CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
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2.1 Introduction

"Most successful school leaders will tell you that getting the culture right and paying attention to how parents, teachers, and students define and experience meaning are two widely accepted rules for creating effective schools. We will have to worry about standards, the curriculum, teacher development, tests, resources, and the creation of appropriate management designs that help get things done. But these concerns will not matter much unless the right culture is in place and unless parents, teachers, and students interact with the school in meaningful ways".

Sergiovanni (1992)

Over the years, leadership has been studied extensively in various contexts and theoretical foundations. In some cases, leadership has been described as a process, but most theories and research on leadership look at a person to gain understanding. Leadership is typically defined by the traits, qualities, and behaviours of a leader. The study of leadership has spanned across cultures, decades, and theoretical beliefs. A summary of what is
known and understood about leadership in relation to teacher and institutional correlates is important to proceed further on the research on leadership.

2.2 Concept of Leadership Behaviour

Stogdill (1974) in his survey of leadership theories and research, has pointed out that, “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.”

Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik (1959) define leadership as “inter personal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process towards the attainment of a specialized goal or goals”.

According to Terry (1948) Leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives”. Koontz and O'Donnell (1959) state, “Leadership is influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal”.

Katz and Khan (1978) maintain that, “The concept of leadership as generally understood in social sciences has three major meanings; the attribute of a position, the characteristics of a person, and a category of behaviour”.

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A review of other writers reveals that most management writers agree that leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts towards goal achievement in a given situation. From this definition of leadership it follows that the leadership process "L" is a function of the leader "I" followers or group , "f", and other situational variables "S" that is $L = f(I,f,S)$.

Managerial leadership is the process of directing and influencing the task related activities of group members. This involves certain implications.

1. Leadership must involve other people subordinates and followers by their willingness to accept directions from the leader, group members help to define the leader's status and make the leadership process possible.
2. Leadership involves an unequal distribution of power among leaders and group members. Leaders have the authority to direct some of the activities of group members, who cannot similarly direct the leader's activities.
3. In addition to being legitimately able to give their subordinates and followers orders or directions, leaders can also influence subordinates in a variety of other ways.
2.2.1 Dimensions of Leadership Behaviour

It is clear that leaders are multi-dimensional, they have seven faces and responsibilities. To be a leader is to fill a set of roles, each of which satisfies a critical organizational need and objective. (Figure-2.1)

![Figure 2.1: The Seven Faces of Leadership](image)
• The **purposeful** leader addresses values and purpose.

• The **visionary** leader focuses on future of the organization.

• The **strategic** leader develops action plan required to realize the vision

• The **beneficent** leader attends to needs of the community

• The **adaptive** leader helps organization respond to the new demands of the environment.

• The **guiding** leader prepares followers to carry on the traditions of the organization.

• The **virtuous** leader practices the qualities required to be effective.

All these persons represent the faces of an effective leader and constitute an agenda that any aspiring leader must adopt. Stogdill (1948) studied leadership behaviour in numerous types of groups and situations by using Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and two dimensions of leadership emerged, that is “consideration” and “initiating structure”.

**Consideration and Initiating Structure**

In the year 1940, research was conducted on the nature of leadership functions at Ohio State University. The researchers prepared questionnaire to study the leadership behaviour. This study led to the postulation of two major dimensions of leadership behaviour—consideration and initiating structure.
Consideration

Consideration refers to the extent to which leader is considerate towards subordinates and concerned about the quality of his or her relationship with subordinates. Consideration reflects friendship, warmth, mutual trust, respect in the group members consideration type of leadership behaviour comprises the friendliness, open communication with subordinates, recognition of subordinates, consultation with subordinates supportiveness and representative of subordinate interest.

Initiating Structure

Initiating structure reflects the extent to which individuals are likely to refine and structure their roles and those of their subordinates towards goal attainment. Initiating structure type of leadership behaviour includes planning, co-ordinating, directing, problem solving, classifying subordinate roles, criticizing poor work and pressurizing subordinates to perform more effectively. He tries to establish well-defined patterns of organization channels of communication and methods of procedure.

2.2.2 Classification of Leadership Behaviour Styles

Lippit and White (1939) have classified leaders into three main types, namely; (i) Autocratic or Authoritarian (ii) Democratic, and (iii) Laissez faire.
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.

The democratic leader realizes that his followers are indispensable for his success; so he wants to carry the group with him. 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 administer, but leaves all responsibility and most of the work to his subordinates. He is a mere figurehead.

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 and individuals.

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 follower.

The basic idea of impelling leadership is that people follow their own decisions; they may obey an order merely if they have to, but they follow it
enthusiastically when they are led to believe that it is their own decision. The impelling type of leader treats people as seedbeds for ideas. He sows ideas in the minds of his/her subordinates. 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.

