## CHAPTER 2
THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

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CHAPTER 2
THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the research studies, it is needed to state the theoretical concepts or the basic ideas on the topic and the work already done in the research studies, to attain an overall relevance and purpose. Theory is used to craft the null hypothesis, which is either proved or disproved by the research itself and the review of literature provide readers with a background for understanding current knowledge on a topic and illuminate the significance for the new study. The theory is the source of concepts and the connections among them that made it possible to produce hypotheses identify confirmations or refutations. (Ritzer, George, 2007)¹

Researchers usually summarize the relevant theory from books and past studies. The theoretical orientation and review of the past research studies thus becomes a link between the proposed research and the studies already been done. The value of theory and review of past studies depend on the clarity and coherence of their formulation and their adequacy to their conceptual frameworks. (Merton, Robert K., 1979)² Therefore, the present chapter is concerned to the theoretical orientation and review of the past studies concerning the teachers’ morale and leaders’ behaviour.

2.2 TEACHERS’ MORALE

The theoretical orientation of the present study is to state the basic ideas on the teachers’ morale and leaders’ behaviour i.e. definition of morale, importance of morale, measurement of teachers’ morale, definition of leader and leaders’ behaviour, leadership theories, effects of leadership behaviour on teachers’ morale.

2.2.1 Definition of morale

The term “morale” is generally referred to the satisfaction in performance of any organization. The study of morale aims at finding out the ways to earn more production of work. The word “morale” is a term which was usually applied to armies during war-time and now it has been applied in industry and education. A number of educators defined the word “morale” with the interested meaning and some of them are presented as follow:

Thomas Briggs (1958) stated that ‘morale’ was a term usually applied to a group; it actually started with each individual member of that group. He has given factors as being necessary for good morale as: (i) exuberant physical health, (ii) ability to make proposals to the principal, (iii) freedom from negative criticism, and (iv) work assigned according to ability.

Lane (1967) defines that morale is composed of a complex factors, which range from satisfaction with the material and the non-material aspect of the job and with interpersonal relations, to specific work behaviours, such as efficiency, productivity and dependability of workers. However, underlining all of these are vitality and enthusiasm for the task, which are fundamental of morale. The level of this vitality and enthusiasm is strongly dependent upon the degree of meaning that a man finds in his work, the extent to which he contribute to, and identifies with a goal of his job.

Motowidlo & Borman (1977) provides an interesting view by defining morale as a psychological state shared by members of a group that consists of general feelings of satisfaction with conditions that have impact on the group and strong motivation to accomplish group objectives despite obstacles or adversity.

Bentley and Rempel (1980) have defined morale as the professional interest and enthusiasm that a person display towards the achievement of individual and group goals in a job situation. It is “a forward-looking and confident state of mind relevant to a shared and vital purpose” They discuss morale as being the interaction between individual needs and the organization’s goals. Thus, a high morale would result only when the process of achieving the organization’s goals also reaches the individual’s needs.

Slim (1986) defined morale as a state of mind which acted as an intangible force which impelled groups of men to achieve something without counting the cost to themselves; and also that they felt part of something greater than themselves.

Wentworth (1990) describes that morale is an internal feeling a person possesses free from the perceived reality of others. Morale is not an observable trait; rather it is an
internal feeling or set of thoughts. Low morale results from professional lives that have little meaning; from frustration and the inability to change what is happening.

Webster’s New World Dictionary (1994)\textsuperscript{9} defines morale as “the mental condition with respect to courage, discipline, confidence, enthusiasm, willingness to endure hardship, etc., within a group, in relation to a group, or within an individual.”

Evans (1998)\textsuperscript{10} proposes that morale is a state of mind encompassing all of the feelings determined by the individual’s anticipation of the extent of satisfaction of those needs which he/she perceives as significantly affecting his/her total work situation.

Business dictionary (2011)\textsuperscript{11} defines the word moral as a psychological state of a person as expressed in self-confidence, enthusiasm, and/or loyalty to a cause or organization. Morale flows from the people’s conviction about the righteousness or worth of their actions and the hopes of high rewards (material or otherwise) in the future.

Rahul Gladwin (2011)\textsuperscript{12} defines morale as the satisfaction level of employees in relation to their workplace. It is how employees see their jobs, their attitudes to their work environment, and their honest cooperation toward the progress of the entire company. Morale also indicates the happiness level of employees within a company. It is also a condition in which organizational goals are merged with individualized goals. Morale and productivity are directly proportional, that is, if morale is high, productivity is also high.

In the present study, morale refers to the state of the mind and spirits or physical and mental well being of an individual or group as shown in the willingness to perform assigned tasks that makes them to work and live effectively. Morale is composed of a complex of factors, which range from satisfaction with the material and the non-material aspect of the job and with interpersonal relations, to specific work behaviours, such as efficiency and productivity. Morale indicates the level of motivation and enthusiasm for achieving mission success and happiness level of individual or group within an organization. Morale and productivity are directly proportional, that is, if morale is high, productivity is also high.
2.2.2 Definition of teachers’ morale

Teachers’ morale is one measure of effective school. Daniel Griffiths (1956)\textsuperscript{13} said that groups which achieve their goals efficiently exhibit a high degree of cohesiveness, think well of their leaders, agree on their objectives and have self-confidence, then these manifestations represent high morale and achievement can be shown. The term “teachers’ morale” is defined by many educators as presented below:

Murry, H. A. (1954)\textsuperscript{14} defines teachers’ morale as characteristics of a teaching staff representative of cooperative, alert aggressive support of a commonly accepted policy for the school or school system. Teachers’ morale indicates the mental well being of teachers to perform their teaching-learning activities.

Vernon Anderson (1956)\textsuperscript{15} states that teachers’ morale is a good feeling, a sense of joy and the effort or talent of teachers which creates the achievement of their students and growth of their teaching profession.

According to the definition of “morale” given by Bentley and Rempel (1980)\textsuperscript{16}, it can be interpreted that teachers’ morale is the professional interest and enthusiasm that a teacher displays towards the achievement in teaching profession. When teachers’ morale is high, teachers feel good about each other and, at the same time, feel a sense of accomplishment from their jobs.

Hoy and Miskel (1987)\textsuperscript{17} said that teachers’ morale would result when the process of achieving the school’s goals reaches the teachers’ needs. Good and efficient teaching depends upon the harmony between institutional goals and teachers’ goals.

Linda Lumsden (2007)\textsuperscript{18} regards that morale is the teachers’ satisfaction which involve in one’s job to exert extra effort, interest and enthusiasm for achievement in teaching-learning situation. She found that “when teacher morale is high, teachers feel good about each other and, at the same time, feel a sense of accomplishment from their jobs”. This is similar to Guba who argues that high morale is related with high level of satisfaction.
Linda Evans (2009)\(^9\) explains that morale is a state of mind determined by individuals’ anticipation to the extent of satisfaction to those needs which he/she perceives as significantly affecting his/her total teaching situation.

According to Business dictionary and the free dictionary, morale of teachers is the combination of 6 meanings:

**M** is for Motivation: Motivation means internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in people to be continually interested in and committed to a job, role, or subject, and to exert persistent effort in attaining a goal. (Business dictionary, 2011)\(^{20}\)

**O** is for Optimism: Optimism means a tendency to expect the best possible outcome and see the best in all things with the most hopeful aspects of a situation. (The free dictionary, 2011)\(^{21}\) Optimism is rooted in confidence in the future.

**R** is for Respect: Respect means a feeling of appreciative, state of being regarded with honour or esteem, willingness to show consideration or appreciation. (The free dictionary, 2011)\(^{22}\) Teaching is a highly respected profession.

**A** is for Affirmation: Affirmation means the act of affirming or the state of being affirmed; assertion, Something declared to be true; a positive statement or judgment. Affirmation is directly related to motivation. It provides a sense of accomplishment and sense of doing something worthwhile. (The free dictionary, 2011)\(^{23}\)

**L** is for Leadership: Leadership means the activity of leading a group of people or an organization, or the ability to do this. Leadership in an organizational role involves (1) establishing a clear vision, (2) sharing that vision with others so that they will follow willingly, (3) providing the information, knowledge, and methods to realize that vision, and (4) coordinating and balancing the conflicting interests of all members or stakeholders. (Business dictionary, 2011)\(^{24}\) Teachers must demonstrate leadership behaviour.

**E** is for Enthusiasm: Enthusiasm means great excitement for or interest in a subject or cause. (The free dictionary, 2011)\(^{25}\) Morale makes teachers to perform their tasks with enthusiasm.

In the present study, “teachers’ morale” refers to the state of mind and spirits or physical and mental well being of individual teacher or group of teachers as shown in the willingness, satisfaction and motivation which represent the professional interest and
enthusiasm in students’ achievement and growth of teaching profession or achieving mission success. Teachers’ morale is conceived as an effect related to the successful interaction among teachers’ needs, incentives and organizational goals. Teachers’ morale is a great barometer of a school’s effectiveness. If teachers’ morale is high, then it shows the sign of school achievement. If teachers’ morale is low, then it is hardly to work successfully for organizational goals.

