CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

ROLE AND ROLE EXPECTATION

During the last few decades, the teacher has become the focal point of an ever broadening range of expectations. In as much as roles and expectations are concerned, they bear a close relationship to each other. The greater the variety of expectations focussed on the teacher, the greater the variety of roles he must perform. 'Roles' are bits or sequences of patterned behaviour that we have developed into familiar routines. They are based on expectations we have from ourselves which, in turn stem from the expectations that others have from us. Role can be regarded as the dynamic aspect of status Linton (1968). It is status translated into action Parson (1972).

People do not behave in a random manner. Their behaviour is influenced to some extent by their own expectations and those of others in the group or in the society in which they are participants. Each position carries with it definite prescriptions towards behaving with each other in related positions. Such ways of behaving toward others which are defined for different positions, are called 'Roles'.

Broadly conceived, role theory holds that the behaviour of a position incumbent is a product of both his own
concept of his role and relevant social interaction. Individuals learn that certain expected types of behaviour are appropriate to the society in which they live. These patterns of appropriate behaviour may differ slightly from one social subsystem to another but despite these variations, nearly all human beings learn that certain patterns of behaviour are expected in various situations. These expected patterns of behaviour are considered the norms for particular situations. Much of a person's behaviour is defined by such cultural norms. Expectations are not independently derived but are the products of social interactions. Thus, the family group, the community, colleagues, administrative supervisors, and professional bodies are but a few of the many sources from which an individual gains information concerning role expectations.

The concept of role has been viewed from many different angles. Gross, Neav1, Ward Mason, and Alexander McEachem (1958) have viewed role in terms of normative cultural patterns. According to them, the role can be best explained by what actors actually do in their occupancy of positions. Regardless of these views, there are three common elements in the various definitions: i.e. social location, behaviour and expectations. An expectation may be defined as "an evaluative standard applied to an incumbent of a position." Whereas a position is a social location, an expectation deals with how
the incumbents of a position should behave.

Lindgren (1973) summarised the essentials of expectations on person's role as:

The person who occupies a position is expected to behave in certain ways, and he tends to hold these expectations for himself as well as for others. These expectations are acquired through process of social learning and are reflected in the role he plays.

In summing up the concept of role, Levinson (1976) says that there are at least three specific senses in which the term "role" has been used, explicitly or implicitly on different occasions.

Firstly, role has been referred to as structurally given demands, (norms, expectations, taboos, responsibilities and the like) associated with a given social position. Role is, in this sense, something outside the given individual, a set of pressures and facilitations that channel, guide, impede and support his functioning in the organisation.

Secondly, it has been viewed as the member's orientation or conception of the part he is to play in the organisation. It is, so to say, his inner definition of what someone in his social position is supposed to think and do about it.
Thirdly, it has also been referred to as the actions of the individual members, actions seen in terms of their relevance for the social structure (that is, seen in relation to the prevailing norms). In this sense, role refers to the ways in which members of a position act (with or without conscious intention) in accord with or in violation of a given set of organisational norms.

Hunt (1971) states that it is a common practice to refer to that aspect of a total role construction, that refers to the behaviour of another as a ‘role expectation’. It would be perfectly legitimate to use the term ‘role expectation’ to refer to any anticipation of particular behaviour patterns contingent upon another’s occupancy of any given position regardless of any relationship to one’s own. Persons holding expectations concerning the role performance of others commonly strive to communicate their expectations to the focal person in hopes of influencing the latter to conform to them.

Role expectation, can also be defined as person’s stimulus and response. According to (Sarbin and Jones, 1958) the term ‘role expectation’ can be analysed on two sides i.e. stimulus and response. They also suggested the ways in which role expectation could be assessed. According to them, role expectation may be defined as a cognitive structure, inferred
on the stimulus side, from the person's previous commerce with
regularities in other's behaviour, and on the response side
from the person's tendency to group a number of descriptions of
actions and qualities together with the name of specific social
position. Role expectations may be assessed by an inventory
composed chiefly of actions, sentences or by an instrument
which taps qualitative aspects.