Generally, leaders have been classified into six types they are:

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 prefaced his decisions with explanations as to why they are necessary.

vi. **Creative:** who inspires others with ideas and stimulates them to emulation.
2.2.3 Theories of Leadership

a) Trait Theories of Leadership

The prevailing assumption among early researchers interested in leadership was that, "leaders are born not made". This approach has also been characterized as the 'great person theory of leadership. This theory implies that understanding leadership requires the identification and measurement of those personal characteristics or traits, that differentiate leaders (the great) from followers (the not so great). The research has focussed on a wide variety of leader traits, including personality characteristics (for example, adaptability, dominance, self-confidence) physical characteristics (for example, height, weight, appearance and ability).

Leader trait alone cannot completely explain leadership effectiveness. Beginning in the late 1940's and continuing through the early 1960's researchers moved away from an emphasis on traits towards the study of leader behaviour.

b) Behavioural Theories of Leadership

These theories focus upon leader's behaviour and seek to understand the relationship between what the leader does and how subordinates react emotionally (their levels of satisfaction with work) and behaviourally (their
job performance). Thus, the difference between the two approaches is summarized in the table-2.1.

Table-2.1: Difference between Trait and Behaviour Theories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theories</th>
<th>Emphasis</th>
<th>End Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trait theories</td>
<td>Study personal</td>
<td>Separate leaders from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>characteristics</td>
<td>non-leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership behaviour</td>
<td>Study how a leader</td>
<td>Followers performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>theories</td>
<td>behaves</td>
<td>and satisfaction</td>
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Ohio State University studies and the University of Michigan studies are two important behavioural theories:

(i) Ohio State University Studies: The main objective of the studies was to identify the major dimensions of leadership and to investigate the effect of leadership behaviour on employee performance and satisfaction. They identified two dimensions of leadership that is, consideration and initiating structure. The main point is that both dimensions are not seen as being placed on a continuum. Leader could be high on both, low on both, or high on one and low on one, or high on one and low on the other as shown in the quadrants in Figure-2.2.
The findings of the Ohio State studies can be summarized as follows:

1. Consideration was positively related to low absenteeism and grievance, but it was negatively or neutrally related to performance.

2. Initiating structure was positively related to employee performance but was also associated with such negative consequences as absenteeism and grievances.

3. When both consideration and initiating structure were high, performance and satisfaction tended to be high. But in some cases, high productivity was accompanied by absenteeism and grievances.

Blake and Mouton (1964) have described five different types of leadership based on concern for production (task) and concern for people (relationship).
The Ohio state studies on leadership and the work of Blake and Mouton (1964) are confined in the following diagram.

![Diagram of the Managerial Grid theories combined](image)

**Figure-2.3: Ohio State Studies and Managerial Grid Theories Combined**

The managerial grid implies that the most desirable leader behaviour is "Team" (9-9) in which the leader has high concern for production as well as for his people. The least preferred style is impoverished (1-1) where the leader shows little concern either for production or for his people.

**The University of Michigan Studies:** These studies were conducted during the same period as those at Ohio State and resulted in identical conclusions. As in the Ohio State University studies, researchers at the University of Michigan distinguished between two dimensions of leadership: production-
centered and employee-centred. Production-centred leaders set rigid work standards, organized tasks down to the last detail, prescribed the work methods to be followed and closely supervised subordinates, performance. Employee-centred leaders, on the other hand, encouraged employee participation in goal setting and in other work related decisions, and helped ensure high performance by inspiring respect and trust.

At first the findings of Michigan studies seem to refute the Ohio state research because they place leadership on a continuum such as the one shown in Figure-2.4 below and concede that the further to the right the leaders go, the better off they are. But a deeper analysis reveals that employee and work orientation are two separate dimensions and that a leader can be either high or low on one or both. Thus, the two styles discovered by the Michigan researchers were similar to those of the Ohio State people. The production centered leadership factor and the initiating structure leadership factor both measured work orientation, while the employee-oriented factor and the consideration factor both measured people orientation.

![Figure-2.4: A Production-centred/Employee-centred Leadership Continuum](image-url)
c. Contingency Theory

Behavioural theories failed to identify universal leadership behaviour and follower-response relationships. A different approach was needed to accommodate the complexities of leadership, and the contingency theory was advanced for just this purpose.

Hersey and Blanchard (1991) have developed a situational model of leadership that adds "maturity" of followers as a contingency variable. According to situational leadership, there is no "one best" way to influence people. Which leadership style a person should use with individuals or groups depends on the readiness level of the people the leader is attempting to influence. Mainly, two leadership styles are used in the model that is, (I) Task Behaviour; is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviours include telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, who is to do it. (ii) Rational behaviour; is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in two way or multiway communication. The behaviour include listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviours.
The four quadrants shown in figure-2.5 can be used as the basis for assessing effective leader behaviour. No one style is effective in all situations. Each style is appropriate and effective depending on the situation.

- **Style 1 (S1).** This leadership style is characterized by above-average amounts of task behaviour and below-average amounts of relationship.
- **Style 2 (S2).** This leadership style is characterized by above-average amounts of both task and relationship behaviour.
- **Style 3 (S3).** This style is characterized by above-average amounts of relationship behaviour and below-average amounts of task behaviour.
• **Style 4 (S4).** This style is characterized by below-average amounts of both relationship behaviour and task behaviour.

