CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF DIFFERENT VARIABLES

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2.1 Introduction

The total atmosphere of any organisation gives colour to all happenings in it. All organizations have a pervasive inbuilt quality in it which is known as a climate of the organization. Schools feel different. As one moves from school to school, each has a personality of its own. It is this feel or personality that Halpin and Croft use to explain analogously the idea of organizational climate: that is, "personality is to the individual what organizational climate is to the organization". It is an accepted fact that each organization has a distinctive personality which wirepulls all the individual actions in the organization.

2.2 The Concept of Organizational Climate and Its Dimensions

The climate may be pictured as a personality sketch of an institution. As personality describes an individual, so climate defines the essence of an institution. So school climate is the teacher's perceptions of the work environment. More specifically, climate is a set of measurable properties of the work environment of teachers and administrators based on collective perceptions. These perceptions are strongly influenced by the leadership practices of administrators,
indeed, the single most important individual in affecting the climate of the school is the principal. It is the principal who is given control of the formal organization, and it is the principal whose leadership practices set the stage for the normative and behavioural structure of the informal organization. Climate also refers to the environment. Environment is the "skin" of the organization. Thus, everything is within the organization, the culture or environment may influence the organization. Hence, the climate plays an important role in any formal organization.

Here, the term climate refers to the "organizational climate" prevailing in a particular school during a particular period or conditions. It refers to a general flow of behaviour and feeling within a group of teachers in a school. Climate has a major impact on organizational performance because it affects the motivations of individuals. Interpersonal relationships among teachers and between principals and teachers directly shape motivation and behaviour. The task of conceptualizing and classifying different climates is not an easy one; in fact, because of their perceptual nature, there may be an infinite variety of organizational climates. What are the important dimensions of school climate that motivate behaviour? Again, there are no simple answers, but Haipin and Croft provide one answer; they define eight dimensions of teacher-teacher and principal-teacher interactions. All eight dimensions are measurable and describe the school situation and differentiate among schools.
In brief, the concept of organisational climate can be summarized as a relatively enduring quality of the school environment that:

(a) is affected by the principal's leadership,
(b) is experienced by teachers,
(c) influences member's behaviours and
(d) is based on collective perceptions.

Halpin (1966) in collaboration with Don Croft collected evidences which showed that "four behaviours of teachers and four behaviours of principals were specially responsible for creating school climate. For teachers these behaviours were 'disengagement', 'hindrance', 'esprit' and 'intimacy' and the four behaviours of principals were: 'aloofness', 'production emphasis', 'thrust' and 'consideration'."

In context of the present investigation, the definitions of these terms are accepted as given by Halpin.

The behaviour described by each characteristic is briefly mentioned below:

I. Disengagement indicates that teachers do not work well together. They pull in different directions with respect to the task; they gripe and bicker among themselves.

II. Hindrance refers to the teacher's feeling that the principal burden them with routine duties and other requirements which they construe as necessary work.
iii **Espirit** refers to "morale". The teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied, and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their job.

iv **Intimacy** refers to the teacher's enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other.

v **Alcofness** refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized as formal and interpersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation.

vi **Production Emphasis** refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and task-oriented.

vii **Thrust** refers to behaviour marked not by close supervision of the teacher, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. He does not ask the teachers to give off themselves anything more than he willingly gives of himself; his behaviour, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed favourably by the teachers.

viii **Consideration** refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers "humility" to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms.
The first four dimensions measure teacher characteristics while the remaining four represent principal characteristics. In addition, Halpin and Croft conceptualized social interactions of professional personnel of schools in terms of a more general factor, "Openness". The openness of the school refers to actions which emerge freely and without constraint; that is, the behaviour of the group members is genuine or authentic. Leadership acts are readily initiated from both the principal and teachers, and the group is not inordinately concerned with either task achievement or social-needs satisfaction. Satisfaction on both counts emerges easily and almost effortlessly.

The concept of openness in organizational behaviour seems highly compatible with a humanistic pupil control orientation. If pupil control is a salient feature of the organizational life of schools, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that "humanistic" schools will be significantly more open in teacher-principal interactions than "custodial" schools.

2.3 The Rationale of Organizational Climate Measurement

The concept of organizational climate has now gone beyond the "feel" and attempts to give a normative base which would enable comparison of one school with another have been made. Research on organizational climate has provided 'dimensions' along which measurement of certain factors which make up the climate of an organizational environment can be taken and normative data which could enable one to determine more accurately where a given school stands in comparison with others.
By late 1960, two general techniques for assessing and describing the organizational climate of schools have been developed. One is largely credited to Andrew Halpin and the other to George Stern.

Halpin and Croft (1963) in their research in "Organizational climate, deal with both dimensions of the Getzel theory. In fact, an open climate is defined as "one in which there is attention to both task achievement and social needs". The 'closed' climate is defined as "one which makes a situation in which the group members obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task achievement or social needs". "In short, it is a situation where the leader is ineffective in directing the activities of the staff and at the same time, he is not inclined to look after their welfare".3

The idea of 'Openness' and 'Closeness' had been discussed and explained by Kurt Lewin (1955) and Rokeach (1960).

According to Barnes (1960) closeness and openness in external systems reflect themselves differently in the internal system of a group in terms of member, job autonomy (activities), interaction opportunities (interactions) and upward influences (sentiments). In the relatively closed system, external concepts of bureaucratic administration dominate. These serve to discourage sub-ordinate autonomy, interactions and upward influences. In the more open system, external system values and goals tend to emphasize technical expertise, quality and
developmental work. These serve to encourage subordinate autonomous interactions and upward influences.