It can be seen that teachers’ morale is multi-dimensional. It is volatile in nature. It differs from person to person, group to group and institution to institution. It also differs from time to time and situation to situation, although it is recognized as a powerful force for the school achievement. Therefore, raising the level of teachers’ morale must be recognized and must be examined continuously what factors influence on teachers’ morale.

2.2.3 Factors affecting teachers’ morale

Teachers’ morale is not a single dimension but it is multi-dimensional and composed of the complex factors.

Redefer (1959) attempts to convey the idea about teachers’ morale into morale status of teachers which comprises of 4 factors i.e.

- Teachers’ feeling about position and acceptance and possibility of achieving his objectives
- Teachers’ in relation to professional community and school neighbourhood, parents, fellow teachers and students
- Teachers’ relationship with administrators, supervisors and administrative staff
- Teachers’ in relation to himself and his profession

Cattell & Stice (1960) state that teachers’ morale should not expect to be a single dimension but several, each contributing to certain characteristics towards the teachers’ morale. They interpret multi-dimensionality of teachers’ morale in 5 factors i.e.

- Morale of leadership synergy
- Morale of tenacity and fortitude
- Morale of group cohesion
- Morale of adventurous striving
• Morale of personal reward

Richardson & Blocker’s (1963)\textsuperscript{28} applied the term teachers’ morale in accordance with Herzberg’s motivation and hygiene factors. (Herzberg Frederick, 1959)\textsuperscript{29} According to his theory, they interpret that teachers’ morale are influenced by two sets of factors:

(1) Motivator factors (achievement, recognition, work-itself, responsibility, promotion and growth)

(2) Hygiene factors (pay and benefit, company policy, and administration, relations with co-workers, and supervision.

Smith (1966)\textsuperscript{30} proposed a model for investigating teachers’ morale based on five factors of Cattell & Stice. He had reduced them into three factors such as Morale of leadership synergy, pride and personal challenge.

Bentley and Rempel (1980)\textsuperscript{31} determine ten factors relevant to teachers’ morale which were based on the professional interest and enthusiasm that teachers display towards the achievement of individual goals and school goals. The ten factors are as follows:

(1) Teacher’s rapport with principal: It deals with the teachers’ feelings about the principal, professional competency, interest in teachers and their work, ability to communicate, and skill in human relations.

(2) Teaching satisfaction: It pertains to teachers’ relationships with students and feeling of satisfaction with teaching. According to this factor, the high morale teacher loves to teach, feels competent in his or her job, enjoys the students, and believes in the future of teaching as an occupation.

(3) Rapport among teachers: It focuses on teacher’s relationships with other teachers. The items here solicit the teacher’s opinion regarding the cooperation, preparation, ethics, influence, interests, and competency of his or her peers.

(4) Teacher’s salary: It pertains primarily to the teacher’s feelings about salary and salary policies, salary based on competency, comparison with salary in other school systems, policies regarding salary administered fairly and justly.

(5) Teacher’s load: It deals with such matters as record-keeping, clerical work, “red tape,” community demands on teacher time, extra-curricular activities, and keeping
up to date professionally.

(6) Curriculum issues: It solicits teachers’ reactions to the adequacy of the school programme in meeting student needs, in providing for individual differences, and in preparing students for effective citizenship.

(7) Teacher’s status: It samples feelings about the prestige, security, and benefits afforded by teaching. Several of the items refer to the extent to which the teacher feels he or she is an accepted member of the community.

(8) Community support for education: It deals with the extent to which the teacher feels the community understands and is willing to support a sound educational programme.

(9) School facilities, services and welfare: It has to do with the adequacy of facilities, supplies and equipment, and the efficiency of the procedures for obtaining material and services.

(10) Community pressures: It gives special attention to community expectations with respect to the teacher’s personal standards, his or her participation in outside-school activities, and his or her freedom to discuss controversial issues in the classroom.

Hart, P. M. (1994)\textsuperscript{32} presents important factors of teachers’ morale such as good team spirit in school, lot of energy in school, work with enthusiasm, and take pride in school and suggests that seven factors would be needed for the school effectiveness. They are: feedback to teachers’ work performance, professional interaction, supportive leadership, goal congruence (similar to mission consensus), professional development (similar to professional interest but indicates how the school provides opportunities for personal development), participative decision-making (similar to empowerment), and role clarity.

Marsh, C.R. (2003)\textsuperscript{33} investigates eight factors which associates with teachers’ morale based on the basic assumption of Moos (1974)\textsuperscript{34}

(1) Student support: This refers to the good rapport between teachers and students, and students behave in a responsible self-discipline manner.

(2) Affiliation: This refers to the assistance, advice and encouragement which is given to teachers, made by leaders and colleagues.
(3) Professional growth: This refers to growth of teachers on their career path and further professional development.

(4) Mission Consensus: This refers to the consensus exists within the staff or the school members about the school goals.

(5) Empowerment: This refers to the empowerment and encouragement involving in decision making processes which is given to teachers.

(6) Innovation: This refers to the school which is in favour of planned change and experimentation, and foster classroom openness and individualization.

(7) Adequate support of facilities, finance, equipment and resources.

(8) Work condition: This refers to the conditions in which teachers have to work i.e. working environment and all existing circumstances which affected teachers’ work place.

Noella Mackenzie (2011) in the study: “Teacher Morale: More Complex than We Think” presents four factors relevant to teachers’ morale. The explanations of these four factors are as follow:

(1) Teachers’ work load: Teaching is a socially responsible occupation which is highly accountable and bureaucratic, demanding intellectually, emotionally and physically, and intensive and unrelenting. Although employed to teach, teachers are engaged in a wide variety of tasks which are additional to face-to-face teaching. Systems appear to be demanding more and more from teachers. These extra duties include: curriculum design and development; school planning; marketing (mostly private school teachers); community relations; information technology; workplace health and safety; resource management; student welfare; along with playground and sports supervision. Teachers are also finding it increasingly difficult to meet the needs of students with a wider range of abilities resulting from inclusion policies that have seen the number of students with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. While the demands upon teachers have increased, there has been little change in patterns of employment, compensation and career advancement of teachers. Thus, workload is a major contributor to stress.
(2) Status of the teaching profession: Status is broadly defined as: 'one’s position in society. A major contributor to the low status of teachers is the community’s lack of understanding of just what is involved in teaching. Lack of teaching profession leads for poor level of teachers’ morale. So, the status of the teaching profession in the community is highlight needs for public awareness and appreciation of teaching as a profession to be raised. Teachers have a responsibility to work towards improving status of the profession by being advocates for teaching as a career teacher.

(3) Staff relations: Teacher’s relationship with other teaching staff is one important factor for increasing the teachers’ morale and teachers’ satisfaction.

(4) Salary: The recognition attached to improved salaries also provides teachers with the incentive to continue in what is recognized as an increasingly demanding role which lead to higher level of teachers’ morale.

(5) School communities: School communities should be supported to promote positive teachers’ morale of all teachers.

After studying the factors of teachers’ morale mentioned above, the ten factors suggested by Bentley and Rempel (1980) are decided to select and modify to use in the present study.

According to the present study, ten factors of teachers’ morale and the definition of each factor modified by the researcher are as follow:

1. Teacher rapport with leader (director of the physical education institute) : It deals with the human relations between teachers and director, teachers’ feelings about the director, interest of director to teachers and their work, and the pleasant climate with a sense of unity between teachers and director.

2. Teaching satisfaction: It pertains to teachers’ feeling of satisfaction with teaching profession, development of teaching ability, relationships between teachers and students. According to this factor, the high morale teacher loves to teach, feels competent in his or her job, enjoys the students, and believes in the future of teaching as an occupation.

3. Rapport among teachers: It focuses on teacher’s trust and mutual relationships with other teachers. The items here solicit the teacher’s opinion regarding the
cooperation, unity of purpose, positive attitude among teachers, and the feeling of collegiality and collaboration of teachers.

(4) Teacher salary: It refers to praise, money and rewards which is given to teachers. According to this factor, it pertains primarily to the teacher’s feelings about salary and salary policies, salary based on competency, comparison with salary in other school systems, policies regarding salary administered fairly and justly.

(5) Teacher load: It deals with the amount of work or the sum of activities that has to be done by a teacher over a given period of time and related directly or indirectly to professional duties, physical and mental strain, responsibilities and interests. The items here are concerned to the teaching activities, committee duties, office-hours meetings, administrative duties, and community service.

(6) Curriculum issues: It solicits to teachers’ feeling about curriculum. The items refer to the formulation of curriculum which cooperates with institute’s members and stakeholders, teachers’ reactions to the variety of courses for learners to satisfy their inclination interest, needs and individual difference. It also included the aims of curriculum in order to improve learners’ abilities, attitude, quality of life and preparation of students for effective citizenship.

(7) Teacher status: It samples feelings about the prestige, security, praise, recognition and benefits afforded by teaching. Several of the items refer to the extent to which the teacher feels he or she is an accepted member of the society.

(8) Community support for education: It deals with the extent to which the teacher feels the community understands and is willing to support a sound educational programme. The items here solicit to budget support in various innovations for development of teaching-learning process, teachers’ competencies and quality of students’ outcomes.

(9) Facilities, services and welfare: It has to do with the adequacy of physical facilities services and welfare which contribute positive organizational climate. This also included the clean and appropriate safety environment, supplies, equipment, and the efficiency of the maintenance.

