Chapter -2

Theoretical View Point

Conceptual understanding of the variables has been presented in the present chapter in order to know the rationale of the variables selected in present investigation.

2.1 Notions of Leadership.

The society has never struggled with notions of leadership in such an interesting and complex way as today. Rost (1991) in his extensive historical review of leadership, argues that it is a concept that is rarely defined, a concept that often eludes who work in the field. According to Modgkinson (1991) there are over a hundred “serious” definitions of leadership.

Recent definitions of leadership that have influenced work in schools contain both the best promises for a new conception of leadership and the constraints and contradictions that limit their views. Among the numerous current writers influencing the practice of leadership in education and business are Peter Senge, Michael Fullan, Ronald Barth, Philip Schlechly, Steven Covey, Thomas Sergiovanni, Diane Dunlap, Harold Modgkinson, John Gardner, Marglet Wheatley, William Foster, Joseph Rost and Warren Bennis. Many of them are educators, yet a significant number, such as Senge, Gardener, Bennis, Cove and Wheatley have entered the field of leadership through business or organizational developments.

Definitions of ‘leadership’ have often been confused with definitions of ‘leader’ and the term is often used interchangeably. “The problem with the organization is leadership” an analyst might claim when referring to a specific person, ‘the leader’ most writers in the field interchange the two definitions, viewing leadership as the work of the leaders.
These are persistent patterns of process that characterize what leaders do or leadership is, whether a writer is describing leadership or leader, definitions inevitably fall into three categories:

What the leader does?

For whom or with whom the action is taken?

Towards what end actions are taken?

A few illustrative definitions from the work of these authors will clarify three dimensional analysis:

**Senge (1990),** “Leaders design learning process whereby people throughout the organization deal with issues and learn the disciplines.”

**Schlechty (1990),** “Leaders invite others to share authority. Others are those who accept the invitation and share responsibility.”

**Covey (1991),** “Leaders foster mutual respect and build a complementary team in which strengths are made productive and weaknesses become essentially irrelevant.”

**Barth (1992),** “Leaders make happen that in which you believe while working with all in a community of leaders.”

**Foster (1989),** “Leadership is reciprocal process among leaders and followers working towards a common purpose.”

**Gardner (1990),** “Leadership is the process of persuasion or example by which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group (followers) to peruse objectives held by the leader or shared with his or her followers.”

**Rost (1991),** “Leadership is an influence, a relationship between leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purpose.”

**Wheatley (1992),”** leadership is context-dependent and relational among leaders and followers with an emphasis on the concepts of community, dignity and love.”
2.2 Leadership Behaviour

Interest in leadership is practical. Leaders help in getting jobs done. For over fifty years social scientists have been studying leadership by analyzing group communication patterns. The research pattern suggests that two basic types of leadership behaviour emerge in most groups. The first is “Task Leadership Behaviour”, which directs the activity of group towards a specific goal. The second is “Social Leadership Behaviour” which helps to build and maintain positive relationships among group members. Leadership behaviour has also been discussed in terms of how the leader enacts the task and maintains functions. An autocratic leader makes decisions without consultation, issues orders or gives direction and controls the members of the group through the use of rewards and punishments. A participative leader functions in a more democratic fashion seeking inputs from group members and giving them an important role in decision making. A flee-rein leader leaves members free to decide what to do, how to do it and when to do it.

2.3 Principal as a leader

Leadership is not a position in an organization, but an active influencing force. It is not based on position or status, but on authority and prestige. It may come from personal enthusiasm, personal authority, credibility, knowledge, skill or charisma; it is derived from influence that the leader has on his followers. Accordingly, the principal holds the highest position in the school. The tone of institution is mainly influenced by the behaviour and personality of principal and it affects the attitude, academic environment, progress, cooperation and direction of efforts in the institution. In fact, principal is the hub around which the educational activities revolve. There is no denying the fact that school is essentially a cooperative enterprise, in which every member big or small, high or low has a vital role to play.
The principal is expected to act as a leader in the institution. The success of the institution to accomplish the goals depends upon the ability of the head to lead staff members. Leadership is one of the four functions that constitute the administrative process. Planning sets the directions and objectives; Organizing brings the resources together to turn plans into action; leadership builds the commitments and enthusiasm needed for people to apply their talents fully to help accomplish plans; and controlling make sure things turn out right. According to Fayol (1949) a manager has four main functions to perform namely planning, organizing, command or leading and controlling. According to Kotler (1990) the prima function of a leader is to identify the essential purpose or mission of an organization and strategy for attaining it. But the job of the manager is to implement that vision. The overriding function of management is to provide order and consistency to organizations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce change and movement. Management is about seeking order and stability whereas leadership seeks adaptive and constructive change. Despite the clear difference between management and leadership, there is a considerable amount of overlap (Yuki and Van Fleet 1998) when principals are involved in influencing a group to meet its goals, they are involved in leadership. When leaders are involved in planning, organizing, staffing and controlling, they are involved in administration. Both processes involve influencing a group of individuals towards goal attainment. The concept of principal as a leader dominates the recent researches on school effectiveness. These studies found the principal as instructional leader and as one of the several critical factors in effective schools. (Rutter, et al 1979; Greenfield 1982; Ruther et al.1983) Recent researches on high schools have also focused on principal as leader (Grant 1982; Lightfoot 1983; Sizer 1984) Sergiovanni (1984), maintains that principal is key function in effective schools in establishing goal consensus among staff and develop an institutional identity and he cited classic studies on organizational leadership that supports this view (e.g. Bernard 1938, Selzuck 1957). Thus, the concept of principal as a leader
is of increased use because the principal is a key factor in the educational effectiveness and school organizational health; It is a fact that a school principal's leadership behaviour has a subtle influence on the progress of school. The development and expansion of the concept of school administrations may describe a new set of expectations for school administration. Previous models for behaviour of principal that tended to focus on the roles of the principal as educator or only as an administrator now appear to be less relevant.

