5.8 Strtegies for Controlling and Reducing Prejudice

Prejudiced behaviour and discriminatory practices create a wide variety of problems for the individuals and to the institutions which belong to them. For this reason alone it is important to reduce its occurrence.

Prejudice is a complex process stemming from many different sources. A number of strategies have been developed and tested by social psychologists. Among the most effective of these are

1. Constructive Intergroup contact: This technique can go a long way in controlling and preventing prejudiced behaviour. Sheriff's research has pointed out that enhancing intergroup cooperation can lead to decline in hostile reactions and negative feelings. Thus, research evidence in general points out to the fact that increased interaction between the members of different social groups will contribute to the reduction in prejudice between them (i.e. Stephan 1978).

Enhanced intergroup contact leads to decline in prejudiced behaviour due to following reasons :

- (a) As we become more familiar with the persons of other group we discover that their attitudes and beliefs are more similar than they at first assumed. This growing similarity may lead to increased attraction.
- (b) Repeated contact may lead to positive feelings and attitudes through mere, exposure effect."
- (c) Favourable contact may lead to disconfirmations (negation) of negative stereotypes.
- 2. Efforts to block the formation of prejudice during early socialization: Prejudiced behaviour is learned during the process of socialization. Parents, teacher and peer groups inlculcate in us certain beliefs and attitudes which form the basis of our prejudiced behaviour. We can control prejudiced behaviour by divising educational programmes in such a way that teachers do not encourage prejudiced feelings and behaviour towards any particular group. Parents should be educated through various forums and meetings so as to not to teach prejudiced attitude and value to their children.
- 3. Role of Mass Media: Films and press have a considerable influence on our behaviour. The various characters depicted in the films should be such that they give a secular image. Films or printed literature should not put a particular group in bad light or create a poor image of a particular community. Film censor boards can play an important role in checking prejudiced behaviour transmitted in subtle forms through films.
- 4. Model: Social learning has pointed out the role of models in influencing our behaviour. Parents and teachers are our models. Besides, political leaders, social reformers or religious leaders can be models. Such models should not be encouraged

to transmit prejudiced behaviour. Very often we learn prejudiced behaviour and discrimination by imitating or following what models say. Individuals should be made aware of blindly imitating such models. Government can also see to it that famous personalities do not pass on the message of prejudice and discrimination.

- 5. Legal Measures: Laws can be enacted to avoid discrimination, for e.g. today in India we have equality of sexes. We also have equality in other areas. Legal provisions make discrimination a penal offence. The untouchability Act of 1955 and the fundamental rights of equality guaranteed in our constitution have played an important role in controlling prejudice and discrimination. Some other techniques of reducing prejudiced behaviour are as follows:
- (i) Recategorization can go a long way in reducing prejudice. It is a technique through which shifts in the boundary between an individual's ingroup (us) and some outgroup (them) is achieved/induced. As a result of such recategorization persons formerly viewed as outgroup members may now be viewed as belonging to the ingroup and this leads to reduction in prejudice. This is confirmed through the results of resarch studies carried out by Gaertner, Mann, Murrell and Dovidio (1989). They found that subjects who were induced to view themselves as members of a single group (one-group condition) or as separate individuals not belonging to specific groups (separate individuals condition) showed less intergroup bias than individuals who viewed themselves as members of two distinct groups. These findings suggest that recategorization (or decategorization) is a useful procedure for lessening intergroup prejudice.
- (ii) Cognitive Interventions: Countering the effects or stereotype: It is a well known fact that tendency to form impressions of others on the basis of their membership in various groups or categories (category driven processing) appears to be a key factor in the occurrence and persistence of several forms of prejudice (Fiske, 1989). If so, interventions designed to reduce the impact of stereotypes to induce individuals to pay careful attention to others and to understand them in terms of their unique attrributes rather than the groups to which they belong might prove highly effective in lessening the various forms of prejudice.

Precisely this approach has been taken by Fiske and her colleagues in a continuing series of related studies (e.g., Erber & Fiske 1984; Neuberg, 1989). The results of these studies indicate that when individuals are motivated to pay close attention to others, they tend to perceive them in terms of their personal attributes rather than their race, ethnic background, or gender. How can individuals be motivated to engage in such attribute-driven processing of social information? Recent findings suggest that such procedures as making their fates dependent on a stranger's performance or merely telling them that it is very important to be accurate in forming an impression that this person can do the trick. Presumably, these conditions enhance

subjects motivation to be accurate, and this in turn reduces their tendency to rely on stereotypes (i.e., category driven forms of processing). Another way of looking at these findings is as follows; when individuals form impressions of a stranger, they can engage in a wide variety of strategies, ranging from total dependence on stereotypes (the least effortful route) to total dependence on the unique characteristics of the target person (the most effortful route; Fiske & Neuberg, (1990). Conditions that tip the balance in favour of attribute based strategies tend to reduce reliance on stereotypes, and in this respect can be an important means of reducing several forms of prejudice.

In short, prejudice is caused by multiple factors and hence its control is to be conceived from multiple angles. The Government and N. G. Os. have to come forward in providing a correct picture of individuals and groups.

5.9 Summary

Prejudice refers to prejudgement, a feeling or response to persons or things which is prior to, and, therefore, not based upon, actual experience. It may be positive or negative, direct or indirect. The outstanding feature of prejudice is that it is inter-group phenomenon with negative orientation. It is a speical kind of attitude.

- 2. Prejudice has its own nature—
- (a) it is based upon ignorance
- (b) it can be both in favour or against
- (c) attitudes and emotions are attached to it
- (d) legends and stories are conjoined to it
- (e) it is motivated
- (f) wrong beliefs are included in it,
- (g) it is hasty, prejudged and irrational decision.
- 3. Prejudice and attitudes are closely related because—
- (a) Prejudice is a type of attitude,
- (b) Prejudice is categorised by hostility but attitude is not,
- (c) Prejudice is by and large negative in character but attitude is not,
- (d) Prejudice cannot be rooted out fully,
- (e) Prejudice has far more implication in our behaviour as compared to attitude.
- 4. There is a close relationship between prejudice and stereotype. Both are acquired. Moreover they differ in the following ways—
 - (a) Prejudice is the consequence while stereotype iş antecedent,

subjectslineotivation denders a subjects of the same o stereotypes (i.e., category driggrafs singnonness stereotypes (i.e., category driggrafs) singnonness stereotypes (i.e., category driggrafs) singnonness stereotypes (i.e., category driggrafs) singnonness (i.e., cat findings is as follows: when individuals form impressions of a stranger, they can engage individuals form impressions of a stranger spouler (b) in a wide variety of strategies, ranging from total dependence on stereotypes (the least

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(d) legends and stories are conjoined to it

5.10 Key words used in the Lesson

(e) it is motivated

(f) wrong beliefs are included in it, Stereotype, prejudice, orientation, ethnic, linguism, implications, innate, ethnocentrism, ego, ethnic, emanating, whip, annal, bonafide, taboos. 3. Prejudice and attitudes are closely related because

5.11 Questions for Exercise

(a) Prejudice is a type of attitude.

(b) Prejudice is categorised by hostility but attitude is not some short and some short (a)

(c) Prejudice is by and large negative in character but attitude is not, 1. What do you mean by prejudice? Explain by giving suitable definition.

And Confid 8.5.0 (b)

Ans. — See 5.1 & 5.2

- (e) Prejudice has far more implication in our behaviour as compared to attitude.

 2. Discuss of a strain our behaviour as compared to attitude.
- 4. There is a close relationship between prejudice and stegeogype. Bath are
 - acquired. Moreover they differ in the following ways—sequired. Compare and contrast prejudice and attitude. (a) Prejudice is the consequence while stereotype is antecedenes - .anA

4. Compare and contrast prejudice and stereotype.

Ans. — See 5.5

∂ T(b) Long Answer Questions

1. What do you mean by Prefluce Discuss its nature.

Ans. — See 5.1, 5.2, 5.3

2. Discuss different viewpoints required the origin of prejudice.

6.0 Objective

3. What are the factors producing prejudice?
6.1 Meaning and Definition of Group

Ans. — See 5.7

4. What are the agencies for controlling and reducing prejudice.

See 5.8 Ans.

6,3 Formation of Group

5.12 Suggested Readings

6.4 Structure of Group

6.5 Functions of Group

1. Kretch, Crutchfield &

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6.6.1 Primary group

2. Young, Kimbal

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6. Singh , A. K.

