CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
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2.1 Concept of Decision Making:

A Head of the school chooses to close down the high schools in the event of student strike and asks the students to vacate the campus. The students take out a procession and three students are shot dead in the encounter with police outside the campus. The public complains that the Head of the school's faulty decision costs lives of three students. This incident eventually costs the Head of the schools his career.

Much of the current interest in decision-making stems from the quietly emerging conviction that choice is the potent cause in determining the efficacy of organizational process. Even an academically sound Head of the school cannot succeed unless he has a well-engineered management system.

The discovery of the administrative process in the early thirties was followed by a concern with "human relations" in general and motivation in particular in late thirties. By the early thirties the war had led to a need for more powerful planning techniques, soon manifested by a concern with budgeting and programme planning. Later the focus of the management problem shifted to leadership. Some of this concern led to an interest in communication techniques. Another fragment of this belief that the key to more effective administration could be found in leadership came to rest in decision-making. Thus the current interest in decision-making is not
incidental but rather the result of an unfolding progression of professional judgement.

The term 'decision' may refer to the choice of selecting a solution for a petty problem or it may just as well refer to a momentous and unprecedented sensational act (Head of the school's decision to close down the high school forever. The gulf between these terminals of continuum of decisions is too large to traverse with the use of only a single term.

Generally, decision refers to the consideration of the consequences of some act before undertaking it.

Primarily a pattern for making a decision is a collective device for responding to a situation that requires action or at least concern.

Perrone (1972) defines decision as "the appropriate response of an intelligent being to a situation, which demands action." Decision-making is the process through which administrators prescribe particular actions in view of the unique demands of a given situation.

Nickerson (1978) defines decision making as the rational selection of a course of action from among two or more alternatives. "Halpin (1969) defines it as a settling or terminating, as of a controversy by giving judgement on the matter also a conclusion arrived at after consideration."

To Killian (1979) decision-making "is the critical test of management - the ability and the courage to reach the right conclusions and take the right course of
actions, skill in persuading others to co-operate with total commitment and then follow through to successful results."

Gorton (1976) defines it simply as "the process of choosing among alternatives." Oxenfeldt (1979) gives an entirely different explanation: "Decision Making is a mental process which reflects and depends on the working of the brain."

Duncan (1965) says "a decision is the appropriate response of an intelligent being to a situation which demands action".

Many management scientists consider decision function to be important as to accept it as the central activity of management. A few would deny that the process occupies a major portion of the Head of the school's time. The Head of the school engages in decision perhaps more often than in any other process; it is the single most important process in high schools administration. Halpin (1969) emphasizes the above view when he says that "central function of administration is directing and controlling decision making process."

Decision-making is basically the process of choosing among alternatives. In most situations there exists two or more alternatives and a Head of the school must decide which alternative to pursue. Before making a decision he must thoroughly understand the problem and develop alternatives. Then he must assess the merits and demerits of each alternative and the probabilities of success in each case. So decision-making is not a smooth flowing process dispensing choices when and where they are required. Rather it is a twisted, unshapely, halting flow of
interactions between people, interactions that shift constantly from a rational to a heuristic mode and back again.

The Nature of Decision making:

Most decisions are repetitive and fortunately the store of information a Head of the school gathers for making the previous decisions may be carried forward and applied to the decisions coming up.

There are many decisions, which though repetitive are each little different from previous decisions. Appointing part time teachers or promoting staff are examples of repetitive but different decisions. Decisions may also be classified as the degree of importance of the outcomes. If the future existence of the high school hinges on the outcome of the decision, this decision will receive a different degree of consideration.

Placing the decision in perspective is extremely important. Taking a broad point of view how important is the decision? Is it worthy of the effort being devoted to its resolution?

There is another important characteristic of decision making. A Head of the school may make an incorrect decision and make it correctly or he can make a correct decision for all the wrong reasons. He may decide incorrectly and arbitrarily not to promote Mr. X who then moves on to a better job and he may place him with a man who is not qualified, but who turns out to be outstanding. A well-made and well-researched decision may turn out to be incorrect.
Frequently a decision is an instant reaction, which is more an impulse or an instinctive action than a conscious decision.

Decision is the end process preceded by deliberation and reasoning. Rationality is another characteristics of decision making. The human brain with its ability to learn to remember and to relate many complex factors makes this rationality possible.