In complex and complicated society, each individual
is supposed to perform certain duties and each one is supposed
to perform some specific roles. If each and every individual
discharges his social obligations and plays his allotted role
well, then the whole society will work efficiently. Role is a
pattern of behaviour expected of an individual in a certain
group or situation. It is this role which decides what part an
individual is required to play in a particular situation or in
the group to which he belongs. His role indicates what society
expects of him and to what extent he is coming up to the
expectations of the society. Role may also be defined as the
manner in which a person actually carries out the requirements
of his position. Thus, a person's role is a pattern or a type
of social behaviour which seems situationally appropriate to
him in terms of demands and expectations of those in his group.
A role is a sum of the norms which are linked to a certain task
or position. It may also be termed as a set of socially
expected and approved behaviour pattern consisting of both duties and privileges.

Thus a role may be defined as a set of expectations. Or, in other words, a role is a set of evaluative standards applied to an incumbent of a particular position.

Literature in physical education is full of studies conducted on various aspects of role expectations held for physical education personnel. Mary (1968), Robert (1969), Wood (1971), Smith (1974), Bryson (1975), Webber (1975), Hruska (1976), Sutton (1976), Wallat (1976), Berg (1978), Smith (1978), Michael (1979), Jackson (1981), Bucher (1983), and Dempsey (1985), suggested the following roles, expected from physical education personnel:

1. Teacher
2. Coach
3. Guide
4. Friend
5. Counsellor
6. Facilitator
7. Motivator
8. Clerk
9. Administrator
10. Planner
11. Researcher
12. Evaluator
13. Supervisor
14. Care-taker
15. Task Master
16. Public relations officer
17. Discipline Master
18. Curriculum developer
19. Catalyst
20. Recruiter
Physical education is an integral part of the educational programme and aims to make the maximum contribution to the optimum development of an individual's potentialities in all phases of life. This is effectively achieved by placing him in an environment which will promote movement and related responses which best contribute to the purpose of education.

The broad objectives of physical education are to develop organic, mental, neuro-muscular, social, philosophical and cognition skills. This, in turn, helps to promote leisure-time activities, cultural appreciation, inter-personal relationships, self realization, spiritual strength, democratic values and understanding of scientific principles related to time, space, force and mass energy. Thus, physical education contributes toward developing a stable, balanced and well integrated personality and helps individuals to lead a meaningful self-directed and well adjusted life. Williams (1962).

The objectives of physical education are translated
into practice through carefully selected activities, well constructed programmes, skillful teaching, vigilant supervision, objective evaluation, timely encouragement and friendly guidance by the physical education personnel. The success of these programmes, by and large, depends on many factors like physical education personnel’s involvement, ability, interest and motivation; importance given to physical education in college education system, facilities and resources available and the college climate; perceptions of the authorities, faculty members and students about the physical education programmes and the role expectations held for the physical education personnel.

Thus, educational institutions are the most dynamic institutions which should keep pace with the changing needs of the society. They should develop in each individual knowledge, interest, ideals, attitudes, habits, skills and powers through their well integrated programmes whereby he can find his right place in the social order and use that position to shape himself and the society both toward, the higher and nobler ends. The attainment of such objectives hinges on proper organisational climate. Education plays a positive and prominent role in promoting social welfare. Unless a congenial atmosphere is created, the purpose of social welfare is not
ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

One of the characteristics of modern way of life is the great prevalence of organisations. They are created when a group of people come together to accomplish certain objectives that as individuals they could not do for themselves or could not do as well. It is apparent that such organisations, as educational institutions, hospitals, factories, banks and government departments can render a quality of service that could never be offered by individuals working independently. Etzioni (1964), stated that "We are born in organisations, educated in organisations and generally spend much of our lives working for organisations."

Organisations are unique. Each one has its own culture, tradition and method of action. Educational institutions are no exception. Each institution has its own personality which can be noticed by closely observing them. For instance, in one such educational institution, the teachers and the principal are zestful and show confidence in what they are doing. They find pleasure in working with one another and this pleasure is transmitted to the students who thus are given a fighting chance to discover that the institution can be a
happy experience. Whereas in another institution the discontent of the teachers is palpable. The principal tries to hide his incompetence and his lack of a sense of direction and, in turn, this psychological sickness of the faculty spills over the students, who in their own frustration, feedback to the teachers a mood of despair. Yet in another institution, there is neither joy nor despair but a hollow ritual. The teachers, principal and students alike are acting out parts. The acting, though smooth, yet appears to have little meaning for the participants. So, every institution has something specific that differentiates it from the other. It is this something that is called the "personality" of the institution which, in turn, is termed as the organisational climate of the institution. Analogously, personality is to individual what organisational climate is to organisation.