Haipin and Croft (1963) have identified six climates from 'open' at one end of a continuum to 'closed' at the other. They found that a school possessing an open climate, which they deemed as the most effective was a lively organization moving towards its goal, while at the same time, providing satisfaction to the members of the organization. By far, the most popular and widely used technique for assessing the organizational climate has been the organizational climate description questionnaire (OCDQ) partly because of the clarity with which Haipin has described the concept of organizational climate and partly because of the relative simplicity with which the OCDQ assessment technique can be used in practical school situation. This technique has been employed repeatedly by researchers, many of whom wished to determine whether certain types of climates were found in schools with principals having certain characteristics.

The rationale underlying the OCDQ assumes first that something actually exists which can properly be called as the organizational climate. It is also assumed that the organizational climate is clearly related to the perceived behaviour of teachers and principals.

The term 'perceived behaviour' is significant. It portrays the sensitive territory of selective perception in
which people 'see' in the psychological sense what they are prepared to see. In dealing with interpersonal relationships which are bound up in organizational behaviour, the truism that much of behaviour, like beauty, is in the eye of the beholder should be remembered.

Halpin and Croft carried out an exploratory inquiry on the impact of behaviour of teachers and the principal on the organizational climate of the school. The main aim of their organization was to develop a tool to help in determining the organizational climate of schools as well as of other similar establishments or organizations.

They constructed a Likert type questionnaire of 64 items which teachers and principals could use to describe the climate of their school. The questionnaire was constructed on a four point scale rarely occurs, sometimes occur, often occurs and very frequently occurs.

The questionnaire could be administered in a group situation and required not more than 30 minutes for administration. The climate of 106 elementary schools chosen from six different regions of the United States were analyzed. The 64 items of the COEIQ were assigned to eight sub-tests which had been delineated by factor analytic methods. The first four of the sub-tests pertain to the characteristics of the principal as a leader. From the score on these eight sub-tests, a profile or psychograph depicting the organiza-
tional climate of the school was constructed. By comparing the profiles of different schools, the distinguishing features of their respective organizational climates were spotted.

The eight sub-tests were called:

Disengagement, hindrance, esprit, intimacy, aloofness, production emphasis, thrust and consideration.

The above dimensions have been described in detail in para 2.2 above.

The climate dimensions scores on the OCDQ would yield climate scores which permit a school's organizational climate in being identified as open. Autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal and closed. These climates are ranked in respect of openness versus closeness. They describe the behaviour which characterize the school principal and the teachers. Halpin remarks that the score on the dimension of Esprit is best single indicator of the staff morale. Teacher's and principal's behaviour in the school under the two climate categorise, at both the extreme ends of the continuum e.g. open climate and closed climate.

The OCDQ is composed of 64 Likert type items which teachers and principals may use to describe various aspects of social interaction in their schools. By factor analysis, Halpin and Croft sub-divided the OCDQ into eight dimensions as described earlier, each with a corresponding sub-test.
Further factor analysis of school profiles led to the identification of a general openness factor. Openness scores for schools can be computed by summing the Esprit and Thrust sub-test scores and then subtracting the disengagement score. Mathematically openness can be expressed below:

\[
\text{Openness} = \text{Scores of Esprit} + \text{Scores of Thrust} - \text{Scores of Disengagement}
\]

More the score, the more open climate it has and consequently such schools are called "Humanistic" schools. If the openness scores are low, such schools should be termed as "custodial" schools.

It could be said that in schools having open climate, teachers work well without bickering and internal conflict, they are not ever burdened with routine work. Their task achievement is facilitated by the principal's policy, the teachers as a group enjoy friendly relations so much so that they do not feel the need of a high degree of intimacy, they obtain considerable job satisfaction, they are sufficiently motivated, they possess the incentive to work things out and they are proud to belong to such a school.

As regards the principal's behaviour, it can be said that it reflects integration between his personality and the expected role. He sets an example by working hard himself.
He goes out of his way to help his colleagues in the hour of need.

He displays personal flexibility. He can either control or direct or give freedom necessary for job satisfaction. He does not have to emphasize output. It occurs automatically and teachers do produce easily and freely. He knows how to get work done from teachers. He genuinely provides leadership for his staff.

As against the behaviour of teachers and principals in an open-climate-school described above, it presents altogether a diverse and converse picture in a school belonging to the closed climate category. Here, the teachers obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task achievement or social needs. Their personal welfare is not being cared for by the principal. The teachers are altogether disengaged and there is "not working together" attitude among them. There is no group feeling. Group achievement is the lowest. There is considerable amount of routine type of work forced on teachers, they perform mostly 'house keeping' duties. Their task achievement is not at all facilitated by the principal. The teacher morale is very low. There is very little job satisfaction and fulfilment of social needs. However, they derive some satisfaction from friendly relations with their colleagues. Quite an appreciate number of teachers leave the school job and go to other schools. The
principal's behaviour in this type of climate, school is characterized, by high emphasises work and production. The school functions under the dead weight of set rules and regulations. The principal's work is hollow. He says one thing and does another. He does not appear to be a genuine person. His behaviour is characterized by poor thrust. He is incapable of motivating other teachers by setting an admirable example of hard and sincere work himself. He cares little for the needs of his teachers. He expects everyone else to take the initiative. He gives no freedom to the teachers. He provides practically no leadership. Teachers view him as 'phony'.