2.4 Leadership Skills

The leader must possess certain skills for the successful performance of his task. He would be successful to the extent he is equipped with certain managerial skills in getting things done through people. The term management skills have been used in this context to refer to an ability which can be developed and which is manifested in performance. *Katz and Kahn (1966)* identified three kinds of skills as technical, human and conceptual. An effective leader appears to rest on these three personal and basic developable skills; the relative importance of these skills varies with organizational levels. At lower levels technical and human skills are required more than conceptual skills. At higher levels, the manager's effectiveness depends more on his conceptual skills. *Koontz and Weirich (1998)* added the fourth one design skill to Katz's three skills. The skill involves the ability to solve the problems of the organization.

*Moshal (1998)* classified the abilities required to be possessed by the managers under five skills:

1. Conceptual Skills- It refers to an ability to visualize the organization as a whole system and form image and develop vision in the context of future environment.
(2) Analytical Skill- These skills are more related with scientific attitude and thinking on the part of manager for solving different problems and making decisions.

(3) Skills regarding human relations- The fundamental responsibility of every manager is to get the things done by others. It refers to those abilities, which are needed by the manager while dealing with subordinates effectively.

(4) Administrative Skills- It refers to those abilities which he uses for coordinating various activities, making effective utilization of allotted resources and getting things done by subordinates.

(5) Technical Skills- These skills refer to specialized knowledge and proficiency in handling methods, procedures and techniques for doing specific jobs by a leader.

2.5 Styles of Leadership

Currently, work on leadership suggests that leadership styles are either transactional or transformational. Transactional leadership takes place in an environment based on power relationships and relies on reward and punishment to accomplish its ends. Transformation as leadership appeals to “people’s higher levels of motivation to contribute to a cause and add to the quality of life on the planet”. It carries overtones of stewardship instead of management. Transformational leaders have following qualities:

- They have vision that needs to be implemented.
- They are emphatic.
- They are trusted.
- They give credit to others.
- They help others to develop.
• They share power.

• They are willing to experiment and learn.

Transformational leaders lead with both their hearts and heads. Recent researches suggest that transformational leadership encourages communication from subordinates, who are less intimated by their superiors and more willing to ask for advice or help. In order to understand leadership one needs to consider the major components of ethos: Competence, integrity, likeableness and dynamism. An effective leader is competent. This means leader understands the problems and knows how to steer a group through a problem solving process. An effective leader has integrity that means the leader is honest, concerned about the good of the group and places group above personal concerns. This means he or she is friendly and interacts easily with others. Finally an effective leader is dynamic. Dynamism involves being enthusiastic and energetic from classical to contemporary.

2.6 The theories of leadership

Since the turn of 19\textsuperscript{th} century many studies have been done and theories developed on leadership and leadership effectiveness. All of those theories have focused on what it is that makes leaders effective. As leadership in essence is referred to as the ability of a person to effectively influence the behavior (performance) of others, the various models researched and developed previewed efforts to describe how and why some people possibly influence the performance of others.

A frame work for the classification of these theories is provided here.
Frame Work for the Classification of Leadership Theories

ASSUMPTION ABOUT HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

What leaders are (Traits)

What Leaders do (Behaviours)
- Michigan studies
- Ohio State studies
- Leadership grid

Circumstantial factors
- Fiedler's contingency theory
- Fiedler's cognitive resource theory
- House's path goal theory
- Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory

Leadership substitutes

Transformational Leadership

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS (FOLLOWER BEHAVIOR)
Irrespective what the approach is, the way a person is leading others, is predominately influenced by his assumptions about human behaviour (Kruger 1995) and the reason why people work (Hall, 1994). The theories being discussed here range from “Great Man” or traits approach through the behavioural description of leadership to those being based on the appropriateness of the system with a given situation or context.

2.6.1 The Trait Approach

The earliest approach used in the study of leadership is referred to as “great man theory” and was based on assumption that more effective leaders can be separated from less effective leaders based on the fact that those being effective possess certain traits (i.e. intelligence, integrity) that could be related to success. The argument was that once these characteristics have been identified they could be used to select leaders (Schermerhom et. al. 1994). Although popular at a time, the trait approach has almost disappeared as a result of its inability to explain much about why relationships between some traits and leadership occurred. Individual traits do not predict who will become a leader and who will not. Schein (1980) reported that traits correlating with success in one situation failed to do so in next. Similarly no consistent pattern could be found by Bennis and Nannus (1985).