(10) Community pressures: It gives special attention to community expectations with respect to the teacher’s personal standards and teachers’ participation in outside-institutional activities. The items are also concerned to the community pressure on
teachers in providing education for learners to become more successful, meet the demand of high quality standards and match with the technological advancement in the world today. This gives the teachers’ pressure to select wisely methods for providing the effective teaching-learning process.

2.2.4 Effect of teachers’ morale on students’ achievement and school effectiveness

Teachers are the largest professional body in a school, have more contact with students throughout the day, and influence the environment of the school greatly. When teachers feel positively about their position, feelings referred to as teacher morale, they have tremendous positive influence on the students’ achievement and the school effectiveness. The reverse is also true; when teachers have negative feelings about the school, they may negatively influence the students’ achievement and the school effectiveness. Teachers have the power as a group and as individuals to greatly influence a school’s environment. It is very important for educational leaders to be aware of factors that affect teacher morale and how they may affect student achievement. It can be said that teachers’ morale is the key of successful education. (Keith, A. Rowland, 2008)\(^{37}\)

William, C. Miller (1981)\(^{38}\) states that in order to increased teachers’ morale means a happier, more productive and higher performing of teachers. Poor teachers’ morale leads to failure, illnesses and damage. The indicators of high level of teachers’ morale in school are as follow:

1. Teachers go to school in the morning and do not in a hurry to leave school in the evening.
2. Teachers exhibit concern for the direction in which the school and the programmes are moving.
3. Teachers actively participate in school functions, committees and other school activities.
4. Teachers willingly perform various school tasks that are above and beyond their stated duties.
5. Teachers derive satisfaction from being a member of the school system and teaching profession.
6. Teachers support the school goals, philosophy and policies.
(7) Teachers actively engaged in improving students’ achievement and school effectiveness as well as school community relations.

When teacher morale in a school is high and the school environment is healthy, teachers feel good about themselves, each other and their teaching, which in turn impacts on student morale and achievement (Young, 1998). Alternatively, low morale for teachers can lead to decreased productivity and a detachment from the teacher role, colleagues and students. Teachers with low morale may begin to ‘lose heart’, take increased sick leave, look for alternative employment and develop a cynical approach to students, teaching and the education system. Teachers with low morale tend to see obstacles as potential opportunities for failure, while teachers with high morale see obstacles as challenges which need to be solved (Ramsey, 2000).

Alex Saez (2011) illustrates that teacher morale has a significant impact on education. High teacher morale encourages learning and contributes to positive school effectiveness. The opposite is true with low morale. An unmotivated or unsatisfied teacher will not provide the same quality of education as a teacher with high morale. For teachers, morale needs to be maintained. Educational administrators should keep high level of teachers’ morale which will give positive feedback to students and organization.

Kaye Jones (2011) states that teacher is a vital part of the education system, and their level of morale has a direct influence on student achievement and learning. As teachers’ responsibilities are increasingly stretched to the limit, understanding the positively or negatively teachers’ morale is crucial in creating a school effectiveness. Teacher with high morale will motivate students to learn and have positive attitude about learning. Teachers with the highest levels of morale will be cooperative with their co-workers and involved in school decision making. On the other hand when teachers have poor morale they will not support the school work and feel unable to contribute to school decisions and policy, they tend to be less satisfied with their job and do not pay attention to students.

Rebecca Mazin (2012) describes that high morale of teachers reflect a respect for students’ ideas. Students are more likely to share and seek out different opinions. Students can get the message and know the direction needed to meet performance
expectations. High morale teachers give students the confidence to look at a product or process. This creativity avoids stagnation and improves students’ performance.

From the above discussion, it is necessary for schools to learn and to analyze continually the teachers’ morale of their institutions. It is important for school leaders to make their teachers feel that they are supported in order to keep quality teachers in the profession and maintain morale in the demanding field of students’ achievement and school effectiveness.

2.3 LEADERS’ BEHAVIOUR

In spite of today’s high technology and science advances, every person has to work and perceive more of his work’s essence. The school effectiveness plays a very important roles in social or country’s development. The school effectiveness depends upon the leaders’ behaviour of such organization. For the above reason, the researcher has summed up the scopes of documents and researches regarding the leaders’ behaviour.

2.3.1 Definition of leader

Every organization and community needs leaders who guide or inspire the action or opinion; take the lead in any enterprise or movement; managing conflict; build the teams, make decisions and create strategic thinking. Many educationists have given different definitions of ‘leaders’ as follows:-

Cattell (1957)\textsuperscript{44} defines leader as a person who initiates or supports in creating a change in performance of a group in an efficient way and supports, promotes confronting face to face with members in the group.

Halpin (1966)\textsuperscript{45} illustrated that leader is one who has a role over or influence towards other person. He is a person who has the most important role in performing work so that such working unit would implement towards the goals and objectives.

Gibson, J.L. (1979)\textsuperscript{46} stated that leader is "a person capable of inspiring and associate others with a dream." It is therefore important that organizations have a mission high transcendent, since it is a powerful way to strengthen the leadership of its directors.
Andersen, D.A. (1999)\textsuperscript{47} explained that leader is a person who has the following characteristics:

- Clear articulated vision of what the knowledge agenda and knowledge management is about.
- An enthusiastic knowledge champions who are supported by top management
- A holistic perspective that embraces strategic, technological and organizational perspectives
- A culture of openness and inquisitiveness that stimulates innovation and learning
- Develop incentives, sanctions and personal development programmes to change behaviours
- Use systematic processes and frameworks (the power of visualization)
- Use effective communications
- Effective interaction at all levels with their customers and external experts
- Demonstrate good teamwork, with team members drawn from many disciplines

Business Dictionary (2010)\textsuperscript{48} mentioned that a person who guides or directs his followers is known as leader. In its essence, leadership in an organizational role involves: (1) establishing a clear vision, (2) sharing (communicating) that vision with others so that they will follow willingly, (3) providing the information, knowledge, and methods to realize that vision, and (4) coordinating and balancing the conflicting interests of all members or stakeholders. A leader comes to the forefront in case of crisis, and is able to think and act in creative ways in difficult situations. Unlike management, leadership flows from the core of a personality and cannot be taught, although it may be learnt and may be enhanced through coaching or mentoring.

From the definition of “leader” mentioned above, it can be concluded that leader is a person who has influence over other people’s behaviour, attitude and beliefs. He is a person who initiate, direct, support, advice, guide, compromise, coordinate, persuade, encourage and create a change in performance of a group in an efficient way. Therefore,
leader is a person who has an influence over others when they are willing to carry out his wishes, advice, guidance and direction. Successful leaders are able to influence the behaviour, attitudes and beliefs of their followers. Leader is a person who is able to motivate the people to strive willingly to attain organizational objectives. The function of leader is to guide his followers to have their individual goals and interest set by themselves in such a way that they do not conflict with the organizational objectives.

2.3.2 Definition of leadership

There are many diverse definitions of “leadership”.

Stogdill (1974)\textsuperscript{49} describes that leadership refers to a social phenomenon in which a person may exert power, persuade, direct a group or individual behaviour, facilitate goal achievement, or otherwise influence other people. He further defines leadership as a social influence process that includes at least two individuals acting in interdependent roles: one individual acts as a follower, and one acts as an influential leader.

Argyris, C. (1976)\textsuperscript{50} has given a definition that leadership is relationship between personality and environment which is dependent upon condition which will make a person or persons have personality which is dependent upon environment which will make him feel considerate, and understands the work.

Chemers M. (1997)\textsuperscript{51} mentions that leadership is a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support others in the accomplishment of a common task.

Avolio’s Full Range Leadership Model (1999)\textsuperscript{52} describes leadership as a system that considers inputs (people, timing, and resources), processes (interaction with people and resources over time), and outcomes (levels of motivation and performance). In this theory, each aspect of the system incorporates and interacts with each of the other aspects.

Pearce and Conger (2003)\textsuperscript{53} describe leadership as broadly distributed among a set of individuals instead of centralized in the hands of a single individual who acts in the role of a superior.
Leadership is the process of influencing the behaviour of other people toward group goals and organizes a group of people to achieve a common goal. (Wikipedia Encyclopedia, 2010)

From the definition of leadership mentioned above, “leadership” can be defined as the process by which one individual influences other people to work willingly towards the achievement and attainment of organizational goals and objectives.

Three points are concerned to leadership. 1. Leadership is a social influence process. Leadership cannot exist without a leader and one or more followers. 2. Leadership elicits voluntary action on the part of followers. The voluntary nature of compliance separates leadership from other types of influence based on formal authority. 3. Leadership results in followers' behaviour that is purposeful and goal-directed in some sort of organized setting.

2.3.3 Leader and Leadership

Successful leader creates opportunity that helps the organizational growth and survives. Yueh-shian Lee, Weng Kun Liu. (2011) explain that leader has to implement a personal agenda, and the organizational agenda. The personal agenda consists of the goal close to the leader's heart. The organizational agenda establishes the framework within which all work is done. The followers must know what is to be done, when it is to be done, and their part in making it happen. The good leader must be able to state the agenda and needs to have a pragmatic and understandable operating philosophy. The framework of an operating philosophy is created from learning, innovating, and deciding. The task of leaders included vision, managing of responsibility.