2.4 Types of Organizational Climate

After Halpin and Croft had identified the eight dimensions of school climate, they attempted to classify schools into one of six climate types based on the schools' profile of scores. School climates were conceived along a continuum of open to closed - open climates distinguished by functional flexibility and closed climates marked by functional rigidity. The meaning of the "middle" climates is however vague.

Right sub-tests which constitute the six prototype profiles are described as Organizational Climate Patterns.

In order to discriminate organizational climates,
profiles of the schools were analysed with the help of the score. The climate of the schools to be located are stated and described as follows:

(i) The Open Climate

The open climate depicts a situation in which the members enjoy extremely high Esprit. The teachers work well together without bickering and griping (Low Disengagement). They are not burdened by mountain of busy work or by routine reports, the principal policies facilitate the teachers' accomplishment of their tasks (Low Hindrance). On the whole, the members of the group enjoy friendly relations with one another, but they apparently feel no need for an extremely high degree of Intimacy. The teachers obtain considerable job satisfaction, and are sufficiently motivated to overcome difficulties and frustrations. They possess the incentive to work things out and to keep the organization 'moving'. Furthermore, the teachers are proud of being associated with their schools.

The behaviour of the principal plays a great role in portraying the organizational climate of the school. The principal in open climate sets an example by working hard himself but depending upon the situation he can either criticize the section of the teachers or go out of his way to help a teacher. Leadership acts average easily and appropriately from both the groups and the leader. The members
are pre-occupied disproportionately with neither the task achievements nor social needs satisfaction. The main characteristics of this climate are authenticity of the behaviour that occurs among all the members.

In a nutshell, the teacher's and principal's behaviours in Open Climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers' Behaviour</th>
<th>1 High Esprit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Low Disengagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 Low Hindrance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 Average Intimacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal's Behaviour</th>
<th>5 Average Aloofness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 High Consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 Low Production Emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 High Thrust</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) The Autonomous Climate

The distinguishing feature of this organizational climate is the almost complete freedom that the principal gives to teachers to provide their own structure for interaction so that they can find ways within the group for satisfying their social needs. As one might surmise, the scores lean slightly more toward social needs satisfaction than toward task achievement (relatively high scores on Esprit and Intimacy).

When the teachers are together in a task-oriented
situation, they are engaged in their work. They achieve their goals easily and quickly (Low Disengagement). There are a few minority pressure groups, but whatever stratification does not prevent the group as a whole from working well together. The essential point is that the teachers do work well together and accomplish the tasks of the organization.

The teachers are not hindered by administrative paper work and they do gripe about the reports that they are required to submit. The principal has set up procedures and regulations to facilitate the teacher’s task. A teacher does not have to run to the principal every time he needs, supplies books, projectors and so on. Adequate controls have to be established to relieve the principal as well as the teachers of these details (Low Hindrance). The morale of teachers is high, but not as high as in the open climate. The high moral probably stems largely from the social needs satisfaction which the teachers receive (Esprit would be probably higher if greater task accomplishment also occurred within the organization).

In a nutshell, the teacher’s and principal’s behaviour in the Autonomous Climate:

Teacher’s behaviour: 1. High Esprit
                   2. High Intimacy
                   3. Low Disengagement
                   4. Low Hindrance
(iii) The Controlled Climate

The controlled climate is characterized best as impersonal and highly task oriented. The group's behaviour is directed primarily to task accomplishment while relatively little attention is paid to behaviour oriented social needs satisfaction. Every one works so hard that there is little time for friendly relations. Esprit is fairly high but it reflects achievement at some expense to social needs satisfaction. The climate is over-weighted towards task-orientation. It totally neglects social needs satisfaction. Teachers do not find fault with the principal's directives. The principal is dominating and directive and cares more for getting the job done and in his way. He allows little flexibility within the organization.

In a nutshell, the teacher's and principal's behaviour in the Controlled Climate:

Teacher's behaviour  
1 Low Disengagement
2 High Hindrance
3 Low Intimacy
4 Esprit slightly above average

Principal's Behaviour  
5 High Alcofness
6 Low Production Emphasis
7 Average Consideration
8 Average Thrust
(iv) The Familiar Climate

The familiar climate is highly personal but under controlled. The members of the organization satisfy their social needs but pay relatively little attention to social control in respect to task accomplishment. There is high disengagement in a task oriented situation and the principal expects little control in directing the activities. Esprit is average and this steam more social needs satisfaction. The attitude of the principal seems to be "let us all be happy family", and is reluctant to emphasize production or guide the teachers as to how things should be done. The principal is neither aloof nor impersonal but official in his manner. He is very considerable and so the teacher attribute arrange thrust to him. No one works to full capacity, no one is ever wrong and no one is criticised.

In a nutshell, the teacher's and principal's behaviour in the Familiar Climate:

Teacher's behaviour
1 High Disengagement
2 Low Hindrance
3 High Intimacy
4 Average Esprit

Principal's behaviour
5 High Production Emphasis
6 Average Aloofness
7 Low consideration
8 Average Thrust
Principal’s behaviour

5 High Consideration
6 Low Aloofness
7 Low Production Emphasis
8 Average Thrust

(v) The Paternal Climate

This climate is characterised best by the ineffective attempts of the principal to control the teachers well as to satisfy their social needs. His behaviour is perceived by the teachers as nongenuine and non-motivating. The teachers do not work well together. They are split into fractions. The principal tries to interfere in all activities and the teachers do not even try to show their initiative, they get inadequate satisfaction in respect to both task accomplishment and social needs. Hence, Esprit among the members is low. The leadership skills within the group are not used to supplement the principal’s leadership acts. This climate is partly closed one.