### 2.2.4 Effective Style of Educational Leadership

Leaders may be born, but they can also be made. It is necessary to understand what constitutes to make an effective educational leader.

First, all leadership theories, like the vast majority of behavioural science theories have not been conclusively validated by scientific research. The lack of solid scientific evidence supporting all leadership theories are at this point, sets of empirical generalizations and have not developed into scientifically testable theories. This does not make them "wrong" merely that they have not been supported.

The traits and behavioural approaches to the study of leadership showed that effective leadership seemed to depend on a number of variables such as organizational culture, the nature of the task and work activities, and managerial values, experience, educational qualification and organizational health. No single trait is common to all effective educational leaders: no single style is most effective in all situations.

While some researchers such as Blake, Mouton and McGregor (1964) have argued that there is "one best" style of leadership behaviour that is a
style which maximizes productivity and satisfaction and growth and development in all situations. Further research in the last several decades has clearly supported the contention that there is no 'one best' leadership style.

The primary reason why there is no 'one best' style of leadership is that leadership is basically situational, or contingent. All the leadership theories of House (1974), Yetten (1973), Robbins (1976), Fiedler (1967) to name a few are situational and represent, together with situational leadership the mainstream of leadership thought.

Owens (1825) has observed" "These managers expressed a virtual consensus that based on their actual experience, each situation they handled demanded a different leadership style. No single style could suffice under the day-to-day even minute-by-minute, varying conditions of different personalities and moods among their employees, routine process vs. changing or sudden deadlines, new or ever-changing government regulations and paper work, ambiguous roles of workers, wide ranges in job complexity from simple to innovation demanding, changes in organizational structure and markets and task technologies and so on. Contingency theory has come to mean, therefore, that the effective manager has, and knows how to use, many leadership styles as each is appropriate to a particular situation.
It is believed that Owens (1825) had correctly described the situational nature of leadership and that no "one best way" approach can adequately describe what leaders must do to cope with the challenges facing them.

Stogdill (1974), author of the Handbook of leadership and a distinguished leadership researcher for more than forty years, has said it best: "The most effective leaders appear to exhibit a degree of versatility and flexibility that enables them to adapt their behaviour to the changing and contradictory demands made on them".

2.2.5 Perspectives Needed to be an Effective Educational Leader

Peters and Austin (1986) gave specific consideration to educational leadership, prescribing the qualities required of an excellent educational leader. They see the educational leader as needing the following perspectives. (Adopted from Edward Sallis, 1996)

- **Vision and symbols**: The Head of the school must communicate the institutions values to the staff, pupils and students and the wider community.

- *Management by working about*: This is the required leadership style for any institution.
• 'For the kids': This is their educational equivalent to 'close to the customer'. It ensures that the institution has a clear focus on its primary customers.

• **Autonomy, experimentation and support for failure**: Educational leaders must encourage innovation among their staff and be prepared for the failures that inevitably accompany innovation.

• **Create a sense of 'family'**: The leader needs to create a feeling of community among the institution's pupils, students, parents, teachers, and support staff.

• **Sense of the whole, rhythm, passion, intensity, and enthusiasm**: These are the essential personal qualities required of the educational leader.

In their book "Running a School" Barry and Tye suggest four factors for the Head to follow.

1. Analyzing precisely the situation in which he finds himself.
2. Identifying his aims and objectives and establishing an order of priority among them.
3. Devising and putting into operation the means of achieving his aims and objectives.
4. Devising and putting into operation, the means of assessing the extent to which his aims and objectives are being fulfilled. (Adopted from Peters, 1976).

The Head of a school is just like the captain of a ship. The prime function of the captain, however, is to take the ship somewhere. It is obvious that without the machinery for management, the ship would never leave the harbour. The captain must obviously know where he is, where he is going, how he is going to get there, and when he has arrived. In a fast changing world, one of the prime functions of the Head is to take his school somewhere. Schools, which do not change, are not stable, they are stagnant. Therefore, the Head must be an innovator.

2.2.6 Characteristics of Effective Leadership

1. **POSITIVE ATTITUDE**: The ability to avoid operating a tight structure based on rules, regulations, and procedures in which the autocratic approach predominates.

2. **HONESTY AND INTEGRITY**: Being accepted by others because of supplying information. It requires taking the blame and letting others know that something went wrong. Being open and honest in your communications.
3. **INITIATIVE:** The willingness to "dig in" and work hard without urging from others.

4. **AMBITION:** A willingness to learn new things and develop new skills - always moving forward.

5. **ORIENTATION:** Understanding that growth or leadership is "risky" - that there are no guarantees for success. Not leaning on others - making the decision, then making it right.

6. **SELF CONFIDENCE:** Expecting to succeed - "Give me the job, I can do it." Failure is only a temporary setback.

7. **STRESS RESISTANCE:** Performing high standards set by the team; getting tough when the tough gets rough. Being solution-oriented rather than problem-oriented.

8. **CREATIVENESS:** Searching for new opportunities, new approaches, and new ways to get things done.

9. **IMAGINATIVENESS:** Visualizing the accomplishment of a task even before starting on it.

10. **OPTIMISM:** Guiding your own destiny; expecting a bright future.