Successful leaders have to motivate and encourage the followers to participate in a way that individual needs and interests conform to the groups' purpose (Bakker, 2011). Leaders must respond to diverse types of followers, so that leadership can effectively direct to as many people as possible. Leaders have to open the followers to the world's changes i.e. culture, arts, language, beliefs, customs, philosophies, and ways of living of other people (Benito, Lunnan, & Tomassen, 2011). Leaders have to understand the origin of an individual viewpoint and become more sensitive to the needs of the multinational corporation. Leaders have to build better relationships with their followers. Instead of power, leaders have
to influence over other people with congruence and integrity. Successful leaders are committed to create a world to which people want to belong. As people become more diverse in the changing world, thus, successful leader requires the special process to adequately fulfill the role of leader which is the leadership behaviour.

Leadership is the interaction between the leader’s characteristics and situation. Strengthening leadership ability can help leaders improve their capacity to achieve results and reach personal or organizational outcomes (Zaccaro, 2001). Leadership is tied up with influencing and motivating others. Although leadership is a capability, successful leadership is linked to abilities to challenge the team’s habits and to take risks. Leadership involves the capacity to create a harmonious working environment, to push towards doing more, to go beyond. Leadership is important to encourage change and achieve results (Prentice, 2005). Leaders must respond to diverse types of followers, so that leadership can effectively direct to as many people as possible. Leaders must manage conflicts caused by differences among individuals.

Globalization and diversity of subordinates can be challenging for global leaders. The changing world calls for leaders who will react openly to the introduction of new leadership abilities (Toporowski, 2010). Developing a leadership style in response to global awareness, diversity, and ethics will give leaders an edge as they build relationships with followers from all over the world.

2.3.4 Definition of behaviour and leadership behaviour

The word ‘behaviour’ refers to the expression or the reaction when confronting the extraneousness. Such expression occurs from the accustomed habit acquired from habituated heuristic including various experiences. These expressions are either assertive or non-assertive. (Alberti, R. E. and Emmons, M. E. (1974). Assertive behaviour is a “behaviour which enables a person to act in his own best interests, to stand up for himself without undue anxiety, to express his honest feeling comfortably, or to exercise his own rights without denying the rights of others” (Alberti and Emmons, 1974). To act in one’s own best interest: refers to the capacity to make life decisions (career, relationship, life style, time activities), to take initiative (start conversations,
organize activities), to trust one's own judgment, to set goals and work to achieve them, to ask for help from others, to comfortably participate socially. To stand up for oneself: includes such behaviours as saying 'No', setting limits on one's time and energy, responding to criticism, or putdowns or anger, expressing or supporting or defending one's opinions. Assertiveness is the expression of one's feelings, beliefs, opinions, and needs in a direct, honest and appropriate manner. Such assertive behaviour will reflect a high regard for one's own personal rights as well as the rights of others. (Benito Juarez, 2011)63

In the present study, leadership behaviour refers to the behaviour of leaders of educational institutes which shows about the ability to lead their group for performing various activities towards the achievement of specified organizational goals and objectives.

The behaviour associated with the process of providing influential direction of other people to work willingly towards the achievement of organizational goals and objectives can be called leadership behaviour. Effective leadership behaviour is characterized by the ability of the leader to influence the activities of a group, by initiating structures (such as goal setting), which enable the group to successfully overcome mutual problems and to achieve their group goals. The leadership behaviour exhibited by leaders may or may not reflect their personalities.

The study that defines the behaviours of leader is known as leadership behaviour. Since leadership behaviour emphasizes on the actions or behaviour of the leader, it is better at describing leadership theories which will attempt to explain why a type of leader exists. Various types of leadership theories can be effective which help leaders to improve their capacity to achieve results and reach personal or organizational outcomes in different workplace conditions. The study on leadership theories will reveal qualities of leaders’ behaviour which will be useful in understanding the effective leadership of administrators in this globalization era. Since the process of leadership cannot be separated from the persons as leader, the effective leadership theories are required for an individual who will facilitate a much positive interaction and close connection between leaders and followers.
2.3.5 Leadership theory

In regard to leadership theory, there are three main theoretical frameworks different theories concerned to leadership behaviour i.e. traits approach, leadership behaviour approach, and contingency (situational) approach.

2.3.5.1 Traits approach

The scientific study of leadership began with a focus on the traits of effective leaders. The basic premise behind trait theory was that effective leaders are born, not made, thus the name sometimes applied to early versions of this idea, the "great man" theory. Many leadership studies based on this theoretical framework were conducted in the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s.

The trait theory of leadership is based on the characteristics of many leaders - both successful and unsuccessful - and is used to predict leadership effectiveness. Trait theory of leadership behaviour focused on traits such as physiological appearance (height and weight), demographic (age, education and socioeconomic background), personality, (self-confidence and aggressiveness), intellective (intelligence, decisiveness, judgment, and knowledge), task-related (achievement drive, initiative and persistence), and social characteristics (sociability and cooperativeness) with leader emergence and leader effectiveness (Taylor, 1994). The theory believed that leaders were born with certain traits that made them naturally effective leaders.

Hackman and Johnson (2000) list the following three traits as the most evident in effective leaders: interpersonal factors, cognitive factors, and administrative factors.

- Interpersonal factors contain items such as integrity, sensitivity, consistency, emotional stability, self-confidence, communication skills, and conflict management skills.

- Cognitive factors are said to be related to leadership in that more intelligent leaders are better at problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking, and creativity.

- Administrative factors are having the ability to plan and organize as well as being able to perform most of the tasks regularly required of the followers.
2.3.5.2 Leadership behaviour approach

Partially as a result of the disenchantment with the trait approach to leadership that occurred by the beginning of the 1950s, the focus of leadership research shifted away from leader traits to leader behaviours. The premise of this stream of research was that the behaviours exhibited by leaders are more important than their physical, mental and social traits. The two most famous behavioural leadership studies took place at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan in the late 1940s and 1950s. These studies sparked hundreds of other leadership studies and are still widely cited.

(1) Ohio State University Two-Dimension leadership theory

A study on Two-Dimension leadership was done in Ohio State University, starting in the 1950s. The Ohio State University studies utilized the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), administering it to samples of individuals in the military, manufacturing companies, college administrators, and student leaders. Answers to the questionnaire were factor-analyzed to determine if common leader behaviours emerged across samples. The conclusion was that there were two distinct aspects of leadership that describe how leaders carry out their roles: initiating structure and consideration. (Halpin, A. W., and Winer, B. J. (1957)\textsuperscript{66}

Initiating structure, sometimes called task-oriented behaviour, involves planning, organizing, and coordinating the work of subordinates. According to this dimension relationship is created between leader and group members who are colleagues, in order to create perfect and suitable organizational pattern, finding ways to contact and create understanding amongst persons in the working unit.

Consideration is relevant to maintaining relationship among colleagues, leadership behaviour according to this dimension, includes showing friendliness, mutual trust, warmth, respectability as well as warm relationship.

From the result of research in Ohio University, later a more precise method was proposed in the characteristics of a leader which can be depicted by using a quadrant on an assumption set on 2 axis i.e. Initiating Structure axis and Consideration axis (Two-Dimension leadership theory) as shown in figure 2.1.
(2) Likert’s Management System

The Michigan leadership studies took place at about the same time as those at Ohio State. Under the general direction of Rensis Likert, the focus of the Michigan studies was to determine the principles and methods of leadership that led to productivity and job satisfaction. (Rensis Likert, 2011) The model was developed on the basis of a questionnaire administered to leaders in over 200 organizations and research into the performance characteristics of different types of organizations. The studies resulted in two general leadership behaviours or orientations: an employee orientation and a production orientation. Leaders with an employee orientation showed genuine concern for interpersonal relations. Those with a production orientation focused on the task or technical aspects of the job.

The conclusion of the Michigan studies was that an employee orientation and general instead of close supervision yielded better results. Likert eventually developed four-fold model of management systems. Based on these studies; he advocated four systems of management system or the four leadership styles identified:

(a) System 1 - Exploitative Authoritative: Responsibility lies in the hands of the people at the upper echelons of the hierarchy. The leader has no trust and confidence in subordinates. The decisions are imposed on subordinates and they do not feel free at all to discuss things about the job with their leader. The teamwork or communication is very little and the motivation is based on threats.

(b) System 2 - Benevolent Authoritative: The responsibility lies at the managerial levels but not at the lower levels of the organizational hierarchy. The leader has
condescending confidence and trust in subordinates. Here again, the subordinates do not feel free to discuss things about the job with their leader. The teamwork or communication is very little and motivation is based on a system of rewards.

(c) System 3 - Consultative: Responsibility is spread widely through the organizational hierarchy. The leader has substantial but not complete confidence in subordinates. Some amount of discussion about job related things takes place between the leader and subordinates. There is a fair amount of teamwork, and communication takes place vertically and horizontally. The motivation is based on rewards and involvement in the job.

(d) System 4 - Participative: Responsibility for achieving the organizational goals is widespread throughout the organizational hierarchy. There is a high level of confidence that the leader has in his subordinates. There is a high level of teamwork, communication, and participation.

The nature of these four management systems has been described by Likert through a profile of organizational characteristics.