In a nutshell, the teacher’s and principal’s characteristics in the Paternal Climate:

Teacher’s behaviour

1 High Disengagement
2 Low Hindrance
3 Low Intimacy
4 Low Esprit
Principal's behaviour  5 Low Consideration
6  Low Alciefness
7  High Production Emphasis
8  Low Thrust

(iv). The Closed Climate

The closed climate marks the situation in which the group members receive little satisfaction in respect to either task achievement or social needs. The teachers are disengaged: they do not work well together, there is very little job satisfaction or social needs satisfaction as the principal is ineffective in directing their activities and nor does he show any interest in their welfare. The principal gives any freedom to perform any leadership acts by the group members. The organization is not moving. The Esprit is very low because satisfaction is achieved neither from social need nor from task achievement. The principal does not facilitate the task accomplishment of the teachers. The principal is highly impersonal and tries to control through rules and regulations, the organization indeed seems to be stagnant and not moving towards its goals.

In a nutshell, the teacher's and principal's behaviour in the Closed Climate:

Teacher's behaviour  1 High Disengagement
2 High Hindrance
3 Low Esprit
4 Average Intimacy
Principal's behaviour  5 High Aloofness
6 High Production Emphasis
7 Low Thrust
8 Low Consideration

They are presented in the following chart for quick review:

2.5 Measurement of Organizational Climate - Some Approaches

This section is discussed on the basis of Sharma, Buch and Rai in their monograph, "Diagnosing School Personality" (1973)\textsuperscript{5}.

The problem of measurement of organizational climate is similar in some respects to that of satisfying individual behaviour. The problem may involve construction of tests for organizations and hence systematic observation of organizations becomes possible. The approaches which have been used to study organizational climate include (i) field approach, (ii) observational approach, (iii) experimental approach and (iv) perceptional approach.

(i) Field Approach

Intensive observations of the practical expenditure involved are the other disadvantages of this approach.

(ii) Observational Approach

The approach affords the possibility of studying a
wide variety of organizations and of the conclusions driving
at generalizations at the same time. Here one is supposed
to study organizational variables which effect the organiza-
tional behaviour. Organizational variables may include size
of the organization, union representatives, extent of emplo-
yee participation in incentive and profit-sharing plans,
protest issues on the campus, degree of hierarchical orga-
nizational conditions, personal behaviour etc. The major
difficulties of this approach are the same as those confron-
ted by the researcher studying individual personality. There
the variables which may be examined or studied are unlimited
and too specific to be readily interpreted. The same is
true for any living organization which is composed of indi-
viduals having complex behaviour. If one tries to examine
the organizational characteristics in isolation with each
other the inter-relationship of the other characteristics in
organizational functioning remains unexamined.

(III) Experimental Approach

As has already been discussed earlier, organizational
climate is multi-dimensional and built upon factors beyond
the researcher's control. As such, it is quite obvious that
we are talking about discovering rather than creating climate
and there seems the possibility of selecting climates in
order to maximize the benefit. Furthermore, identifying
relevant dimensions of climate and verifying them systemati-
cally has appealed to researchers and administrators. The
"Human relations" tradition in engagement has contributed a lot to this idea. Ingenious methods of verifying organizational climate have been devised in attempts to demonstrate the relative superiority or inferiority of democratic as well as autocratic administrations. The most detailed work on the experimental control of social variable has involved small groups.

In such experimental studies, simulation has been mostly used. Simulation offers a useful opportunity to vary some aspects of an organization while holding others constant, and for observing the effects of such variation on behaviour.

(iv) **Perceptonal Approach**

The rationale behind this approach which is to assess the organizational climate by means of participant's perception is that such perceptions are based upon experience that are more intensive as well as extensive as compared to outside observer. As such, it is more dependable and valid. Greater emphasis is given on the role of perception of organizational properties in relation to individual behaviour as interactive variables.

"As an illustration, Likert's (1961) model of interaction influence assigns central importance to organizational characteristics as they interact between casual variables
such as structure, objectives, supervisory practices etc., and individual personality. Therefore, it only through perceptions that the relationship between casual and end result variables may be understood. Hence, this point again strengthens the approach of measurement of organizational climate through the perceptions of the individuals whose behaviours are being studied.

In conclusion, it can be said that research efforts in this direction are greatly significant for promoting administrative efficiency, organizational effectiveness and therefore better teaching learning situations. In most of the studies undertaken in India, probably all the researchers have used OGDQ as standard tool for the reliable and valid assessment of organizational climate of the school. Hence, the present researcher also inclined to use OGDQ for assessing the organizational climate for his research activity.

2.6 Concept of Leadership

Leadership is so important to group accomplishment that mankind has been concerned about it since the beginning of recorded history. The quality of organization is often judged by the perceived quality of the leadership. Leader is an outstanding member of the group. He tends to have somewhat higher intelligence than the average of their followers, have broad interests and activities and strong personal motivation to keep accomplishing something.
Bass (1965) defines that, when the goal of one member A, is that of changing another member B; or when B's change in behaviour will reward A or reinforces A's behaviour, A's effort to obtain the goal is leadership.

Barnes (1923) defines leadership as a process of focussing the attention and releasing the energies of people in a desired direction.