Decision is the choice of the best course among alternatives. It may be negative and just may be decision not to decide.

There is also the concept of commitment in every decision. The Head of the school is committed to decision for two reasons: firstly it leads to the stability of the concern and secondly very decision taken becomes part of the expectations of the people involved in high school organization. Decisions are so much interrelated to the organizational life of a concern. Hence the Head of the school is committed to decisions not only from the time that he decides but till such time that they are successfully implemented.

The characteristics of evaluation exist in decision-making in two ways - firstly the Head of the school must evaluate the alternatives and secondly he should evaluate the results of the decisions taken by him.

The Process of Decision making:

Effective decision-making is an ability that most Heads of the schools need to develop. General weaknesses in the decision making process are uncertainty as
to who is responsible for making what decisions and lack of adequate information for making decisions.

Decisions must be based on factual information, when factual information is not available the validity of the decision must depend on the judgement and experience of the Head of the school making decision. Many decisions successful Heads of the schools make, appear to be snap judgements, because there has not been time to gather and evaluate the facts.

In general Heads of the schools go in either for negative or positive choices. Certain Heads of the schools do nothing: They may let the problem solve itself, allow someone else to decide, appoint a committee, or delay. The positive approach is to accept the responsibility, to recognize the needs, to make the decision without undue delay or to see it implemented successfully.

In obtaining a better understanding of the Head of the school's decision-making role, attention must first be directed to the substantive content of the role. The specific tasks of high school administration can be catalogued in a number of ways. In general high school Heads are concerned with and are responsible for (a) curriculum and instruction (b) physical facilities (c) finance (d) student personnel (e) supervision (f) recruitment and retention of staff (g) public relations. The decision making process encompasses all these above tasks.

Tawney (1976) says that the administrator cannot straight away decide issues. In the event of making decisions, the available information influences the decision-maker and other side the values of the problem come in the way of
Decision making and other angle existing options may touch the choice behaviour of the administrator. Ultimately he chooses the alternative, which results in educational improvement.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure-2.1: The Process of Decision Making.**

When a Head of the school is confronted with a problem, in order to understand the problem he gathers information, decides further course of action and see that his decision is put into action. This can be expressed in the following simple diagram.
When a problem arises the solution to the problem is not got on the spur of the moment. The Head of the school has to analyze the problem, has to find alternatives, evaluate alternatives and only then can he decide the best alternative. His problem is not solved until his decision is implemented. This is represented in the following diagram.
The systems approach to administration is particularly relevant for the analysis of decision making, in terms of both describing the process of decision making and assessing the Head of the school's decision behaviour. Kaufman (1970) writes that the systems approach to the analysis of decision-making includes the following five steps.

i. Identifying the nature of the problem
ii. Determining solution requirements and alternatives
iii. Choosing a solution strategy from alternatives
iv. Implementation of the solution strategy
v. Determining performance effectiveness.

Lipham and Hoeh (1974) state that systems approach has fostered the use of several viable management tools and techniques needs assessment, management by objectives (MBO) Input-output analysis, programme evaluation and review technique/critical path method (PERT/CPM). All these can serve to sharpen considerably the decision-making skills of the Head of the school.

"Decision making is a process wherein an awareness of a problematic state of a system, influenced by information and values, is reduced to competing alternatives among which a choice is made based on perceived outcome states of the system". Lipham and Hoeh (1974). This definition contains a number of key concepts and the first of these is that of process itself.

Process implies action a particular set of continuing activities, steps, stages or operations. Process is always inferred, usually sequential and sometimes...
cyclical. Since Process is inferred, it is only an abstraction for the analysis of
decision-making behaviour. As Halpin (1957) remarks, an outside observer can
never observe "Process' qua 'Process'; he can observe only a sequence of
behaviour. Thus in analyzing the decision making process it is necessary to obtain
data from the decision maker himself, as well as from observers of the behaviour.

Awareness of a Problematic State:

Awareness of a problematic state of a system constitutes the first step in the
decision making process. Barnard (1938) was the first to consider the significance
of this aspect. He states, "The find art of executive decision consists in not
deciding questions that are now pertinent, in not deciding prematurely, in not
making decisions that cannot be made effective and in not making decisions that
others should make".