11. **TRUSTING:** Believing people to act responsibly and do their best.
12. **STAMINA**: Having a high energy level; the ability to cope with an endless stream of tasks and problems when the unforeseen, unscheduled or unexpected occurs.

13. **STABILITY**: Handling the routine as well as the changes over a long haul.

14. **FUTURE ORIENTATION**: Seeing the bigger picture; anticipating and forecasting future events; setting goals.

15. **INSIGHT INTO PEOPLE**: Appreciating the uniqueness of individual differences - free of bias and prejudice; probing for reasons behind behaviour, not reacting to surface behaviour; displaying empathy; encouraging others to grow.

16. **RISK TAKER**: Being ready to reach out and begin a new project even though there are no guarantee for success.

17. **WILLINGNESS TO COLLABORATE**: The ability to involve others and get things done.

18. **SENSE OF NOWNESS**: Making decisions now; taking actions now; making it happen.
2.3 Concept of Teacher Efficacy

"Teacher efficacy is believed to be one of the most significant social and psychological factors influencing teachers' work. It has been called central to the discourse on educational reform. Its development is seen as key to improving teaching and the quality of this nation's schools". (Lanier and Sedlak (1989).

Over the years, teacher efficacy has been studied extensively in various contexts and theoretical foundations. Efficacy was first recognized as a significant factor in teachers' work in the Rand Corporation's seminar studies of planned educational change Berman and McLaughlin (1977). Since those studies, teacher efficacy has been included with the increasing frequency in research on teachers and their work. Self efficacy is thought to be a generative self precept. It is grounded in histories of learning experiences, tasks and task accomplishments. However, self efficacy is not simply a reflective imprint of past experiences. It may exceed, match or remain below levels of actual performance and accomplishment because of how the individual interprets that performance and accomplishment.

Bandura (1986) contends that self efficacy develops largely from four sources of information. As suggested before, one of the most influential sources of efficacy information is actual performance attainment. A second
source of efficacy information comes from vicarious experiences, self efficacy is developed from seeing or visualizing other similar people perform tasks both successfully and unsuccessfully.

A third source of efficacy information comes from verbal persuasion, the attempts of others to lead individuals to believe that they indeed possess the capabilities to perform particular tasks. A fourth source of efficacy information comes from physiological indices.

In general, efficacy is thought to increase with appraisals of repeated success that are drawn from various sources of information. Finally, the development of self efficacy is not influenced only by one source of information at any given time. Individuals must consider that information in context, weigh and integrate it, and finally synthesize it with current levels of efficacy.

2.3.1 Definitions of Teacher Efficacy

The term is defined in many different ways, which varies in both clarity and content.

- Bandura (1986) defines self efficacy as "people's judgements of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances". Hence, according to Bandura, self
efficacy is grounded in perceptions of personal ability, instrumentality and control and is linked to specific future acts.

- Huberman (1989) considers efficacy to include teachers’ perceptions of their effectiveness with students and their decisiveness, prudence and indulgence in working with them.

- Guskey (1984–1987) uses efficacy in a more limited sense to mean teachers’ personal sense of responsibility for student learning. He frames this sense in terms of an attributional reference that is reflective of teachers’ perceived roles in past accomplishments rather than their perceived capacities for present or future actions. Guskey contends that the difference may be a matter of semantics rather than substance.

- Rosenholtz (1989) offers a different definition of teacher efficacy. According to her, “efficacy is grounded in knowledge about several different subjects and the certainty that teachers derive from that knowledge about their practice. Those subjects include teachers’ knowledge about their own practices (awareness of what they actually do in the classroom), the effects of those practices on students, and the technology of teaching (those practices that are believed to achieve certain intended outcomes with students.” This definition merges knowledge of performances and outcomes with outcome expectancy.
Lanier and Sedlak (1989) presented yet a different meaning, defining efficacy "as power that teachers have to bring about desired student learning. That power is grounded in knowledge about practice and opportunity to apply that knowledge." This definition is applied not only to teachers' work with students in the classroom but also to the professional and public leadership.

Various definitions show that there is a general lack of consistency among the meanings of teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy has been equated with empowerment (Lanier and Sedlak 1989) and connoted with knowledge about practice (Rosenholtz, 1989). It has been considered synonymous with teachers' sense of responsibility for past student learning. (Guskey 1984).

What is consistent across these definitions, however, is that teacher efficacy is conceived of generally as relating to all the tasks of teaching. Most definitions assume that teacher efficacy is a uniform self percept that applies equally to teaching different students in different instructional contexts employing different instructional strategies. A second consistent feature is that teacher efficacy is presumed to be a relatively stable pre-dispositional state.
2.3.2 Functions of Teacher Efficacy

Teacher efficacy operates in several different ways as a mediator between teachers' knowledge, skills and beliefs and their thoughts and actions.

1. Teacher efficacy influence individuals' decisions regarding choices of activities, tasks and social institutions. Strong role-efficacy is associated with active engagement in activities that challenge individual knowledge and skills and that contribute to the growth of teacher competencies. This relationship has important implications for personal learning and development.