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6.6.7 Ingroups and outgroups

6.7 Summary

6.8 Key words used in the Lesson

6.9 Questions for Exercise

(a) Short Answer Oskstions

(b) Long Answer Questions

6.10 Suggested Readings

6.0 Objective

The first main objective here is to give the learners a declaration of the prosper Another objective of the lesson is to throw again on characteristics of group formation or group structure and functions of group, it also gives a clear clausification or type: of group.

Groups

Lesson Structure

- 6.0 Objective
- 6.1 Meaning and Definition of Group
- 6.2 Characteristics of Group
- 6.3 Formation of Group
- 6.4 Structure of Group
- 6.5 Functions of Group
- 6.6 Kinds of Group
 - 6.6.1 Primary group
 - 6.6.2 Secondary group
 - 6.6.3 Difference between Primary and Secondary group
 - 6.6.4 Reference group or Membership group
 - 6.6.5 Formal and Informal group
 - 6.6.6 Exclusive and Inclusive group
 - 6.6.7 Ingroups and outgroups
- 6.7 Summary
- 6.8 Key words used in the Lesson
- 6.9 Questions for Exercise
 - (a) Short Answer Qeustions
 - (b) Long Answer Questions
- 6.10 Suggested Readings

6.0 Objective

The first main objective here is to give the learners a clear definition of group. Another objective of the lesson is to throw light on characteristics of group formation or group structure and functions of group. It also gives a clear classification or types of group.

Primary group, secondary group and reference group have been discussed in detail. Other types like formal and informal, exclusive and inclusive, ingroups and outgroups have also been discussed. In the end, a summary of the lesson has been provided and key words, Questions for exercise and suggested readings have also been given.

The entire lesson will deal with various aspects of group. When two or more individuals interact with one another in order to fulfil certain goals, they constitute a group. Besides sociology, Social Psychology is also to a great extent, concerned with group because it studies human interaction and interpersonal bahaviour of wide variety.

6.1 Meaning and Definition of Group

Caltell, R. B. has defined the group as "Group is an aggregate of organism in which the existence of all is utilised for the satisfaction of some needs of each."

Kretch, Crutchfield and Ballachey state—"A psychological group may be defined as two or more persons who meet the following conditions:

- (i) The relations among the members are interdependent—each member's behaviour influences the behaviour of others.
- (ii) The members share an ideology—a set of values, beliefs and norms which regulates their mutual conduct."

Bogardus, E. S.: "A social group may be thought of as a number of persons, two or more, who have some common objects of attention, who are stimulating to each other, who have a common loyalty and participate in similar activities."

Most of the above-mentioned definitions have emphasised one or the other trait of group life. A workable definition can be adopted by saying that social group is that aggregate of persons which is like a unit and whose members have some common aims, interests, stimulations and emotions together with mutual social relations and social interactions.

Finally, we can conclude that the term functional group refers to two or more organisms interacting in the pursuit of a common goal in such a way that the existence of many is utilised for the satisfaction of some needs of each.

According to most social psychologists, groups consist of two or more interacting persons who share common goals, have a stable relationship, are somehow interdependent and perceive that they are in fact part of a group (Paulus 1989). In other words, the term group does not apply to mere collections of individuals who happen to be in the same place at the same time but have no lasting relationship to one another. Rather, this term is restricted to those collections of persons which meet certain criteria.

- 1. First, such persons must interact with each other, either directly or indirectly. It is bessured in the end of the configuration of the end of the end
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Structure of group consists of the number of members in the group, their personal effectiveness, the type of relationship existing between them and how the members communicate with one another. The structure of the group determines the furtification of the group. For example, if the structure becomes complex functioning of the group also gets complex. Again, if the structure of the group changes then its functioning will also change. Some of the important factors in structure of group are being mentioned here.

estil. Size of the group. The size of the group depends upon the number of members in the group. If there is less member then it is called small group and if there is less member then it is called small group and if there is less member then it is called small group and if there are smore members and there is less that in which direct interaction among the members are possible. The chembers and talk and know one another and they develop levalty towards the group. Examples of small group are single family, joint family, friend single, etc. The large groups are those in which direct interaction among members is not possible because the unwhere is year are large. They cannot talk directly and know one another. For example, work group explitical un group, religious group etc.

2. Member Composition—It consists of the types of members within the group be a signed work according to their personality structure and traits, hence their work differs from each other. The effectiveness of group depends upon the effectiveness of its members. The educated and high status members make the group more effective and less educated members will make the group less effective. Thus structure of a group depends upon the defective list and less educated members will make the group less effective. Thus structure of a group depends upon the composition of members.

- 3. Individual's role within the group or status hierarchy—The role of each member in the group is determined either verbally or by written regulations which he has to follow in all circumstances. Example, in a formal group there is hierarchical role assigned to each other. But in the informal group the role of members depends upon their characteristics. They are not assigned any definite role hence their status hierarchy is not definite. For example, family, play group, firend group etc. In such groups personality traits play an important role.
- 4. Communication network or group relations—Information in the group are received and sent through communication network. These communications may be horizontal, vertical, verbal, written etc. In a small group communication network is simple because here direct communication is possible but in larger groups it is complex as indirect communication is only possible in such groups.
- 5. Relationship among social organizations or External social context—As the group has different sub-groups and each one is related with others, in the same way the groups have external relations as well since they have wide relations while others have limited external relations. The structure of group depends upon the type of external relations it has with other outer groups. Thus points like fundamental requirements and structure of group are taken into consideration in order to understand the formation of a group.

6.5 Functions of Group

The main function of a group is to satisfy the needs of its members and maintain its existence. Besides the main functions of the group there are other functions which will be discussed here.

Groups help us satisfy important psychological or social needs, such as those for belonging or for receiving attention or affection (Robbins, 1989).

Groups help us to achieve various goals that we could not attain as individuals. Belonging to various groups helps us perform tasks we could not perform alone.

In addition, group membership often provides us with knowledge and information that would not otherwise be available to us. For example, individuals are often denied access to sensitive or restricted information held by a group until they are admitted to full membership. Only then are they permitted to share such knowlege.

Group membership also contributes to the establishment of a positive social identity—it becomes part of the self-concept. Simply put, the more prestigious, restrictive groups to which an individual is admitted, the more her or his self-concept is bolstered. There are many important reasons for joining groups, and so it is not at all surprising that most persons seek entry to many groups over the course of their lives.

- 1. Differential satisfaction of wants—This means that a group satisfies the wants of its members not equally lent in a differential manner. For example, there are dominant and active members and non-dominant and rank and file members. The latter helps the dominant members in carrying out their functioning. In short, a group helps in the satisfaction of dominant need of important members and the necessary needs of rank and file members.
- 2. Satisfaction of the need for dominance and belongingness—The group serves to satisfy the dominance need of some members and belonging needs of most of the members. For example, the leader makes plan and passes orders. The followers in turn satisfy its needs for dominance by obeying his orders. Sometimes the group motivates others to act in a dominant manner by satisfying the need of dominance. Some members satisfy their need of belongings by obeying the leaders and by developing the feeling in themselves. This feeling widens the function of group and members develop a feeling of prestige.
- 3. Satisfaction of unique and accessory needs—The accessory needs like those of prestige, dignity, name and fame are satisfied by becoming members of a group. The position of the members is elevated and rights are protected in the group. Thus, together with the satisfaction of needs of dominant members it also satisfies the unique and accessory needs of other members.
- 4. Creation of new needs—The group not only provides the function of satisfaction of needs but it also creates new needs in the group members. The society always undergoes changes and so individual's needs also change. In order to satisfy these needs a person functions actively in the group. If needs are not created then after satisfaction of the existing needs members will withdraw membership from the group and thus the group will lose its existence. So for its existence and maintenance the group always tries to create new needs in its members so that members may continue their membership for a long time.
- 5. Achievement of group goals—To achieve the group goal is also an important function of group. In spite of the difference in their wants every member makes effort to reach the group goal. There is a close relationship between individual's wants and group goals. So the changes in individual wants will bring changes in group goal as well, otherwise the existence of group will suffer.
- 6. Maintenance of group ideology—Group ideologies consist of norms, values, beliefs and folkways of that particular group which equally influences the behaviour of members. It is due to this reason that persons belonging to one group hold more or less similar type of opinion, attitude and behaviour. It is the function of the group to maintain this ideology and that is why central character of the group is maintained.