Information serves the basis for decision-making; yet three points are worthy
of consideration; amount, form and flow of information.

Values serve as a perceptual screen for the decision maker, affecting both
his awareness of the problematic state of a system and his screening of information
relative to the problem. Secondly values condition the screening of possible
alternatives. Many factors in addition to values constitute the perceptual screen of
the decision maker, including such personalistic variables as intelligence, creativity
need dispositions abilities and even biological states of the decision maker.

The perceptual screen surrounds the decision maker in a sense and affects,
all elements of the decision process, including problem awareness, information
processing value estimates, formulating and weighing alternatives and making the
decision choice.

*Competing alternatives* represent actions that might be taken or things that
might be done to solve the problematic state of a system.

The act of selecting a solution strategy from among the decision alternatives
is termed the *decision choice*.

Lipham and Hoeh (1974) fit the above aspects in a model and present it as
follows.
Figure 2.4 Model of a Decision Making Process

Types of Decisions:

In addition to analyzing the decision making process it becomes inevitable to identify different types of decisions. According to Katz (1955) Headmasters in general make decisions only in three areas viz., technical, and human and conceptual. Even though all the decisions those Headmasters make, fall either of the above area, their types of decisions differ. It is so because different types of situations and managements required different decision making styles. Management scientists have christened different nomenclature for the different decision making styles. For instance McFarland (1964) classified decisions under:

i. Organizational and personal decisions

ii. Basic and routine decisions

iii. Programmed and non-programmed decisions.

Griffiths (1957) classified decisions into intermediary decisions, appellate decisions and creative decisions. According to him 'intermediary decision means the decision coming from top management downwards, appellate decision means the decision coming from subordinates upwards and creative decision means the decision coming from any member of the group as a result of insight or creativity.

Parsons (1956) has distinguished between policy decisions, allocative decisions, and decisions that pertains to the integration of the organization.

Chamberlain (1968) categorized decisions as administrative and strategic. Administrative decisions are ruled by the criterion of efficiency and they attempt to deal with things as they are in the present. Unlike administrative decisions...
strategies decisions center on long run external and uncontrollable factors which often upset internal operations.

Maheswari (1980) identifies two decision-making styles as entrepreneurial and participative.

Jarvis (1971) says that generally in school situation decisions are unilateral, bilateral and democratic. If the Headmaster decides any issue without consulting anybody in the organization it may be called unilateral, in other words it may be a sort of authority centred decision.

If the Headmaster ignoring others in the organization consults only his confidential person and decides the issues then it maybe termed as bilateral decision. If the Headmaster gives chances to the members to share their opinions and ideas in settling an issue, it can be termed as multilateral or democratic.

Saxena (1972) classifies decisions as organizational decisions and personal decisions. When a Headmaster takes a decision in the official capacity, it is termed as organizational decision. On the other hand personal decisions relate to the executive as an individual and not as the member of an organization.

Drucker (1964) proposes that there are basically two kinds of decisions: generic and unique.

Generic decisions arise from established Headmasters, policies or rules and unique decisions are probably creative decisions; in fact they go beyond
established procedures for a solution. They may require a modification of the organizational structure.

Lipham and Hoeh (1974) have given a sound classification of decision-making style, which envelops the ingredients of all the aforesaid classifications. Their typology has concern for the structure of the relationship between individuals, the behaviour required to facilitate decision-making, the manner of proceeding in decision-making and the social emotional tone of the inter-personal relationships. This typology includes routine decision, compromise decision and heuristic decision-making.

Routine decisions are taken to keep the institution going. In the words of Lipham and Hoeh (1974) "in routine decision making the situation is usually structured hierarchically, the role behaviour is characterized by specialized yet co-operated effort, the processes utilized are largely formal and the relationships themselves are likely to be somewhat stressful." In short it is programmed type of decision.

Ideas clash occasionally under a competent Headmaster. The Headmaster must be capable of arriving at a compromising formula without offending either party. The Headmaster must be a human relations facilitator and see that occasional ill feelings and feelings of a animosity and jealousy among the faculty as a result of such clashes are adequately diagnosed and analyzed and remediation taken. In short, it is a negotiated type of decision.
In heuristic decision making there is a lack of emphasis on hierarchical structure, role behaviour is characterized by freedom for each individual to explore all ideas. The emotional and social tone is relatively relaxed; openness, originality and seeking of consensus are the essentials of heuristic decision-making. In a nutshell it is a creative type of decision.

