CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE
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2.1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the investigator has presented a review of related researchers since an investigator requires a thorough knowledge of the findings of the earlier investigations of a related kind to base his findings on a sound base and explain the phenomena in greater detail. Further, an investigation has to proceed with some theoretical framework so that the enquiry runs on the right track. This theoretical framework is suggested by the study of related investigations. The related investigations sharpen the problem and impart depth to the inquiry. Survey of literature related to earlier investigations is important, because it helps in designing one's study and selection of right type of tools. It also facilitates comparison of the results of one's study with the earlier investigations. From this point of view the study of related literature is a guide to researcher.

Thus, in order to provide a framework for the present investigation and also to present a panoramic view of results of the investigations carried out in earlier, the following researches are reviewed.

2.1.1 History of Leadership Research

Researchers have examined leadership skills from a variety of perspectives. Early analyses of leadership, from the 1900s to 1950s, differentiated between leader and follower characteristics. Finding that no single trait or combination of traits fully explained leaders' abilities, researchers then began to examine the influence of the situation on
leaders' skills and behaviours. Subsequent leadership studies attempted to distinguish effective from non-effective leaders. These studies attempted to determine which leadership behaviours were exemplified by effective leaders. To understand what contributed to making leaders effective, researchers used the contingency model in examining the connection between personal traits, situational variables, and leader effectiveness. Leadership studies of the 1970s and 1980s once again focused on the individual characteristics of leaders which influence their effectiveness and the success of their organisations. The investigations led to the conclusion that leaders and leadership are crucial but complex components of organisations.

2.1.2 Traits Model of Leadership: Leaders versus Followers

Initial investigations of leadership considered leaders as individuals endowed with certain personality traits which constituted their abilities to lead. The studies investigated individual traits such as intelligence, birth order, socioeconomic status, and child-rearing practices (Bass, 1960; Bird, 1940; Stogdill, 1948, 1974). Stogdill (1974) identified six categories of personal factors associated with leadership: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, and situation but concluded that such a narrow characterisation of leadership traits was insufficient: "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits" (Stogdill, 1948, p. 64). The attempts to isolate specific individual traits led to the conclusion that no single characteristic can distinguish leaders from non-leaders.

2.1.3 Situational Leadership: Impact of the Setting on Leaders.

These "trait" investigations were followed by examinations of the "situation" as the determinant of leadership abilities, leading to the
concept of situational leadership. Studies attempted to identify “distinctive characteristics of the setting to which the leader’s success could be attributed” (Hoy & Miskel, 1987, p. 273). Hencley (1973) reviewed leadership theories and noted that “the situation approach maintains that leadership is determined not so much by the characters of the individuals as by the requirements of social situation” (p. 38). According to this research focus, a person could be a follower or a leader depending upon circumstances. Attempts were made to identify specific characteristics of a situation that affected leaders’ performance. Hoy and Miskel (1987) listed four areas of situational leadership: “structural properties of the organisation, organisational climate, role characteristics, and subordinate characteristics” (p. 273). Situational leadership revealed the complexity of leadership but still proved to be insufficient because the theories could not predict which leadership skills would be more effective in certain situations.

2.1.4 Effective Leaders: Two Dimensions

Other attempts to examine leadership have yielded information about the types of behaviours leaders exhibited in order to determine what makes effective leaders effective. These behaviours have been categorised along two common dimensions: initiating structures (concern for organisational tasks) and consideration (concern for individuals and interpersonal relations). Initiating structures include activities such as planning, organising, and defining the tasks and work of people: how work gets done in an organisation. Consideration addresses the social, emotional needs of individuals – their recognition, work satisfaction and self-esteem influencing their performance. Other researchers conceptualized these two dimensions as effectiveness and efficiency.
(Barnard, 1938), goal achievement and group maintenance (Cartwright & Zander, 1960), instrumental and expressive needs (Etzioni, 1961), and system- or person- oriented behaviours (Stogdill, 1963). Speculation about which dimension, initiating structures or consideration, was more important for various situations led to the assessment of leaders’ skills along these two dimensions. Among the assessment instruments developed to measure leadership skills, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) has been the most used. Halpin (1966) stated that one of the major findings resulting from the LBDQ data was that "effective leadership behavior tends most often to be associated with high performance on both dimensions." In summary, the situation approach to leadership supported the contention that effective leaders are able to address both the tasks and human aspects of their organisations.