- 7. Multiple group membership—The group indirectly motivates its members to become members of more than one group because one group cannot satisfy all the needs of a member. When the work field of a group gets specialized, when the needs go on increasing it is not possible for the group to satisfy each and every need. Together the group cannot bring changes in itself according to the changes in needs of its individual members. The group motivates them to become members of other groups and get other needs satisfied. This function is much more useful for the rank and file of members than the dominators.
- **8. Agency of Socialization**—The group plays an important role in the form of an agent in socialization process. The primary group plays a much more important role because a child learns first from the family group. The secondary groups like religious organization, political parties etc. also help in the process of socialization.
- 9. To maintain cultural continuity—The ideology of the group reflects its culture and the longer the group maintains its values, folkways etc. the more cultural continuity is maintained. So to maintain cultural continuity is also an important function of a group.

6.6 Kinds of group

The groups have been classified from different angles a description of which is as follows:

6.6.1 Primary group

Cooley in the year 1909 classified group as primary and secondary on the basis of personal involvement in the group.

Some of the definitions of primary group are as follows:

According to Cooley—"Primary groups are characterized by intimate face to face association and co-operation. They are primary in several senses but chiefly in that they are fundamental in forming the social nature and ideals of the individual."

According to Lindgren—"Primary groups are those in which interpersonal relationship takes place on a face to face basis and with great frequency."

- (a) External Characteristics—It consists of those behavioural characteristics which can be seen in the interactional process. The examples are as follows:
 - 1. It consists of a small number of members. For example, it may have two members (husband and wife) or 40 to 50 members (joint family members).
 - 2. They have face to face relation so they know each other.
 - 3. There is intimate relationship among the members.
 - 4. Primary group lacks specific relationship as all have common purpose or goal

- so everyone meets others to achieve that goal and no one is interested in establishing some specific relationship in order to satisfy his own selfish end.
- 5. The primary groups are more stable because the members are related with each other in a face-to-face manner. This is the reason why such groups generally do not dissolve during the period of crisis.
- 6. The members have common cultural background because all are reared up by same social and cultural norms and standards.
- 7. As they have common goal their interest is limited and they are more interested in the welfare of each other.
- (b) Internal characteristics—It consists of those characteristics which are not seen in an outer manner and which are psychological in nature. Still these characteristics tie the members together. Some of the these characteristics are as follows:
 - 1. They have intimate relationship with one another because they have common wishes and interests.
 - 2. There is spontaneity in relationship as this is established without any pressure or terms and conditions.
 - 3. The relationship among the members is of personal type because there is feeling of 'we' in them. They have direct relationship with one another.
 - 4. As they have personal and intimate relationship they have strong feeling of co-operation.
 - 5. They have the feeling of solidarity and security because they live unitedly.
 - 6. The members feel that they have control over each other and so they develop a belief that all will obey one another.
 - 7. The relationship among the members is of such type that it is an end in itself because this is not established for the attainment of some selfish end.
- (c) Importance of primary group—The primary group consists of groups like family, neighbour, play group of children etc. These play an impertant role in the social development of an individual. Some of the importance can be mentioned as below:
- 1. Development of personality: Freud, Adler and other psychologists have maintained that the personality of a child is dever ped in a family and playmates group and it does not change appreciably afterwards, it only develops. Thus the development of personlaity depends, in most cases, upon the primary group.

- 2. Increase in efficiency: With the development of personality, the efficiency of primary group is also incresed. Persons of a group get help, inspiration and cooperation from others. In a family, a person works so efficiently for his children that he can never work with such an efficiency for himself.
- 3. Satisfaction of psychological needs: Primary groups satisfy many psychological needs of the individuals. They provide a sense of contentment and security to the person and satisfy their desires of loving and to be loved. By virtue of primary group, a person gets the benefits of companionship, sympathy, exchange of thoughts and satisfies most of the psychological needs.

Primary groups are equally important from the point of view of the society. They realise socialization of the individuals. They maintain the control of society over the persons. Social structure is consolidated by them and the working of the society remains smooth. They teach the persons to work in the society according to their roles. The whole society is dissolved by their dissolution. The primary groups are the foundation of whole society. It is from them that the individual acquires basic attitudes towards people, social institutions and the world around him. The attitude towards kindnes, tolerance, love and generosity are derived from primary groups through imitation and absorption of group attitude.

- **4. Control over behaviour :** As the members are very closely related they can very easily exercise control over the behaviour of others.
- **5. To provide necessary social motives :** Together with the development of social traits it provides social motive to work in a co-operative manner in order to get social approval.
- **6. Gain of satisfaction :** The members are tied together with care, affection and love which develop in them a sense of satisfaction.
- **7. To provide appropriate social norms:** It works as a model for the children because the child first learns the social norms in his family.
- **8. To maintain cultural continuity :** The primary group transfers cultural norms from one generation to another.

6.6.2 Secondary group : Meaning & Definition

The secondary groups are different in many respects from the primary groups. The members have no face-to-face relation and there is no personal involvement in their relationship. Hence they don't develop intimate relationship nor do they have any dominant common goal.

According to Hollander: "Secondary groups are impersonal and are characterized by contractual relations among their members. Being identified with such groups is not an end in itself, it is rather a means by which other ends may be achieved."

According to Sindgren: "Secondary groups are likely to be more impersonal and are characterized by formalized or contractual relationship among members."

On the basis of these definitions we can draw the following characteristics of secondary group.

(a) Characteristics of Secondary Group

- **1. Larger size:** The size of secondary group is big because it consists of large number of members and can include any number of members according to its necessity.
- 2. Formal relationship: The relationship among the members is formal because they interact among themselves on the basis of rules and regulations.
- **3. Indirect contact**: They have no face-to-face contact, rather they have indirect relationship based on different indirect means like television, newspaper, magzines etc. Sometimes they may have face to face contact that is of very short duration which does not develop any direct relation (for example, during public speeches, rallies etc)
- **4. Contractual relationship:** It is that type of impersonal relationship in which the members do not have detailed knowledge about the other members. They only know them as members and nothing else.
- 5. Specific purpose: These groups are formed with some specific purpose and not with common purpose goal. That is why Kimball Young calls it as special interest group and when this interest is achieved then the group is dissolved. So it lasts for a short period as compared to that of primary group.
- **6. Lack of intimacy and ego-involvement :** There are too many members so they do not develop intimate relationship. The other cause for the lack of intimacy is that it is spread over a wider area so the members cannot have face to face meeting. Due to lack of intimacy they have less ego involvement and they have morally surface functional relationship.
- 7. Limited responsibility: As the role of each member is defined and predetermined so the relationship becomes very formal. His responsibility is limited to his position.

(b) Importance of Secondary Group

As the primary group plays important role in social development of a child, the secondary groups are equally responsible for social and personal development of an individual. Some of its importance may be discussed as follows:

1. Specification of personality: These groups have specific purpose and in order to achieve that the members are to get specialized in their own field. This helps in the development of group and society, for example, the role of engineers and doctors etc.

- 2. Means of social change and civilization: It brings social change and helps in the development of civilization.
- 3. Control over behaviour: It emphasizes indirect control over the behaviour of individual.
- **4. Wider scope**: There is wider scope of social exchange in such groups because there are doctors, engineers, advocates, professors etc. who give varied opinion on any social problem. This helps in the solution of major problems, gives satisfaction to the members and develop their personality.

6.6.3 Difference between Primary and Secondary Groups

The above-mentioned discussion of primary and secondary group makes it clear that they differ in respect of certain characteristics. The distinguishing features of these two groups are as follows:

- 1. Primary groups are based on intimate relationship whereas in secondary group no such intimate relationship exists.
- 2. Primary groups are small in which membership ranges from two to maximum of 50 or 60 whereas secondary groups have no limit of membership. So these are very large groups.
- 3. The area of primary group is small and it is national and spontaneous. The area of secondary group is quite large and it is formed on the basis of more than one common interest.
- 4. Primary groups are formed as a result of some common interest. Therefore, the relationship is of permanent nature. Secondary groups are formed by some specific interest; therefore, the relationship is of temporary nature.
- 5. The relationship in primary group is not formal whereas in secondary group this is formal.
- 6. Primary groups are complete in nature whereas secondary groups are partial. That is why good deal of co-operation exists amongst its members and decisions can be taken easily in primary groups. But in the secondary groups there is dearth of close social relationship.
- 7. Primary groups are nursery of socialization. They are based on culture of blood, but the seconary groups are formed after socialization and they do not have any common bond of culture or blood.
- 8. In a primary group there is fusion of personality and the liabilities are unlimited. But in secondary group there is limited responsibility as there is no fusion of personality.