Smith (1935) speaks of leadership as the management of inter-individual tensions.

Curnoe (1936) and Farnworth (1949) define 'leader' as agents of change, as persons whose acts affect other people more than other people affect them. It also conforms to Smith's conceptualization that leadership is conceived as an interaction between leader and members rather than merely an act by leader, because whether or not leader reaches his goal involves activity or inactivity by members. Subordinate's activity will reinforce leader's behaviour, modify leader's subsequent actions.

'Leader' and 'teacher' are synonymous terms, and also Herrold (1947) conceives teachership as leadership in which the teacher assists students to express their needs, participates as a member of the classroom group, guides students to define and organizes course, aims, objectives and appraisals. Since teaching is leading, it is not surprising to find that leading party involves teaching.
Gibb (1950)\textsuperscript{12} considers leadership as an interaction between members of a group. Mackenzie and Corey (1954)\textsuperscript{13} say the conception of leadership can probably best be understood if leadership is viewed as a natural accomplishment of the goal-seeking behaviour of human beings.

For Hemphill (1954)\textsuperscript{14} leadership acts are limited to those concerning alternation of consistent patterns of interaction within a group. Excluded are signals, task analyses, expressions of attitudes, information giving or asking, request for suggestions, proposals to accept or reject earlier suggestions. Each of these acts generally will be regarded as leadership by their definition, although it will depend on the function of the specified acts.

From last decade the leadership has been deligated to behaviour instead of traits. The particular situation and the ways how leader solves problems have been concentrated. It will be greatly increased in our understanding of leadership phenomena, if we abandon the notion of leadership as a trait, and concentrated instead upon an analysis of the behaviour of leaders (Halpin, 1960).\textsuperscript{15}

Leader behaviour is focussed on motivating other or initiating means for other to cope with their needs. The behaviour of leadership is not constant, it varies widely from one leadership situation to another.
Senford\textsuperscript{16} certainly summarises 'leader' and 'situation' that, (1) there are either no general leadership traits or, if they do exist, they are not to be described in any of our familiar psychological or common sense terms, (2) in a specific situation, leaders do have traits which set them apart from followers but what traits set, what leader, apart from what followers, will vary from situation to situation.

Stogdill and Coons\textsuperscript{17} mention five types of definition of leader behaviour, (1) behaviour involved in the execution of a given position, (2) all the behaviour of the individual selected as leader, (3) any positive influence act, (4) behaviour of any individual that makes a difference in the behaviour or characteristics of the group, and (5) behaviour of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group.

Gibb found from his "In Search of Leader" that, the most effective leader is one who acts as a catalyst, a consultant and a resource to the group. His job is to help the group to grow, to emerge and to become more free.

According to Lipham\textsuperscript{18}, in administration, leadership is behaviour oriented to initiating new organizational structure or to changing the goals of the organization. He argues that leadership and administration are incompatible since administration functions to maintain organizational equilibrium. Although equilibrium maintenance may require organizational change.
Leadership by definition involves a positive attitude toward innovation. Lipham has written:

"We may define leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals and objectives. Note that the emphasis here is upon initiating change. Presumably, two routes are open to leader who would attempt to change established organizational relationships and goals. He may utilize delegated status and exert authority in terms of his role, or he may utilize achieved prestige and exert influence in terms of his individual personality. Perhaps both role and individual strength would be brought to bear. In either event, the leader is concerned with initiating changes in established structures, procedures, or goals; he is disruptive of the existing state of affairs.

The administration, on the other hand, may be identified as the individual who utilizes existing structures or procedures to achieve an organizational goal or objective. As in the case of the leader, the administrator may bring to bear the authority of his role or the influence of his personality in his relationship with other members of the organization. But the administrator is concerned primarily with maintaining rather than changing, established structures, procedures or goals. Thus, the administrator may be viewed as a stabilizing force". (pp. 69-70)
Katz and Khan\(^{19}\) see no difference between leadership and administration. For them leadership may take place at any point in the organizational hierarchy. However leadership at different levels require different personality traits and intellectual skills and demand different behaviours by the leader. At the highest level the leadership described is identical to Lipham's description. At lower levels of the organizational hierarchy, leadership is manifested in imaginative use of existing structure. According to Katz and Khan, leadership consists of all acts of influence which effect matters of organizational relevance with special emphasis on an increment influence which goes beyond that which formally accrues to a role incumbent. That is, a school principal who simply implemented school policy would not be considered, normally, to be performing a leadership act.

However the principal who supplemented on existing policy or who imaginatively interpreted such a policy might be thought to be exercising leadership.

For Unruh and Turner\(^{20}\) leadership may be defined as the discovering, exploring, releasing and stimulating of the talents, abilities and skills of the staff in their co-ordination and direction. He refers Greenburg's concept of leadership as:

"Leadership is the ability which enables an
individual to get other people to do willingly what they have the ability to do but might not spontaneously do on their own. Leadership implies that an individual has a special effect on other which commands their respect, admiration or affection and causes them to follow him. In other words, leadership consists of getting a positive response from others and utilizing that response to bring about a desired attitudes or course of action. This implies a certain amount of assertiveness in the sense that the leader projects some part of his personality or will on others. It does not mean aggression or force, or coercion. Whether the leader influences by personal example, persuasion or empathetic feedback, he wins others over by influencing their willingness to act rather than by forcing their compliance. He strives to become aware of the abilities of his subordinates or associates so that he can guide them only toward which realistically they are capable of attaining". (p. 79).