Organisational climate reflects the history of internal and external struggle, the types of people the organisation attracts, its work process, the modes of communication and the exercise of authority within the system. Just as society has a cultural heritage, likewise the social organisation possesses a distinctive pattern of collective feelings. In organisational climate, the focus is generally on the interpersonal relationship, between members and the organisation.
Each organisation has its own culture, tradition and method of action which, in totality, constitute its climate for the people. Likewise, a difference exists in educational organisations too, not only in their building and composition of faculty members and students but also in their individuality and in uniqueness. This individuality and uniqueness may be called as the environment, tone, climate or personality of the organisation.

Halpin and Croft (1963) defined organisational climate as "the personality of the school, as seen by teachers and principals in individual schools."

Organisational climate deals with the perception of an organisation on the interrelationships within the organisation especially between supervisor and subordinates; in reference to needs - satisfaction, goal achievement and is reflected as the 'personality' of the organisation itself. It may be defined in terms of interaction that takes place between organisational members as they fulfil the prescribed roles while satisfying their individual needs. It is the social milieu, the human behaviour or social atmosphere that pervades all activities in the institution. The constituents (i.e. the principal and the personnel) of the institution are comparable to the working parts of a machine which in turn corresponds to
its organisation. In the process of discharging duties, there is an interaction between superordinate subordinate hierarchy, that is the organisation. What strikes the public or the visitor to an institution is its personality or image which is the sum total of its traditions, tone, human behaviour etc. Organisational climate is influenced by two factors i.e. interpersonal relationships within the institution and external agencies administering it.

Argyris (1958) defined organisational climate as the "homeostatic state of an organisation composed of elements representing many different levels of analysis." It is a delicate blending of interpretations by persons in the organisation, of their jobs or roles in relation to others and their interpretations to the roles of others in the organisation Cornell (1955).

The organisational climate of an institution is an indicator of how well the organisation copes with the continuing need to change, adapt and at the same time maintain itself internally. The organisational climate constitutes the most important element for determining the nature, character, performance and functioning of an institution, since it can have a major influence on employee's motivation, productivity, performance and job satisfaction. Organisational climate
represents the entire social system of a working group. It affects each and every individual in an organisation. A pleasant, happy and favourable climate produces good citizens and responsible persons for the society.

Every organisation differs markedly in its climate. (Halpin and Croft 1963), identified six types of climates namely, (i) open climate (ii) autonomous climate, (iii) controlled climate (iv) familiar climate, (v) paternal climate, and (vi) closed climate.

An open climate depicts a situation in which the administrator’s policies facilitate the faculty members to accomplish their tasks. They obtain considerable job satisfaction and are sufficiently motivated to overcome difficulties and frustration. On the whole, they enjoy friendly social relationships with one another. A closed climate marks a situation in which the faculty members obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task achievement or social needs. The administrator is ineffective in directing the activities of the faculty members as they do not work well together. He remains aloof and frequently says "we should work harder." But his words are hollow because he himself possesses little thrust and does not motivate the faculty by setting a good personal example. The autonomous and paternal climates are
much similar to open and closed climates respectively, while controlled and familiar climates stress only one of the two major requirements i.e. group maintenance or task accomplishment.

Climate of any organisation (institution) is affected by the leadership behaviour of its leader (administrator), his personality, maturity, roles, and activities performed by him. It is the leader of an organisation who frames policies, takes decisions, sets goals and makes efforts to achieve them. Thus, organisations do not automatically function smoothly and efficiently, rather their success depends largely upon a specialised type of leadership.