- 9. The number of primary groups is limited. Cooley has given three types of primary group—(a) family (b) playground of children (c) neighbourhood. But the number of secondary group is unlimited.
- 10. In primary group there is no secondary group but in secondary group there may be more than one primary group.
- 11. Primary groups are universal as they are found in all parts of the world with same structure, whereas the structure and formation of secondary group changes from place to place.
- 12. In a primary group the status of a member is determined by his importance in the group whereas in secondary group the status is determined by the functions which he discharges.
- 13. Membership of Primary group tends to be involuntary or obligatory whereas in secondary group membership is optional and voluntary.
- 14. In primary group, individual depends on group for his personal emotional needs; in secondary group individual cannot expect any satisfaction of his personal needs.
- 15. Primary group exercises direct control over individual behaviour whereas direct control is not possible in secondary group.
- 16. Primary group relations tend to be an end in themselves while secondary group relations are means to an end.
- 17. Primary group has greater concern for individual while in secondary group individuals become non-entity.
- 18. In Primary group contacts are face to face, intimate and total while in secondary group contacts are regimental and utilitarian.
- 19. Primary group provides for the basic needs like food, clothing, shelter etc. whereas secondary group provides specific needs.
- 20. Primary groups are relationship oriented while secondary groups are goal oriented.

Besides primary and secondary group then are other types of groups which are as follows:

6.6.4 Reference group or Membership group: Meaning and Definition

It is that type of group in which the members are well accepted. This classification has been given by the sociologists on the basis of membership. First of all Hyman used this term in 1942. He said that individual compares his social status with such a social framework which he likes very much. Newcomb said that reference group has a strong influence on attitude change of college students. Hyman and Singer foud that this term is widely used in the study of problems like political behaviour, mental disorder, formal organization, delinquency, formation of public opinion etc.

Reference group is said to be that type of group of which the individual is not member but internally he has a strong urge to become its member so he tries to imitate the norms of that group. Such group influences the behaviour of a member even if he is or is not the member of that group.

Some of the definitions of reference group can be given as follows:

Chaplin—"Reference group is any group which an individual identifies (with or without being a member) and which he uses as a guide for proper conduct or for developing goals."

According to Lindgren, "Any group that has a normative effect on our behaviour is a reference group because we refer our behaviour to its standards."

Fisher says that "Reference groups are those which we may use, whether we are member or not, as a source of information and a standard or comparison for our attitude and behaviour."

(a) Functions of a reference group:

This group peforms two types of functions-

- 1. It provides standard of belief and conduct. The function is called normative when the reference group becomes a source of formation of norms, attitude, values of individual.
- 2. When the individual compares his work with others and arrives at a definite conclusion. This type of function is called comparison function. Thus reference group functions as a standard for comparison.

The reference group may be either positive or negative. When it is positive the individual wants to get the approval and acceptance from it. When we are influenced by the norms of the group and want to accept it or follow it then it is an example of positive reference group. Mostly the reference groups are used in this sense.

But sometimes the individual's behaviour is also influenced by those groups which he dislikes. These are known as negative reference groups. For example, if a member of some party opposes the norms of another party then he will want to work in opposition to it. Sometimes due to this negative feeling he may even try to resign from that particular group.

6.6.5 Formal and Informal Groups

In a formal group the goals and the functions of each member are well-defined while it is not so in the case of informal groups. Most primary groups are informal groups, while most secondary groups are formal groups. Formal groups are well-structured and the relationship among the members is well defined by rules and regulations.

6.6.6 Exclusive and Inclusive groups

Exclusive groups are those that limit the membership to certain classes of individuals. For example, associations of various professionals like engineers, professors, scientists etc. are exclusive groups because in order to be a member, certain qualifications or conditions are necessary. Neighbourhood groups and religious groups also are exclusive groups. The exclusive groups are more concerned with some definite goals, e.g. an association of psychologists will be basically concerned with such problems as psychological research etc. Inclusive groups are those that are not very keen about admitting only certain people with definite qualifications but they are open for almost any person. For example, political parties, hobby clubs and civic reforms groups are all inclusive groups. These groups do not set any qualifications for membership except sharing of interest with other members.

6.6.7 In-groups and Out-groups

In-groups are also called "we groups" and out-groups are also known as "they groups". In-groups are characterized by a strong sense of mutual identification to the point where members feel isolated and out of place when they are out of the context of the group. The membership and participation in such groups are likely to evoke strong feelings of loyalty, sympathy, and devotion. Citizens of countries in which there is a strong sense of nationality are likely to think of relationship between themselves and people in other countries as "we" and "they". Castes and religious groups, linguistic groups may also be called in-groups. In-groups may be hostile to out-groups. "Ingropus" and "out-groups" are rather relative terms. Within an in-group there is greater group morale, unity and cohesiveness and co-operation, it is more likely to compete with out-group rather than compete with it.

6.7 Summary

- 1. When two or more individuals interact with each other in order to achieve a certain goal, they constitute a group. By analysing the definition of group it is gathered that (a) a group is a social unit (b) it consists of individuals, (c) a functional relationship exists between the members of the group, (d) the members of the group have definite role and status, (e) the group has its own value and norm, (f) group has a certain goal for the satisfaction of which group members work.
- 2. For the formation of groups there are some fundamental requirements. They are collection of individuals, interactional relationship, permanent relationship and norms.

- Structure of group consists of size of the group, member composition, individuals, role within the group or status hierarchy, communication network or group relations, relationship among social organizations or external social context.
- 4. There are several functions of group which include satisfaction of wants of group members, satisfaction of the need for dominance and belongingness, satisfaction of unique and accessory needs, creation of needs, achievement of group goals, maintenance of group ideology and maintenance of cultural continuity.
- 5. Primary groups are those in which inter personal relationship take place in a face to face situation with greater frequency. Primary group has certain external characteristics such as small number of members, face to face intimate relation having common goal and cultural background. Such groups are more stable. Primary groups have certain internal characteristics like intimate spontaneous personal relationship possessing the feeling of solidarity and control.
 - Primary groups are very much important for development of personality, increase in efficiency and satisfaction of psychological needs.
- 6. The secondary groups are the opposite of primary groups in which the members have no face to face relation and they have no personal involvement in their relationship. The secondary group has the characteristics of larger size, formal relationship, indirect contact, contractual relationship, specific purpose, limited responsibility, lack of intimacy and ego involvement.
 - The secondary group is important in respect of specification of personality. It has a wider scope.
- 7. Primary group differs from secondary one in respect of the size of group, relationship, nature, scope, traits, structure, formation, control, concern, needs etc.
- 8. Reference group is a type of group in which individual is not a member of the group directly but he / she has strong internal urge to become its member so he tries to intimate the norms of the group. It performs two types of functions—It provides (a) standard of belief and conduct. (b) comparison function.
- 9. In a formal group goals and functions are well-defined while it is not so in the case of an informal group. Most primary groups are informal and secondary groups are formal. Formal groups are well-structured.

- 10. Exclusive groups are those that limit membership to certain classes of individuals while inclusive groups are those that are not very keen about admitting only certain people with definite qualifications but are open to almost any person.
- 11. In-groups are 'we groups' characterised by strong sense of mutual identification to the point where members feel isolated and out of place when they are out of the context of the group. In-groups and out-groups are comparable. In in-group there is greater group morale, unity, cohesiveness and co-operation. It is more likely to compete with out-group rather than co-operation with it.

6.8 Key words used in the Lesson

Stimulation, criteria, hierarchy, norms, absorption, obligatory, regimental, utilisation, normative.

6.9 Questions for Exercise

(a) Short Answer Questions

1. Define group and discuss its meaning.

Ans. -- See 6.1

2. What are the characteristics of groups ?

Ans. — See 6.2

3. Discuss characteristics of Primary group.

Ans. — See 6.6.1 (a) and (b).

4. Discuss the characteristics of secondary group.

Ans. — See 6.6.2 (a)

5. What is the importance of Primary group?

Ans. — See 6.6.1 (c)

6. What is the importance of Secondary group?

Ans. — See 6.6.2 (b)

7. Give the definition and function of reference group.

Ans. — See 6.7.4

8. Distinguish between formal and informal group.

Ans. — See 6.6.5

1.5

9. Distinguish between exclusive and inclusive group.

Ans. — See 6.6.6

10. Distinguish between in-groups and out-groups.

Ans. — See 6.6.7

(b) Long Answer Questions

1. What do you mean by group ? Discuss its formation.

Ans. — See 6.1, 6.2, 6.3

2. Discuss the structure and functions of group.

Ans. — See 6.4, 6.5

3. Distinguish between primary and secondary group.

Ans. — See 6.6.3

4. What are the types of group? Discuss the important types of group.

Ans. — See 6.6.1, 6.6.2, & 6.6.4.