Even though these different decision making styles are in vogue, unless the Headmaster has certain decision-making skill he cannot prove to be a successful decision maker. Abbot (1974) identified five decision making skills such as skill in differentiating among types of decisions, skill in determining the amount and type of information needed to reach a decision, skill in determining the extent of involvement of other people in reaching decisions, skill in establishing priorities for action and skill in anticipating both intended and unintended consequences of decisions. To some up decision-making was viewed as central to all states of administrative process. It was defined as a process wherein an awareness of a problematic state of a system, influenced by information and values is reduced to competing alternatives among which a choice is made based on estimated outcome states of the system. Besides the process, the different decision making styles mentioned by management scientists were cited including those of routine, compromise and heuristic mentioned by Lipham and Hoeh (1974). This section concluded by stressing certain competencies required for effective decision making on the part of the Headmaster.
2.2 Concept of Organizational Health

The New Concept: Organizations, like people exist within a fluctuating state of wellness. Organizational health or well-being is dependent on the interaction of the collective internal and external forces that intervene the fulfillment of the purpose of the organization. Organizational health refers to the organizational ability to identify and adjust to the requirement for change influenced by internal as well as external determinants.

Miles (1973) gave a clearer concept of organizational health as a set of fairly durable and secondary system properties, which tend to transcend short-term effectiveness. A healthy organization in this sense not only survives in its environment but also continues to cope adequately with time and continuously develops and extends its surviving and coping abilities. Short run operations on any particular day may be effective or ineffective but continued survival; adequate coping and growth are taking place.

Miles has described ten dimensions of organizational health in a book titled "Organizations and Human Behaviours; Focus on schools", edited by Carver and Sergiovanni (1969). These dimensions are;

i. Goal Focus,

ii. Communication Adequacy,

iii. Optimal Power Equalization,

iv. Resource Utilization,

v. Cohesiveness,
vi. Morale,

vii. Innovativeness,

viii. Autonomy,

ix. Adaptation, and

tax. Problem Solving Adequacy.

The explanation of each dimension is as under:

i. **Goal Focus:**

In a healthy organization the goals of the system would be reasonably clear to the staff members and reasonably well accepted by them. Goals must be achievable with available resources and be appropriate, that is, more of less congruent with the demands of the environment. Elsewhere, Miles (1967) calls for instruments and work methods in schools for specifying areas of vagueness about goals and for increasing understanding of goals through discussion. Instruments are needed to help teachers assess precisely what the short run consequences of their work have been.

ii. **Communication Adequacy:**

The organizations are not simultaneous face-to-face systems like small groups. The movement of information, within them, therefore, becomes crucial. This involves distortion free communication vertically, horizontally and across the boundary of the system to and from surrounding environment. That is, information travels reasonably well just as a healthy person knows himself with a minimum
level of regression, distortion etc. In a healthy organization, there is a good and
prompt sensing of internal strains, there are enough data about problems of the
system to ensure that a good diagnosis of system difficulties can be made. People
have the information they need and have forgotten it without exerting undue efforts.
As a corollary, education system has such indicators as adequacy of
communication between teachers and administrators and between teachers and
children.

iii. Optimal Power Equalization:

In a healthy organization the distribution of influence is relatively equitable.
Subordinates (if there is a formal authority chart) can influence upward and even
more important as Likert has demonstrated, they perceive that their boss can do
likewise with his boss. In such an organization, inter-group struggles for power
would not be bitter, though inter-group conflict (as in every human system known
to man) would undoubtedly be present. The basic stance of persons in such an
organization, as they took up, sideways and down, is that of collaboration rather
than explicit coercion. The units of the organization (persons in roles, work groups,
etc) would stand in an interdependent relationship to each rather, with rather less
emphasis on the ability of the 'master' to control the entire operation. The exertion
of influence in a healthy organization presumably rests on the competence of the
influence vis-à-vis the issue at hand, master's stake in the outcome, and the
amount of his knowledge or data rather than on his organizational position,
personal charisma, or other factors with little direct relevance to the problem at
hand.
The first three dimensions are related to the tasks, organizational goals, the transmission of message and the way in which the decisions are made.