2. Teacher efficacy is related to how much effort individuals will extend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles or aversive experiences. People with stronger self efficacy are more likely to extend more effort and persist longer in that effort than people with weaker self efficacy.

3. Teacher efficacy influences how the teachers think about and react emotionally to others and to their environments. These perspectives may generate stress and may compromise the effective use of personal capabilities.
2.3.3 Factors Influencing the Functions of Teacher Efficacy

These factors include:

- The nature of the goals to be achieved
- The tasks to be accomplished
- The contexts in which goals are to be achieved.
- The incentives and disincentives associated with attempting, succeeding or failing to achieve the goals or accomplish the tasks.
- The value the teacher places on the goals, tasks, incentives and disincentives.

2.3.4 Teacher Efficacy and Classroom Behaviour

Gibson and Dembo (1984) found that high efficacy teachers spent more time teaching, students as whole classes as opposed to teaching them in small groups. In addition, they found that high efficacy teachers were more likely than low efficacy teachers to communicate high expectations for student performance and to persist longer in working with students until those students were successful. Ashton and Webb (1986) found the similar relationships of teachers efficacy to teachers' communication of expectations and teachers' persistence in working with students.
2.3.5 Teacher Efficacy and Student Achievement

Various studies also find significant relationships between teacher efficacy and student academic achievement. This finding was replicated by Armor and his colleagues (1976), Berman and McLaughlin (1977), McLaughlin and Marsh (1978) and Rosenholtz (1989).

2.3.6 Teacher Efficacy and Organizational Influences

Identification of efficacy as a significant factor in teachers' classroom behaviour, student learning has raised an important question of what factors influence the development and levels of teacher efficacy.

Rand studies (Berman and McLaughlin 1977, McLaughlin and Marsh, 1978) found positive relationships of teacher efficacy to teacher involvement in decision making and to collegial support of classroom innovations.

Likewise, Rosenholtz (1989) identified positive relationships of teacher's efficacy to opportunities for feedback about their classroom performance and collaboration with other teachers about instruction.

Teacher efficacy has been found to relate significantly to outcomes that are values. In order to promote these values outcomes, teacher efficacy
ought to be enhanced. Teacher efficacy is enhanced by information regarding effective practice and performance. In order to enhance teacher efficacy, teacher access to sources of information regarding effective practice, their own practice and the outcomes of that practice must be promoted.

2.4 Concept of Teacher Commitment

There is a great deal of research commentary, speculation and misunderstanding regarding the meaning of the concept "commitment". In studying commitment, researchers have not always been clear about the focus or object of commitment. Morrow (1983) for example, notes that research has often confused commitment to careers, jobs, unions and work with commitment to organizations.

The concept of commitment has received increased attention in recent years as a potential determinant of employee performance, absenteeism, and turnover.

2.4.1 Definitions of Commitment

There are many definitions of commitment, one of the most useful and often quoted is, "teacher commitment is a psychological identification of the individual teacher with the school's goals and values, and the intention of
that teacher to maintain organizational membership and become involved in the job beyond personal interest”.

This definition of commitment consists of three basic components that activate direct, and sustain the behaviour. Individuals are assumed to have within their inner psyche activating forces that lead them to identify or not to identify with their employing organization. An example of this activating force is the affective orientation a teacher has toward the organization. Commitment also directs behaviour; that is, the teacher’s behaviour will be channelled to accomplish organizational goals and objectives. It provides goal orientation. In addition, commitment motivates a teacher to maintain and sustain behaviour. For instance, a committed teacher may be more apt to stay within the employing school than an uncommitted teacher; a committed teacher is more inclined to improve the quality of his or her work than an uncommitted teacher.

To sum up, commitment is a complex process that implies a personal commitment to the organization, institution, activity, or task. Personal commitment is represented in “how persons or groups choose to use to invest their time, energy and resources”. (Maehr and Braskamp, 1986).
2.4.2 Importance of Commitment

Practitioners and researchers stress the importance of a loyal committed work force. Individuals who are committed represent a more stable, consistent body of employees, who will exert effort when work conditions are not ideal. With a recent trend towards a decline in loyalty across many levels and types of employees, commitment has become an increasingly important issue for all types of organizations. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1982) indicate that the linkage between the individual employee and the organization leads to (a) a strong belief and acceptance of the organizations goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a strong desire to maintain organizational membership.

2.4.3 Studies on Teacher Commitment

There are a lot of studies on employees' commitment, but very few of these studies have used educational organizations as the unit of analysis. This lack of attention to teacher commitment may be due to the belief that the educational profession is widely known to have high levels of commitment (McPherson, Crowson and Pitner, 1986). They also claim that teachers were drawn to the profession because of the purpose of the
organization helping others, modelling young minds, and improving society. These images may have encouraged researchers to neglect this area.

Becker's side bet theory of commitment, Alutto, Herbiniak, and Alonso (1973) conclude that teacher's age, years of total experience, lack of intentions to seek advanced degrees, marital status and gender are associated with positive commitment.