6.10 Suggested Readings

1. Kretch, Crutchfield, & : Individual in Society

Ballachy

2. Kuppuswami : Social Psychology

3. Katz & Kohn : The Social Psychology

4. Mc Dougall : An Introduction to Social Psychology

5. Md. Sulaiman : Adhunik Samaj Manovigyan

6. Mac Iver & Page : Society

7. Cooley, C. H. : Social Organization

Leadership

Lesson Structure

- 7.0 Objective
- 7.1 Meaning and Definition of Leadership
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- 7.3 Nature of Leadership
- 7.4 Emergence of Leadership
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 - 7.5.1 Importance of Leadership training
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7.0 Objective

In this Lesson meaning, nature, importance, emergence, types and functions of leadership will be discussed. Here description of the techniques and importance of leadership training will be given .

7.1 Meaning and Definition of Leadership

Leadership is a topic of interest to social psychologists because leders not only influence the members of a group but also bring about many changes in our socio-cultural environment.

Marvin E. Shaw (1971) defines Leadership as follows: "A leader is a group member who exerts more positive influence over others than they exert over him." The term 'positive' in this context indicates that the direction of the influence is that chosen by the leader.

Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kann (1966) maintain that the term 'leadership', as it is used in social science literature, has three major meanings:

- (i) as an attribute of a position,
- (ii) as a characteristic of a person, and
- (iii) as a category of behaviour.

In most of the discussion on leadership these three meanings are employed simultaenously, i.e., they are used to refer to a person who posesses certain qualities, who occupies a certain position and who behaves in certain ways. The three meanings are in no sense mutually exclusive, they are ways of recognising that the influential potential of leaders may be related to different qualities or characteristics.

7.2 Importance of Leadership

Whenever two or more persons come together we will find a leader. With the formation of group some members are almost certain to take more active part than others, to be more reserved and more respected, to be more dominant over others. Here we have a beginning of the differentiation of the group into leaders and followers. As the group becomes established and definite, the leader/follower hierarchy takes place. Gradually the role of leader becomes more and more crucial for the functioning of the group. When an individual is in a group, he works under the influence of various forms of leaders such as supervisor, head, chairman, president, manager, director and so on. The nature and function of a leader determines the behaviour of an individual to some extent. Therefore, social psychologist must consider seriously the nature and functions of leadership.

A leader in the group can be identified by asking the members of a group as to who they regard as most influential in direting them; i.e. by self-report method. Secondly, by observation method we try to find out the influential member of the group. Leader, therefore, is a member of a group or organization who outstandingly influences the activities of the members and who plays a central role in defining the group goals and in determining the ideology of the group.

7.3 Nature of Leadership

The nature of leadership is expressed and clarified by various definitions. An investigation into the status and functions of the leader within the group will be conducive to a better understanding of the nature of leadership. In this connection, it

would be in keeping with the context of study to differentiate between a leader and an officiating individual or between a leader and the senior official. Following points are important under this heading:

- 1. Leader is the ideal of the followers: A person assumes the status of a leader in any group when he is the ideal of other constituents and retains his leadership only as long as the people continue to look upon him as the ideal.
- 2. Leader is a respected and revered person: In order that he may be the ideal for the people of the group, it is essential that the leader be a person who commands respect and reverence. Generally, the leader is as respected and revered as he is great.
- 3. Respect and regard for the leader: In the mutual behaviour and interaction between the leader and the followers, the latter manifest much regard for him and are even prepared to lay down their lives in preventing the leader from suffering any injury. He does not have to coax or persuade the followers to act on his decisions. His word is law to them. This show of regard also has the effect of encouraging the leader and is constant reminder to him of his duty towards those who have placed so much trust in him.
- **4. The leader's order is a command :** Just as the child cannot disregard the order of the parent, the followers in a group cannot disregard the orders of the leader.
- 5. Leader and the followers influence each other: In studying the mutual behaviour between the leader and his followers it must be kept in mind that the influence is not entirely one sided, rather both mutually influence each other, though of course in this mutual effect, the influence exerted by the leader is by far the greater. From this another fact that emerges is that a successful leader should make a constant note of the psychology of his followers. He should respect them and do nothing that can injure their feelings. It should be his constant endeavour to win their hearts rather than trying to display his power and influence. Only then can he hope to be their beloved leader.
- 6. Leader determines the group's conduct: All the members of the group obey and carry out the orders of the leader. In this way, the position of the leader in the group is central and the most superior. His followers are always turning to him and constantly attending to him. Whenever any difficulty is posed they turn to him expectantly for the solution and do whatever he sees fit. It is in elucidating this very point that Seeman and Morris write, "One tentatively adoptable definition of leadership emphasizes its influence aspect, leadership acts are acts by persons which influence other persons in shared direction."

7. Leader controls the other members of the group: Every group is composed of many members. The process of leadership is determined by their specific kind of relationship. In the words of Pigors, "Leaderhip is a concept applied to the personality environment relation to describe the situation when a personality is so placed in the environment that his will, feeling and insight direct and control others in pursuit of a common cause."

7.4 Emergence of Leadership

Emergence of leadership and its function in a group are determined by the structure, situation and nature of the tasks of the group. Leaders have a central position in a group and they play important roles in shaping the group goals, ideology, structure, and common activities of the group members. Leadership emerges in various conditions. Some of the conditions in which leadership emerges are the following:

- (i) Complexity of groups: As group becomes larger, and as its function and goals increase, a hierarchy of leaders develops. At the top, there are primary leaders and then, successive layers of leaders of second order, third order etc. appear. At the bottom are the followers. Large and complex groups and organizations require many leaders and provide conditions for emergency.
- (ii) Crisis: When the progress of the group goal is blocked or when the group is threatened by external sources, the members of the group do not understand what to do to achieve their goals and come out of the danger. Some members may be considered by others to be fit for achieving goals or for saving the group from danger. Such a person may have traits like bravery, skill, knowlege and self-confidence etc. He is likely to become the leader of the group. The nature of the danger may determine the number of leaders to come up. Analysis shows that the emergence of dictators in history was mainly due to political crisis when sudden change in government was necessary. If the group is facing very difficult problems, the leadership functions become distributed among many members.
- (iii) Instability of the group: Internal or external threat offers good opportunities for the emergence of leadership. Conflicting forces among sub-groups may be brought into equilibrium by a powerful leader who achieves the status of "balance of power." By unification of the group the sub-group leaders are thrown away by the new overall leaders.
- (iv) Failures of leaders: New leaders are likely to emerge when the official head of the group does not adequately perform the functions of leadership such as policy making expert guidance etc. The original leaders are found to be inefficient in carrying

out their functions, or may become unpopular in the group for various reasons and therefore, cannot control the group. At this time some other member who is more efficient and popular takes over the role of leadership. It is natural that the new leader will not get all the powers easily or at once.

(v) Wants: Like other members a potential leader seeks achievement of group goals and satisfies the wants of the members; but he may not become leader because he is not so powerful and popular. He should himself have some wants such as power, prestige, acquisition etc. Such a member will become a leader of the group. Generally there are very few members having these motives; and if there is no one there cannot be a leader. This indicates that for emergence of a leader not only external and situational factors are essential but also there must be persons having certain qualities that are essential for performing a leadership role. We cannot have leaders without followers, but we also cannot have leaders unless there are potential leaders.

7.4.1 Theories Regarding the emergence of leadership

Here a description will be given of the question of circumstances under which there is every probability of emergence of one person as leader. Are the traits of that person solely responsible for such emergence of leaders or some particular situation is responsible for his emergence as a leader? It may also be true that both these factors are equally responsible. In answer to all these it can be said that there comes certain critical point in the growth and functioning of a group and this only speeds up the emergence of leadership. Together there are some significant characteristics of its members which determine the pattern of concentration and incluence in a group. This is particularly true when the group is older and more stable.