2.6.1 Dimensions of Leadership

Leadership consists of behaviour, it is behaviour by one member of a group toward another members of the group, which advances some joint aims. Not all organizationally useful behaviour in a work group is leadership; leadership behaviour must be distinguished from the performance of non-interpersonal tasks that advance the goals of the organization. On a common sense basis, then, leadership is organi-
nationally useful behaviour by one member of an organizational family toward another member or members of that same organizational family.

Defined in this manner, leadership amounts to a large aggregation or separate behaviours, which may be grouped or classified in a great variety of ways. Several classification systems from previous research have achieved considerable prominence and are described as:

2.6.2 Ohio State Leadership Studies

In 1945, the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University undertook the construction of an instrument for describing leadership. From extended conversations and discussion among staff members who represented various disciplines, a list of nine dimensions or categories of leadership behaviour were postulated. Descriptive statements were then written and assigned to one or another of the nine dimensions, and after further refinement, 150 of these were selected as representing these nine dimensions and were incorporated into the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire.

Two factor analyses attempt to simplify its conceptual framework further. Hemphill and Coons intercorrelated and factor analyses group mean scores for 11 dimensions for a sample composed largely of educational groups, and obtained three orthogonal factors.
(1) **Maintenance of Membership Character**

Behaviour of a leader which allows him to be considered as 'good fellow' by his subordinates; behaviour which is socially agreeable to group members.

(2) **Objective Attainment Behaviour**

Behaviour related to the output of the group; for example, taking positive action in establishing goals or objectives, structuring group activities in a way that members may work toward an objective, or serving as a representative of group accomplishment in relation to outside groups, agencies, forces and so on.

(3) **Group Interaction Facilitation Behaviour**

Behaviour that structures communication among group members, encouraging pleasant group atmosphere and reducing conflict among members.

Halpin and Winer\(^1\) made an analysis using data collected from air force crews, revising the original measuring instrument to adopt it to the respondent group. Only 150 items were used, with appropriate rewarding, and the number of dimensions was reduced to eight. Treatment of the data indicated that five of eight were sufficient for describing the entire roster, and the correlation of the 180 items with these five dimensions was regarded as a matrix of oblique factor loadings. These item loadings were then factor ana-
lyzed and the results rotated, producing four orthogonal factors.

(1) **Consideration**

Behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth.

(2) **Initiating Structure**

Behaviour that organizes and defines relationship or roles, and establishes well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and ways of getting jobs done.

(3) **Production Emphasis**

Behaviour which makes up a manner of motivating the group to the greater activity by emphasizing the mission or job to be done.

(4) **Sensitivity (Social Awareness)**

Sensitivity of the leader to, and his awareness of social interrelationships and pressure inside or outside the group.

The Halpin and Winer analysis has been the more widely known and used. Because the investigators dropped the third and fourth factors as accounting for too little common variance, 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' have become to some extent identified as "The Ohio State" dimensions of leadership.
2.6.3 Survey Research Centre Studies

Concurrent with the Ohio State studies was a similar programme of research in human relations at the University of Michigan Survey Research Centre. Approaching the problem of leadership or supervisory style by locating clusters of characteristics which (1) correlated positively among themselves and (2) correlated with criteria of effectiveness. This programme developed two concepts called 'employee orientation' and 'production orientation' (Katz, Maccoby and Morse, 1956).

Employee orientation is described as behaviour by supervisor, which indicates that he feels that the 'human relations' aspect of the job is quite important, and that he considers the employee as human beings of intrinsic importance, takes an interest in them, and accepts their individuality and personal needs. Production orientation stresses production and the technical aspects of the job, with employees as means for getting work done; it seems to combine the Ohio State dimensions of initiating structure and production emphasis.

Katz and Khan (1951), writing from a greater accumulation of findings, presented another conceptual scheme, with four dimensions of leadership.

(1) Differentiation of Supervisory Role

Behaviour by a leader that reflects greater emphasis
upon activities of planning and performing specialized skilled tasks, spending a greater proportion of time in actual supervision rather than performing the men's own tasks himself or absorption in impersonal paper work.

(2) **Closeness of Supervision**

Behaviour that delegates authority, checks upon subordinates less frequently, provides more general, less frequent instruction about the work, makes greater allowance for individuals to perform in their own ways and at their own paces.

(3) **Employee Orientation**

Behaviour that gives major emphasis to a supportive personal relationship, and that reflects a personal interest in subordinates; being more understanding, less punitive, easy to talk to, and willing to help groom employees for advancement.

(4) **Group Relationships**

Behaviour by the leader that results in group cohesiveness, pride by subordinates in their work group, a feeling of membership in the group, and mutual help on the part of those subordinates.

Differentiation of supervisory role corresponds in part to what the Ohio State studies refer to as initiating
structure or objective attainment behaviour, and clearly
derives from the earlier concept of production orientation.
Closeness of supervision, on the other hand, has something
in common with maintenance of membership character, consid-
eration and employee orientation, but also with objective
attainment behaviour, initiating structure and production
orientation. Employee orientation clearly corresponds to
the earlier concept by the same name, while group relationships
is to some extent similar to the interaction facilita-
tion behaviour and social sensitivity of the Ohio State
studies.

In still another conceptualization, combining theory
with review of empirical data, Khan (1958) postulated four
supervisory functions.

(1) Providing Direct Need Satisfaction

Behaviour by a leader not conditional upon behaviour
of the employee, which provides direct satisfaction of the
employee's ego and affiliative needs.

