

## EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

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## INTRODUCTION

The definitions of leadership are more varied than the description of its function. Leadership is a 'social process' entailing responsibility for the effective and economic planning and regulation of the operations of an enterprise, it may be industry, commercial organization or educational organization. Some famous writers say that when a leader fulfils given purposes or tasks, this responsibility involves judgement and decision in determining plans and in using data to control performance and progress against plans. It also involves guidance, integration, motivation and supervision of the personnel composing the enterprise and carrying out its operations. But in some other writers' opinion, some more things to be added in that some thing which varies and depends on nation and culture and looks like bullying and accountability. Robert Heller (1972), a popular writer thinks that any attempt to define the term is doomed to failure. He says: "Any definition of management must be right, because almost any definition must fit same thing so amorphous and shifting. Achieving results through other people is among the most popular definition".

Drucker (1977), describes leadership as having three tasks to perform: (i) to fulfil the specific purpose and mission of the organization; (ii) to make work productive and the worker achieving; and (iii) to manage social impacts and social responsibilities.

Barnard (1958), in his known book *THE FUNCTIONS OF THE EXECUTIVE* stresses that: "Executive work is not that of the organization but the specialized work of maintain-

ing the organization in operation".

A distinction exists specially in leader's ability between deciding *what to do* and *getting it done*. So this defines broadly and clearly as "deciding" what should be done and then "getting" other people to do it. But, there is a question as to how these two tasks are to be performed and completed. Firstly, leader has to comprise selling objectives make planned decision. The secondly depending on motivation, communication, control and the development of people. For instance, a leader's decision is acceptable to subordinates because this decision is likely to implement but he/she may include his/her subordinates in the process of decision-making. This type of leadership is democratic. In this way the leader increases the importance of subordinates in participation. In educational organizations also this practice is essential and should be essential because, for teachers it is highly incentive required for their status.

There are many other meanings and definitions of leadership:

- (i) 'Leadership' means 'the capacity to influence and to lead others'.
- (ii) It is an exercise and practice of authority in a social group.
- (iii) Other even simpler definitions are "to guide" or to show the path or direction of the right way.
- (iv) Academically it elaborates and explains what is behind leadership. One writer says: "Interaction between members of a group that initiates and maintains improved expectations and competence of the group to solve problems or attain (goals Stogdill 1974).

The term "Leader" is often used instead of "manager" because it has more appeal. Actually leading is one aspect of managing. The early research into leadership explored three problems:

- (i) What should be the qualities of leaders.
- (ii) Their task and responsibility to achieve the target.
- (iii) What style or qualities produce the best performance.

The abilities needed to lead people tend to vary from one situation to another. This is the reason why selection of managers and leaders is so difficult. There needs to be a match between the managers, the subordinates and the situation.

#### ESSENTIAL QUALITIES OF LEADERSHIP

Leaders are supposed to have versatile numerous qualities. There is a list of the characteristics of successful leaders or managers compiled by Professor Edwards and Townsend, two economists, who said that "Varying combinations and proportions seem to be found in the leadership of most businesses that have grown substantially" (Edward & Towson, 1965).

The first list is:

1. Strength and willingness to work hard, immensely hard in some cases.
2. Perseverance and determination amounting at times to fanatical, single-mindedness.
3. A taste and flair for commerce, an under-

standing of the market-place.

4. Audacity - a willingness to take risks that are sometimes large gambles.

5. Ability to inspire enthusiasm in those whose cooperation and assistance are essential.

6. Toughness amounting in some men to ruthlessness.

The second list is compiled by Professor Argyris, Psychologist (1953). It is in contrast to the previous one, and pertains to qualities likely to be found in most successful businessmen. Argyris's list is:

1. Exhibit a high tolerance of frustration.

2. Encourage full participation and are able to permit people to discuss and pull apart their decisions without feeling that their personal worth is threatened.

3. Continually question themselves, but without being constantly critical of themselves (Their self respect seemed to enable them to respect others).