Worchel and Cooper have given two theories regarding the emergence of leadership:

- 1. The Great Man theory or Trait theory
- 2. Time or situational theory,
- 1. According to Trait theory leaders are born and not made. They possess certain traits which others do not and this makes him rise to the status of a leader. The others who do not possess the trait remain the subordinates. This theory speaks about three types of traits:
- (a) Physical traits like size, height, attractiveness influence the emergence of leadership. This is generally found more in such groups where more physical energy is required. In such groups strong persons are made leaders.
- (b) Personality traits like intelligence, dominance, verbosity, self-assertion, self-confidence, emotional control, adjustability, flexibility, liberalism help in the emergence

of a leader. Psychoanalysts have said that someties people who are physically inferior overcompensate by acting as leader. For example, people of small height, illness, unhappy family environment, inferiority complex try to compensate these shortcomings by becoming 'aders.

(c) Acquired traits: The origin and emergence of leadership also depend upon acquired traits. For example, children coming from rich family have more chances of becoming leader than those coming from poor family.

But this trait theory has been criticised a lot. Critics are of opinion that this theory cannot tell about those traits which are common in all types of leaders. Secondly, it cannot explain the cause why among those who have physical or organic defects and inferiority complex, some become leaders and others do not.

So this theory is not able to explain the real cause of emergence of leader.

- 2. Time or situational theory: This theory emphasises that personality traits are not solely responsible but it is the characteristic of group situation that determines the emergence of leadership. In this way leaders are not born but made. Hence, leadership is an acquired quality. Some of the situational factors that influence the emergence of leadership are as follows:
- (a) Creation of Group: Whenever a new group is created there is a need for a leader to guide and hence a leader emerges in such situations.
- (b) Size or complexity of group: When the size of the group increases different subgroups are formed within the group. Each subgroup needs a leader. So thee is emergence of many secondary leaders together with the primary leader.
- (c) Group Crisis: The emergence of leadership is demanded in such situations when the process of group is blocked or it suffers from external threat. The person who can overcome this crisis and help to achieve the goal emerges as a leader.
- (d) Group Instability: Internal as well as external threat give rise to the emergence of leadership. Sometimes when conflicting situations arise in a group by non-cooperation of sub-groups then a person who minimises this conflict and brings equilibrium among them, rises as a leader. Sometimes it may also happen that a person who is very ambitious will divide the members of the group and create a situation in which he can act as a leader. The people accept him because he has lessened the group instability and thus emerge as a leader.
- (e) Failure of present leader: The new leader is likely to emerge when the existing official head of the group does not adequately perform the role of leader. But if the former performs effectively then there is less chance of emergence of a new leader.
 - (f) Needs of the leader: There are certain needs and wants within the person who seeks leadership. Such needs include need for power, prestige and materialistic gain. A person in order to satisfy his needs may emerge as a leader.

(g) Needs of the group: The leader emerges according to the needs of the group. Those who can satisfy the needs of the group are selected as leader.

Thus situation determines the emergence of leader. It not only decides who will be the leader but also decides the type of leader. For example, member oriented leader is liked in less crisis period and in greater crisis period the emergence of task oriented leader is more welcome.

However, this theory has been criticised on the ground that it does explain fully the origin and development of leadership, it cannot explain why the same person remains leader for a long period of time and others remain only followers. The fact is that both situation and personality traits determine the emergence of leadership.

7.5 Leadership Training

The meaning of leadership training is leadership education or educating the leader; through such training the leader learns to perform his role in a more effective and successful manner. We can say that leadership training means systematic series of leadership activities, instruction, practice, review, examination etc. to which the individual being trained is subjected. At first leadership training was not given any importance due to two reasons:

- 1. It was thought that leaders are born and not made, so no use of giving them any type of training because they have the born quality of leader and they will themselves carry on the role of leader.
- 2. Secondly, it was thought that in a democractic country if a person, gets slight chance or favourable opportunity then any one can become a leader. So there is no need of training them, only the situation is needed.

But today both these assumptions have been falsified and it is emphasized that by leadership training a leader can be made to function more effectively. The group productivity rises where there is trained leadership whereas it lowers down if untrained leadership is prevailing in the group.

Today leadership training is based upon two assumptions:

- 1. In democracy everyone can become a leader if he gets favourable conditions.
- 2. The leaders are not born but made according to the demands of situation and hence training is necessary for them.

Leadership training consists of the information given about the members of the group, knowledge about their culture, special knowledge about the democratic techniques, how to show courage in the crisis period to respect the subordinates who

hold their responsibility in a right manner and maintain emotional balance in every kind of situation. Thus, leadership training means the systematic series of leadership activities, i.e., how they will instruct the members, how they will examine the functioning of their followers and how they will utilize the techniques of review.

Here it is necessary to review the importance or need for leadership training. Some of the important points to be noted under the heading of need for training can be discussed as follows:

7.5.1 Importance of Leadership Training

The importance of leadership training can be described as follows:

- 1. In a democratic country the training of leader is very important because through this a leader gets a clear knowledge about his rights and duties. He also comes to know about the needs of the group member.
- 2. In the business field leadership training is important. In a business organization the supervisor, foreman and manager all have to perform well so that working moves smoothly. For this they must have knowledge about different members and must keep good relation with them and this is possible only by training.
- 3. In the educational field also leadership training is necessary. They must have knowledge about the students, thus only aim and objective of education can be reached.
- 4. Leadership training is necessary in government offices as well. This will help the officers and aministrators to cope effectively with the employees and carry out their responsibilities in a successful manner.
 - 5. The training of the military leaders is important only the aim can be achieved.

Although leadership training is essential and important, all the time it is not possible. Many obstacles come in the way of training. Some of the obstacles may be noted as follows:

- 1. When the leader does not feel the need for training then leadership training becomes a problem. He may not blame himself nor feel inadequate if he fails to achieve the group goal. In such cases he may not respond to training.
- 2. A leader must give his subordinate a chance for participating actively in policy making. When a leader does not feel this need then leadership training becomes a problem.
- 3. He can assign wrong meaning to training. He might feel afraid of facing the situation or training because he knows that it will reveal his shortcomings. Thus feeling of inferiority and inadequacy might work as obstacle in the way of leadership training.

- 4. The new leader might not have the desirable skills of playing the role of leader. In a new situation he knows that he cannot perfor well in the new leadership role, hence he avoids training.
- 5. Sometimes the personality of the leader itself functions as an obstacle in the way of leadership training. They have status consciousness so they want to hide their shortcomings and play the role of leader. They know that these will be revealed through training. So they always try to avoid any sort of training.

7.5.2 Techniques of Leadership Training

There are certain techniques involved in leadership training. Some of the important ones are :

1. Lecture method: In this the leader attends a lecture at a particular place and time given by an expert related with different aspects of leadership. The leader hears the lecture in a passive manner and gets information through the lecture of the expert.

However, this is not very useful technique for the bright, extrovert and skilful leaders. The practical skills cannot develop in a leader only by attending the lectures.

2. Discussion or conference method: In this technique the leaders assemble in a big hall where under the guidance of expert they indulge in discussions on various problems related to leadership. The experts do not give lectures and speeches but they motivate the leaders for discussions among themselves and then throw light on the ways of effective and skilful leadership. In this way the leaders get trained. It is more useful than lecture method because leaders have to play active role and are not mere listeners.

This is not beneficial for those who have low intellectual capability because with such low intelligence or average intelligence they cannot take active part in discussion. They cannot express themselves on any issue so develop monotony and feel bored at the conference.

- 3. Case discussion method: It is similar in many ways to discussion method. The difference is that in this much focus is given on some selected problems during the training period. The leader and the expert have discussions on that particular problem which helps to get new experience and gradually the leader gets trained.
- 4. Role playing method: Any learning by doing is more useful and permanent. In this method the leader is told to perform a special role which involves definite rights and duties. In this way the leader gets chance to learn different roles. During role playing many practical difficulties arise for which they search solutions and finally when they have to perform in general they are already trained for that, hence can carry on very well. This is very useful method for supervisors, administrators, principal managers and so on.