(2) Structuring the Path to Goal Attainment

Behaviour of the subordinates toward feeling personal
needs through attaining organizational goals.

(3) Enabling Goal Achievement

Behaviour that removes barriers to goal attainment.
(4) **Modifying Employee Goals**

Behaviour that influences the actual personal goals of subordinates in organizationally useful directions.

Direct needs satisfaction clearly resembles consideration and employee orientation, enabling goal achievement seems similar to initiating structure or objective attainment behaviour; structuring the path to goal attainment and modifying employee goals are probably closer to the Ohio State production emphasis factor.

2.6.4 **Studies at the Research Centre for Group Dynamics**

Cartwright and Zender (1969), at the Research Centre, for group dynamics, on the basis of accumulated findings, described leadership in terms of two sets of group functions.

(1) **Group Maintenance Functions**

Behaviour that keeps interpersonal relations pleasant, resolves disputes, provides encouragement, gives the minority a chance to be heard, stimulating self-direction, and increases interdependence among members.

(2) **Goal Achievement Functions**

Behaviour that initiates actions, keeps member's attention on the goal, develops a procedural plan, evaluates the quality of work done and make expert information available.

These descriptive terms clearly refer to broader constructs than consideration or initiating structure.
Group maintenance functions, for example, include what has been termed consideration, maintenance of membership, character, or employee orientation, but they also include functions concerned with relationships among group members not in formal authority positions. This concept is in some ways similar to group interaction facilitation behaviour in the Ohio State factor analysis of Henphill and Coons. Goal achievement functions seem to encompass what the Ohio State studies referred to as initiating structure and production emphasis or objective attainment behaviour and what early Survey Research Centre studies called production orientation.

2.6.5 Likert's New Pattern of Management

Rensis Likert of the University of Michigan Institute for Social Research (1961), building upon many of the findings of the Survey Research Centre and the Research Centre for Group Dynamics as well as upon his own early work in the same area for the Life Insurance Agency Management Association, describes five conditions for effective supervisory behaviour.

(1) Principle of Supportive Relations

The leadership and other processes of the organization should be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in his interactions and his relationships with the organization, each member will, in the light of his background, values
and expectations, view the experience as supportive, and as one that builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.

(2) Group Methods of Supervision

Management will make full use of the potential capacities of its human resources only when each person in an organization, is a member of one or more effectively functioning work groups that have a high degree of group loyalty, effective skills of interaction and high performance goals.

(3) High Performance Goals

If a high level of performance is to be achieved, it appears to be necessary for a supervisor to be employee-centered, and at the same time to have high performance goals and a contagious enthusiasm as to the importance of achieving these goals.

(4) Technical Knowledge

The effective leader has adequate competence to handle the technical problems faced by his group, or he sees that access to this technical knowledge is fully provided.

(5) Co-ordinating, Scheduling, Planning

The leader fully reflects and effectively represents the views, goals, values and decision of his group in those
other groups where he is performing the function of linking his group to the rest of the organization. He brings to the group of which he is the leader the views, goals, and decision of those other groups. In this way he provides a linkage whereby communication and the exercise of influence can be performed in both directions.

2.7 Morale

Previously, the term 'morale' was referred to the satisfaction in performance of any organization. The study of morale is aimed to find out the ways to earn more production in the business and industry. It is called theory of performance and satisfaction. The researchers like Crockett, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, Campbell, Vroom, Scott, Davis etc., proposed many models of 'satisfaction and performance'. The variables concerned with the job satisfaction like motivation, reward, punishment, salary, benefit and so on were also studied by many scholars and the domain of research in morale then spread to other field of organization.

Halpin and Croft (1963) used the word 'esprit' in their OCDQ instrument to determine the morale of organization as well as the business and other organizations.

In the year 1970, Bentley and Rampel constructed PTQ instrument to assess the morale of individual and group in
organization. This instrument is adopted in the present study.

However, this section is an attempt to clarify and explain the term 'morale' for the present study.

2.7.1 Concept of Morale

Morale is a complex concept. It is related to individual as well as group. It is also a related rather than absolute concept. It connotes predisposition, attitude, feeling of belongingness, identification or ego involvement in one's job, satisfaction and maximum adjustment.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines the term 'morale' as prevailing mood and spirit conducive to willing and dependable performance, steady self-control and courageous, determined conduct despite danger and privations, based upon a conviction of being in the right and on the way to success.

For Shillard,23 'morale' refers to series of attitudes that influences one towards a given situation.

Blum (1949) defines 'morale' as a group phenomenon with four components: (1) group solidarity, (2) group goal, (3) observable process towards the goal, and (4) individual's participation in reaching the goal.
American Association of School Administrators describes 'morale' from an administrative point of view that, a disposition on the part of persons to behave in ways which contribute to the fulfilment of purpose of the enterprise. The details of description can be quoted as:

"Morale is a disposition on the part of the persons engaged in an enterprise to behave in ways which the enterprise exists for. When this position is strong, morale is said to be high. It manifests itself in a tendency to subordinate personal consideration to the purpose of the enterprise, to work as a member of the team for the accomplishment of common goals and to satisfaction from achievements of the organizations. When the position towards the achievement of the common purposes is weak, morale is said to be low. Low morale is characterised by behaviour that is obstructive or non-contributory to the common purposes, by failure to derive personal satisfaction from group achievement and by a tendency to elevate personal interest above the purposes of the enterprise". (1935, p. 16).