iv. Resource Utilization:

We say a healthy person, such as, second grader, that he is 'working' up to his potential'. To put this in another way, the classroom system is evoking a contribution from him at an appropriate and goal directed level of tension. At the organizational level, 'health' would imply that system's inputs, particularly the personal, are used effectively. The Overall co-ordination is such that people are neither over loaded not idling, and there is a close correspondence between their personal characteristics and demands of the system. In the healthy organization, people may be working very hard indeed, but they feel that they are not working against themselves or against the organization. The fit between people's own dispositions and the role demands of the system is good. Beyond this, people feel reasonably 'self-actualized'. They not only 'feel good' in their jobs, but they also have a genuine sense of learning growing and developing as persons in the process of making their organizational contribution.

v. Cohesiveness:

We think of healthy person as the one who has a clear sense of identity. He knows who he is underneath all the specific goals he sets for himself. Beyond this, he likes himself; his stance towards life does not require self-derogation, even where there are aspects of his behaviour, which are un-lively or ineffective. By analogy at the organizational level system health would empty the organization
knows 'who it is'. Its members feel attracted to membership. They want to stay with the organization, be influenced by it and have an influence on it.

vi. Morale:

The implied notion is one of well-being or satisfaction. Satisfaction of course is not enough for health. A person may report feelings of well being and satisfaction in his life, while successfully denying deep-lying hostilities, anxieties and conflicts. Yet it still seems useful to evoke at the organizational level, the idea morale, summated set of individuals sentiments, centering around feelings of well-being, satisfaction and pleasure, as opposed to feelings of discomfort, unwished for strain and dissatisfaction. In an unhealthy system, life might be perceived easily as 'good' or as unabashedly bad. In a healthy organization it is hard to entertain the idea that the dominant personal response of organization members would be anything else than of well being.

A second group of three dimensions deals essentially with the internal state of the system, and its inhabitants' maintenance needs. These dimensions are resource utilization, cohesiveness and morale.

A healthy organization would tend to invent new procedures, more towards new goals, produce new kinds of products, diversify itself and become more rather than less differential over time. In a sense, such a system could be said to grow, develop and change, rather than remain routinized and unchanged (Miles 1964). School systems with these properties could be expected to institutionalize innovation to devote space, time and money for personal career and organizational
development and renewal programmes. They can also setup change generating and experimental units with research and development functions, provide rewards for innovators, instill 'environmental scanning' mechanisms whereby new developments in neighboring schools, in community agencies and in ministerial policymaking can be applied to schools itself.

vii. Autonomy:

A healthy person acts outward from his own center. Such a person in a training or therapy group appears nearly free of the need to submit dependently to authority figures, and from the need to rebel and destroy symbolic features of any kind. A healthy organization is independent from the environment in the sense that it does neither respond passively to demands form without, nor destructively or rebelliously to perceived demands. Like a healthy individual in his transactions with others, the school system would not treat its responses to the community as determining its own behaviour.

viii. Adaptation:

The notions of autonomy and innovativeness are both connected with the idea that a healthy person, group or organization is in realistic and effective contact with his surroundings. When environmental demands and organizational resources do not match, a problem solving, restructuring approach evolves in which both the environment and the organization become different in some respects. Continued coping of the organization, as a result of change in the local system, the relevant
portions of the environment, or more usually both undergo a change. Such a system has a sufficient stability and stress tolerance to manage the difficulties, which occur during the adaptation process. Perhaps inherent in this notion is that the system's ability to bring about corrective change in itself is faster than the change cycle in the surrounding environment.

ix. Problem-Solving Adequacy:

Finally, any healthy organization theoretically impervious to fallibility, as a computer, always has problems, strains, difficulties, and instances of ineffective coping. The issue is not the presence or absence of problems, but the manner in which the person, group or organization copes with them. Miles (1964) has suggested that in an effective system, problems are solved with minimal energy, they stay solved, and the problem-solving mechanisms used are not weakened, but maintained or strengthened. A healthy organization then has well developed structures and procedures for sensing the existence of problems for inventing possible solutions, for deciding on the solutions, for implementing them and for evaluating their effectiveness. Such an organization would conceive of its own operations (whether directed outward of goal achievement, inward to maintenance or inward outward to problems of adaptation) as been controllable. We should see acting as coping with problems, rather than passive withdrawing, compulsive responses, or denial.