7.6 Traits, qualities, attitudes of leader

Some of the common traits of a leader can be discussed as follows:

- 1. Physical attributes: There are certain physical attributes in the leader like good height, weight and health. But it is not necessary that every leader must possess these traits.
- 2. Personality traits: These are also known as psychological traits. Some of these traits are:
 - (a) Intelligence: The leader is somewhat more intelligent than his followers.
- (b) Self-Confidence: The leader has to guide his followers and together, he has to motivate them in different difficult situations. If he loses self-confidence then people lose faith in him. So a leader must have the trait of self-confidence.
- (c) Verbosity or talkativeness: The leader must be quite vocal and he must talk more than other persons in the group.
- (d) Dominance: The leader must possess the trait of dominance otherwise his followers will not accept him as a leader.
- (e) Adjustment: The leader has to face many situations of crisis and he has to go through many problems. If he has this trait he can adjust himself well and try to solve the problem.
- (f) Sociability: A successful leader is always sociable and can be friendly with others. He can understand the attitude of group persons by getting closer to them.
- (g) Industriousness: The leader has to be laborious and active; a lazy man cannot become a successful leader.
- (h) Imagination and foresighteness: The leader must have the trait of imagination so he can foresee the coming problems. This he ps him in goal achievement and if he has foresight he can make successful predictions about group and members.
- (i) Charisma: It is a supernatural quality and due to this leaders function in an emergency period in such a way that other people are unable to understand how this has happened.
- (j) Will power: The will power in a leader raises him high in the eyes of followers and he can be an example for others. But if he loses his will power people do not accept him as a leader.
- (k) Activity: It has been observed in some experiments that the persons who are more active are more likely to be chosen as leaders than those who are less active. The ideas that the leaders are inclined to have a high degree of participation in group activities, is supported by researches conducted by Bayes, Melzer and Bouma. They found that the most active member in a group is the one who tends to have the highest status among the members and is most likely to be elected as leader.

- (I) Non-conformity: Some studies have shown that leaders deviate more from the norms than the members do. Number of studies have shown that leaders tend to be free of normative pressures than most people. One investigation of yielding and non-yielding behaviour of members of cliques showed that the leaders and the members with lower status tended to conform the least (minimum) but the middle status members conformed the most (maximum). This shows that the leaders and low status members of a group are relatively independent of the group pressures.
- (m) Social Distance: The fact that leaders prize solidarity and cohesiveness in the groups for which they are responsible, does not necessarily mean than they also favour closeness and intimacy with group members. A number of studies have shown that the most effective leaders, as measured by the performance of social or psychological distance between themselves and the members. Fielder found that the person who leads a work or task group should be an individual who is able to maintain sufficient degree of psychological distance between himself and other members of the group.

All these above mentioned traits are found more or less in the leader, but it cannot be said that these are ultimate requirements for becoming a leader. Many psychologists have said that there is nothing like common traits in a leader. Worchel and Cooper have very rightly pointed out, "The hundreds of studies that have failed to identify traits common to most leaders suggest that there is, indeed, a great deal more to leadership than a simple set of personality or physical traits."

Now a discussion will be given of the types of leadership. Different psychologists have classified leader from different points of view. Some of the classifications are being mentioned here.

7.7 Types of Leadership

Different types of leadership have been described by different scholars and this classification of leadership is made on the grounds which differ. The following are some of the main grounds on which leaders have been differentiated.

- 1. Origin of leadership
- 2. Purpose of leadership
- 3. Nature of leadership
- 4. Nature of the relation of the leader with the followers.

The different types of leaders in these various classes will now be described:

1. Classification on the basis of origin: The following types of leadership have been accepted in the classification based on crigin. It need not be pointed out that a perusal of them will throw light on the origin of leadership.

- (i) Executive appointed leadership: As is evident from the name given to this particular type of leader, he is appointed by the executive and his leadership stems from the office or post to which he is appointed by the executive. The class of government officers is of this type.
- (ii) Leader appointed by group: These leaders are elected by the group. In India, the public leaders of panchayats, local groups, the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha are elected by the group.
- (iii) Self-appointed leader: But there are some leaders whose authority derives neither from the executive nor the group because it is not vested in them by these groups. They advance because of their individual qualities and having attained the central position, lead the people. They are also recognised as such because of their qualities. Leaders like Mahatma Gandhi, who were liked by the public, belong to this class. Here one may be assailed by doubt that the self appointed leader may impose himself upon the public scene inspired by the desrie for leadership. But, in actual fact this is not inevitably so. Hence, the term self appointed is employed merely to point to the fact that leadership or authority is not bestowed upon them by any electoral body but their leadership is accepted because of their personal qualities.
- 2. Classification on the basis of purpose: Leadership can also be classified on the basis of the purpose for which it is meant. Different groups make efforts for the achievement of different aims in their respective individual spheres. The individuals who apear to be the most qualified and the most resourceful in the attainment of these purposes are accepted as leaders in the respective spheres. There can undoubtedly be any number of spheres of this kind but here only the intellectual, the artistic and the executive will be described. In this way, this classification includes the following types of leadership:
- (i) Intellectual leadership: Intellectual leadership is needed in the intellectual field. In the fields of philosophy, science, etc., the greatest thinkers can be said to be the intellectual leaders because they show the way and others follow them. Freud and Shankaracharya were leaders of this category.
- (ii) Artistic leadership: In the field of art, only the great artists can provide leadership. Artists like Tansen, Premchand and Rabindranath Tagore can be said to be leaders.
- (iii) Executive leadership: In the sphere of administration it is the authoritative personality who becomes the leader. For example, the District Magistrate in every district is the leader of the district in the sphere of administration, and his orders are respected and carried out by everyone.

- **3. Classifiction on the basis of nature of leadership:** Leadership, as found in different individuals is also classified on the basis of its nature. For example, some leaders are exclusively authoritatrian while some others are more faithful to the democratic ideal. The following are the classes into which leadership is divided on the basis of its nature:
- (i) Authoritarian leader: The authoritarian leader is an individual who likes to assert his authority. Hence he conducts himself as his fancy takes him. He does not consult anyone else in taking decisions and leads by creating fear into the hearts of his followers and subordinates. He does not solicit co-operation but prefers to issue orders and punishes those who disobey him while those who fall into line with him are rewarded. He keeps all his authority in his hand and appoints reliable subordinates in crucial positions. Evidently, the leader of this kind is an officer and an authoritarian. And to be accurate, he should not be called a leader.
- (ii) Democratic leader: This type of leader is of a democratic mould in his thougts, modes, action and conduct. He takes advice from everyone and is alsways anxious to enlist the cooperation of anyone who is willing to give it. His leadership is based upon sympathy, belief and affection. He does not call himself a leader and neither does he take all the authority into his own hands. With ther authority vested in him he speaks of himself as the humble servant of the public.
 - 4. Classification on the basis of nature of relation with followers: Leadership is classified also on the basis of the nature of relation of the leader with his followers. The relation of the leader with his followers depends on the leader. Some leaders are connected with the executive, others are leaders because of their important position in the group, some are leaders because of their ability, efficiency or capability while others lead because of their ability in getting work done by their power of persuasion. The following are their classes:
- (i) Institutional leader: In every institution, there is some individual who occupies the highest post, just as there is the Vice-Chancellor in a University who is looked upon as the highest official or supreme authority. His orders are appreciated and implemented because of the authority vested in his chair. Actually, the institutional leader is not leader but the officiating head.
- (ii) Dominant leader: The dominant leader is so called because he maintains a relation of authority and dominance with his followers or subordinates. He does not rule over them however successful he may appear because of his power and authority.
- (iii) Expert leader: In many spheres it is unusual to see the most efficient and capable individuals becoming the leaders in their own specialized field. The basis of their contact with their followers and subordinates is their special ability and efficiency.

Leaders of this type do not put any premium on maintaining social contact with their followers, understanding them or even knowing their thoughts. Being specialists, people come to them for advice from time to time, respect their opinions and these experts show the way when difficulties crop up. Expert leaders are experts, and should not be considered as leaders.

(iv) Persuasive leader: The persuasive leaders win the heart of their followers and do their best to maintain the closest social contact with them. These are the real leaders. It is only this kind of individual who really exhibits all the qualities of leadership.

Moreover several individual experts have classified leadership in their own ways. The most widely accepted and popular classification is given by Lippitt. He classified leaders as authoritarian, democratic and laissez faire.

- 1. Authoritarian leader: He is an extrovert, dominant and aggressive type of person who believes in enjoining absolute power. He follows the policy of segregation, so the relationship between the members is not very cordial. Due to this there is lower degree of group moral and the group can dissolve easily by the death or absence of the leader. He alone determines the policies of group, makes plans, decides future course of action to attain group goal and he dictates the role to members and also their pattern of interrelationship. The members are rewarded or punished by leader's own will. He protects his leadership by deciding the fate of each member and by preventing them to take active participation in setting the goals of the group. He guarantees that his guidance will be indispensable for the long term functioning of group. This type of control makes the members dependent upon the leader and group goal remains unclear to them. Minimum intercommunication among the members is made possible and all effort is made that this communication be made possible through the leader or under his immediate supervision.
- 2. Democratic leader: The power of a democratic leader is not less than that of the authoritarian leader but these leaders utilize their power in a different manner. He pays much importance to the needs and facilities of his followers and not to his own. He seeks to invoke the maximum involvement and participation of every member in group activities. He seeks to spread responsibility rather than concentrate on it and also encourages the interpersonal relationship among the group members. Hence the moral of the group is strengthened and such groups can exist for a longer period. He discourages hierarchial group structure and does not give special privilege to the members based on their status.