Rosenholtz (1987) used a sociological perspective to study teacher commitment and suggested that an uncommitted staff tends to devalue work and orient toward satisfactions other than those that come from successful job performance. In a more extensive report of teacher commitment, Rosenholtz (1989) describes the effects of several social variables on teacher commitment, such as task autonomy, psychic rewards, teacher's learning opportunities, and teacher certainty.

Freeston (1987) showed that teacher commitment to the school is significantly related to intrinsically satisfying tasks, formalization, teacher indifference toward organizational rewards, and teacher need for independence.

Reyes and Pounder (1990) examined the overall work orientation of private and public schools and its relationship to teacher commitment. They
concluded that, in general, private schools generate more teacher commitment to the school than public schools do.

In summary, scholars and practitioners have increased their interest in teacher commitment to the organization. The growing body of literature suggests that commitment is a desirable outcome.

2.4.4 Different Motives of Teachers

Yet today, teachers like any other employees, have different motives for joining schools; some still have the internal drive to serve, regardless of work conditions; other join schools because they do not have other alternatives. Some view teaching as a stepping stone to move ahead or to generate a second income, which has little to do with the overall mission of schools. Consequently, teacher commitment to the organization becomes a critical issue for school administrators.

2.4.5 A model of Teacher Commitment

How does one shape teacher commitment? The following section includes a model that describes the process through which teacher commitment is established.

According to the model shown in the Figure-2.6 the organizational and employee values interact at first when the teacher joins a particular
school. This is an exploratory stage in which the individual discovers the superficial characteristics of the organization and matches the values with those of the organization. Once the individual decides to stay because of the person organization fit, the second stage, organizational socialization starts. The third stage shows the development of attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours that determine the level of teacher commitment.

![Diagram of Teacher Commitment](image)

**Figure-2.6: A Model of Teacher Commitment**

### 2.4.6 Antecedents of Teacher Commitment

Briefly, the research on teacher commitment implies that antecedents of commitment may be grouped into three categories. The first group relates personal demographic variables to commitment. The second group includes
organizational characteristics, which includes social rewards, extrinsic rewards (for example, pay benefits, and promotion opportunity etc.) and organizational orientation. The third group represents the strength of the person organization fit the match of individual and organizational values. When the person organization fit is strong, the individual’s socialization will lead to specific beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours that will enhance teachers commitment to the school or workplace and to its goals and mission.

2.4.7 Results of Teacher Commitment

Regarding results or outcomes, commitment has been significantly and negatively associated with turnover and, to a lesser extent, with other withdrawal behaviours, such as decreased performance and increased absenteeism and tardiness.

1. A committed teacher is likely to be less tardy, work harder, and be less inclined to leave the workplace than a non committed teacher.

2. A committed teacher is more likely to devote more time in extra-curricular activities to accomplish the goals of the organization than is a non committed teacher.

3. It is also likely that committed teacher will perform his job better than non committed ones.
4. Students who work with a committed teacher will outperform students who work with an uncommitted teacher.

5. Moreover, students' achievement and their affective characteristics will be more positive than those of students working with an uncommitted teacher.

To sum up, teacher commitment is likely to influence the level of performance of both students and teachers themselves. All in all, committed teachers will believe and act upon the goals of the school exert effort that go beyond personal interest, and intend to remain members of the school system.

2.5 Concept of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is an important influence in the operation of schools. Our perception is that culture can be created by the values, symbols, and myths that affect how people interact and relate. One characteristic of transforming cultures is the habit of breaking habits. Culture should not be the bulwark that resists change; it should create an environment where change is embraced and innovation is valued.

Analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are the main thought processes used to keep the culture adaptive. New ideas can be synthesized and
programmes can evolve rather than remain static or tied to tradition. Thinking about culture in transforming schools helps focus on how culture can embrace the change process, not impede it.

In such a culture, the behaviour of the organization is change oriented to provide successful service to clients, with the focus on achievement and quality. These organizations live the culture they want by having actions follow words and by reinforcing people for behaving in accord with it. New values, rituals, celebrations, and stories are established to promote change and adaptation.

This culture encourages people to be proactive, not reactive, anticipating needs and finding solutions. The organization also looks forward, defines trends, and finds ways to incorporate new ideas and technology into its operations. Innovation is encouraged and rewarded, and districts make procedural and fiscal resources available to do it.

The culture of an organization is an amalgamation of the values and beliefs of the people in an organization. It can be felt in the implicit rules and expectations of behaviour in an organization where, even though the rules are not formally written down employees know what is expected of them. It is usually set by management whose decisions on policy usually set up the
culture of the organization. The organizational culture usually has values and beliefs that support the organizational goals.

Things in an organization which contribute to the culture

- The organizational structure of reporting and relationships
- Organization policy
- Personnel practices
- Work flow and work loads
- Job design
- Management and supervisory styles.

What is organizational culture? How valuable is the cultural perspective on organizations?

Shared meaning, shared understanding and shared sense making have all been used to describe organizational culture. Although good definitions in the sense that they are succinct they do, as tools, provide us with much help in analyzing organizations.