2.6.2 Behavioural Theories

While the traits approach to leadership studies was aimed at what leaders are, the behavioural theories focus on what leaders do to effectively influence the behaviour of followers. The hypothesis in these theories was that the actions of successful leaders differ from those of less successful leaders (Smit et al 1999). Unlike traits, the opinion was that behaviour can be learnt or acquired and that individuals could be developed into more effective leaders. While the search for key characteristics in all effective leaders failed, it became clear from the studies mentioned below that
effective and ineffective leaders differed with respect to their actions or styles of leadership.

2.6.2.1 Michigan Studies

In the Universities of Michigan studies researchers were looking for leadership behavioural patterns that result in effective performance. Two basic styles of leadership were identified mainly based on the amount of control the leader wants to apply towards “getting Jobs done” (Stoner & Frenchman, 1992). These two styles may be viewed as the two ends of a continuum, with any leader’s style being found somewhere between the two ends. The production-oriented leader mainly focuses his attention to the activities for which he is responsible through careful supervision and strict control to ensure subordinates to perform. These leaders apply pressure on subordinates to perform and pay most of their attention to outputs. Subordinates are merely seen as an extension of the organizational machinery and instruments to get the job done.

The people centered leader is less concerned with the application of control and more with addressing follower’s needs and development. They place much emphasis on the welfare of subordinates. The approach is that output can only be improved by treating people in accordance with the belief that happy employees are more productive employees.

2.6.2.2 Ohio State Studies

Similar studies were conducted at the Ohio’s State University which resulted in leadership differences being described along two dimensions, namely task oriented (initiating structure) and employee oriented (Baron and Greenberg 1989). Structure initiating leaders ensure the achievement of result and targets through closely monitoring and controlling the performance of subordinates. Typical activities associated with approach are setting and clarifying goals, following rules and organizing work. Leaders with an employee oriented approach prefer to emphasize trust and work relations are sensitive to follower’s feelings and needs. The
considerate leader believes in the importance of creating pleasant working conditions where people are happy, satisfied and motivated.

The above study found a high risk orientation leads to lower productivity due to unhappiness, absenteeism and low levels of job satisfaction. Although considerate leadership leads to higher levels of satisfaction, the researchers suggested a dual emphasis where the leader is high on both dimensions. This is possible because the two dimensions seem to be largely independent.

2.6.2.3 The Managerial Grid

Following the two previous behavior models, Blake and Mouton (1978) developed the managerial grid, a two dimensional perspective on leadership. The grid was developed to be used as an instrument for the identification of suitable styles towards which leaders could be trained and directed. On the grid a leader is positioned in terms of both concerns for people and concerns for production based on a score of one to nine on each of the dimensions. The nine possible positions on each dimension provide for 81 different leadership styles. The five most important styles are indicated on the shown managerial grid. The ideal style is considered to be top right position, where production focus is optimized by an approach of participative and democratic management.
2.6.3 Situational or Contingency Approaches

Critics of behaviour theories have indicated that no single style is equally effective in all situations. One style is only valid under specific circumstances (Smit et al. 1999). Good leadership is not only the result of certain leadership traits and behaviour but could also be attributed to other factors such as span of control, group norms and values, time and organizational culture and climate. Situational leadership refers to an ability of leader to adjust his style to the nature and requirements of particular situation. A few situational models are discussed here:

2.6.3.1 Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Theory

Fiedler started the situation based leadership research in the 1960s. Fiedler's theory applies the same concept used in behaviour theories. The basic premise is their follower's effectiveness is the result of a match between the style of the leader and three more elements in the situation, namely
1) The leader subordinate relationship.

2) Task structuring.

3) Leader’s power position.

The amount of control that the situation allows the leader is also considered. In this regard the term situational control refers to the extent to which a leader can predict follower's reactions as well as the outcomes of the actions and decisions.

In Fiedler’s theory task or relationship orientation is seen as a trait that will result in either directive or non directive behaviour, which in turn will depend on whether the leader has high, moderate or low situational control. Based on this perspective a task motivated leader will be non directive in a high control situation. In contrast, a relationship motivated leader will be directive in a high control situation and non directive in a moderate and low control situation.

Recently Fiedler’s contingency theory has been further developed towards a cognitive resource theory (Fiedler and Garcia 1987). In terms of this theory four specific situational contingencies determine whether a leader should use directive or non directive behaviour. These are:

The abilities/competencies of the leader or subordinates

- Level of stress of the leader.
- Leader’s experience.
- Group support for the leaders.

The issue of leader and subordinate ability has not been addressed by any of the previous theories, which makes this theory more useful than the others.
2.6.3.2 House’s Path goal theory

House’s Theory (House & Mitchell, 1977) has its roots in the expectancy model of motivation (Schermerhorn et. al. 1994) and is built on employee expectations. “Path goal” refers to how the leader influences follower perceptions of work related and personal goals (and the lines between the two sets of goals). According to the Path Goal Theory the role of the leader is to clearly indicate objectives to be achieved and standards to be maintained in the process and then to clear obstacles from the path. The basic idea in this theory is that people expect their leaders to assist them in achieving valued goals through clarifying actual paths to rewards (Baron et. al. 1990). It further suggests that leaders can adopt the following four basic styles which are not mutually exclusive.