In this profile, the four management systems have been compared with one another on the basis of certain organizational variables which are: Leadership processes, Motivational forces, Communication process, Interaction-influence process, Decision-making process, Goal-setting or ordering, and Control processes.

On the basis of this profile, Likert administered a questionnaire to several employees belonging to different organizations and from different managerial positions. His studies confirmed that the departments or units employing management practices within Systems 1 and 2 were the lease productive, and the departments or units employing management practices within Systems 3 and 4 were the most productive.

(3) Grid Cell Theory of Blake and Mouton.

One concept based largely on the behavioural approach to leadership effectiveness was the Managerial Grid, developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. (Blake and Mouton, 1964)\(^6\) Blake and Mouton believe that the primary role of a leader is to get the tasks done through the people, leaders have to focus on the productivity of the employees along with maintaining good relationship with them.
Leaders who are strong in technical skills would naturally focus on structuring and planning of the work, defining activities and scheduling them. On the other hand, leaders who have strong personal traits would focus on building trust, delegating responsibilities and thereby bringing meaning to their work and motivating them. These two distinct styles are termed as “task-oriented style” or “people-oriented style” of leadership.

Task-oriented style means how the leader does to create production, which comprises of attitude towards different things, quality of judgment, policy, performance process, initiative relevant to research, volume of outcome of work, quality of work, etc.

People-oriented style means the leader uses this method in working with followers which comprises of relationship of people in order to attain target of the organization, and realization and giving honour to the follower arranging a good working environment as well as promoting good relationship amongst the people, etc.

Both dimensions are independent from each other. Each dimension is divided into 9 grid cells from 1 to 9 wherein 1 means low; 5 means medium; and 9 means high. Therefore, Managerial grid of Blake and Mouton has 81 grid cells. Each grid cell represents one pattern of leadership. Managerial grid is as below. (Blake and Mouton 1964:11)⁹⁹

![Managerial Grid of Blake and Mouton](image_url)
Figure 2.2, it explains leadership behaviour as follow:-

(a) **Impoverished Leader** (1, 1: Low People – Low Task Concern)

Such leaders exhibit lack of concern for the result of the assigned task or interpersonal relationship. He is the leader who is not interested in both the people and the output of work. They act uninvolved and withdrawn from the organizations objectives and often give an impression of incumbency. He administers the work inertly and inactively. He will be satisfied with the amount of work. He will perform his regular work without having an aim. He is the leader who separates himself from other people in the organization. He entrusts authority to other people and usually blames other people for the error. He acts as he has the duty to bring documents from his superior to the subordinates. He is the leader who has least efficiency because he is unable to work in order to achieve the target. Since it might appear that they perform only to sustain their employment.

(b) **Country Club Leader** (1, 9: High People – Low Task Concern)

Such leaders exhibit care and concern for the people, they create a comfortable and friendly environment while de-emphasizing the productivity of task. In certain situations, like a country club leader, where the primary role is to create a comfortable environment for clients while providing routine amenities, such leaders might be desired. He is the country-style leader who aims at having relationship with people as an important point. He tries to make his colleagues to have highest satisfaction which enables minimal production. He tries to be friendly with people but does not actually aim at having much production. He tries to make his followers satisfied, at the same time tries to avoid conflicts as much as possible.

Upon facing with conflicts, leader (1, 9) will try to cover up or tries to fade away with that conflict. He tries to give in to other people that he has to follow other's opinion even though his idea is correct, because he does not want others to become dissatisfied. He tries to avoid causing conflicts. If it is necessary to remedy the conflict problem, he usually entrusts other people to remedy the problem, or if he has to remedy the conflict problem himself, he will try to stop the emotion of other people. He will try to forget his requirement which is different from others. He will try to be considerate to other's feeling as an important point.
(c) Task-Oriented Leader or Authority Compliant Leader (9, 1: Low People – High Task Concern)

These leaders have a strong focus on good planning and successful completion of task. They place little emphasis on relationships, motivation or communication with their subordinates. They believe in setting up the organizational structure that maximizes the productivity while minimizing the interference of human elements. At first, it might appear to be an undesired style of leadership, since it is very dictatorial, but such leaders are highly effective in tasks that are extremely critical, highly structured and have a short duration. An organization at the verge of collapse might require such leader to fix it, but might not be suitable once the restructuring is finished and organization is back to routine.

This is the leader who is work-conscious and aims at finishing the work only without being interested in other people’s requirement. He only aims at effectiveness and efficiency of work without considering about humanity of his colleagues. He forces his subordinates. He will indicate to his subordinates as to what they should do and how to do it. He likes to use his authority, uses the rules and regulations and gives instructions. When having to face with conflicts, leader (9.1) will use his authority to suppress the conflict by aiming at defeating and winning and he has to win. In conflict situation, he usually asks his colleagues whether he will stay or will go. When he himself has the power, therefore, his subordinate is a defeater. This type of administrator does not like working in a team because he is afraid that his subordinates/colleagues will group together and protest.

(d) Middle of the Road Leader (5, 5: Medium people & Task Concern).

These leaders are compromisers who have weak balance between concern for people and task. They avoid any conflicting situations and try to get the work done by moderately focusing on interpersonal relationships; they do not try to push others too much for sake of better results. This type of leader will give moderate intention about people and work. He will give importance to people and work in a medium level. His colleagues are quite satisfied with him while the work is moderately successful. Such leaders can be effective in matured and structured organization that is performing routine job functions or services and do not envision much growth in future.

(e) Team Leader (9, 9: High People - High Task Concern)

This is the leader who emphasizes on personal and result of work. He works in
a team or a group. His colleagues are satisfied in working and give co-operation. He is attached with the work and the organization, which enables highly successful result. Every party is satisfied with the output of work. When facing with contradiction, Team Leader (9.9) normally is not interested as who is the conflict party, but he will try to see where the problem of conflict is. He will try to find out the cause of conflict and the various data relevant to the conflict and will use process for remediying the problem in a systematic way. He will try to remedy the conflict in a reasonable way. This type of administrator sees that conflict cannot be avoided, but it is not always bad. He will try to make people participate in remediying the problem so that the organization can achieve its highest target. This style tries to maximize the concern for both task and people.

Such leaders create strongly structured tasks, set clear priorities and track the progress on timely basis. At the same time, they promote active participation & teamwork, creates open and comfortable environment, sets guidelines for effective communication and empowers the individuals enough to keep them motivated. Even though this is the most preferred style, it may be best suited in a growing organization which needs to thrive on internal synergy. Figure 2.3 shows the leadership Grid concern for tasks and people.

![FIGURE 2.3](image)

**FIGURE 2.3**

**LEADERSHIP GRID CONCERN FOR TASKS AND PEOPLE**
2.3.5.3 Contingency (situational) approach

Contingency or situational theories of leadership propose that the organizational or work group context affects the extent to which given leader traits and behaviours will be effective. Contingency theories gained prominence between 1957 to 1970. Four of the more well-known contingency theories are Continuum leadership behaviour, Fiedler's contingency theory, Path-goal theory, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago decision-making model of leadership, and Hersey Blanchard situational leadership theory. Each of these approaches to leadership is briefly described in the paragraphs that follow.

(1) Continuum of Leadership Behaviour

The model put forward by Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt (1957) framed leadership in terms of choices managers may make regarding subordinates’ participation in decision making.

FIGURE 2.4
SUBORDINATES’ PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING
A leader is characterized according to degree of control that is maintained by him. According to this approach, four main styles of leadership have been identified:

- **Tells:** Leader identifies a problem, chooses a decision, and announces this to subordinates. The subordinates are not a party to the decision making process and the manager expects them to implement his decisions as soon as possible.

- **Sells:** Decision is chosen by leader only but he understands that there will be some amount of resistance from those faced with the decision and therefore makes efforts to persuade them to accept it.

- **Consults:** Though the problem is identified by leader, he does not take a final decision. The problem is presented to the subordinates and the solutions are suggested by the subordinates.

- **Joins:** Leader defines the limits within which the decision can be taken by the subordinates and then makes the final decision along with the subordinates.

According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt, if one has to make a choice of the leadership behaviour which is practicable and desirable, then his answer will depend upon the following three factors:

(a) **Forces in the manager:** The behaviour of the leader is influenced by his personality, background, knowledge, and experience. These forces include: the leader's value system, confidence in subordinates, leadership inclinations, and feelings of security in an uncertain situation.

(b) **Forces in the subordinate:** The personality of the subordinates and their expectations from the leader influences their behaviour. The factors include: expectations, need for independence, readiness to assume decision-making responsibility, tolerance for ambiguity in task definition, interest in the problem, ability to understand and identify with the goals of the organization, and knowledge and experience to deal with the problem.

(c) **Forces in the situation:** The environmental and general situations also affect the leader's behaviour. These include factors like: type of organization, effectiveness of the group, the problem itself (the task), and time pressure.
(2) Fielder’s Contingency Model

Introduced in 1967, Fiedler’s contingency theory was the first to specify how situational factors interact with leader traits and behaviour to influence leadership effectiveness. The theory suggests that the “favorability” of the situation determines the effectiveness of task- and person-oriented leader behaviour. (Fiedler, F. E., 1967) In this model leadership is effective when the leader’s style is appropriate to the situation, as determined by three principal factors:

(a) **Leader-member relations**: The nature of the interpersonal relationship between leader and follower, expressed in terms of good through poor, with qualifying modifiers attached as necessary. It is obvious that the leader’s personality and the personalities of subordinates play important roles in this variable.