4. Understand the laws of competitive warfare and do not feel threatened by them.

5. Express hostility tactfully.

6. Accept victory with controlled emotions.

7. Understand the necessity for limits and for unfavourable decisions.

8. Are never shattered by defeat.

9. Identify themselves with groups, thereby gaining a sense of security and stability.

10. Set goals realistically.

The first list is limited to the heads and the second list seems to include managers or leaders at different levels. Best predictor of success is not the possession of a long list of qualities, but prior success in similar roles. Hence evidence of leadership at school and university is a good predictor of future leadership ability, but that depends upon the situation being compatible with the individual's personality.

Different situations require different leadership qualities and different types of leaders in different cultures and nations. For example, a leader in educational organization, when managing education can be divide into the acquisition of specific information and skills and deepening of understanding. The deepening of understanding covers three areas:

1. An awareness of the external environment of the organization and its effects upon it.

2. An understanding of the organization as a whole and of the interrelationship of departments.

3. A greater insight into people's reactions.

Bass (1960) expresses two anxieties about Management Education. One is that there is lack of attention towards jobs, individual needs and learning styles. And the second anxiety is that management education may not be

treated as a cure for problems, created by a poor working climate by a bad organization.

There is a perceived contrast between an educational institution and a general organization. Educational institution emphasises institutional goals, rules and regulation and a general organization stresses the individuality of people and the quality of personal relationship with subordinates.

Actually the educational institutions are different from other organizations because they consist of five basic elements. (Hughes 1985).

1. A structure of formal roles or 'statuses' into which expectations regarding appropriate behaviour 'role performance' are built.

2. A collection of individual human beings whose behaviour is related to a greater or less extent to the roles they fill in the role structure.

3. Between the formal structures and the individuals are what might be called informal or micro-political structures and processes 'characterized more by coalitions than by departments, by strategies rather than rules, by influence rather than power and by knowledge rather than status. (Hoyle 1982, p.88).

4. A set or more or less related aims, values, beliefs, attitudes, ideas, etc. which may be thought of as the culture or, perhaps, sub-culture of the institution and to their own and other's position and the actions within it.

5. A set of interactions of varying intensity and continuity between members of the institution and the in-

dividuals and groups which, taken collectively, may be said to constitute its environment.

As mentioned above, educational institutions differ from other organizations and so is the leadership. If there is to be a profession of educational management or leadership, there must be a body of relevant knowledge in which its practitioners are superior to non-managers. One area in which such a claim might be sustained is a knowledge of organizations or institutions. It looks at "organizations" as those goal seeking collectives which give rise to administration and "administration" as that general form of human behaviour which defines and achieves ends through organizations. It follows that "a serious administrative aspirant, whether amateur or professional, would be moved to gain familiarity with whatever body of knowledge or principle the social sciences could present in the general form of organization theory, and to deepen his insight and practical skills in the arts of decision making and policy formulation.

#### ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Educational institutes are unique kind of professional organizations, differing in major characteristics from industrial organizations, government bureaus, and business firms. Academic institutions like colleges and universities are complex organizations. They have goals, hierarchical systems and structures, officials that carry out specific duties, decision making processes for selling institutional policy and routine bureaucratic administration for handling day-to-day work. Although college and universities share many characteristics with other complex bureaucracies.

'Goal ambiguity' is one of the chief characteristics

of academic organizations. Baldrige (1978) says: "Most organizations know what they are doing". Business firms seek to make a profit, government agencies perform tasks specified by law, hospitals try to cure sick people, and prisons attempt to incarcerate and rehabilitate. Since they know where they are going, they can build decision structures to get them there. By contrast, colleges and universities have vague, ambiguous goals, and they must build decision structures that grapple with uncertainty and conflict over those goals.

For example what are the goals of a university? Teaching, research, service to the local community, administration of scientific installation, housing for students and faculty, support of the arts, solving social problems.

Academic organizations are client-serving institutions. Like public school systems, hospitals, and welfare agencies, colleges and universities are "people-processing" institutions. Society feeds clients with specific needs into the institutions and the institutions act upon them, and after refinement returns them into the larger society. This is an extremely important fact, for the clients demand and often obtain a significant amount of influence over the decision-making processes of the institution. Even powerless clients such as small school children usually have protectors such as parents who demand a voice in the operation of the organization. This client-serving character of academic organizations raises another issue: What kind of technology and personnel does the organization need to do its multifaceted job?