Instrumental: The leader provides specific guidance and establishes work schedule and rules.

Supportive: The leader is focused on establishing good relations with followers and satisfying their needs.

Participative: The leader consults with followers and permits them to participate in decisions.

Achievement Oriented: In this approach the leader sets challenging goals and seek improvements in performance.

Schermerhorn et. al. (1994) reported that the Path Goal Theory has attracted notable amount of research and it presents some specific implications. Firstly leadership behaviour could be changed through training to fit the situational contingencies. Secondly, It is also possible to teach a leader to diagnose the situation and then to change the contingencies.
2.6.3.3 Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership Theory

The well known Situational Leadership Model (also known as Life Cycle Theory) of *Hersey and Blanchard (1988)* complements the view of other contingency approaches that there is no single best way of leading follower. In situational contingencies particular emphasis is placed on the maturity level or readiness state of the follower. The best leadership style in a given situation is determined by two dimensions namely task related ability and motivation (achievement drive and willingness to accept responsibility and accomplish tasks) and develop in four phases. Through the model it is argued that the readiness of followers to perform tasks prompt leaders to adjust their orientation in terms of task behaviours or relationship behaviour.

Different combinations of tasks and relationship behaviour result in four leadership styles, each representing a “best choice” of style for each of four different readiness levels. Table indicates the phases of maturity development and the style appropriate to each follower readiness level. The situational leadership theory suggests that the effective leader is flexible and able to accurately diagnose situational demands and to assess changes in levels of follower readiness towards maturity. He then adapts his style accordingly.
Leadership styles according to follower maturity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Style</th>
<th>Follower Readiness</th>
<th>Behavioural Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Telling</td>
<td>Low Follower Readiness</td>
<td>A high task focus ensures the definition of roles for followers who are unable and unwilling to take responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling</td>
<td>Low to moderate readiness</td>
<td>Both task direction and personal support are high for followers who are unable but willing to take up responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating</td>
<td>Moderate to high readiness</td>
<td>Supportive behaviour with a lower task focus is provided to followers being able but unwilling. Through involvement in decision making process the motivation levels of followers are increased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegating</td>
<td>High Readiness</td>
<td>Low levels of both task direction and personal support are provided when followers are willing and able to perform the task.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mersey et. al. (1988) argue that a leadership style having been adopted to follower readiness, will not only lead to increased motivation but will also promote higher levels of maturity which in turn will require less leader control and supervision. More participation and freedom to solve problems independently can be allowed.

2.7 Leadership Substitutes

The substitutes for leadership perspective argue that, because of the existence of certain individuals, job and organizational variables,
hierarchical leadership may sometime make no difference (Kerr & Jermier 1978). These variables called substitutes for leadership often replace the influence of the leader. Leaders then become mere figure head with little or no impact on follower behaviour. Kerr et. al. (1978) refers to four variables being able to substitute leader influence:

- A high level of subordinate knowledge & experience
- Highly structured jobs.
- High levels of cohesiveness amongst employees.
- Technology associated with certain jobs.

Schermerhorn et. al. (1994) describes the substitute for leadership as a more generalized version of situational approaches. The distinctive difference between the two, however, is that the substitute perspective assumes that in some cases leadership becomes unnecessary and has no impact because it is replaced by other variables as mentioned above.

2.8 Transformational Leadership

The development of followers to their full potential is a primary concern for the transformational leaders. Superior leadership occurs when leaders elevate employee interests and generate awareness and acceptance of group mission and purposes (Bass 1990). Transformational leader is much more future oriented and fosters an organizational culture of creative changes and growth (Negin 2000) cites three important criteria for leaders to be transformational.

- They should manifest model values and advance for standards of good conduct.
- They work to achieve end values.
- They have a positive impact on the people whose lives they touch.
Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino (1991:10) characterize transformational leaders by four separate components or characteristics i.e. individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence.

2.9 Attitude

Attitudes are powerful sources of motivation and are capable of arousing and sustaining concentrated efforts. They determine our pattern of life as well as our success and happiness. Attitudes can be defined within two conceptual frameworks depending upon the desire of emphasis. In the first theoretical approach the emphasis is to ‘set to respond’. Good (1959) defined attitude as “a readiness to reaction towards or against some situation, person or thing in a particular manner e.g. love or hate”. According to Newcomb (1948), “attitude is not a response but a more or less persistent set to respond in a given way to an object or situation”. It is organized and consistent manner of thinking, feeling and reaction with regard to one’s environment. Likewise, Drever (1961) conceives of attitudes as “a more or less stable set of disposition of a certain kind of experience or readiness with wider sense of tendency to appreciate or produce artistic results or social duties or social opinions. Thus environment plays a vital role in framing one’s attitude. Wegner and Vallancher (1977) define attitude by saying, “Attitude is not a behaviour in any observable sense, it is an anticipation of behaviour”.

Attitudes also vary in quality and intensity on a continuum from positive through neutral to negative as reported by Kretch et al. (1962) and McDonald (1965) who regard attitude as “a disposition of an act in a positive or negative way towards persons, objects, ideas and events”.