The last four dimensions of organizational health, deal with growth and change, the notions of innovativeness, autonomy, adaptations vis-à-vis the
environment, and problem-solving adequacy. All the ten dimensions are mutually inclusive, which gives the total picture of the organizational health of the institution. If any of the ten dimensions of the organizational health is weak, the health of the institution is found to be deteriorating.

2.3 Concept of Teacher Morale

The concept of morale, another variable in the study should also be discussed in detail.

Morale is intangible. It cannot be seen or isolated. But it is possible to determine the quality of morale by careful observation of the way the faculty behaves. Gentleness, cheerfulness, promotness, enthusiasm, dependability and co-operation are indicators of morale.

'Morale' is one to which various meanings have been given. To some it means zeal or enthusiasm with which an individual perform his duties. Others insist that morale is the willingness of a group to work towards a collective purpose. The investigator would like to define faculty morale as the way a faculty feels, acts and believes. The kind of feelings, actions or beliefs determine whether there is high or low morale. Group morale depends upon the feelings, actions and beliefs of all persons concerned. In other words faculty morale means the collective feelings and the attitude of the faculty as a whole towards their profession and colleagues in the institution.
The concept of 'Morale' has been perceived in varied ways. Persistence, job price, punctuality, loyalty, co-operativeness, spirit and dependability are frequently listed as component parts of morale.

Drever (1973) defines morale as a term employed of "an individual or of a group, signifying the condition with respect to self-control, self-confidence and disciplined action."

Guba (1957) suggested when an individual becomes a member of some organization such as a high school he must conform to certain norms and expectation if he or she and the high school are to maintain harmonious relationship, to function effectively, but at the same time he/she has the opportunity to fulfil to some degree his/her unique personality needs.

![Figure- 2.5. Dimensions of a Social System](image)

When the needs of the individual and the goals of the system are congruent there is a feeling of identification with the system. When the needs of the individual
and the expectation of the role-set are congruent there is a feeling of satisfaction of the roles and goals of the system are congruent, there is a feeling of rationality regarding the system.

Getzels and Guba (1971) represent the above description in the following manner:

**Figure- 2.6. Relationship between Role Expectation, Need Disposition and Goals of the system.**

Dimensions of morale can be pictorially represented as follows:

**Figure-2.7. Dimensions of Morale**
If the individual has the sense of belongingness he develops rationality, which leads to identification with the institution, he works. Once the individual identifies himself with the institution, it results in "We" feeling among the group members.

Stodgill conceives morale as the degree of freedom from restraint exhibited by a group in working towards a goal objective. Morale is seen as being related to motivation.

If freedom is given to act, the level of morale may be highly related to the strength of motivation. Thus morale may be viewed as evidence of the motivation exhibited in overt action towards a goal.

Morale is a phenomenon that is discussed at great length but little understood. A comprehensive definition of morale is yet to emerge. So even though morale has been recognized as a powerful force it is difficult to define it in unequivocal terms.

The dictionary meaning of morale is mental state or condition as regards discipline, confidence, cheerfulness and zeal. Blum (1956) has defined morale as an expression of the attitude of the person towards his job, his supervision. If the attitudes of the faculty are favourable towards institution, it shows high morale. On the other hand, if the faculty has unfavorable attitudes towards institution it shows low morale. Harrell (1958) defines morale as the combination of attitudes towards job, company and supervision.
Guion (1958) states that morale is the extent to which the individual needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction as stemming from his total job satisfaction.

According to Henemen et. al. (1958) morale is sometimes used to describe the degree of frustration felt by a group of persons.

In the opinion of Burtt (1959) morale is a tendency to work enthusiastically for a common purpose.

To Kay and Palmer (1961) morale is the general enthusiasm of a group - its esprit de corps.

Yoder (1950) in his book Personnel Management and Industrial Relation has defined morale as an overall 'tone' or 'climate' vaguely sensed among members of a group or association.

Atkins and Lasswell (1957) have defined morale as the collective will, which it builds into groups by securing a subordination of the individual to the group and willingness to be disciplined in terms of group purpose.