The academic organizations have several other unique organizational characteristics. They have unclear and contested goal structures; almost anything can be jus-

## Grassroots

tified, but almost anything can be attacked as illegitimate. They have a problematic technology, for, in order to serve clients the technology must be holistic and nonroutine. As a result academic organizations are important instances of professionalised organizations where professionals serving the clients demand a large measure of control over the institution's decision processes. Finally, academic organizations are becoming more and more valueable to their environments.

Leadership in the collegial model contrasts strongly with the hero-bureaucrate image. The collegial leader is almost a "first among equals" in an academic organization supposedly run by professional experts. Essentially, this is management according to what John Millett calls the "dynamic of consensus in a community of scholars". The basic idea of the collegial leader is, less to command than to listen, less to lead than to gather expert judgements, less to manage than to facilitate, less to order than to persuade and negotiate.

Educational organizations are distinctly different from most kinds of complex organizations. Their goals are more ambiguous and contested, they serve clients instead of working for profit, their technologies are unclear and problematic, and professionals dominate the work force and decision-making process. Thus, colleges and universities are not standard "bureaucracies" but can best be described as "organized anarchies" (Cohen and March, 1974).

What do the decision and governance processes look like in an institution characterized as an "organized anarchy"? Does the decision process look like a bureaucratic system, with rational problem solving and the application of standard operating procedures? Does it resemble a "collegial" system, in which the, the professional faculty

participates in a "community of scholars"? Or does it appear to be a "political" process, with various interest groups struggling for influence over the setting of organizational policy? But writers are convinced that policy making in an organization portrays as an organized anarchy.

If colleges and universities have unique organizational features like organized anarchies, and if their decision processes resemble political dynamics, then we must seriously question the standard images of leadership and management applied to those institutions. In some writer's opinion the leadership image should be that of the academic statesman, while the management process should look more like strategic decision making instead of scientific management.

In general, those who have managerial and leadership responsibilities in Educational Institutions would claim to be education professionals. This gives rise to ambiguities as well as to opportunities. The strains and tensions which have to be accommodated will include those which are personal to the individual concerned, who may conveniently be referred to in this context as the professional-as-administrator. Thus, it is used for institutional heads to be appointed who have a strong professional background in the relevant area of expertise. Such appointments may be regarded as co-opting devices designed to defuse tensions between practising professionals and their managers, as noted by MOORE (1970) "The manager who has some basis for understanding the problems intrinsic to the professional role and its organizational setting is likely to elicit some-what greater confidence than would be accorded a Mere Mayman". MOORE also observed that there is a representative as well as an internal co-ordinating function to be performed and that a similar

point applies: representation by one of their own kind is more acceptable to professional than by any one viewed as outsider.

According to one writer leadership qualities are indispensable to the effective manager, since he holds responsibility for motivating the people in his charge. An other writer holds that leadership implies setting one man up above another, raises spectres of elites and privileged classes, one can call them vice-chancellor or principal, chairman or coordinator, representative or organiser, there is a need in all organisations for individual linking-pins who will bind groups together and as members of other groups represent their groups elsewhere in the organization. Some defines leadership often assume that it can be taken for granted that there is general agreement in the organization or group on common goals and preferred outcomes. Some used leadership as a generic term which refers to process characterised by interrelationships among people as they work together in the formulation and achievement of common goals. Still other writers view leadership as the performance of those acts which help the group achieve its objectives, and note that such acts may be termed 'group functions'.

"Leaders are born, not made". This is the most common assumption about leadership. Those who hold it maintain that there are certain inborn qualities, such as initiative, courage, intelligence and humour, which together predestine a man to be a leader. By the exercise of willpower, itself seem as an important leadership trail, or by the rough tutorship of experience, some of these qualities might be developed. But the essential pattern is given at birth. 'To be efficient a leader' needs:

1. Technical competence sufficient to manage

the technology of the job.

2. Sufficient knowledge to cover the 'technical' aspects of the management.

3. Ability to get the best work out of those for whose work he is responsible and accountable.

Educational role and mission are different from commercial organization in some ways or the other. Most authors in this subject readily reconcile education and management. However, there are also those of an educational institution. It is agreed that Educational Institutions with their deep-rooted values and academic professionalism, are not the kind of organizations that ought to be managed by a linchpin head, or even a senior management group—they ought to be self managing communities with access to power dispersed equally among the staff. Because:

1. 'Managerialism' is in conflict with the values and purposes of Educational Institutions.