2.1.5 Contingency Models: More than the Situation

Other research efforts to identify leadership characteristics focused on the fit between personality characteristics, leaders’ behaviors, and situational variables. The “situational leadership” approach contains an underlying assumption that different situations require different types of leadership, while the contingency approach attempts to “specify the conditions or the situational variable that moderate the relationship between leader traits or behaviours and performance criteria” (Hoy & Miskel, 1987, p. 274). Fiedler (1967), differentiating between leadership styles and behaviours, concluded that leadership styles indicate leaders’ motivational system and that leadership behaviours are leaders’ specific actions. He believed that group effectiveness result of the leaders’ style and the situation’s favorableness. House’s (1971) Path-Goal Theory included the interaction of leadership behaviours with situation characteristics in determining the leaders’ effectiveness. House identified four leadership behaviors: directive, achievement-oriented, supportive
and participative, and two situational variables (subordinates' personal characteristics and environmental demands such as the organization's rules and procedures) that most strongly contributed to leaders' effectiveness and contingency models furthered the understanding of leadership but did not completely clarify what combination of personality characteristics, leaders behaviours, and situational variables are most effective.

### 2.1.6 Non leader Leadership: Many Leader:

Similar to the contingency explanation of leadership is the notion of organisational leadership. Barnes and Kriger (1986) suggest that previous theories of leadership were insufficient because they "deal more with the single leader and multi-follower concept than with organisational leadership in a pluralistic sense" (p. 15). They contend that leadership is not found in one individual's traits or skills but is a characteristic of the entire organisation, in which "leader roles overlapped, complemented each other, and shifted from time to time and from person to person... implying a more inclusive concept of leadership" (p. 16). This concept of organisational leadership has not been examined as closely as the investigations of individual leadership traits and behaviours.

An extension of organisational leadership is the concept of shared leadership. Slater and Doig (1988) refute the assumption that leadership is a possession of one individual and state that such a supposition ignores the "possibility that leadership may also be exercised by a team of individuals" (p. 296). Murphy (1988) states that the hero-leader framework "ignores the invisible leadership of lower-level staff members throughout effective organizations" (p. 655).
2.1.7 Current Leadership Research

The leadership literature of the 1970s and 1980s, with its focus on effective leaders, revisited personal traits as determinants of leadership abilities. It primarily contributed to understanding the impact of personal characteristics and individual behaviours of effective leaders and their role in making organisations successful. The studies differentiated between leaders and managers and introduced a new leadership characteristic — vision — and explored its importance. Along with having vision, effective leaders are said to facilitate the development of a shared vision and value the human resources of their organisations. In addition to these insights on leadership, a new theory emerged — transformational leadership.

2.1.8 Leaders versus Managers.

"Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 21). Burns (1978) describes managers as transactors and leaders as transformers. Managers concern themselves with the procurement, coordination, and distribution of human and material resources needed by an organisation (Ubben & Hughes, 1987). The skills of a manager facilitate the work of an organisation because they ensure that what is done is in accord with the organisation's rules and regulations. The skills of a leader ensure that the work of the organisation is what it needs to be. Leaders facilitate the identification of organisational goals. They initiate the development of a vision of what their organisation is about. "Management controls, arranges, does things right; leadership unleashes energy, sets the vision so we do the right thing" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 21).
The central theme of the research is that those who find themselves supervising people in an organisation should be both good managers and good leaders. As Duttweiler and Hord (1987) stated, "the research shows that in addition to being accomplished administrators who develop and implement sound policies, procedures, and practices, effective administrators are also leaders who shape the school's culture by creating and articulating a vision, winning support for it, and inspiring others to attain it" (p. 65).

2.1.9 Vision.

"All leaders have the capacity to create a compelling vision, one that takes people to a new place, and the ability to translate that vision into reality" (Bennis, 1990, p. 46). Current leadership literature frequently characterises the leader as the vision holder, the keeper of the dream, or the person who has a vision of the organisation's purpose. In Leadership is an Art - (1989) De Pree asserts that "the first responsibility of a leader is to define reality" (p. 9). Bennis (1990) writes that leaders "manage the dream" p. 46). Vision is defined as "the force which molds meaning for the people of an organisation" by Manasse (1986, p. 150).

According to Manasse, this aspect of leadership is "visionary leadership" and includes four different types of vision: organisation, future, personal, and strategic. Organisational vision involves having a complete picture of a system's components as well as an understanding of their interrelationships. "Future vision is a comprehensive picture of how an organisation will look at some point in the future, including how it will be positioned in its environment and how it will function internally" (Manasse, 1986, p. 157). Personal vision includes the leaders' personal aspirations for the organisation and acts as the impetus for the leader's
actions that will link organisational and future vision. "Strategic vision involves connecting the reality of the present (organisational vision) to the possibilities of the future (future vision) in a unique way (personal vision) that is appropriate for the organisation and its leader" (Manasse, 1986, p. 162) A leader's vision needs to be shared by those who will be involved in the realisation of the vision.