Sampson (1976) opined that, “An attitude is an underlying positive or negative evaluation of some objects. A person with a particular attitude towards an object is assumed to behave favorably or unfavorably towards that object.”
In the conceptual framework, attitudes refer to a subjective or mental state of preparation for actions, thus containing cognitive, affective and behavioural components. Allport (1935) defines attitude “as a mental and neutral state of readiness organized through experience, exerting a directive and dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related”. Laycock and Munro (1966) conceived emotional, intellectual and motivational components of attitude.

Park (1931) suggests that (1) Attitude must have definite orientation in the world of objects or values and in this respect it differs from simple and conditional reflexes. (2) It must not completely be an automatic and routine type of conduct, but must display some tension even when latent.(3) It varies in intensity sometimes being predominant and sometimes relatively ineffective.(4) It is rooted in experience and thus it has positive or negative value.

Green (1954) mentions four different dimensions of attitude viz (1) Favorableness(2) Intensity (3) Salience and(4) Generality.

Anderson (1981) studied attitudes in relation to their affective domain and gave four essential features

(1) Emotion: Which includes preparedness or readiness, as mentioned by Allport and Chave who defined attitude as a complex of feelings, desires, fears, convictions, prejudices or tendencies towards an object or person.

(2) Consistency: If preparedness or readiness is activated in the presence of related objects and situations; consistency of activation is clearly implied.

(3) Target: When attitudes are related to particular objects, situations, ideas and experiences; they can be summed up under the general level 'target'.
Directions: This is concerned with the positive or negative orientation of the emotions or feelings towards the target. Differences in orientations are expressed in terms of bipolar objectives which indicate favorable and unfavorable directions.

An attitude, thus, may be described as an enduring organization of beliefs and a learned tendency to react favorably or unfavorably, varying in degree to certain class of objects which determine the actual and potential responses of an individual. As the individual grows, his cognitions, feelings and action-tendencies with respect to various objects in his psychological world become organized into an enduring system called attitudes. Attitudes tend to spread from one situation or object to related situations growing wider and wider areas. Harsh words used by teacher in an attempt to teach the subject will lead to dislike of subject and teacher. In such a situation, learning experience may have serious repercussions on individual’s whole life. This necessitates that the teachers in order to avoid such situations must know the general nature of attitude and the process by which they are formed. This will help the teacher in developing and reinforcing favorable positive attitude among students.

2.10 Attitude Formation

There are four major methods of attitude formation namely 1) Conditioning and reinforcement 2) Incentive and conflict. 3) Functionalism. 4) Cognitive consistency representing different theoretical orientations and differing primarily in the factors they emphasize when explaining attitude formation and change in attitude formation has been viewed by Freeman, Carlsmith and Sears (1974).

Conditioning and reinforcement method predicts the relationship between a given independent variable and attitude change in terms of known relationship of that independent variable to learning, on the assumption that the relationship of that independent variable to attitude change will follow from its relationship to the learning mediators. Thus
attitudes are considered to be acquired in the same way as facts, concepts, ideologies, ways of thinking and habits are acquired. We learn facts but we also learn emotions associated with them. It is pairing of the facts with emotions that result in the development of attitudes. In developing an attitude the individual acquires information and feelings by the process of association, reinforcement and initiation.

According to incentive and conflict approach, the relative strength of these incentives determines this attitude. If the initial attitude was negative, it would become positive only if there was a greater incentive for taking this new positive than for maintaining the original one. When there are conflicting goals the individual adopts the position that maximizes his gains.

The functional approach states that attitudes are formed because they meet particular psychological needs and functions. Smith, Bruner, white (1950) Katz and Stotland (1959) and Katz (1960) have identified four most crucial functions

a) The instrumental, adjustive utilitarian function.

b) The ego defensive function.

c) The value expressive function

d) The knowledge function.

The cognitive consistency method of attitude development and change envisages that given in consistency, people tend to change towards consistency. (New Comb 1953). Although people need not be consistent in every thing they do or say, contradictions produce conflicts, tension and anxiety until there is resolution. Heider (1958) stated that attitudes towards persons and casual unit formations influence each other.
2.11 Models of Attitude Change

There are three major psychological theories or models of attitude change:

Frueedian Psychoanalysis Model

Congruity Model and

Balanced Model.

Freud’s Model (1953-1954) described the internal conflict which ranges within the individual, particularly between id, ego and superego. Psychoanalysis seemed to be primarily concerned with generating some sort of balance between aggressiveness and sexuality of the id and the guilt of superego. But neither Freudian Psychological theory nor Psychoanalysis as therapy explains very well the many cases in which patients become fairly well reconciled to what has happened to them as children and change their interpersonal styles but still find themselves in considerable conflict.

The congruity model was developed by Osgood et. al. (1957). It is used to explain the nature and degree of attitude change we undergo when we experience attitudes which are inconsistent with our own. We try to reduce the dissociation by making the inconsistent attitude more congruent. The congruity model predicts that the size of the change is inversely proportional to the degree of polarization.