Without leadership, an organisation is a muddle of men and machines. Leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor that binds a group together and motivates it toward goals. Management activities like planning, organisation, and decision making are dormant cocoons until the leader triggers the power of motivation in people and guides them towards goals. He transforms potential into reality. It is the ultimate act which brings to success all of the potential that is in an organisation and its people (Devis, 1972).

The organisational climate of an institution depends
more upon leadership than on any other factor. It is true that what can be accomplished is dependent on the facilities, equipment, personnel, and time allotment available but in any given situation, a good administrator produces a substantially better programmes and results than a poor one. The climate of the relationship between the superior and subordinate has significant implications for the motivation of the people in the organisation. Howsoever poor the performance of an organisation may be initially, a good leader can potentially help in the reduction of interpersonal conflicts and thereby bring about a marked improvement in its overall output and functioning.

Hence, leadership has real impact on the organisation as it stimulates the organisational activities in an appropriate way according to the prevailing conditions.

Leadership creates and moulds an organisation, embodying in thought, feeling and habit-the value premises of policy. It reconciles internal striving and environmental pressures, paying close attention to the way adaptive behaviour brings about change in organisational character. When an organisation lacks leadership, these tasks are inadequately fulfilled, however smooth the channels of communication and command may be (Eldridge, 1974).
Leadership is, thus, indispensable for the success of an organisation. A good leader can lead to the achievement of both individual and organisational goals. Without leadership, the group cannot proceed.

**LEADERSHIP AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR**

With increasing frequency, institutions are faced with such dynamic external forces that the choice is either to adapt and grow or to resist and stagnate. The key to managing in our rapidly changing times is visionary and path-finding leadership.

The term leadership refers to that process whereby an individual guides, directs or influences the thoughts, feelings or behaviour of other human beings. It helps others to arrive at a better understanding of themselves, of others, of the issues at hand, and to use this greater understanding to accomplish whatever common goals brought the members of the group together.

In other words leadership is that outstanding aspect of management which manifests ability, creativeness, initiative and inventiveness and which gains the confidence, co-operation and willingness of the people to work by organising and
building employee morale (Glover, 1958). The achievement of organisational goals depends on how effectively leadership is exercised in the organisation. In fact, leaders are the key figures who can so change the work climate that all the employees are motivated to work hard with the result that the goals are achieved.

Typical dictionary definitions of leadership include such description as: one who directs others; a person who goes before to guide or to show the way; one who conducts; one who has authority to preside. The emphasis in these descriptions is on guiding, directing, and presiding. Leadership is an affair in which two parties are involved: one is that which leads, makes such suggestions as are acceptable to others, acts as a model and gives commands etc. The other is that which is led, accepts the suggestions of the first party and follows its commands. The co-operation of these two parties is essential for the proper functioning of the leadership.

Functionally speaking, a leader influences the activities of an organized group so that goals for it are set and efforts are made to achieve them. Leadership emerges in a group situation. An organization needs leadership so that its functions should be properly performed. The functions of a leader depend on the kind of the group which is being led, as
also on the structure and the goal of the group.

Management of educational institutions implies leadership in education; and leadership in education, in turn implies efficient ways of achieving the institutional goals. Thus, an effective leader is one who can skillfully direct the programme planning process, broaden the programme to achieve more comprehensive goals, with emphasis on producing healthy life styles. He should encourage and enable professional growth and development and create a supportive atmosphere for the faculty, calling forth increasingly stronger performance by teachers.

A leader is, thus, one who enhances the possibility of attainment of group goals. Leadership may be viewed as a transaction between that person or persons and the group. For the most part, this transaction involves an implied interpersonal contact. The followers agree to bestow authority upon an individual. In return, the leader agrees to help the group to attain one or more objectives (Cratty, 1989).

Leadership can also be defined as interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed through communication process toward the attainment of specified goal or goals. Leadership always involves attempts on the part of a
leader (Influencer) to affect (influence) the behaviour of a follower (influencee). On the other hand, we can say that leadership is a process or function rather than an exclusive attribute of a prescribed role. The subordinate often influences the superior; the customer the salesman; and the group member, the chairman.

Thus leadership is a complex relationship that cannot be understood without considering not only the leader but also the situation and the persons who are being influenced (followers) (Gill, 1986).