2.1.10 Shared Vision.

An important aspect of vision is the notion of "shared vision." "Some studies indicate that it is the presence of this personal vision on the part of a leader, shared with members of the organisation, that may differentiate true leaders from mere managers" (Manasse, 1986, p. 151, italics added). A leader's vision needs to be shared by those who will be involved in the realisation of the vision. Murphy (1988) applied shared vision to previous studies of policy makers and policy implementation; he found that those studies identified gaps between policy development and its implementation and concluded that this gap also applies to current discussions of vision. He stressed the need for the development of a shared vision. "It is rare to see a clearly defined vision articulated by a leader at the top of the hierarchy and then installed by followers" (Murphy, 1988, p. 656). Whether the vision of an organisation is developed collaboratively or initiated by the leader and agreed to by the followers, it becomes the common ground, the shared vision that compels all involved. "Vision comes alive only when it is shared" (Westely & Mintzberg, 1989, p. 21).

2.1.11 Valuing Human Resources.

Leaders go beyond the development of a common vision; they value the human resources of their organizations. They provide an environment that promotes individual contributions to the organisation's work. Leaders
develop and maintain collaborative relationships formed during the development and adoption of the shared vision. They form teams, support team efforts, develop the skills groups and individuals need, and provide the necessary resources, both human and material, to fulfill the shared vision.

2.1.12 Transformational Leadership.

Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transformational leadership, describing it as not a set of specific behaviours but rather a process by which “leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation” (p. 20). He stated that transformational leaders are individuals that appeal to higher ideals and moral values such as justice and equality and can be found at various levels of an organization. Burns (1978) contrasted transformational leaders from transactional leaders which he described as leaders who motivated by appealing to followers’ self interest. Working with Burns’ (1978) definition of transformational leadership, Bass (1985) asserts that these leaders motivate followers by appealing to strong emotions regardless of the ultimate effects on the followers and do not necessary attend to positive moral values. The Reverend Jim Jones of the Jonestown massive suicide could be an example of Bass's definition of transformational leadership. Other researchers have described transformational leadership as going beyond individual needs, focusing on a common purpose, addressing intrinsic rewards and higher psychological needs such as self actualisation, and developing commitment with and in the followers (AASA, 1986; Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Coleman & La Roque, 1990; Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Leithwood, 1992; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1989; 1990).
2.2.1 Studies on Personality Traits and Environmental Variables

Most of the studies including in this category were conducted abroad. Some Indian studies on Headmasters/ Principals although not under a direct label of leadership behaviour were also reported. Here because of their similarity or resemblance however small.

Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 studies of the characteristics of leaders and found that an average person occupying the position of leadership had some qualities, which exceeded an average number of his group to some degree. The qualities, characteristics and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader. Intellectual fortitude and personal integrity are positively related to leadership in adult groups. Such personal characteristics as originally, popularity, sociability, good judgment good humour and co-operativeness tend to be related with successful leadership. There appears to be very little relationship with age, height or appearances. It seems clear that leadership cannot be discussed adequately apart from the situation in which it operates.

Hemphill, J.K (1955) conducted a study know the association of leadership behaviour of 22 department Chairmen with their administrative reputation and using LBDQ and a Background Information Questionnaire Responsibility Authority and Delegation scale showed that older and more matured faculty members a large proportion of reputation information than younger or new members of the faculty. Besides, larger departments tend to have better administrative reputation than the small ones.

Hapin (1955) Comparing leadership behaviour and leadership ideology of 64 educational administrators and 132 aircraft commanders
and using LBDQ results revealed that both sample leaders were found to have low relationship between their belief in how they should behave and their behaviour as described by their group members. This study shows that the LEDQ can be successfully used in any situation to study leadership behaviour.

Mann (1959) found that inner personality is indeed a condition of leadership. Thus, people with high intelligence who are well adjusted personally and who tend towards extraversion are more likely than others to become leaders; also, to be popular in the group and to contribute positively to the group activity. Likewise, favouring the assumption of leadership are such traits as dominance masculinity and liberalism.