The American Association of School Administration states morale is a disposition on the part of persons engaged in an enterprise to behave in ways, which contribute to the purpose for which the enterprise exists. When this disposition is strong morale is said to be high. It manifests itself in a tendency to subordinate personal considerations to the purpose of the enterprise to work as a member of a team for the accomplishment of common goals and to derive
satisfaction from achievements of the organization when the disposition towards the achievement of common purpose is weak, morale is said to be low.

Most of the definitions of morale describe it as a mental condition and cite various factors affecting it. Two points in particular should be mentioned about the concept of morale. First, whatever it is, it is not a un-dimensional concept. It has more than a single component and each component can be defined best only in respect to the operations by which it is measure.

It will be appropriate to quote Wilson Robert (1968): morale is a configuration of many component parts, all of which are important. Most important of all, morale is not a thing apart from the life of the individual.

Two things should be noticed of group morale. Morale maybe low or high. High and low morale is not a constant phenomenon nor is it the same for all the members of the faculty. Morale differs from individual to individual, group to group, institution to institution. Morale can be measured.

2.4 Concept of Leadership Behaviour:

Leadership is of utmost importance in the development of any significant, ongoing movement, designed to improve social, economic, political and educational conditions in our society. Since the ultimate solutions to educational problems will be discovered according to the vision and skill of educational leaders, the abilities and competencies of the professional personnel must be developed to the fullest degree possible.
We are living in the most exciting and challenging period of time in the whole history of the world. The challenge of this revolutionary period extends into all aspects of life. Education can no more remain complacent to the needs that such a challenge than the need can resist the effect of the sun and rain at springtime. Our educational structure, programme, and practices must change. The rapidity and degree to which this change will occur are dependents upon the educational leaders at all levels of administration.

**Importance of Educational Leadership:**

Leadership is a basic element of education. A great leader can inspire entire communities; his influence radiates, and he exemplifies in his own life and ideas of education. For the successful implementation of the educational programme the classroom teacher, the Headmasters, the supervisor and the administrator should assume leadership. In a period of crisis and transition the position of the educational leader is more significant than at any other time. We look to education to solve the perplexing problems of our time. The task of the educational leader is to become aware of the opportunities. His function is to create love where antagonism prevails; to spread the flame of knowledge where ignorance exists; and to create real when so many are smug and self-righteous. He must not only communicate ideas, but then must be a representative of a creative way of life, a symbol of peace and serenity.
The Leader and the Led:

The leadership role is determined by the perceptions held by the leader and the led. A person assigned to a position of leadership is said to be a status leader; he may or may not be the real leader if he is more than the status leader. He will meet most of the expectations of leadership held by those affected by his actions. But in the normal situations where leadership is involved, the followers are likely to hold many differing kinds of expectations form their leader. When the leader finds it impossible to conform to many different kinds of expectations, role conflict is said to exist. To strengthen the leader-led relationship the former must keep upper-most in his mind the need-dispositions of workers-followers, Such as the search for meaning, self-fulfillment, and self-realization.

In order to be an effective administrative leader to build and maintain effective relationship with his subordinates three factors are essential-

I. Small face-to-face groups are necessary in planning and communicating.

II. Decentralization of authority and encouraging staff participation in decision-making are acknowledgement of one fundamental aspiration of the led.

III. The leader should be a person oriented to engender supportive relationships and he is turn should be supportive of his followers motivation.
Leadership Styles:

Leaders have been classified into six types:

i. Institutional or Positional: who leads by virtue of the authority or prestige of his position.

ii. Intellectual: who gains followers through his recognized ability in specialized functional fields.

iii. Democratic: who obtains the loyalty of his followers by associating them with the decision making process to the maximum extent possible.

iv. Autocratic: who leads through domination and drive.

v. Persuasive: who has a likeable personality and prefaces his decisions with explanations as to why they are necessary.

vi. Creative: who inspires others with ideas, and stimulates them to emulation.

Leadership may also be classified into impelling and compelling types. Compelling leadership relies on authority and power, rules and regulations, reward and punishment to secure obedience. The motive power comes from outside the followers or employees.

The compelling leader firmly believes that he is there to do all the thinking for his department. Most executives use compelling methods for getting things done. Little do they realize that compelling produces only half-hearted obedience at best and often arouses lasting opposition of apathy. In the ultimate analysis, the force of
leadership depends on the followers' will to follow and not on the good sense or loudness of the leader's command.