The cultural metaphor is useful as it gives a vocabulary to talk about various institutions and reactions that happen inside a company. In fact any organization is defined purely by its culture; everything in and about the organization from its systems and policies to its procedures and processes are its culture.
The first is best described by Schein in Gaining Control of Corporate Culture (1985). In it he describes some "Basic Assumptions". These psychological predispositions that organizational members posses lead them to think and act in a certain way. As Hofstede puts it, Culture is the software of the mind.

When looking at how culture has played its part in the Japanese industrial expansion they would look at the fact that Japan was until only recently a feudal society. In it there were two groups, the farmers and the samurai. The solidarity of the work force is based on the huge communal effort which goes into rice production and the subservience is based on the community's willingness to look after the protective samurai; thus Japanese work culture is based on assumptions built into it during the feudal years.

The contrary view is behaviourist. It believes that the manifestation these assumptions in peoples actions forms culture. It can be say that the nature of culture is found in its social norms and customs.

Here, one would take a different view of the Japanese culture. Although the basic idea is subservience from previous example, the behaviourists would be more interested in the out-working shown by the story of a European manager who moved out to a Japanese factory and started initiated European reforms which his Japanese deputy knew would
not work. His deputy however said nothing. Why? To question a superior would be cause shame to fall on the new boss and so the Japanese deputy felt he could say nothing; behaviourists would then identify lack of ability to criticize bosses as part of the Japanese culture.

Firstly the model allows us to not take the Victorian view that all cultures must evolve in a similar way and that all actions should tend towards some reasonable rational perfection. All actions are must been seen that all actions are equally abnormal if we are not inside the culture in which they were performed and by trying to adopt the role of cultural stranger in all situations. "we can see organizations, their employees, practices and problems in a refreshingly new perspective".

This however leaves a problem for all the consultants who are trying to set themselves as cultural gurus as it is also seen that culture is not something that is imposed on a social setting, rather it is something that develops during the course of social interaction. The fact that organizations might not have shared cultures across the entire spectrum of members, particularly if the organization is multinational, means there can be no quick-fixes to an organization in terms of just "fixing-up" the culture. In general our understanding of a given culture is more fragmented and superficial than the reality.
Another problem with the cultural fix to a firm is the fact that many services are, owing to a drop in transaction costs following the information revolution, now being contracted out to companies over whose culture management have no control. Add to this the increase in the numbers of part time workers who are much harder to integrate into the culture as they may often miss defining events and culture fixing becomes very hard. This does not mean there is no reason to look at culture other than from an academic point of view. Although there is no one perfect culture, by adapting to suit needs.

Culture does, however, allow us to understand some of the problems associated with a change on management styles after a takeover or merger. Two groups of people with quite different basic assumptions of how things are "meant to work round here" suddenly find they have to communicate their ideas across a seemingly impenetrable cultural divide.

Thus to conclude, culture allows us a way of viewing the rationality of some previously thought irrational actions. It allows us to look at how different organization might interact with each other however as yet there is not enough information on how enforced changes on culture actually affect the culture. Rapid changes in culture to improve communication might leave people confused as to what they are allowed to say and so keep quiet to
avoid causing an upset. Culture analysis is a useful descriptive tool but as yet 
is not a fixing tool.

Fixing the vision sets the direction for the organizational ship. Then it 
is upon the sea of organizational culture that quality improvement efforts 
must sail if they are to be successful. Organizational culture refers to the 
patterned ways of feeling, thinking, and acting that are shared by members 
of the organization. The specific dimensions of culture include systems and 
structures, actions, roles, behaviors, attitudes, norms, and values. These 
dimensions provide the basic assumptions and attitudes on which members 
operate. They are often so well internalized that they are taken for granted.

Debate exists among academics as to whether organizations have 
cultures. One should believe that the organizational culture is to be 
addressed as total quality improvement efforts that are to be successful and 
another believable fact that culture of most colleges and universities are to be 
transformed if quality improvement efforts are to be made.

The implementation of total quality will call for a major transformation 
of organizational values, norms, structures and processes. This 
transformation does not mean that the sequential values of academic 
freedom, intellectual creativity and the new wisdom must be sacrificed. Old 
habits based on debated needs will have to be discarded.
If cultural transformation is required, as it is in most cases, then there must be a plan to achieve the transformation. There are nine key steps in cultural transformation process:

❖ Planning for cultural change
❖ Assessing the cultural “baseline”
❖ Training managers and the workforce
❖ Management adopting and modeling new behaviour
❖ Making organizational and regulation changes that support quality action.
❖ Redesigning individual performance appraisal and monetary reward systems to reflect the principles of total quality management.
❖ Changing budget practices.
❖ Awarding positive change
❖ Bring communication tools to reinforce TQM principles.

Several of these steps need to be emphasized. Assessing the culture “baseline” is critical because it provides the data needed to establish priorities for change.

The factors involved in creating an organizational culture are part of a causal hierarchy that initiates and ultimately leads to changing the culture. These are discussed below and presented in figure 2.7.
Change in System and Structures: Modify or change systems and structures to be consistent with the principles of total quality improvement.

Change in Actions: Action should be based on both achieving the vision and mission of the college and university and on the principles of total quality improvement.

Changes in Roles: Management must assume new roles as a facilitator, supporter, provider, creator and promoter.