The balance model deals with the relationship of attitudes (Abelson and Rosenberg 1958) imbalance and thereby the opportunity for change. Rosenberg et. al. (1960) suggest an additional alternative which does not really restore balance but at least disassociates belief and friendship so that both survive. The technique is called Compartmentalization- you stop thinking about the additional imbalance you have fallen into.
2.12 Attitude towards Teaching

People’s Attitude towards their profession has a deep impact on their performance. It is equally true for the profession of teaching. In order to understand teacher’s attitude towards teaching in its correct perspective, it seems pertinent here to ascertain various definitions of teaching and put them into some order. *Highets (1950)* views teaching as an act in which turn is dependent on certain variables such as liking for and understanding pupils’ knowledge of the subject matter along with planning and preparation for its presentation, the environment in which teaching learning process is taking place and certain other attributes of the teacher. Thus, teaching is a system of action intended to include or facilitate learning.

American Educational Research Association Commission in ‘Handbook of Research on Teaching’ (1962) suggests teaching is a form of interpersonal influence aimed at changing the behaviour potential of another person. *Adaralegble (1971)* includes teacher source variables e.g. his self concept, intelligence, adjustment, creativity, personality needs, interests, motivation, attitudes, values, abilities capacities, knowledge and understanding; pupil source variables i.e. the pupil as a person, learner and a member of a group, his abilities, capacities, attitudes, values, interests and physical-physiological and learning factors and the environment source variables that are external to both the teacher and the student at the same time exert an effect on the teacher and that is the teaching learning process, the pupil such as aims and objectives of teaching ;the subject contents; teaching aids, techniques of teaching, the work load, the larger community influences and instructionally related factors that affect policy, organization, facilities and financing.

Teaching may be characterized as an activity aimed at the achievement of learning and practiced in such a manner as to respect the student’s intellectual integrity and capacity for independent judgment. Aim of teacher is to get students do things that will result in learning and ultimately attaining educational goals. In this process, teacher works with
pupils in different roles. Sometimes he is a decision maker, sometimes he behaves like an instructor, and in some other situations he plays a role of guide. In this context, teaching may be defined as decision making, instruction, guidance or direction. According to McDonalds (1959) “Teacher is a decision maker who on the basis of his evaluation of pupil’s readiness for learning or present status in learning organizes a learning experience which leads the pupil to new differentiations and new integration of behaviour”.

Teaching is like a tree, one should wait for a long time for the tree to finally mature. In Gundersen’s paper it was claimed that the longer the delay between an action and its results, the more challenging the task (Gundersen 2004). By this standard, teaching is one of the most demanding jobs as the teachers need a long time to see the results of their actions on students Scriven (1974) concludes that good teaching not only makes significance contributions to meet educational needs of a students and society, but must also be reasonably effective as compared to available teaching alternatives. It is in this context that in attitude towards teaching assumes a significant relevance for the present study. In teaching how a teacher performs his duty as a teacher depends to great extent on his attitude, values and beliefs. A positive favourable attitude makes the work not easier but also satisfying and professionally rewarding. A negative unfavourable attitude makes the teaching task harder, more tedious and unpleasant. Thus attitude towards teaching has deep impact on the process of teaching. The relationship between attitudes and teaching practice can be summarized as follows (Smith 1999)
When the cycle is examined, it can be obviously understood that teachers’ attitude towards profession has an effect not only on their teaching practice but also on their students’ attitudes and achievements. If the teacher has dominating and autocratic attitudes, the children are likely to be aggressive or over submissive. They show little pride in their work and do not cooperate well with one another. In classroom where teacher has democratic and socially integrative attitude, the children feel relaxed and friendly, they work well together and they are interested in what they are doing. A warm, sympathetic, friendly and understanding teacher is more likely to have a positive influence on students as compared to the one who is cold, unfriendly and autocratic.

Attitude towards teaching in this study, was operationalised as the degree of positive or negative feelings of teacher towards teaching and teacher’s predisposition to act favourably or unfavourably on six point scale towards seven dimensions of teaching namely

1. Attitude towards teaching profession.
2. Attitude towards professional growth.
3. Attitude towards self concept.
4. Attitude towards educational process.
5. Attitude towards classroom teaching.
6. Attitude towards students
7. Attitude towards school system.

2.13 Academic Environment

The question of the effect of Academic environment on the individual in the field of education has been the subject of much discussion and investigation for many years. The total environment which surrounds an individual may be defined as being composed of a complex network of
forces (Bloom, 1964). At the psychological level, the concern has been to understand why certain instructional materials are more effective with some type of pupils than the others. According to Bezmon Barbara, (1997), on the sociological Plan, researchers have been interested in the effect which different types of schools have on the achievement, aspiration, creativity, motivation of the students, possessing differing initial ability and delivering from various home backgrounds.

**Webster’s Dictionary (1966)** defines the term environment as the surrounding conditions, influences or forces that influence or modify: as (a) the whole complex of climate, edaphic and biotic factors that act upon an organism or an ecological community and ultimately determines its form and aggregate of social and cultural conditions (as customs, laws, language, religion, economic and political organization) that influences the life of an individual or community.