(b) **Task structure**: The nature of the subordinate’s task, described as structured or unstructured, associated with the amount of creative freedom allowed the subordinate to accomplish the task, and how the task is defined.

(c) **Position power**: The degree to which the position itself enables the leader to get the group members to comply with and accept his or her direction and leadership

![Figure 2.5: Fielder’s Contingency Model](image-url)

**FIGURE 2.5**

FIELDER’S CONTINGENCY MODEL
(3) Path-Goal Theory

The path goal theory centers on the motivational factors of the subordinates that have significant influence on the outcome of the task. It was originally proposed by Robert House (1971).

Path-Goal theory defines the role of a leader as one who defines the goal and lays down the path for the subordinate that facilitates completion of goal i.e.

- Clarifies the task scope, boundaries and the process.
- Clarifies the role and responsibilities of the subordinates.
- Clarifies the criteria on which both the task success and subordinates accomplishments will be judged.
- Provides guidance and coaching.
- Removes obstacles that might affect the task completion.
- Provide psychological support and rewards as way to complement the work environment.

The path-goal theory stresses that if the subordinates find the leadership style to be satisfying and it meets their expectations, they will be motivated towards the goal of leadership.

Components of Path-Goal Leadership

The path goal theory has three major components

(a) Leadership Style: The basic styles are as defined by situational leadership, namely “directing”, “coaching”, “participating” and “delegating” but it adds more styles discussed later.

(b) Subordinate Preference: It deals with accessing how a subordinate will perceive a particular leadership style; will he find it satisfying and motivating or stressful and unsatisfying? An employee might perceive his own abilities as high and thus views the coaching and directing behaviour as irritating and de-motivating. Some subordinates might like to demand more authority for their work while other might expect better support.

(c) Task Structure: It deals with analyzing the task and reformulating its structure in clear way. Thus is the removing of road blocks in the task, but increasing the confidence or willingness of the employees.
Propositions for leadership styles

(a) Directive Path-Goal Clarifying Leadership Behaviour: The leader directs toward providing psychological structure for subordinates. Leaders set goals and clarify them the path (what, when, how to perform tasks) to reach the goal. The leader clarifies the path to the goal by providing clear directives and measuring the performance. In this style, duties are at heart of the leader-subordinate relationship. It includes structuring and motivating subordinates, overseeing their progress, promoting and encouraging their development, and balancing effectiveness. The leader provides guidance, lets subordinates know what is expected of them, sets performance standards for them, and controls behaviour when performance standards are not met. He makes judicious use of rewards and disciplinary action.

Directive Path-Goal Clarifying Leadership Behaviour is effective when task is ambiguous & intrinsically satisfying and subordinates self perception of abilities is low; the clarification of task by leader is positive support and when subordinate has low preference for independence and self direction and ineffective if subordinate perceives his own abilities as high and demands more Authority and if task is routine & unambiguous, the clarifying behaviour will be perceived as over-controlling or detrimental to one’s abilities.

(b) Supportive Leadership Behaviour: Supportive leader provides psychological support to subordinates, displays personal concern for their needs, provides welfare & well being and creates friendly environment. Good relations are promoted with the group and sensitivity to subordinates’ needs is shown. Leader directs towards the satisfaction of subordinate needs and preferences. Leader sets a goal and gives moral support by being open, approachable and friendly to subordinates to perform the task. Highlights factual or value based external views into the organization and to subordinates. This includes increasing the subordinates’ self-esteem and making the job more interesting. A supportive leadership style requires both filtering and delegation skills.

Supportive Leadership Behaviour is suitable when subordinate has lack of confidence and best when the work is stressful, boring or hazardous and especially needed in situations in which tasks or relationships are psychologically or physically distressing.

(c) Participative Leadership Behaviour: The leader encourages involvement of subordinates in decision making and operations. Leader directs toward encouragement of
subordinate influence on decision making and doing the tasks. Leader sets the goal and asks for suggestions to select the best suited path decisions. Leader believes in group decision making and shares information with subordinates. He consults his subordinates on important decisions related to work, task goals, and path to resolve goals. Leader involves the subordinate in a discussion of the task required before making a decision. Decision making is based on consultation with the group and information is shared with the group. Consulting with subordinates and taking their ideas into account when making decisions and taking particular actions.

Participative Leadership Behaviour is best when the subordinates are expert and their advice is both needed and they expect to be able to give it. This behaviour is well suited when subordinates show lack of decision making and is use when the subordinate makes incorrect procedure. This behaviour is predominant when subordinates are highly personally involved in their work. The leader aligns the subordinate and organizational goals, empowers subordinate by increased involvement in organization. A leader who is expert in participative style is one who invites subordinates to share the decision making. This kind of leader asks subordinates for ideas, opinions and takes their suggestions into account.

(d) Achievement – Oriented Leadership Behaviour: Leader directs toward encouraging performance excellence. Leader sets challenging goals and lay path for them to perform to the highest level or to reach their peak performance. The leader encourages performance excellence and exhibits confidence in ability of subordinates to meet challenging goals. He believes that subordinates are responsible enough to accomplish challenging goals. Challenging goals are set, both in work and self-improvement and high performance is encouraged while confidence is shown in the group’s ability. High expected and demonstrated and expected. Leader shows faith in the capabilities of the subordinate to succeed.

Achievement – Oriented Leadership Behaviour is suitable when subordinates are having lack of sufficient drive or lack of job challenge or the task is complex. A leader, who exhibits this style, establishes high standards of excellence for subordinates and seeks for continuous improvement. A leader shows great confidence in their subordinates to set and achieve challenging goals.
It can be concluded from House’s Path-Goal Theory that leader must motivate subordinates by: (1) emphasizing on the relationship between the subordinates’ own needs and the organizational goals; (2) clarifying and facilitating the path so that subordinates fulfill their own needs as well as the organization’s needs.

According to this theory, leaders are effective because of their impact on subordinates’ motivation, ability to perform effectively and satisfaction. The theory is called “Path-Goals” because its major concern is how the leader influences the subordinates’ perceptions to their work goals, personal goals, and path to goal attainment. The theory suggests that a leader’s behaviour is moving or satisfying to the degree that the behaviour increases subordinate goal attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals. Path-Goals theory assumes that leaders are flexible and that they can change their style, as situations require.

(4) Vroom-Yetton-Jago decision-making model of leadership

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago decision-making model was introduced by Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton in 1973 and revised by Vroom and Jago in 1988. The theory focuses primarily on the degree of subordinate participation that is appropriate in different situations. Thus, it emphasizes on the decision-making style of the leader. (Victor Vroom and Yetton, Phillip W. (1973))

There are five types of leader decision-making styles, which are labeled as AI, AII, CI, CII, and G. These styles range from strongly autocratic (AI), to strongly democratic (G).

**Autocratic Type 1 (AI)** – Leader makes own decision using information that is readily available to them at that time. This type is completely autocratic.

**Autocratic Type 2 (AII)** – Leader collects required information from followers, then makes decision alone. Problem or decision may or may not be informed to followers. Here, followers involvement is just providing information.

**Consultative Type 1 (CI)** – Leader shares problem to relevant followers individually and seeks their ideas & suggestions and makes decision alone. Here followers do not meet each other & leader’s decision may or may not have followers influence. So, here followers involvement is at the level of providing alternatives individually.
Consultative Type 2 (CII) – Leader shares problem to relevant followers as a group and seeks their ideas & suggestions and makes decision alone. Here followers meet each other and through discussions they understand other alternatives. But leader’s decision may or may not have followers influence. So, here follower involvement is at the level of helping as a group in decision-making.

Group-based Type 2(GII) – Leader discuss problem & situation with followers as a group and seeks their ideas & suggestions through brainstorming. Leader accepts any decision & do not try to force his idea. Decision accepted by the group is the final one.

(5) Hersey Blanchard situational leadership theory

The Situational Leadership Theory was developed by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard. The theory was first introduced as "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership". (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969). During the mid 1970s, "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership" was renamed "Situational Leadership theory". According to this model, the leader has to match the leadership style according to the readiness of subordinates which moves in stage and has a cycle. Therefore, this theory is also known as the life-cycle theory of leadership. The theory is based on the ‘readiness’ level of the people which the leader is attempting to influence.

Readiness is the extent to which followers have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. Ability is the knowledge, experience, and skill that an individual possesses to do the job and is called job readiness. Willingness is the motivation and commitment required to accomplish a given task. The style of leadership depends on the level of readiness or maturity of the followers. The level of readiness(R) or maturity (M) is divided into four levels:

R1 (M1) - low follower readiness - refers to low ability and low willingness of followers i.e. those who are unable and insecure

R2 (M2) - low to moderate follower readiness - refers to low ability and high willingness of followers i.e. those who are unable but confident

R3 (M3) - moderate to high follower readiness - refers to high ability and low willingness of followers i.e. those who are able but insecure

R4 (M4) - high follower readiness - refers to high ability and high willingness of followers i.e. those who are both able and confident
The direction is provided by the leader at the lower levels of readiness. Therefore, the decisions are leader directed. On the other hand, the direction is provided by the followers at the higher levels of readiness. Therefore, the decisions in this case are follower directed. When the followers move from low levels to high levels of readiness, the combinations of task and relationship behaviours appropriate to the situation begin to change.