Change in Behaviour: The changes in the roles of management must be evident in the daily behaviours of the managers, i.e., they must facilitate, support, provide, create and promote.

Change in Attitudes: Behavioural change produces attitudinal change. If you want people to think differently, get them to behave differently first.

Change in Norms: Overtime, changes in roles, behaviours, and attitudes will be collected in changes in personal and organizational norms.

Change in Values: Ultimately, the collective change will affect the values of the organization and the people who are a part of the organization.
2.5.1 Elements of Culture

Decisions in a strong culture are influenced by the organization's self-image and projected image. Strong cultures have cohesion and consensus around specific, articulated values and beliefs, shared knowledge of symbolic models and patterns, and social processes leadership and language that maintain the integrity of the group. The elements of culture listed below in public and private sector organizations. These elements define social interaction and norms. "Norms are social glue. They hold things together".
Culture norms help interpret everyday occurrences and assist people with sorting out the confusion, uncertainty, and ambiguity of work life.

Schein (1985) categorizes culture as basic assumptions, values, artifacts, and creations. Basic assumptions are invisible and taken for granted; they are implicit, nondebatable, nonconfrontable theories in use that guide behaviour. They are woven into the fabric of a system's operation and reflect the relationship of the organization to the environment; the nature of reality, time, and space; and the nature of human relationships.

**Table-2.2: Elements of Organizational Culture**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Determines what the organization must do to be successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Basic beliefs and concepts defining the organization's ideology and philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heroes</td>
<td>People who personify the organization's culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rites and Rituals</td>
<td>Routines of day-to-day organizational life are used as behavioural models</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Network</td>
<td>The primary and informal means of communication in an organization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values, on the other hand, are the consequence of basic assumptions. They pull a group together and bind it. There is greater awareness of values because they provide a sense of "what ought to be." They serve a normative
function, guiding behaviour and establishing standards. Values that are congruent with basic assumptions are powerful; those that are not are simply aspirations or rationalizations.

The most evident elements of culture are its artifacts and creations, and its constructed physical and social environments. These elements are visible through technology, art, and written and spoken behaviour patterns, and they deal with overt behaviour. Although observable, their meaning and interrelations are not easy to determine (Schein, 1985). Each day teachers, students, parents, and others have contact with the elements of culture. For school leaders, culture is an important consideration in moving the organization toward its mission.

2.5.2 Culture and Leaders

Leaders deal with symbol and images; consequently, they affect culture. Many leaders use metaphorical language, express values, define visions, and manage labels and symbols. Some leaders themselves become legends and a part of an organization’s mythology. Their language affects the discourse of the entire organization because it expresses ideas, values, and perceptions of reality.
Leaders are intertwined with the culture's creation and management, and possibly its destruction.

Culture is created in the first instance by the actions of leaders; culture is also embedded and strengthened by leaders. When culture becomes dysfunctional, leadership is needed to help the group unlearn some of its cultural assumptions and learn new ones. Such transformations require what amounts to conscious and deliberate destruction of cultural elements, and it is this aspect of cultural dynamics that makes leadership important and difficult to define (Schein, 1985).

Under this premise, and organization would be hard pressed to adapt to changing circumstances and conditions without strong leadership.

Changing culture is important but difficult because culture creates “patterns of perception, thought, and feeling of every new generation in the organization” (Schein, 1985). An organization may be predisposed to certain kinds of leadership for different phases of its life. The leadership types for the creation, midlife, and mature phases of organization life are illustrate. These phases closely parallel the four life cycles of organizations.
### 2.5.3 Leadership, Culture and Organizational Phases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Culture and Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Creation</td>
<td>Leaders create vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication in clear, consistent messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persistence and patience to curb anxiety and promote stability and emotional reassurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Midlife</td>
<td>Culture is more cause than effect – influences strategy, structure, and processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture affects perception, thinking, and feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leaders need insight into effects of culture on organization’s mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Maturity</td>
<td>Culture affects what is defined as leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leaders need:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- to detect cultural dysfunctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- motivation and skill to unfreeze culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- strength to absorb anxiety change brings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- depth of vision to step outside culture to review the validity of assumptions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Debate exists among academics as to whether organizations have cultures. One should believe that the organizational culture is to be addressed a total quality improvement efforts are to be successful and another
believable fact that culture of most colleges and universities need to be transformed if quality improvement efforts are to be made.

Fixing the vision sets the direction for the organizational ship. Then it is upon the sea of organizational culture that quality improvement efforts must sail if they are to be successful. Organizational culture refers to the patterned ways of feeling, thinking, and acting that are shared by members of the organization. The specific dimensions of culture include systems and structures, actions, roles, behaviours, attitudes, norms and values. These dimensions provide the basic assumptions and attitudes on which members operate.

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2.6 Conclusion

To sum up, the present study, of leadership behaviour of Heads of secondary schools in relation to teacher and institutional correlates is an issue of lot of importance in educational management. As such this contributes in great magnitude to improve the performance of secondary schools, in all respects. The theoretical background provides enough material to have an insight into the variables under study.