**The Oxford English Dictionary (1989)** defines the term environment as condition under which any person or thing lives or is developed; the sum-total of influences which modify and determine the development of life or character.

**Watts and Barnett (1973)** were not in favor of customary definition of environment, which refers to socio-economic status, culture, family structure of life styles. They defined environment as “a set of human and non human elements in the external world that are directly and observably connected the child’s experience and that may affect his development of competence either through participating in a developmentally pertinent experience or by making such an experience more or less likely to occur”.

Education environment, according to Dave (1963) relates to, “the conditions, process and psychological stimuli of total environment which affect child’s academic achievement”. In other words educational environment is a part of total environment in which the child as a living
organism is continuously affecting and in turn is affected by various forces impinging upon him.

The term ‘environment’ is recognized as a complex system of situational dimensions that exert an influence upon participating individuals. Bloom (1964) characterized environment as, “…the conditions, forces and external stimuli which impinge on the individuals. These may be physical, social as well as intellectual forces and conditions. We conceive of a range of environments from the most immediate social interactions to more remote cultural and institutional forces. We regard the environment as providing a network of forces and factors which surround, engulf and play on the individual… The environment is therefore the total stimulus, both latent and actual, that interacts or is capable of interacting with the individual.

E. G. Saint Hilaire in 1835 used the term, “milieu ambient” to affirm that the environment determines the creatures which inhabit it. Auguste Comte went further and said, “Idea of life always presupposes the necessary correlation of two indispensable elements- an appropriate organism and a suitable environment. The phenomenon of life inevitably comes into being through the reciprocal action of these elements. Webster’s new Collegiate Dictionary defines environment as, “The aggregate of all the external conditions and influences affecting the life and development of an organism.” The Director General of UNESCO, Mr. Amadon-Mattor M’Bow, while defining the concept of environment said, “From an outlook confined to the physical and biological aspects of the environment, there has been gradual transition to broader conception of the environment which, while giving those aspects their proper share of attention, also covers the man made, social, economic and technical environment as to comprehensive view of the many and complex inter relations between them.”

Environment includes not only the ground on which the plant or animals lives, but the air and water, temperature and light, the food-all
living things in fact every thing that is there is to influence the life of the man, plant or animal.

The environment is not only the sum of all the material things that make up the mosaic of the countryside of landscape and constantly interact with each other. It is much more than this. It also includes the economic structures and the outlook and habits and attitudes of people in different parts of the world. The environment as a whole, therefore includes not only physical or material factors but economic and cultural ones as well. An accurate analysis of the environment must always consider the total impact of man and his culture on all surrounding elements and also the impact of ecological factors on every aspect of human life. Viewed in this perspective the environment includes biological, physiological, economic and cultural aspects all linked in the same constantly charging ecological fabric. Environment may be considered as a sum of natural, artificial and social components of the material world which are or may be in direct interactions with man. Environment not only includes material and spatial aspects of man’s world but the non-material web human-social-relations called culture. The aspects of man’s relationships are extremely varied. These aspects are ecological, hygienic, aesthetic, technical, economic, political etc. These aspects are viewed in mutual relationships. It aspects are viewed in mutual relationships. It appears that what happens to man is largely determined by environment.

_Taqiuri (1968)_ defined climate and atmosphere as summary concept dealing with the total environment quality within an organization. According to him, dimensions of an environment include its ‘ecology’ (the physical and material aspects). Its ‘milieu’ (the social dimension concerned with the presence of persons and groups), its ‘social system’ (the social dimensions concerned with the patterned relationships of person and groups); and its culture (the social dimensions concerned with the belief systems, values cognitive structures and meanings).
The pioneering work in the context of individual-environment interaction goes to Lewin (1935 and 1936), Murray (1938) and Murray and Kluckholn (1953). They have presented theoretical viewpoint that emphasized the importance of environmental and social determinants and their interactions with individual needs and characteristics.

**Lewin (1936)** viewed human behaviour as representing an ongoing process, the result of transactions between the individual and other structural units in the behaviour field. **Mathewson (1970)** also emphasized that a fundamental principle governing all attempts at individual's evaluation in terms of fields theory is that no individual can be understood apart from his field, and the field must necessarily include both inner and outer phases or in other words a complex of interrelated socio-psychological forces. It is because of these improvements that some students may find the environment more congenial than others and this has some bearing on a student's adjustment to the environment whether it is classroom situation or any other organization.

**Mitchell (1969)** regarded the term environment as, “the instructional treatment presented to the students.” He further defined it as the verbal behaviour of the teacher in terms of its influence on and interaction with pupil behaviour.

**Nawankwo (1979)** referred to climate as, “the general, We-feeling, group sub-culture or interactive life of the school.”

**Keeves (1972)** has proposed three powerful dimensions of academic environments of school, the home and the peer group. (a)The Structural Dimension indicates that occupational status, educational level, income and size of the family belong to home; and expenditure per student, school type, class size and school size are common structural variables concerned with the school environment. These may not influence educational outcome directly, yet they are correlated with other components of environment and may be seen as exerting an indirect
influence. (b) The Attitudinal Dimension, which is characterized by attitudes, objectives and expectations held by the principal act in the environment. (c) The process dimensions, which is related to the things done by Parents, teachers and friends to which the child attends or reacts and which influence the child's educational performance.