Lewis, Emerg (1959) carried out a study to discover how principals felt about certain aspects of their professional preparation for the principalship; how they used their school time and what they would like to do with respect to improving their services to their institution if they had sufficient administrative and clerical help. This study gives clear indication that a majority of the principals responding felt that they would be performing superior services if they spent a much larger percentage of their time and effort in such functions as evaluation and reorganisation of curriculum, supervision of instruction, working with committees interested in improving school community relations, selecting competent staff members, fostering the organisation of the guidance programmes, supervising and managing the school building, working to improve instructional procedures and procedures, including the testing programmes and establishing good staff-relationship.
Gross, N. and Harriout, R. E (1966) conducted research on 175 Elementary school Principals by using 12 questions and the Gultman scale to determine the executive professional leadership scores. The questions were on the functions of a school Principal. The scores indicate that the principal varied greatly in their conformity to a professional leadership definition to their role. Questions regarding leadership of age, experience Level of education courses in educational administration, sex and marital status with executive professional leader-ship were investigated. The study suggest that the character stics that may require more consideration in appointing elementary school Principals are: a high level academic performance in college, a high order of inter personal skill. The motive of service, the willingness to commits off-duty time to their work and relatively little seniority as teachers. The findings of this study are of immense value as guidelines for those who are engaged in the business of appointing Principals.

Garrison, J (1968) Studied relationship between leadership behaviour and innovation (Form-XII) results showed that high scores on the dimensions of the LBDQ were directly related to innovations in the school high innovative principals tended to be effective leaders when working with their staff but less effective when working with their superintendents. The opposite was also true of low innovative principals.

Schreiner, J. G (1968) undertaken an explanatory investigation of leader-behaviour of full time and part time elementary school principals was the findings were that their leadership behavior was significantly different from that of full time principals with respect to several leadership variables. Part-time principals were higher than fulltime principals in.
activity assuming the roles, in reconciling conflicting demands from variables individuals and groups and tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty.

**Nalan. J.S.** (1969) A comparative study has been undertaken only on four dimensions of leadership viz. (i) initiation of structure, (ii) consideration, (iii) role assumption, and (iv) tolerance of freedom. The findings of this study revealed a marked degree of agreement as to what kind of leadership was expected by superintendents, teachers and Presidents of parent organisations. The study supports the trend towards increased professionalisation of administrators. Teaching and administrative experiences were not found to be significantly related to leader-behaviour.

**O'Conner, C.** (1969) An attempt was made to study the positive characteristics that teacher's identity with an effective principal. The data collected from 443 teachers indicated how an effective principal should behave: (i) he should attend national principals meetings; (ii) be a man rather than a woman; (iii) have strong interests in humanities; (iv) abide by the decisions of the majority when an issue is subject to vote; (v) perform his duties as he believes it should be done regardless of public opinion; (vi) attend national subject meetings; (vii) make a thorough study of the faculty opinion before taking a decision; (viii) use latest automation equipments and services; (ix) be well groomed and dressed in the latest fashion; (x) back up a teacher in his use of discipline; (xi) compliment a teacher on specific work well done; and (xii) encourage the teachers to use new methods of teaching. An administrator should reflect such behavioral characteristics and there should no place of apathy in him for
the faculty members. The findings of this investigation are very valuable for one who aspires to be a good school principal.

Norman (1970) examined the leadership behavior of 40 women working in various areas namely, law, administration, education, government, business, fine arts and civic work. The instruments used were LBDQ (Form XII) and 16 PF Questionnaire. She found personality traits associated with leadership behavior. The women in leadership positions were found to be women of high intelligence, confidence, self-assured, composed, conscientious, persevering experimenting, liberal, self-sufficient, resourceful, temperamentally independent, uninhibited, able to work without fatigue, socially precise, with a strong self image, imaginative, self-motivated, creative, shrewd and calculating with an intellectual approach to situations. Those women who had the ability to initiate structure in an organisation were considerate in taking into account regard for well-being. They could tolerate uncertainty and postponement and reconcile conflicting demands. They could maintain cordial relations with superiors. Contrary to many studies, this establishes that personality is related to leadership study partially supports Stagdill's investigation (1948).

Morsink, H.M. (1970) taken up a comparative of leadership behaviour of 15 men and 15 women principals using LBDQ (Form XII) was undertaken. The study was being reported that there is no justification in the arguments that men behave more appropriately an women as principals. This study indicated that no discrimination should be done on the basis of sex without any sound reason. Women should also be allowed to contribute their talent in the development of the nation.
Mahajan (1970) conducted a study to examine critically supervisory role of the principals of Delhi Higher Secondary schools. The important findings of the study are: (i) Government schools are better placed as a whole in respect of principal teacher relations and academic leadership though the differences are not statistically significant (ii) Government girls’ schools have better facilities and academic leadership than the government boys’ schools, (iii) The principals in many cases prefer that teachers should confine themselves to the use of chalk and black-board rather than be enthusiastic to use methods, albums and other teaching aids; (iv) The principal-teacher relations, on the whole, have been satisfactory; (v) Staff meetings, individual conferences, orientation and induction as instruments of teachers growth and specific in service education techniques such as action research, inter class situation, inter school visitation, seminars, workshops at so 001 level, find little place in school life; (vi) Most of the principals fail to play an effective leadership role in the academic field in the schools because of limitation of time and energy.

