CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK RELATED TO THE WORKING AND SERVICE CONDITIONS OF TEACHERS

2.1. THEORIES FROM LABOUR PERSPECTIVE

2.2. THEORIES FROM MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE
2.1. Theories from labour perspective

By means of an analytic review of theoretical and empirical literature the investigator has been able to generate valuable insights related to the research problem. Review procedures and findings for conceptual framework thus constitute the focus of the present discussion. Relatively, information garnered relevant to other components of this framework is rather meager and negligible.

This study is grounded on an initial review of certain theoretical starting points vis-a-vis their attention to issues represented in conceptual framework. The present chapter furnishes the theoretical framework and overview to the major concepts of the study, working and service conditions of teachers.

2.1.1. The bargaining theory of wages holds that wages, hours, and working conditions are determined by the relative bargaining strength of the parties to the agreement. Employers are in a better position to withstand the demands of the employees for higher wages and better service conditions. Hence it must be borne in mind that there is no single economic principle or force governing wages. Instead, workers, employers and their unions through prolonged negotiation, determine wages and other working conditions. A bargaining situation is a game, (Muthoo, 2004) in the sense that the outcome of bargaining depends on both players' bargaining strategies. Striking an agreement and the terms of the agreement depend on both players' conduct during the bargaining process. Another determinant of the outcome of bargaining is the extent to which information about various variables/factors is known to all the parties in the bargaining
situation. For example, the outcome of a union’s demand for wage rise will be influenced by the amount of knowledge it has about the firm's revenue. To persuade the company and to extract a higher wage the union may need to undertake a costly strike.

2.1.2 Union Bargaining (Lipsey & Chrystal, 2004) A union negotiates the wage rate with firms. The union will generally represent the interests of its members, the bulk of whom will be in employment. Where bargaining is decentralized, the unions bargain at the level of the firm and push for higher wages for the workers without worrying about effect on the rest of the economy. However, where bargaining is centralized the union bargains at the level of the whole industry or the whole economy rather than just those in one firm. Unemployment is relatively high in some countries where unions bargaining is decentralised and unemployment is lower in nations like Scandinavia where union bargaining is centralized.

2.1.3 Collective bargaining (Katz, 2004) is a mechanism for organized groups of workers and their employers to resolve conflicting interests and to pursue agreement over common interests. A critical influence on the process of collective bargaining is the inherent conflict of interest that prevails between employees and employers. That conflict arises out of the clash of economic interests between employees seeking, among other things, high pay and job security, and employers pursuing profits. There are also a number of common interests between employers and their employees. Both firms and their work forces can benefit, for example, from increases in productivity through higher wages and higher profits. Conflict and negotiations may therefore serve important private and social functions.
Collective bargaining is only one of a variety of mechanisms for resolving conflicts. While some employees want to join unions, some others may prefer to deal with their employers on an individual basis. Other employees may quit their job when dissatisfied with employment conditions rather than voicing their concerns, either individually or collectively. Employment conditions are the most important bargaining outcomes that are shaped by collective bargaining. Collective bargaining agreements commonly address - (1) wage and fringe benefit levels, payment systems and administration, (2) job and income security, (3) physical working conditions, (4) some personnel management and plant operation practices and (5) union and management rights and responsibilities.

2.1.4 Equity theory (Greenberg, Equity theory, 1998) proposed by Adams (1965) as an extension of distributive justice concept proposes that people’s attitudes and behavior are affected by their assessment of their work contribution referred to as inputs and the rewards they receive such as effort, skill and seniority referred to as outcomes.

2.2. Management related theories

Management related theories help us to study the whole picture covering the employer, employee and output.

1 Management theories (Olum., 2004) provide a stable focus for understanding what we experience by enabling us to communicate efficiently and thus move into more and more complex relationships with other people and challenge us to keep learning about our world. From Yasin Olum (2004) Modern Management theories and Practices, Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Makerere University, paper presented at the 15th East African Central Banking Course, Kenya School of Monetary Studies.
2.2.1 Statt (1999) introduces us to Herzberg’s two factor theory resulted from a study on job satisfaction in which he found that satisfaction and dissatisfaction with work were caused by different factors. Satisfaction resulted from motivators like recognition and increased responsibility, but dissatisfaction resulted from working environment itself and factors like poor physical conditions or relatively poor pay. Herzberg referred to these as hygiene factors. Thus neither interesting work nor good working environment was sufficient by itself – though each was necessary – in itself to ensure job satisfaction. Herzberg’s work led to an emphasis on job enrichment schemes. (Statt, 1999). According to Koontz (2005) Fredrick Herzberg’s research purports to find a two-factor theory of motivation. In one group of needs are such things as company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, job security and personal life. These were found by Herzberg to be only dissatisfies and not motivators. In other words, if they exist in a work environment in high quantity and quality, they yield no dissatisfaction. Their existence does not motivate in the sense of yielding satisfaction; their lack of existence would, however, result in dissatisfaction. Herzberg calls them maintenance or hygiene factors. In the second group, Herzberg lists certain satisfiers and therefore motivators— all related to job content. They include achievement, recognition, challenging work, advancement and growth in the job. Their existence will yield feelings of satisfaction or no satisfaction (not dissatisfaction). (Koontz, 2005)

2.2.2 Olum (2004) works on Douglas McGregor’s management ideas as contained in “Theory X” and “Theory Y” (‘carrot and stick’ mentality). Using human behaviour research, he noted that the way an organization runs
depends on the beliefs of its managers. “Theory X” gives a negative view of human behaviour and management assumes that most people are basically immature, need direction and control, and are incapable of taking responsibility.