Based on the differences among human needs and different environmental press, Stern (1963) viewed that he academic environments range along a continuum from low to high. His study of 70 schools revealed significant differences between the environment of schools and what schools tended to be. Considering his views, the school environments may be classified as high and low educational environments.

Gilmer (1966) specified academic environment as “Set of those characteristics that distinguish one educational organization from the other and that influence the behaviour of people particularly in the educational organizations”. In fact the academic environment of an educational organization is conceived as the “personality” of the organization that means academic environment in an organization is as personality to an individual. It is an important component of school effectiveness and reform movement in education. It is key to corporate success since it determines the attitude and behaviour of human resource in an institution. It indicates the native of leadership behaviour in the organization, Teachers' attitude towards teaching as well as students concern for Curricular and Co-curricular activities being carried out by organization.

Katz and Kahn in their book "Social Physiology of Organizations" (1966) state that academic environment is developed by the organization. It reflects the struggles both internal and external, the type of people who compose the organization, the work procedures, the means of communication and exercise of authority within the individual organization. Further they recognize that is easy to detect differences in academic environments of organizations but it is difficult to name the dimensions of these differences.
After visiting a number of schools one can note relatively soon how the administrative influence permeates the attitudes and reactions of all members of the school. Andrew Malpin describes three types of schools which one may encounter. In one school the teachers and principal are zestful and extends confidence in what they are doing. They find pleasure in working with each other, that pleasure is transmitted to the students who thus are given the least a fighting chance to discover that school can a happy experience. In a second school, the brooding discontent of teachers’ is palpable, the principal tries to hide his incompetency and his lack of sense of direction behind a cloak of authority and yet he wears this cloak very poorly because the attitude he displays to others vacillates randomly between the obsequious and officious. And the psychological sickness of such a faculty spills over on the students who in their own frustrations, feed back to the teachers a mood of despair. A third school is marked by neither joy nor despair but by the hollow ritual. Here one gets the feeling of watching an elaborate charade in which teachers, principals and students alike are acting out parts. The acting is smooth and glib, but it appears to have little meaning for the participants; in a strange way the show just does not seem to be real.

According to Halpin and Craft the academic environment of an institution may be categorized as “Open” or “Closed”. An open environment is characterized by functional flexibility; where Esprit, Thrust and consideration are high; hindrance, production, emphasis and aloofness are low and intimacy is average. A “Closed” environment is characterized by functional rigidity; where hindrance, disengagement, production emphasis and aloofness are high; Espirit, thrust, and consideration are low and intimacy is average. Both sets of characteristics are perceived as such by the members of the organization which is being characterized as having an ‘Open’ or a ‘Closed’ academic environment.

Furthermore, there are several approaches to the concept of academic environment, of which two in particular have received substantial
The first approach regards the concept of academic environment as an individual perception and cognitive representation of the work environment. From this perspective it should be measured at individual level. The second approach emphasises the importance of shared perception. As underpinning the notion of academic environment Anderson and West (1998) define academic environment as the shared perception of the way things are there. It is important to realize here that from these two approaches there is no ‘Best’ approach and they actually have a great deal of overlap.

Bolman and Deal (1991, 1997, 2003) have divided the academic environment into two types i.e. Balanced Climate and Unbalanced Climate. The Four Frame Organizational Theory is the base of this provision. The four frames mentioned in this theory are:

**Structural Frame**

The structural frame emphasis efficiency and effectiveness of structural Leaders make the rational decisions over the personal and strive to achieve organizational goals and objectives through coordination and control. They value accountability and critical analysis. Specialization and division of labour are used to increase performance levels. Problems in performance may result in restructuring the frame.

**Human Resource Frame**

The human resource frame emphasizes the individual Human resource leaders value Camaraderie and harmony within work environment and strive to achieve organizational goals through meaningful and satisfying work. They recognize human needs and importance of congruence between the individual and organization.

**Political Frame**

Political frame emphasizes competition. Political leaders value practicality and authenticity and strive to achieve organizational goals through
negotiation and compromise. They recognize the diversity of individuals and interests and compete for scarce resources regardless of conflict. Power is an important source.

**Symbolic Frame**

The symbolic frame emphasis meaning. Symbolic leader value the subjective and strive to achieve organizational goals through interpretative rituals and ceremonies. They recognize that symbols give individuals meaning and provide directions towards achieving organizational purpose. They recognize unity and strong culture and mission.

Bolman and Deal have stated two categories of organizational climate on the basis of above said Four Frame Organizational Theory. These are:

**Balanced Climate Type** Such an environment is found in the organization that encompasses at least three of four frames (Structural, Human Resources, Political and Symbolic).

**Unbalanced Climate Type** Such an environment is found in the institutions that encompass no more than two of the four frames.

Thus academic or educational environment, is defined as the way in which organizational members perceive and characterize their environment in an attitudinal and value based manner on two point scale towards six dimensions of academic environment namely

2. Curricular and co curricular activities.
3. Teacher’s Qualification, qualities training and methods of Teaching.
4. Assessment and Evaluation.
5. Schools Rules, reputation and Policy.