State Institute of Education (SIE), Maharashtra (1971) undertook a study about the in-service training needs of Headmasters. The important findings of the study were that the headmasters felt that the following subjects should be included in the in-service training course: (i) headmaster powers and duties: (ii) relation between the headmasters and his assistants: (iii) school inspection and its methods: (iv) relation between school community and workers in educational field: and (v) school organisation.

Vats, J.P (1972) conducted on the leadership role in educational administration. The major findings were: (i) the most important aspect of
career development was an officer's own motivation and his efforts for self-development: (ii) the expansion of education demanding increasing responsibility and functional competence on the part of the administrators; (iii) administrators at all levels, had a reasonably clear perception of their role; (iv) the interference of the politicians in day to day administration was found to be non-conducive to a flourishing leadership role.

Anand, S.P. (1974) another piece of research was explored to find out difference between 'ideal principals' and 'what school principals are' as viewed by male and female teachers. The responses of the teachers showed that there is no significant difference between male and female teachers expressing pugnacity and co-operation as essential characteristics of an ideal principal. They also not differ in view that an ideal principal should be democratic, highly educated and impartial. Women laid more emphasis on 'values of life' when they expected good behaviour from an ideal principal. But when the second question i.e. 'what school Principals are', they were found 'not democratic' and dishonest. This poses a challenge to educationists and teachers training colleges.

Dorji (1975) found that leadership behaviour dimensions and patterns were critical indicators of organisational climate, staff morale, academic motivation, and school innovativeness and academic status. The percentage of principals manifesting the H.H. pattern of leadership behaviour was the highest (49%), all the principals of the open climate school manifested. The H. H. leadership behaviour pattern, there was no direct relationship between pupil motivation and the leadership behaviour of the principals. The leadership behaviour dimensions and patterns were
found to be significant in relation to variables of climate, morale and innovativeness but not in relation to pupil motivation onwards school s and academic status of schools.

Sharma (1975) conducted a study to find out whether school climate had any relationship with principal's effectiveness and teachers' satisfaction. The results showed that the Headmasters' effectiveness and teachers' satisfaction were found significantly positively related to school climate. It was noted that the teachers' satisfaction is negatively related to 'aloofness' and not related to 'product emphasis. It was found significantly positively related with 'esprit', thrust, and 'consideration, it indicates that a principal can work as an effective leader with a faculty high morale.

Panda, S.N (1975) undertook a study to examine administrative behaviour of Headmasters. It was found that the headmasters in their administrative behaviour were more self-oriented, authoritarian, traditional, academically apathetic and rejecting. On the one hand and less effective in communication, less co-operative, less outcome oriented and less permissive on the other. Headmasters of effective schools were more others-oriented, less authoritarian and less-rejecting. Headmasters of urban schools were more adaptable, outcome oriented and effective in communication and less rejecting. Headmasters of boys schools were less permissive than Headmasters of girls schools; and the background factors that were related to Headmasters' administrative behaviour were teachers' indifference to carry out work, groupism among teachers, students' indifference to education, level of literacy in the surrounding community, interference to administration by authorities and poor self-perception.
Mehare (1977) organised a study on evaluation of administration of secondary teachers training colleges in Maharashtra with special reference to principals. The important findings were as follows: (i) The college could be arranged on a continuum with 'open' and 'closed' climates as extremes; (ii) significant relationship existed between administrative experience and climate type but not with the age of a principal; (iii) variations in teacher morale existed in college of education but were not related to the age of the principal, the relationship was with his 'administrative experience'; (iv) Teacher morale was found to be dependent on the faculty experience, but not on type of management; (v) college climate was closely associated with teacher morale; (vi) rapport among teacher educators was more in 'open' climate than in their counterparts; (vii) positive and significant relationship was found between the perception of teacher educators about the behaviour of the principal and his own perception about himself.