The basis idea of impelling leadership is that people follow their own decisions beat; they may obey an order meekly if they have to, but they follow it enthusiastically when they are led to believe that it is their own decision. The technique of impelling leadership, therefore, consists in leading people to decide for themselves. Telling people what they should do seldom makes them want to do it. But they decide it for themselves they feel impelled to do it. It is said, "Almost every man can do twice as much if he wants to do it".

The strategy is impelling leadership has three main planks. In the first place widest possible areas of activity should be earmarked for workers to have a more or less free hand to decide things for themselves and use their initiative and inventiveness. Targets and goals should be set and standards of performance laid down; but the workers should be allowed to work out the detailed procedure and evolve their own systems of efficiency by process of experimentation. This requires maximum delegation of powers and functions. Within these areas of delegated authority the boss should neither interfere nor give unsolicited advice. He will judge performance by the results produced without worrying about the actual means.

The second part of the strategy of impelling leadership is to restrict as much as possible the areas in which decisions have to be taken by the loss without consultation with the workers. Matters of policy, large financial commitments, plans for expansion be decided upon with the help of appropriate advisers but without reference to those who will be required to implement them. But these reserved
subjects should be strictly limited to those, which, on account of their confidential nature or for other reasons, do not lend themselves to the consultative method.

Between these two extremes there are vast areas, which are particularly suited for the application of impelling methods. Within these areas a process of consultation best arrives at important decisions between the boss and his assistants. Such consultations means pooling of knowledge and experience, it promotes the birth of new ideas through contract of mind with mind; it enables the workers to adopt the decision as their own creation if not wholly at least in part.

The impelling type of leader treats people as seedbeds for ideas. He sows ideas in his subordinates' minds. For this purpose, he shares problems with them; he inspires them to think until they come to sponsor the same idea as he has in mind.

Impelling leadership requires patience, foresight self-restraint and self-denial. Another requirement of impelling leadership is that the leader should keep himself in the background. He should not express his own views; much less force them on the assistance. Impelling leadership requires much more humility, patience and spirit of self-denial. An impelling leader has to be big enough to let others have the praise, which truly belongs to him.

Lippit and White (1939) have classified leaders into three main types, namely;

i. autocratic or authoritarian,

ii. democratic, and
iii. laissez-faire or free reign.

An autocratic leader is a one-man bank. He is fully convinced that he alone can run the organization and that his subordinates are there merely to help him by doing what they are told. They should not, therefore, be permitted to act without his specific approval. In consequence, the special characteristics of such leaders are: -

i. Retention of maximum power in his own hands.

ii. Use of commands or direct, emphatic orders covering minute details and

iii. Maintenance of close supervision.

The democratic leader realizes that his followers are indispensable for his success; so he wants to carry the group with him. His techniques of direction are calculated to evoke co-operation rather than mere obedience from the group. In making plans, in giving orders, in involving policies he wants to keep the group in the picture as far as possible. He regards himself as one of the groups and not as a superior entirely apart.

The laissez-faire type of leader is hardly a leader. He does not try to make his presence felt. He lets the group function more or less on its own. He does not administer but leaves all responsibility and most of the work to his subordinates. He is a mere figurehead. At higher levels, if competent assistance is available, such a manager may be useful as an ornamental head. At lower levels, a laissez-faire type of leader cannot be very successful. As he hardly gives any guidance and does not exercise any control over his subordinates, the subordinates just
muddle on, virtually leaderless. In consequence, under free-rein management
discipline is tax and efficiency at low ebb.

Thus, in autocracy the seat of responsibility is the leader; in democracy
responsibility resides in the group; and under laissez-faire management it is
distributed among the members as individuals.

Stogdill (1948) studied leadership behaviour in numerous types of groups
and situations by using Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire and two
dimensions of leadership emerged 'consideration' and 'initiating structure'.

Consideration reflects friendship, warmth, mutual trust, respect in the group
members. Consideration for ideas and feelings of subordinates is also there
Initiating Structure reflects the extent to which individuals are likely to refine and
structure their roles and those of their subordinates towards goal attainment. He
tries to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication
and methods of procedure.