“Theory Y”, the opposite of “Theory X”, argues that people want to fulfil themselves by seeking self-respect, self-development, and self-fulfilment at work as in life in general. The basic assumptions for ‘Theory Y’ are - effort at work need not depend on threat of punishment. Commitment, self direction and self-control are better than external controls, satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs can be directed towards the objectives of the organization, a manager should be able to see members of the organization as human beings who have needs and psychological feelings and emotions and motivation of the employees are critical in increasing productivity.

2.2.3 Koontz (2005), Statt (1999) and Hartman throws light on Hierarchy of Needs Theory of Abraham H. Maslow who was the first psychologist to develop a theory of motivation based upon a consideration of human needs. To reach successive levels of the hierarchy required the satisfaction of the lower level needs. Deprivation of the needs, belongingness and love need will result in significant personality maladjustment. An individual must develop self confidence. In order to do this it is essential to the individual to have the achievement of status, reputation, fame and glory. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory (Hartman) helps the manager to visualize employee motivation. He saw human needs in the form of a hierarchy, ascending from the lowest to the highest and he concluded that, when one set of needs is satisfied, this kind of need ceases to be a motivator. The basic
human needs placed by Maslow in an ascending order of importance are
(1) Physiological needs: these are the basic needs for sustaining human life itself, such as food, water, warmth, shelter and sleep. Maslow took the position that, until these needs are satisfied to the degree necessary to maintain life, other needs will not motivate people. (2) Security, or safety needs: People want to be free of physical danger and of the fear of losing a job, property, food or shelter. (3) Affiliation or acceptance needs. Since people are social beings, they need to belong to be accepted by others. (4) Esteem needs. According to Maslow, once people begin to satisfy her need to belong, they tend to want to be held in esteem both by themselves and by other. This kind of need produces such satisfactions as power, prestige, status, and self-confidence. (5) Need for self-actualization. Maslow regards this as the highest need in his hierarchy. It is the desire to become what one is capable of becoming- to maximize ones potential and to accomplish something.

2.2.4 McClelland’s Needs Theory of motivation (Koontz, 2005) has contributed to the understanding of motivation by identifying three types of basic motivating needs. He classifies them as the need for power, need for affiliation and need for achievement. Considerable research has been done on method of testing people with respect to these three types of needs and McClelland and his associated have done substantial research, especially in the need for achievement. All three drives- power, affiliations, and achievement are of particular relevance to management, since all must be recognized to make an organized enterprise work well.

2.2.5 According to Draft (2005) the Systems Theory is a trend that grew out of the humanistic perspective. It is a set of interrelated parts that
function as a whole to achieve a common purpose. A system functions by acquiring inputs from the external environment, transforming them in some way, and discharging outputs back to the environment. Five components of systems theory includes - inputs, a transformation process, outputs, feedback, and the environment. Inputs are the material, human, financial, or information resources used to produce goods or services. The transformation process is management’s use of production technology to change the inputs into outputs. Outputs include the organization’s products and services. Feedback is knowledge of the results that influence the selection of inputs during the next cycle of process. The environment surrounding the organization include the social, political, and economic forces.

Some ideas in system theory that have an impact on management thinking include - open and closed systems, entropy, synergy, and subsystem interdependencies. Open systems must interact with the environment to survive; closed systems need not. In reality most organizations are open systems. Entropy is a universal property of a system which refers to their tendency to die. If system does not receive fresh inputs and energy it will eventually cease to exist. So to reduce entropy an organization must monitor environments, adjust to change, bring in new inputs for worker to survive and prosper. Synergy means that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. When an organization is formed, something new comes to the world: management, coordination, and production that did not exist as such before are now present. Organizational units working together can accomplish more than the same units working alone. One department (teacher) depends on another (management) and vice versa making the whole system of education improve. Subsystems are parts of a system that
depend on one another and affect other parts.Organization must be managed as a whole. Managers who understand subsystem interdependence make changes by recognising the organization as a whole. However the success of the knowledge-sharing network requires changes in organizational structure, job design, work processes, and cultural values. Vertical hierarchy is replaced by a coordinated team. And there is a shift to emphasis sharing rather than hoarding information.

2.2.6 Total Quality Management (Draft, 2005) another offshoot of humanistic management TQM is an important art of today’s organizations to improving quality. The quality movement in Japan emerged partly as a result of American influence after World War II. The ideas of W. Edwards Deming, known as the “father of the quality movement”, were initially scoffed at in America, but the Japanese embraced his theories and modified them to help rebuild their industries. Shortly afterwards the Japanese companies gradually made a departure from the American model of an inspection-oriented approach to an approach giving more employee involvement in the presentation of quality problems. During the 1980s and 1990s, total quality management (TQM) which focuses on managing the total organization to deliver quality to customers, was at the forefront in helping managers deal with competition. The approach infuses quality values throughout every activity within a company, with front-line workers involved in the process. Elements of quality management are more employee involvement, focus on the customer and continuous improvement. Employee involvement means all employees are focused on the customer.
A review of the theoretical overview has helped the researcher to take stock of the researches completed in the area and provide a theoretical framework for the study. The above discussion on concepts has helped in building a theoretical framework. The main contention of this study is that the topic cannot be explained by a single theory. A synthetic approach alone can do justice to the topic. An exhaustive application of the above theories is too ambitious and unwieldy. However certain important elements of each theory specifically applicable and relevant have been taken up and meticulously used for analysis.