Singh (1978) launched a study to compare the Headmasters' leadership behaviour with that of some other Professional leaders. It proposed to investigate the leadership behaviour of the school Headmasters in Haryana scribed by their teachers, and to compare their leadership behaviour with some other professional leaders, and explore the relationship of variables such as personality re, sex, age, teaching and administrative experience leadership. The findings of the study were as follows: (i) Out of five professional leaders, the headmasters occupied third position on the leadership scale; (ii) total leadership was significantly related to the four personalities in factors, viz. outgoingness, intelligence, emotional stability and assertiveness; (iii) The leadership behaviour of heads was not related to age between 25 and 62 years; (iv) Postgraduate
heads were significantly better than graduate heads: (v) total leadership behaviour was neither related to academic qualifications nor related to their teaching and administrative experiences.

**Khoury** (1982) compared the leadership behaviours of the elementary school principals, secondary school principals and the heads of University departments. Comparison was done on “initiating structure” and “consideration” dimensions of leadership. It was revealed that the heads and the principals perceived themselves to be existing both kinds of behaviours significantly more frequently than their respective teachers with regard to “initiating structure” the discrepancy existed at all the three levels of education. Finally on both the dimensions of leadership behaviour negative correlation appeared to be existing between the administrators and the teachers.

**Naik, D.G.** (1982) conducted a study to examine the relationship between leadership behaviour of Secondary school headmasters teacher morale. It was found that there were significant and positive relationship between building facilities, evaluation of students, special services, supervisory relations and colleagues relations: there was no significant relationship between the twelve dimensions of LBDJ and the experience of the Head Teachers' morale as well as LBDQ had no significant relationship with type, area or size of school. The study supports Nolan (1969) that administrative experience has no significant relationship with leader behaviour.

**Gupta and Gupta** (1985) studied personality factors of successful principals and found that out of 16 Personality Factors A, B, C, Q, and
Q₃ five factors were significantly positive related to administrative success of the principals while factors L and M were negatively related. It was also demonstrated in this study that sex played a significant role in determining the administrative success of the principals.

Blank, Rolf, J., (1987) studied the role of a principal as a leader in urban schools in Washington. It was found that most of the principals in urban high schools provides a high degree of leadership in only a few areas. These areas were instructional improvement and innovation staff development, involving staff in planning, seeking district or community port or researches for development etc. only in limited s the principals were found exercising leadership.

Mc Donald (1987) made a study on selected social and Psychological leader behaviour of administrators. The purpose was to investigate the relations among perceived locus of control, power and real and ideal leader behaviours. Analysis of the demographic data revealed that most of the administrators were titled Dean and had a doctorate in education. Most of the administrators were around 50 years of age, had six years or less tenure in their current positions, and had an average of four years or less of previous administrative experience. No significant relationships were found between locus of control, and the variables like perceived power, real leader behaviour, and ideal leader behaviour it significant relationship was found between real and ideal leader behaviours, perceived power was significantly related to real leader behaviour and to the initiation the structure dimension of the real leader behaviour. No significant relationship was found between prccieived power and ideal leader behaviour.
Lozean (1988) analysed the perceived leadership role of Principals in the north central association region and found that the Principals were playing their leadership role effectively and were satisfied with their experience. The principals according to Lozean, considered effective leadership behaviours important for achieving goals of education, though the scope for that was limited.

Munshi (1989) investigated the relationship between perceptions of female principals and their teachers of principals' leadership behaviour. The findings were as follows: (i) similar statistical differences existed between Saudi 'Principals' and 'teachers' perceptions and on the other hand, between the findings of this study and other similar studies in related Arab countries with respect to leadership behaviour of the principals in the nine LBDQ- XII Dimensions of demand reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, predictive accuracy and integration: (ii) there were no statistically significant effects of the principals' total years of experiences, the degree of their academic preparation or years of experience as principals at their present schools on their leadership behaviour; (iii) there were no statistically significant effects of the teachers' age and experience at the present school on their perceptions of the Principals' leadership behaviour; (iv) there were differences between the teachers and the principals' perceptions of leadership behaviour in that teachers were more critical of Principals than principals were of themselves.

Wootton (1989) studied the leadership behaviour of secondary school principals. The data showed that teachers' perceptions of principals'
leadership behaviour differ from that of principals themselves and superintendents in some leadership characteristics as measured by the LBDQ (Form Xii) other leadership characteristics where as related no significant difference. Principals viewed age and educational level making the greatest difference in their perceived leadership behaviours. Superintendents saw classroom management training, teacher exception, student achievement training and assessment centre training as making a significant difference in the perceived leadership behaviours of Principals. The teachers claimed that time in present position was the most significant factor in a principals leadership behaviour. The study partially supports the investigation conducted by Munshi in 1989.