For each of the four levels of readiness, the leadership style used may be a combination of task and relationship behaviour.

**Task behaviour:** Extent to which the leader spells out the duties and responsibilities of a follower which includes providing them direction, setting goals, and defining roles for them. Usually a one-way communication exists which is meant to provide the direction to the followers.

**Relationship behaviour:** Extent to which the leader listens to the followers, and provides encouragement to them. Here, a two-way communication exists between the leader and the follower.

By combining the task and the relationship behaviour, the following four different styles of leadership which correspond with the different levels of readiness is shown as follow:

**S1 – Telling/Directing:** This style is characterized by one-way communication in which the leader defines the roles of the individual or group and provides the what, how, why, when and where to do the task. This style is most appropriate for low follower readiness (R1). It emphasizes high task behaviour and limited relationship behaviour.

**S2 – Selling/Coaching:** While the leader is still providing the direction, he or she is now using two-way communication and providing the socio-emotional support that will allow the individual or group being influenced to buy into the process. This style is most appropriate for low to moderate follower readiness (R2). It emphasizes high amounts of both task and relationship behaviour.

**S3 – Participating/Supporting:** This shows decision-making about aspects of how the task is accomplished and the leader is providing less task behaviours while maintaining high relationship behaviour. This style is most appropriate for moderate to high
follower readiness (R3). It emphasizes on high amount of relationship behaviour but low amount of task behaviour.

S4 - Delegating: The leader is still involved in decisions; however, the process and responsibility has been passed to the individual or group. The leader stays involved to monitor progress. This style is most appropriate for high follower readiness (R4). It emphasizes low levels of both task and relationship behaviour.

FIGURE 2.6
HERSEY BLANCHARD SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL
2.3.5.4 Recent leadership behaviour development

Although trait, behavioural, and contingency approaches have each contributed to the understanding of leadership, none of the approaches have provided a completely satisfactory explanation of leadership and leadership effectiveness. Since 1970s, several alternative theoretical frameworks for the study of leadership have been advanced. Among the more important of these are leader-member exchange theory, transformational leadership theory, the substitutes for leadership approach, and the philosophy of servant leadership.

(1) Leaders-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory

Leaders often develop relationships with each member of the group that they lead, and leader-member exchange theory explains how those relationships with various members can develop in unique ways. The leader-member exchange theory of leadership focuses on the two-way relationship between supervisors and subordinates. (Deluga, R. J., 1998) Informal observation of leadership behaviour suggests that leader's action is not the same towards all subordinates. The importance of potential differences in this respect is brought into sharp focus by Graen's leader-member exchange model, also known as the vertical dyad linkage theory. (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) The theory views leadership as consisting of a number of dyadic relationships linking the leader with a follower. The quality of the relationship is reflected by the degree of mutual trust, loyalty, support, respect, and obligation. According to the theory, leaders form different kinds of relationships with various groups of subordinates. One group, referred to as the in-group, is favored by the leader. Members of in-group receive considerably more attention from the leader and have more access to the organizational resources. By contrast, other subordinates fall into the out-group. These individuals are disfavored by the leader. As such, they receive fewer valued resources from their leaders.

Leaders distinguish between the in-group and out-group members on the basis of the perceived similarity with respect to personal characteristics, such as age, gender, or personality. A follower may also be granted an in-group status if the leader believes that person to be especially competent at performing his or her job. The relationship between leaders and followers follows under three stages:
• Role taking: When a new member joins the organization, the leader assesses the talent and abilities of the member and offers them opportunities to demonstrate their capabilities.

• Role making: An informal and unstructured negotiation on work-related factors takes place between the leader and the member. A member who is similar to the leader is more likely to succeed. A betrayal by the member at this stage may result in him being relegated to the out-group

(2) Transformational Leadership Theory

James MacGregor Burns (1978)\(^7\) first introduced the concept of transforming leadership in his descriptive research on political leaders, but this term is now used in organizational psychology as well (Bass & Riggio, 2006)\(^8\). Creating high-performance workforce has become increasingly important for leaders to inspire organizational members to go beyond their task requirements. As a result, new concepts of leadership have emerged - transformational leadership being one of them.

Transformational leadership enhances the motivation, morale and performance of followers through a variety of mechanisms. These include connecting the follower’s sense of identity and self to the mission and the collective identity of the organization; being a role model for followers that inspires them; challenging followers to take greater ownership for their work, and understanding the strengths and weaknesses of followers, so the leader can align followers with tasks that optimize their performance. Transformational leadership may be found at all levels of the organization: teams, departments, divisions, and organization as a whole. Such leaders are visionary, inspiring, daring, risk-takers, and thoughtful thinkers. They have a charismatic appeal. But charisma alone is insufficient for changing the way an organization operates. For bringing major changes, transformational leaders must exhibit the following four factors:
FIGURE 2.7
MODEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

(a) Inspirational Motivation: The foundation of transformational leadership is the promotion of consistent vision, mission, and a set of values to the members. Their vision is so compelling that they know what they want from every interaction. Transformational leaders guide followers by providing them with a sense of meaning and challenge. They work enthusiastically and optimistically to foster the spirit of teamwork and commitment.

(b) Intellectual Stimulation: Such leaders encourage their followers to be innovative and creative. They encourage new ideas from their followers and never criticize them publicly for the mistakes committed by them. The leaders focus on the “what” in problems and do not focus on the blaming part of it. They have no hesitation in discarding an old practice set by them if it is found ineffective.

(c) Idealized Influence: They believe in the philosophy that a leader can influence followers only when he practices what he preaches. The leaders act as role models that followers seek to emulate. Such leaders always win the trust and respect of their followers through their action. They typically place their followers needs over their own, sacrifice their personal gains for them, ad demonstrate high standards of ethical conduct. The use of power by such leaders is aimed at influencing them to strive for the common goals of the organization.
(d) Individualized Consideration: Leaders act as mentors to their followers and reward them for creativity and innovation. The followers are treated differently according to their talents and knowledge. They are empowered to make decisions and are always provided with the needed support to implement their decisions.

(3) Transactional Leadership Theory

The transactional style of leadership was first described by Max Weber in 1947 and then by Bernard Bass in 1981. (Bass, Bernard, 1985) This style is most often used by the managers. It focuses on the basic management process of controlling, organizing, and short-term planning. The famous examples of leaders who have used transactional technique include McCarthy and de Gaulle.

Transactional leadership involves motivating and directing followers primarily through appealing to their own self-interest. The power of transactional leaders comes from their formal authority and responsibility in the organization. The main goal of the follower is to obey the instructions of the leader. The style can also be mentioned as a ‘telling style’. The leader believes in motivating through a system of rewards and punishment. If a subordinate does what is desired, a reward will follow, and if he does not go as per the wishes of the leader, a punishment will follow. Here, the exchange between leader and follower takes place to achieve routine performance goals. These exchanges involve four dimensions:

(a) Contingent Rewards: Transactional leaders link the goal to rewards, clarify expectations, provide necessary resources, set mutually agreed upon goals, and provide various kinds of rewards for successful performance. They set SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and timely) goals for their subordinates.

(b) Active Management by Exception: Transactional leaders actively monitor the work of their subordinates, watch for deviations from rules and standards and taking corrective action to prevent mistakes.

(c) Passive Management by Exception: Transactional leaders intervene only when standards are not met or when the performance is not as per the expectations. They may even use punishment as a response to unacceptable performance.
(d) **Laissez-faire**: The leader provides an environment where the subordinates get many opportunities to make decisions. The leader himself abdicates responsibilities and avoids making decisions and therefore the group often lacks direction.

The transactional leaders overemphasize detailed and short-term goals, and standard rules and procedures. They do not make an effort to enhance followers’ creativity and generation of new ideas. This kind of a leadership style may work well where the organizational problems are simple and clearly defined. Such leaders do not reward or ignore ideas that do not fit with existing plans and goals.

The transactional leaders are found to be quite effective in guiding efficiency decisions which are aimed at cutting costs and improving productivity. The transactional leaders tend to be highly directive and action oriented and their relationship with the followers tends to be transitory and not based on emotional bonds. The theory assumes that subordinates can be motivated by simple rewards. The only ‘transaction’ between the leader and the followers is the money which the followers receive for their compliance and effort.

(4) **Action Centred Leadership**

A model proposed by John Adair (1973) argued that a leader needs to balance the needs of the task, the team and the individual, shown clearly in the diagramme below in his three circle model. The effective leader carries out the functions and demonstrates the behaviours appropriate to the circles, varying the level according to the needs of the situation. The leader whilst balancing the three circles, sits in his/her helicopter above the process, ensuring the best possible overview of what is happening.

![Action Centred Leadership Model](image)
Leaders Behaviour under Task: Leader provides clear objectives, appropriate procedures, ensure evidence of progress, avoid digression, and ensure deadlines.

Leaders Behaviour under Team: Leader demonstrates commitment, trust & openness, sense of purpose, stability, cohesion, success and fun.