Hemphill (1950) says that leadership is the initiation of acts which result in a consistent pattern of group interaction directed towards the solution of a mutual problem. It is the exercise of authority and the making of decisions. In the words of (Stogdill, 1950), leadership is the process of influencing group activities towards goal setting and goal achievement.

Thus, leadership is an ability to persuade or direct men without use of the prestige or power of formal office or external circumstances. As Hollander and Julian (1969) have suggested, an appropriate synonym and/or definition for leadership is the term 'influence'. An implication inherent in this view is that in leader-subordinate interaction there is
reciprocal influence; the leader exerts influence on the subordinate (or group) and the subordinate (or group), in turn, influences the leader. A second implication, of course, is that leadership, the exerting of influence may be inferred either through the behaviour of leaders or the resultant behaviour of their subordinates. It is the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find desirable (Tead, 1935).

Schmidt (1957) talks about leadership as the relation between an individual and a group built around some common interest and behaving in a manner directed or determined by him. Leader is a group member whom others follow because he has demonstrated mastery of the social relationship in the group and, as a consequence, becomes its center of living (Brown and Jenning, 1956). It is a relationship among individuals or among groups in which some people’s attitude and judgement carry greater weight than others (Pierce, 1955).

Kohn (1977) views leadership as getting people to do what the leader wants them to do because he has influenced or inspired them to believe that this is what they want to do. In larger organisations, leadership may be defined as influencing and emerging of people to work together in a common effort to achieve the purpose of the enterprise (Sachdeva, 1981).
According to Pigors (1935), leadership is a concept, applied to the personality-environment relation, to describe the situation when a personality is so placed in an environment that his well feeling, and insight direct and control others in the pursuit of a common cause.

Thus leadership is a skill involved in a process of two-way communication, a continual feedback. This interaction sustains the working morale and the feeling of personal worth of each member of the team, and is, in turn, sustained by them. It means fitting the situation. Fitting means expressing the wishes of the group, and aiding the group to move towards its goals. True leadership is characterised not by domination, but by service.

In order to have a clear understanding of the leadership phenomenon, we must abandon the notion of leadership as a trait and concentrate instead upon an analysis of the 'behaviour of the leaders'. In education, we often confuse leadership with sheer bigness. But this use of the term applies equally to either things or people and fails to take into account the central psychological characteristics of leader behaviour. The behaviour of the leader and the behaviour of the group members are inextricably interwoven. The behaviour of both is determined, to a great degree, by formal requirements
imposed by the institution of which the group is a part. For example, a teacher is formally designated leader of the children in his class. How he behaves as a leader is influenced by the behaviour of the children. Moreover, his behaviour is conditioned by the policies and regulations of the particular institution in which he is employed.

Shartle and his co-workers (1952) laid down nine characteristics of leadership behaviour, namely: frequency with which a leader originates, facilitates, or resists new ideas and new practices; mixing with the group and leading to informal interaction between himself and members; defends his group against attack and advances the interests of his group and acts on its behalf; subordinates individual behaviour, encourages pleasant group atmosphere and relationship among members in the performance of their task; takes over decision-making; facilitates the exchange of information; approves or disapproves the conduct of group members; and prods members to greater efforts or achievement.

Thus, the effectiveness in respect to one criterion of leadership is not necessarily correlated with effectiveness in regard to the other criteria. For example, the behaviour of a leader, who is effective in maintaining high morale and good human relations within the group, is not necessarily effective
In short, the behaviour of leaders varies widely from one leadership situation to another. In this connection, Hemphill (1949) in an elaborate and careful study, has demonstrated empirically that variance in leader behaviour is significantly associated with situational variance. He has analysed in detail the relation between the leader’s behaviour and the size of the group and has concluded that as compared with small groups, large groups make more and different demands upon the leader. In general, the leader in a large group tends to be impersonal and is inclined to enforce rules and regulations firmly and impartially. In smaller groups, the leader plays a more personal role. He is more willing to make exceptions to rules and to treat such group members as individuals.

The qualities, characteristics and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader. According to Boles and Davenport (1975) and Stogdill (1948), he must exceed the average member of his group in intelligence, scholarship, dependability in exercising responsibilities, activity and social participation.