Lepiana (1989) conducted a study, dealt with Principals prior teaching experience and teachers’ perceptions of their principals’ leadership behaviour. The findings derived from the study showed no relationship between teachers’ perceptions of their principals leadership behaviours and prior teaching experiences of the principal. Areas that did show statistical significance were the principal under-graduate and graduate major, particularly social science, fine arts and education, salary, age, school level and year of experience. The study contradicts with the research investigation conducted by Nolan in 1969, Singh in 1978, Norik in 1982, Wootton in 1989.

Brown (1989) undertook a study in leadership behaviour of female elementary school principals as perceived by female teachers. A demographic data sheet and LBOQ were for data-gathering instruments. The results clearly supported the suggestions that female elementary school principal in south Carolina possess admirable levels of consideration and exhibit strong initiation of structure behaviours. Thus
making them administrators who possess the managerial skills effectively and efficiently get the job done.

**Bayti** (1990) made a study on school index in context of leadership and decision making keeping in mind the objective to discover the relationship between: (i) leadership and decision making (ii) Leadership and games sports and other allied educational activities, (iii) Leadership and scholastic achievement, (iv) decision making and scholastic achievement, (v) Decision-making and games sports and other allied educational activities. The results were as follows: There was positive and significant correlation between leadership and decision making at .54 level, leadership and games sports and other applied educational activities at .64 level1 there was positive tolerable correlation between decision making and games-sports and other allied educational activities at .35 level, decision-making and scholastic achievement at 24 level, and leadership and scholastic achievement at 20 levels.

**Mishra** (1991) studied Principals Managerial problems in relation to their leadership behaviour in which neither “initiating structure” dimension of leadership nor consideration was found to be related to managerial problems.

### 2.3.1 Studies on Modes and Types of Leadership

Some foreign studies and a very few Indian studies related to modes and styles of leadership behaviour were discussed under this heading.

**Lippitt and White** (1943) tried to see the effects of three types of leadership designated as ‘democratic’, ‘autocratic ‘and Laissez-faire. It was found that, autocracy provoked one of two reactions submission or
aggression which might open rebellion. Group morale, in the sense of spontaneous cohesion was highest in the democratic group and lowest in the submissive autocracy. The decorative group was the most contented and friendly, but autocratic leadership seemed to inhibit the normal free and easy sociability of the 'Laissez-faire' group were dissatisfied with their own level of efficiency and their behaviour showed the vicious circle of frustration-aggression-frustration. The best work was done in the democratic group, who took pride in their work in marked contrast to the lack of case shown by the autocratic group.

Cattell (1954) explored four types of leaders in experimental groups. These are (i) Persistent momentary problem solvers, high in interaction rate, (ii) salient leaders - picked up by observers as exerting the most powerful influence on the group (iii) Elected leaders attaining office by election.

Moser, R.P. (1959) attempted to study the stages of leadership. It was identified three styles of leadership (i) the homothetic dimension characterized by goal accomplishment in terms of the institution, (ii) the idiographic dimension characterized by behaviour of the individual self, (iii) the transactional dimension characterised by elements of both nomothetic and idiographic. Among the findings, these were the principals exhibiting transactional behaviour and nomothetic behaviour in which the superintendents expressed high confidence. The principals emphasised idiographic behaviour in dealing with teachers, and nomothetic behaviour in their relations with the superintendents. Superintendents who professed nomothetic behaviour, indicated the highest level of personal satisfaction and were given the highest ratings by the principals. This study points out the different styles of leadership.
Willower (1960) conducted a study of this kind found that the younger principals in both idiographic and nomothetic groups regarded their teachers as professionals to a lesser degree than other Principal.

Meade (1967) conducted a study to determine the effect of authorisation and democratic leadership on productivity and morale in the atmosphere of a boys' club in India. The result showed that moral, productivity and quality of work were higher under the authoritarian leadership atmosphere than under the democratic leadership atmosphere.

Singh, Y.K. (1975) conducted a study to find out some aspects of local leadership like modes of leader origin, factors responsible for leadership and problems experienced by leaders. Sample selected from 75 local leaders out of 10 tribal villages of Bihar, M.P. and Orissa states. The modes of origin of leadership were found to be (a) Election, (b) Appointment, (c) Sociometric-choice. The results further shared were that in tribal areas, a good numbers of leaders are of 'sociometric-choice' type who have intimate contacts with the people. Leadership position of relatives, better financial and family status and urban contacts tend to influence favorably an individual's choices of becoming a leader. Village fictions, inadequate finances for programmes, lack of incentives, lack of interest on the part of people and over work tend to be the major problems of local leadership.