2. Stress on means as against ends devalues professional competence.

3. Hierarchically organized educational institutions deprive teachers of involvement in fundamental educational thinking.

4. Vertical accountability is debilitating; it leads to suspicion, resentment, divisiveness, problems of legitimacy and (in the case of appraisal) attendant psychological detriment to isolated individuals.

5. The conception of authority relationships

within an educational system is contrary to democratic principles and has a miseducative effect on pupils.

6. Pupils should not be politically educated through belonging to an institution that is run by a 'Linchpin Head'.

7. The contexts of educational and commercial organizations differ fundamentally; the latter ignore important moral considerations, whereas to an educational undertaking, morality is central.

8. Recommended management practice ('contingency theory') is tantamount to expediency and manipulation; the abrogation of such words as 'participation' is especially insidious.

9. Management theory is a pseudo-theory, tricked out as a form of 'behaviourial sciences', but without scientific basis; it lends a spurious legitimacy to the manipulative practices of managers.

10. A commercially inspired management imperative may betray rather than enhance the specifically educational nature of schools, because its values, focus and style of operation are destructive and alien to progressive educational thinking.

11. Managers surreptitiously enjoy the exercise of power, kick away much conventional morality and subjugate employees to the demands of the organization.

Therefore, heads should be regarded not as 'managers' but a professionally first among equals.

We believe that these arguments rest on false pre-

mises and on a lack of understanding of what well-managed commercial organizations are really like. Some postulate a classical model of an industrial organization which has long been superseded; some do not correspond with life in such organizations as we have experienced it - as managers and managed; and others cannot be reconciled with our understanding of and belief in Christianity (taking this as a touchstone of morality). The fact is that there is great diversity in industry and commerce, and within this are to be found exemplary organizations and departments with which managers most teachers would find some rapport. Only part of industry is concerned with the routine tasks of mass production: research, accounts and training departments resemble schools in being staffed mainly by skilled and articulate professionals, and are managed accordingly.

## CONCLUSION

Leaders can develop their leadership. Today's increasingly complex and changing environment, leaders must have a repertoire of styles to suit different organizations employees. Business environment especially in Education, it is possible to identify five approaches to leadership ranging from autocratic to democratic styles:

1. Using information to hand or easily available in the files, or by desk research or by spy of the organization.
2. He/She to discuss with the people involved, then make the decision on your own.
3. He/She should ask others what they would do in order to solve the problem, then make the decision on his/her own.

4. He/She should favour more team working and call the group together, including suggestions and listen to the discussion and then decide on his/her own. This is after as he/she explains that he/she are the decision maker, so each person will be presenting their own case department-wise or seniority-wise.

5. Leader should prefer a fully democratic style of leadership and call the group together as ever or before but this time he/she should explain that the outcome will be a group decision. This is participation at its best and agreement may well be mutually successful.

Some-one says that "It is quicker to be the autocrat and rule on what he/she thinks should be done rather than going through a participation discussion". If time is not problem for leaders to decide and implement they may try to be more democratic. The opportunity to participate and contribute to the decision making usually grooms subordinates to a good training to policy-making positions.

Leadership having any style, should remember always to present decisions in an optimistic giving the good news confidently. It may increase the chances of quick enthusiastic and confident action from staff. Leaders need at all stages in their life, both professional and personal, the qualities which translate into business success. Honesty and integrity always came up to the top and maturity also includes it.

Democratic leadership is generally more satisfying and effective than autocratic leadership. But there are exceptions. BASS (1960) in his summing up of more than thirty years research into leadership reminds us that: "The

real test of leadership lies not in the personality or behaviour of the leaders, but in the performance of the groups they lead". To be more efficient in leadership responsibilities in educational institutions would claim to be educational or professional and academic professional, as well. This dual role may increase to ambiguities as well as to opportunities. He/She may be called as the professional as-administrator or professional-cum-administrator. Some people say that administrative efficiency is supposed to increase with an increase in specialization but it is not meant that any increase in specialization will increase efficiency.

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