Topping the list of attributes as most important for
leaders are judgement based on experience and awareness and empathy for others. By calling on past experiences and using sound judgement, leaders substitute values for unknown, missing or vague information, and permit the problem solving process to continue. Sound judgement is the glue which binds all the other components together to create a truly competent leader. Awareness and empathy does not just mean more sympathy for people. Leaders must be aware of how group members might feel under certain circumstances, an awareness that is gained from having previously experienced a similar situation. Other attributes which are important for a leader are flexible leadership style, motivational philosophy and interest, healthy self concept and ego, personable traits and behaviour and physical fitness. For a flexible leadership, three key styles exist, autocratic, democratic and abdicratic. Under most conditions the decision making of a group will be democratic or shared. In an emergency, the leader must be autocratic, giving orders and expecting them to be carried out. When the experience is progressing well, the leader may choose to be abdicratic, entirely delegating responsibility for the decision making to the group. Leaders are also held up as role models by those they lead and as such they must exhibit model behaviour when in the presence of their charges.

Therefore, leadership is not a passive state, nor
does it devolve upon a person because he is the possessor of some combination of traits. One acquires leadership status through the interactions of the group in which he participates and demonstrates his capacity for assisting the group in completing the tasks set before it. Thus, leadership is indispensable for an organisation to be a success. A good leader (administrator) leads to the achievement of both individual and organisational goals.

Studies of (Brickner, 1971) & (Hudson, 1983), show high correlation between leadership and organisational climate.

The present study was undertaken to find out the relationship that existed between role expectation of physical education teachers, organisational climate and leadership behaviour of principals. It was felt that through such an analysis, the roles expected of a physical education teacher would be clearly understood in the light of organisational climate and leadership behaviour of the principals of those institutions, and this better understanding will lead not only toward growth and development of physical education but also help to achieve the goals of physical education as a whole.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The present study is entitled "Role Expectation of
OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Following objectives have been taken up for the present study:

1. To study the relationship between role expectation of physical education teachers, organizational climate and leadership behaviour of principals.
2. To study the role expectation of physical education teachers as perceived by themselves and by the principals of their respective institutions.
3. To study the sex differences with respect to role expectation among physical education teachers.
4. To compare the role expectation of physical education teachers in professional and non-professional colleges of Chandigarh as perceived by physical education teachers and principals of those institutions.
5. To compare the organizational climate in professional and non-professional colleges of Chandigarh as perceived by physical educational teachers and principals of those institutions.
6. To compare the leadership behaviour of principals as perceived by themselves and by the physical education teachers in the institutions under study.

7. To compare the organisational climate differences as perceived by principals and physical education teachers in the institutions under study.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted in the framework of the following hypotheses:

1. a) Significant relationship exists between role expectation of physical education teachers and organisational climate.

b) Significant relationship exists between role expectation of physical education teachers and leadership behaviour of principals.

c) Significant relationship exists between organisational climate and leadership behaviour of principals.

2. Significant differences exist in the perception of role expectation held for physical education teachers as perceived by the principals and by the physical education teachers themselves.

3. Significant differences exist in the perception of role expectation of physical education teacher as perceived by male and female physical education teachers.
4. Significant differences exist in the role expectation of physical education teachers in professional and non-professional colleges as perceived by themselves and by the principals of their institutions.

5. Significant differences exist between professional and non-professional colleges as regards organisational climate.

6. Significant differences exist between principals and physical education teachers as regards leadership behaviour.

7. Significant differences exist between principals and physical education teachers as regards organisational climate.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The present study has been delimited to the professional and non-professional colleges of Chandigarh only.

2. The study has been confined to a population of principals, vice-principals and all physical education teachers working in these institutions.

The introductory chapter presents theoretical viewpoints on role and role expectation, organisational climate, leadership and leadership behaviour and, finally, the
statement of the problem, objectives of the study, hypotheses and delimitations of the study. The second chapter gives a survey of the related literature. The methodology and procedure for the conduct of this investigation are presented in the third chapter. The fourth chapter deals with the analysis of data and discussion of results. The final chapter, fifth, includes summary and conclusion. Bibliography and Appendix follow at the end.