The success of democratic leader can be judged in terms of the degree to which the group can go along without leader when he is temporarily absent from the group.

3. Laissez faire Leadership: Such types of leaders enjoy leadership without any special role to play in the group. The followers are not dependent upon him and the leader also does not interfere in the functioning of the group. He does not take interest in group work and leaves the work on members. The members make the policies and are free to take group decisions as the leader prefers to remain aloof from the group. He is not in a position to give orders to the members. In short Laissez faire is that type of leader who neither evaluates nor controls nor regulates the group activities. Hence the burden of success of the group is not upon the shoulders of leader but it is upon the members of the group.

The social psychologists have mentioned the following characteristics of the group functioning under such leadership:

- 1. The performance of group is of very low degree.
- 2. The members are not assigned any formal role because the same member has to perform various roles from time to time as the leader is outside the group. As a result there is a lack of sense of responsibility.
- 3. It lacks organizational stability.
- 4. If the leader remains absent from the group for a long period of time, it will not effect the functioning of group as well as of members because in his presence also the members had been working on their own.

The example of such ledership can be seen in educational institutions where there is very little control on the pupils. Less amount of discipline prevails within the group. The productivity of group is not very high as the leader is self-oriented.

But this type of leadership is not very common these days. Either the leaders are domocratic or authoritarian because their performances are much effective than Laissez faire leadership. According to Shaver as the performance of such group is very low the leaders of these groups are also ineffective and are given less importance. These leaders are said to be different because authoritarian leaders are task oriented. Democratic leaders are member oriented whereas the Laissez faire leaders are self-oriented.

7.8 Functions of Leader

Leader is a member of a group or organization who outstandingly influences the activities of the members and who plays a central role in defining the group goals and in determining the ideology of the group.

Specific function of leaders and their types vary from group to group. The type of leadership depends on the type of functions they do. Although a very large number of functions are done by leaders it is possible to classify the types of leadership into certain categories.

The following are the main functions of a leader:

- (1) Leader as Executive or Administrative Head: The most obvious function of a leader is to act as a top-coordinator of the activities of the group. Such a leader is called executive or administrative leader. He may or may not assume the direct role in determining the policies and goals, but bears the responsibility of looking after execution or application of these policies. Though he is the top executive he may not take part in the activities of the group directly. He assigns duties to various members and gets work done by them. If he cannot distribute the work among members there is a possibility of delay in achieving the goals of the group; or due to unequal or partial distribution there may be dissatisfaction and conflicts within the group.
- (2) Leader as planner: Sometimes a leader acts as a planner. He decides the ways and means by which the group may achieve its goals at a determined time. In many situations only the leader has complete ideas about the whole planning and ultimate goals, and other members know only the various aspects of the pattern of planning and goals. Without planning, goals cannot be achieved satisfactoritly.
- (3) Leader as policy maker: Determination and establishment of goals and policies are done by policy making leaders. There are various possible ways to achieve the group goals and policies. The goals and policies may come "from above" i.e. from the top authorities. The leader passes these to the members in the form of commands of the superiors. Secondly, goals and policies may sometimes come from the members themselves as suggestions. The leader may convey these for approval to the top authorities and try to realize them. Thirdly, the leader may himself set certain goals and policies for the satisfaction of the wants of the members. In any case the leader has to perform a vital role in policy making.
- (4) Leader as an Expert: Sometimes a leader is distinguished as a readily available source of information and skills required to achieve the goals. In a larger and complex group the leader may not be an expert in all aspects of working and skills required. In big organizations the top leaders have to rule over the experts and specialists in various fields. But if the top leader himself is conversant with the work, he is likely to be more successful as a leader.
- (5) Leader as an External group representative: All members cannot represent the group when it comes in contact with other external groups. It is the leader who functions as the delegate or representative of the group. He acts as an official spokesman for the group. When incoming communications are to be received it is through the leader who handles all communications. Thus Lewin remarks the leader is like a "Gate-Keeper" who keeps watch on all incoming and outgoing transactions of the group.

- (6) Leaders as Controller of internal relations: A leader governs and contrtols the specific details of group structure and maintains order among the members of the subgroups within the groups. This role depends upon the nature of relationship between the members and the types of subgroups.
- (7) Giver of rewards and punishments: The leader has to give rewards and ecouragement for the 'good' acts, and punishment for 'bad' acts of the members. He has to decide whether any member deserves reward or punishment. The activities of the member that facilitate the achievement of group goals deserve rewards, and the acticties that hamper the quick achievement of group goals deserve punishment. Rewards may be given in terms of money, promotions to higher positions, titles, honours or recognition. Punishment may be given in terms of fines, ex-communication, condemning, reverting to lower position, legal actions etc. The leader encourages desirable behaviour through rewards and makes the members aware of their duties and responsibilities through punishment. Both rewards and punishment are necessary for the achievement of goals and ideals of the group.
- (8) Leader as Arbitrator and Mediator: The leader has to settle the conflicts among the members and among the subgroups within the group. He has to act as a judge and reduce the internal clashes to maintain the intergrity and order in the group.
- (9) Leader as an Exemplar: Sometimes a leader functions as a model of behaviour for the memebrs and indicates directly or indirectly as to what type of behaviour is expected from the members. If he himself is strictly disciplined, honest and hardworking, the other members will also try to be so. A leader is expected to be loyal to the group and h emust exemplify all moral values of the group.
- (10) Symbolic Leader: Group unity is achieved by a factor that makes the group a distinct unity. This is effeted by wearing uniform badges, names etc. Sometimes the leader himself is taken as the symbol which brings unity and intergrity of the group (consider the example of Mrs. Gandhi). Leader as a symbol provides group continuity by remaining in office over a prolonged period even though the members may change. For instance, in a college, batches of students come and go every year, but the principal remains in his position as the leader of the institution and functions as a symbol of the institution being equated with the symbolic leader.
- (11) Leader as Substitute for individual Responsibility: In some groups the leader plays a very important role for the individual member in relieving him of the responsibility of personal decisions and acts that he wishes to avoid. The individual may be unable to carry out his work due to certain circumstances or may not be able to take decisions on account of his inadequate knowledge. Here, the leader may free that member from his responsibilities by doing his work himself or by giving it to some other member.

- (12) Leader as an ideologist: Some leaders provide ideology to the group. The leader becomes the source of beliefs, values and norms for the individual members. The official ideology may also be influenced by the leader's personal ideology. Examples of such leaders are found in political and religious fields (e.g. Mahatma Gandhi, Buddha, Mohammad).
- (13) Leader as a Father Figure (Parent Figure): A leader serves as a focus on which the expression of positive emotions, feelings etc.of the members of the group take place. He becomes the ideal object identification, transference, and for feeling of submissiveness. The members may reduce internal tension by taking refuge in the leader.
- (14) Leader as Scape-goat: Sometimes the leader is taken as the target for the aggressions of frustrated, disappointed and disillusioned groups. For the failures of the group the leader is held responsible. Thus he acts as a "Scapegoat" to take the blames of the status hierarchy, many times he becomes the target of disapproval for the top authorities (He may be removed or dismissed by the higher authorities if the group goals are not achieved; this is often observed in government organizations). Sometimes a leader is even killed being the scapegoat to the frustrated members of the group.

7.9 Summary

- 1. Leadership is a topic of immense importance to social psychologists because leaders not only influence others but also bring about many changes in our socio-cultural environment. Keeping in view the definitions of leadership, three important meanings of leadership appear. They are in terms of attribute of a position, a characteristic of a person and a category of behaviour.
- 2. Leadership is very much important as it plays a central role in defining group goals and finds out ways and means to acheive them and further in determining the ideology of the group.
- 3. A leader is supposed to have several characteristics which are as follows:
 - (i) He is the ideal of the followers,
 - (ii) He is the respected and revered person in the group
 - (iii) He is the commander
 - (iv) The leader and followers influence each other
 - (v) He determines group conduct
 - (vi) He controls the activities of other members of the group.