Shukla, P.C. (1983) conducted several studies in which principals leadership styles were related to a few selected variables. He found that the lady principals were more democratic in their behaviours as compared
to men. Similarly, he found that there was no rural-urban bias in the leadership behaviour of educational administrators.

**Robson and Davis** (1983) undertook a study on administrative authority, leadership style and the master control. Findings of this study tend to support the work done by Halpin and the Ohio state group. That is, the widest professional zone of acceptance was found among teachers who perceived their principle high in both initiating structure and consideration (comprehensive style). The strength of initiating structure and found to be significantly related to a teacher's professional zone of acceptance without respect to the degree of consideration shown by the principal. It is also found that contract type was shown to be significant factor in determining the teachers' professional zone of acceptance.

**Stevena,D and Davis,E** an attempt was made to study on leadership styles of exemplary secondary school principals in the united states. The study revealed that the prevalent leadership style of the principals was the high relationship, high task style as determined by Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership theory. These secondary school principals were found to have a high level of leadership adaptability and a wide leadership style range. The situational analysis revealed no significant relationship existed between the selected demographic variables and leadership style.

**Everett** (1988) undertook a study of the relationship between the principal's leadership style and the level of motivation of the teaching staff. The findings of this study were as followings (i) significant relationship were found at the 0.05 level between teachers motivation
and the perceived leadership style of the principal; (ii) teacher motivation sub-scales, intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction were negatively correlated to each of the two leadership subscales, initiating structure and consideration behaviour; (iii) the independent variables sex, age, and length of experience indicated no significant difference with the groups in teachers intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction.

Smith (1989) found in his study that the styles of functioning of the administration in most schools and the stress that was experienced by them were highly correlated together. This means that certain styles of functioning of the principals were stress-producing and hence were administratively not effective. The study shows that the stress experienced by the principals is an indicator of the administrative ineffectiveness which, sometimes, is produced by the style of functioning of the principals itself.

Alka Agarwal (1939) conducted a study of managerial styles of college principals in relation to teachers' alienation morale and instructional effectiveness. She found that the principals used different managerial styles to manage the college affairs. It was also found that certain styles were related to teachers’ morale and alienation. The managerial styles did not have any significant effect on in situational effectiveness.

Allen, K.E (1990) an exploration was made on diverse voices of leadership, different rhythms and emerging harmonies (1990). It cited that in the current research literature leaders have been identified through traditional sampling techniques: techniques in which individuals are selected by positions, reputations and organisational success, articulated
by these sampling techniques is a voice of leadership that is based within the American individualistic culture, a voice from leaders who are wh.1.te, older, and men. The purpose of this study was to explore whether there are different voices of leadership, which are not presently reflected in the leadership literature. 15 individuals were interviewed and asked to relate their leadership life story. These individuals were selected based on diversity in gender, age, position, ethnicity, culture, race and experience. The author found that there are multiple voices of leadership which are not presently reflected in the current literature. These diverse voices of leadership represent a way of think-about leadership within socio-centered cultures and from a care perspective.

2.4.0 Concluding Remarks

The literature pertaining to the study of leadership behaviour has been reported at length by the present investigator. It is difficult to summarise the conclusions of all these studies due to some contradictions in their findings about leadership behaviour and the variables related to it. Yet, a broad categorisation of these is possible.

In the first category of these researches or the investigators have tried to identify the factors that have some bearing on leadership behaviours of principals. Size of the institution, rural-urban location of the institution, level of the institution (elementary, secondary or higher education), type of institution (arts, science, commerce, technical etc.), type of management (private or Govt.), organisational climate of the institutions, moral and innovativeness and several other such characteristics have been related to see whether these factors make any difference in the functioning of the principals or Headmasters Amongst these studies there are a few which have tried to bring out the relationship
between the personality and leadership behaviour of principals; between leadership behaviour and age, sex, administrative and teaching experience. In a few studies the researchers have compared the leadership behaviour of administrators with leadership ideology, between male and female principals, between the Headmasters and others professional leaders, between different levels of headship (elementary, secondary and higher education). However, in some studies an attempt has been made to study how they should behave as perceived by teachers/lectures.

Another category of researches in this area has been the surveys of modes, styles and types of leadership behaviour at different levels of education. These studies have been attempted to describe what kind of behaviours the Principals/Heads exhibit; whether they are democratic or authoritarian or Laissez-faire, whether they focus on goal achievement or care more for people working with them. Most of the studies on leadership behaviours of principals/Heads are of this nature.

These conclusions lead to certain gaps in research in the area of leadership behaviour and its correlates. The same have been discussed in chapter-I along with a justification and meaning of leadership of the present problem.