Leaders Behaviour under Individual: Leader gives contribution and respect to subordinate and receive feedback from them.

2.3.6 Aspects of leaders’ behaviour used in the present study

After studying the three main theoretical frameworks of different leadership theories (i.e. traits theory, leadership behaviour theory and contingency (situational) theory, the researcher established three aspects of leaders’ behaviour used in the present study i.e. (1) Leaders' traits, (2) Leadership style, and (3) Situational leadership behaviour

(1) Leaders’ traits: In order to explore the leaders’ traits, three traits of effective leaders suggested by Hackman and Johnson (2000) was used. These three traits of leaders are as follow:

- Interpersonal factors contain items such as integrity, sensitivity, consistency, emotional stability, self-confidence, communication skills, and conflict management skills.
- Cognitive factors are said to be related to leadership in that more intelligent leaders are better at problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking, and creativity.
- Administrative factors are having the ability to plan and organize as well as being able to perform most of the tasks regularly required for the followers.

(2) Leadership style: For the investigation of leadership style, the Two-Dimension leadership of Ohio State University studied was used. The Ohio State University studies utilized the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) to describe leaders’ behaviour i.e. initiating structure (task oriented) and consideration (people oriented). (Halpin, A. W., and Winer, B. J. (1957)

- Initiating structure (sometimes called task-oriented behaviour): Initiating structure is the extent to which a leader defines leader and group member roles, initiates actions, organizes group activities and defines how tasks are to be accomplished by the group. This leadership style is task-oriented which involves planning, organizing,
implementing, coordinating, communicating and performing the work. According to this aspect of leaders’ behaviour, relationship is created between leader and group members, in order to create perfect work and suitable organizational pattern, finding ways to contact and create understanding amongst persons in the working unit for the production.

- Consideration: Consideration is the extent to which a leader exhibits concern for the welfare of the members of the group. This factor is oriented towards interpersonal relationships, mutual trust and friendship. This leaders’ behaviour is people-oriented which is relevant to maintaining relationship among colleagues. Leaders’ behaviour according to this aspect shows the relationship with colleagues or members in the group. This aspect of leaders’ behaviour considered and specified on friendliness and mutual trust among the staff members.

(3) Situational leadership behaviour: In order to find out the situational leadership behaviour of leaders, the Path-Goal situational leadership behaviour was used. The fundamental underpinning of the Path-Goal situational leadership behaviour is that there is no single "best" behaviour of leadership. Effective leadership is task-relevant, and the most successful leaders are those that adapt their leadership behaviour suitable for different situations. Effective leadership varies, not only with the person or group that is being influenced, but it also depends on the task, job or function that needs to be accomplished. Therefore, successful leaders are those who can adapt their behaviour to meet the demands of their own unique situation. This is called “Situational Leadership behaviour”. (Robert House, 1971)

There are four propositions of the Path-Goal situation leadership behaviour:

(a) Directive Path-Goal Clarifying Leadership Behaviour: The leader directs toward providing psychological structure for subordinates. Leaders set goals and clarify them the path (what, when, how to perform tasks) to reach the goal. The leader clarifies the path to the goal by providing clear directives and measuring the performance. In this style, duties are at heart of the leader-subordinate relationship. It includes structuring and motivating subordinates, overseeing their progress, promoting and encouraging their development, and balancing effectiveness. The leader provides guidance, lets subordinates know what is expected from them, sets performance standards for them, and controls behaviour when
performance standards are not met. He makes judicious use of rewards and disciplinary action. Specific advice is given to the group and ground rules and structure are established.

(b) **Supportive Leadership Behaviour**: Supportive leader provides psychological support to subordinates, displays personal concern for their needs, provides welfare & well being and creates friendly environment. Good relations promoted with the group and sensitivity to subordinates’ needs is shown. Leader directs towards the satisfaction of subordinates needs and preferences. Leader sets a goal and gives moral support by being open, approachable and friendly to subordinates to perform the task. Highlights factual or value based external views into the organization and to subordinates. This includes increasing the subordinates’ self-esteem and making the job more interesting. A supportive leadership style requires both filtering and delegation skills.

(c) **Participative Leadership Behaviour**: The leader encourages involvement of subordinates in decision making and operations. Leader directs toward encouragement of subordinate influence on decision making and doing the tasks. Leader sets the goal and asks for suggestions to select the best suited path decisions. Leader believes in group decision making and shares information with subordinates. He consults his subordinates on important decisions related to work, task goals, and path to resolve goals. Leader involves the subordinate in a discussion of the task required before making a decision. Decision making is based on consultation with the group and information is shared with the group. Consulting with subordinates and taking their ideas into account when making decisions and taking particular actions.

(d) **Achievement – Oriented Leadership Behaviour** : Leader directs toward encouraging performance excellence. Leader sets challenging goals and lay path for them to perform to the highest level or to reach their peak performance. The leader encourages performance excellence and exhibits confidence in ability of subordinates to meet challenging goals. He believes that subordinates are responsible enough to accomplish challenging goals. This is characterized by setting challenging goals for subordinates and expecting them to perform to high standards. This style is designed to be used when the subordinate lacks the sufficient drive or has a lack of job challenge. Challenging goals are set, both in work and self-improvement and high performance is encouraged while
confidence is shown in the group’s ability. Leader shows faith in the capabilities of the subordinate to succeed.

2.3.7 Effects of leaders’ behaviour on teachers’ morale

There are number of factors that effect on teachers’ morale but the important factor is concerned with the leaders’ behaviour.

William, C. Miller (1981)\(^4\) describes that school leader is a highly important factor in facilitating teachers’ morale. Leader can have a direct positive impact on teachers’ morale by:

1. Praising and giving credit when it is warranted
2. Supporting the teacher in conflicts with students and parents
3. Giving special attention to the teacher’s physical comfort and other related matters
4. Assuming responsibility for their administrative actions
5. Demonstrating that they are knowledgeable about current school methods
6. Encouraging the teachers’ professional growth

Leaders have the power to influence many factors of a school. They have a myriad of roles included in their job. One of the most important and influential is the effect that principal has on the teachers of the school. The principal plays a vital role in their morale. Lumsden (1998)\(^5\) says, “People are more personally invested in their work with an organization when they have a voice in what happens to them; and their work has meaning and significance in contributing to a higher purpose or goal.” By treating teachers in ways that empower them, such as involving them in decisions about policies and practices and acknowledging their expertise, leaders can help sustain teacher morale.

Leaders can also strengthen teacher morale by actively standing behind teachers. Effective principals serve as “guardians of teachers’ instructional time, assist teachers with student discipline matters, allow teachers to develop discipline codes, and support teachers’ authority in enforcing policy” (Blase and Kirby 1992)\(^6\).

Rhodes Nevill & Allan, J. (2004)\(^7\) state that leaders have the power to influence the teacher morale in their school by the actions or daily practices they exhibit. Often
teachers feel they are not treated as professionals, are not appreciated, or are overworked, thus causing low teacher morale. On the other hand, some teachers with a high morale level may say their leader is very supportive so that they are able to teach effectively. In addition to the many roles of the position, leaders must also understand that they have a tremendous influence on the morale of the teachers.

Tye & O’Brien (2002) explain that teachers who receive little support from their leader may have a low morale level and may even leave the profession. It is important for leaders to make their teachers feel that they are supported in order to keep quality teachers in the profession and maintain morale in the demanding field of education.

Vickie, T. (2007) studied on leadership behaviour contribute to teacher morale and found that leadership behaviour clearly impacts teacher morale, and a positive relationship between leadership behaviour and teacher morale is evident in several areas. He concluded that teacher morale can be predicted on the basis of the leadership style asserted by the leader. Leaders who use a participatory style of leadership are more likely to have more satisfied and productive teachers than principals who use an autocratic style of leadership.

Effect of leaders’ behaviour on teachers’ morale which is discussed above indicate that leaders’ behaviours have a positive impact on the teachers’ morale and productivity of teachers. Therefore, it is necessary to explore the soundness of the leaders’ behaviour which empower for the improvement of teachers’ morale.

2.4 SUMMARY

The second chapter discussed the theoretical orientation about teachers’ morale and leaders’ behaviour. Teachers’ morale refers to the state of the mind and spirits or physical and mental well being of individual teacher or group of teachers as shown in the willingness, satisfaction and motivation which represent the professional interest and enthusiasm in students’ achievement and growth of teaching profession or achieving mission for success. In the present investigation, ten factors of teachers’ morale given by Bentley and Rempel (1980) were used to be the theoretical framework of the study. These ten factors of
teachers’ morale are as follows: (1) Teacher’s rapport with leader, (2) Teaching satisfaction, (3) Rapport among teachers, (4) Teacher’s salary, (5) Teacher’s load, (6) Curriculum issues, (7) Teacher’s status, (8) Community support for education, (9) Facilities, services, and welfare, (10) Community pressures.

In the present study, leaders’ behaviour refers to the behaviour of leaders of educational institutes which shows about the ability to lead their group for performing various activities towards the achievement of specified organizational goals and objectives. Three aspects of leaders’ behaviour were used to be the theoretical framework of the present study i.e. (1) Leaders’ traits, (2) Two-Dimension leadership style of Ohio State University, and (3) Path-Goal situational leadership behaviour.
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