operationally relevant to the present study.

Effectiveness: As Chester put it several decades ago, effectiveness is “the accomplishment of the recognised objectives of the cooperative action” (Taj, 2001).

Leadership: leadership is ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members” (House et al., 1999).

Leadership effectiveness: Leadership effectiveness involves a group process with the leader as the main directive element. It means achieving a productive use of human and material resources, at or beyond potential. It contributes to organisational effectiveness, or is similar to it, but differs in its emphasis (Taj, 2001).
Effective Educational Leadership: This leadership is related to principals who fulfil leadership behaviours in different educational dimensions constantly; and they will be admitted in the LES test.

Values: Values are ideas, standards, principles, a moral code or a code of ethics. Values are the cultural norms of the society in which the individual is brought up. Hence, individuals imbibe them at a young age both in school and at home. Values influence and guide our behaviour both directly and indirectly. They scripted in our consciousness. Goel (2002) believes that values are formed as a result of the interaction of man with his environment.

Job Values: Job values are enduring beliefs about job, which guide actions, attitudes and judgements beyond the immediate goals in any job situation. It is defined as eleven values of principals such as financial and non-financial benefits, opportunities for development and promotion, opportunities for responsible and independent action, job and personal security, type and kind of work, job according to interest and abilities, etc., which are measured by the Job Value Questionnaire.

School Climate: School climate refers to the principals and teachers administration, students, building, location and their influence on each other, the interaction among various role participants in the organisation. In this study, the school climate is one factor, which facilitates the educational leadership effectiveness of the principals.

Organisational Climate: In the words of Halpin and Crofts (1963) “organisational climate can be construed as the organisational personality of a school”. Analogously ‘personality’ is to the individual what organisational climate is to the
organisation. In this definition, Halpin and Crofts describe organisational climate as the personality of a school. The present study is an attempt to analyse the personality of the school, namely, the school climate. According to Sharma (1978), “organisational climate may be ultimately defined in terms of interaction that takes place between members as they fulfil their individual needs”. Furthermore, it is the resulting condition within the school, of social interaction among the teachers and between the teachers and the principal. Sharma clearly states that organisational climate refers to the interaction between the members in the organisation. Similarly in the present study, the investigator has attempted to find out such interaction between members of the school and between school and its members, namely, teachers and principal. In brief, organisational climate is result of interaction between members in the school.

**High school:** schools having classes VIII to X (in India – Mysore) and IX to XI (in Iran – Isfahan) are called high schools.

**Principal:** The principal is the head of high school and responsible for directing and running the institution. S/he has to act as leader not only of teachers but also students who all must see him/her as respected fountainhead of authority and competence (Luther, 2001).

### 1.31 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

A variable is that factor which is measured, manipulated and observed by the investigator. The variables involved in the present study are (i) Independent variables, (ii) Dependent variable, and (iii) Moderator variables or other independent variables.
1.31.1 Independent Variables

An independent variable is a factor, which is measured, manipulated and observed by the investigator for the purpose of determining its relationship to an observed phenomenon. The independent variables consisted by the investigator in the present study are job values and school climate.

Job Values

The concept of job values may be regarded as a special usage of the general concept of values and may be defined as the conception of what is desirable that individuals hold with respect to their job activity. Job values reflect the individual’s awareness of the condition he seeks from the job situation and they in turn regulate his actions in the pursuit of that condition (Kalleberg, 1977).

Job values refer to general attitudes regarding the meaning that an individual attaches to his job role (Wallack, Goodale, Wijiting and Smith, as cited in Havalappanavar, 1998). Similarly, Kilpatric (as cited in Havalappanavar, 1998) describes job values as the importance attached to the job in general.

School Climate

School climate was included as an independent variable in order to study whether it has any influence on the leadership effectiveness of the principals. It refers to the principals and teachers’ administration, students, building, location and their influence on each other, the interaction among various role participants in the school. School climate in the proposed study refers to the psycho-sociological climate of schools. It also refers to the quality and quantity of the cognitive, emotional and social support that has been established in the school environment. School climate has many dimensions such as
disengagement, alienation, spirit, intimacy, psychophysical hindrance, control, etc. In this study, the school climate is one factor, which facilitates the educational leadership effectiveness of principals. Various types of the school climate in this study are (i) Open, (ii) Autonomous, (iii) Familiar, (iv) Controlled, (v) Paternal, and (vi) Closed.

1.31.2 Moderator Variables (other independent variables)

Moderator variable is a qualitative or quantitative variable, which affects on direction or measure of relationship between independent and dependent variables. In the present study, moderator variables are:

Gender

It means, both male and female principals and teachers were considered in this study.

School Management (Type of school)

School management was considered as independent variable. The schools taken for the present study fell under two different types of management. The school climate could vary from school to school due to different types of management. In other words, the type of management could exercise influence on the school climate. However, the type of management could remain constant and could continue to be the same for schools under the management. Though there are studies in the field of school climate, no study has come to the notice of the investigator where the influence of type of management on school climate is studied. Therefore, type of management was included as a moderator a variable to study whether it has any influence on the leadership effectiveness of the principals.
Length of Management Experience

Total years of experience of the principal in managing the school.

Area of Specialisation

Principal’s qualification with specialisation in his field of academic areas. In the present study qualifications related to Education have been compared with qualifications with other subjects.

1.3.1.3 Dependent Variable

A dependent variable is one, which is measured and observed by the investigator to determine the effect of independent variables upon it. Variable considered by the investigator in the present study was leadership effectiveness.

Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership effectiveness involves a group process with the leader as the main directive element. It means achieving a productive use of human and material resources, at or beyond potential. It contributes to organisational effectiveness, or is similar to it, but differs in its emphasis (Taj, 2001).

1.32 RESUME OF THE CHAPTERS

This thesis consists of five chapters. The succeeding chapters are as follows:

Chapter II deals briefly review of research works related to present study.

In chapter III, methodology of the study, design of the study employed, sampling design adopted and procedure, tools used in the study and statistical techniques employed for testing the hypotheses are discussed.

Chapter IV deals with the analysis and interpretation of data with regard to factors influencing the educational leadership effectiveness of the principals.

Chapter V presents the summary and conclusions of the study.