Getzels and Guba\textsuperscript{24} : 'morale' means triangular approach; (1) belongingness, (2) identification, and (3) relationability for goal achievement.

Keith\textsuperscript{25} : 'morale' is the attribute of the individuals and groups toward their work environment and toward voluntary
co-operation to the fullest extent of their ability to the
best interest of organization.

Guba defines the 'morale' as a predisposition to
exert extra effort to carry out institutional tasks. In the
same year Vance (1958) says that 'morale' is the prevailing
mood or spirit which is conducive to willing and dependable
performance tasks requisite to the attainment or organiza-
tional objectives.

Moreover, Yoder, Haneman, Turhbull and Stone give
the concept of 'morale' that, morale is sometime used to
describe the degree of frustration felt by the group of
employees. Harrell (1958) defines 'morale' as the combina-
tion of attitude toward job, company and immediate superior.

In the year 1959, Yoder defines the 'morale' in his
book, "Personal Management and Industrial Relation" that
morale is an overall 'tone' or 'climate' vaguely sensed
among the members of a group, society and association.

For Burtt, 'morale' is a tendency to work enthusiastically for a common purpose.

For Guion, extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives the satisfaction stemming from his total job situation.

Stogdill gives the meaning of 'morale' that, the
degree of freedom from restraint exhibited by a group in working hard towards a goal objective.

Kay and Palmer[^31] give a compact word to define the term 'morale' that morale is the general enthusiasm of a group, it's esprit-de-corps.

Monroe (1969) gives one word definition of mental hygiene as morale where personal relationship is the pivot for mental health.

Lane and his group[^32] describe the term 'morale' that, morale is composed of a complex of factors, which range from satisfaction with the material and the non-material aspects of the job and with interpersonal relations, to specific work behaviours, such as efficiency, productivity and dependability of workers. However, underlying all of these are vitality and enthusiasm for the task, which are fundamental of morale. The level of this vitality and enthusiasm is strongly dependent upon the degree of meaning that a man finds in his work, the extent to which he contributes to, and identifies with, a goal of his job.

For Cleugh[^33], morale can be described in terms of the congruence between individual's perception of himself and what he would wish himself to be. It can be high in certain fields and low in others. He says that good morale is important not only because it is conducive to more and better work and learning.
For Caplow (1970), morale is satisfaction with an organization, not with life in general. An organization has high morale when most of its members (1) accept its goal, (2) obey its important rules and (3) continue to participate in its programmes. These conditions are favourable to the happiness of the participating individuals.

However, a persisting belief is that if an individual is satisfied or his morale is high, then his performance will be higher than that of an individual who is unsatisfied or whose morale is low (Scott, 1973). Hence the central concept of morale is identification of the personnel of an organization with its goal or goals. Such an identification generates in individuals with remarkable energy to move wholeheartedly towards the targets on goals set to the group for achievement.

Again, for the meaning of 'morale', psychologists and social scientists have been interested for long in the study of the worker's effectiveness and its improvement. They have come to the conclusion that the worker's disposition or attitude towards his job determines his productivity as well as production. They have called it 'morale' or the indicator of the 'level of aspiration' of the individual. Morale is considered an important dimension in the description of groups. "Morale has come to be regarded as the prime requisite for an efficient and effective organization."
in education as well as in business. Many definitions of morale, a few of which are the following:

According to Tead, morale is the group's awareness of itself as a working entity, and imposition "by itself on itself those standards of individual and group behaviour which it finds necessary to improve in the interests of group effectiveness in carrying on its work."

For Zeleny, morale is the shared feeling of "likes" among members of a group.

Tiffin regards attitudes and morals closely related because "the productivity of a man is determined very largely by the way he feels about his job, and his attitude toward the company that employs him."

According to Kreeh and Crutchfield, "Morale refers to the level of group functioning, the unity and solidarity of the group, its esprit de corps."

Staff Relations in School Administration, "from the viewpoint of administration, morale is a disposition on the part of persons engaged in an enterprise to behave in ways which contribute to the purposes for which the enterprise exists."

Wiles says, "Morale is the emotional and mental reaction of a person to his job."
Morale is, in nut shell, the general attitude or outlook of an individual or a group toward a specific situation ... Morale may very seriously affect both wellbeing and performance, and is closely related to what is called "esprit de corps".

From these and other similar definitions it may be concluded that:

1. Morale is -
   (1) an individual's general emotional and mental disposition, or attitude and feeling, towards his job or any other specific situation,
   (2) the mainspring of an individual's behaviour towards his fellow-workers and the organization or institution of which he is a part,
   (3) the prompter of efforts and pursuits for the realisation of group goals,
   (4) the determinant of the individual's productivity and production,
   (5) the promoter of the health and well-being of the individual and the group.

2.7.2 Teacher Morale

Morale is subjective and individual. It consists of feelings that the members have about their work, and there-
fore, it is difficult to measure and easy to ignore; however, the head of the institution cannot afford to ignore it. When teachers are enthusiastic, their morale is high and when they are disheartened, their morale is low. Outward behaviour of teachers gives little evidence of how they feel inwardly about the school.

Morale is not a permanent feature of individuals. It changes from time to time. It changes according to the changed circumstances in a situation as a whole. So morale is collective as well as individual. A principal cannot satisfy every need of every teacher and there is bound to be little dissatisfaction among the teachers.

Staff morale is a significant responsibility that rests mainly in the hands of the principal. It depends on the relationships developed comparatively by the principal with his staff.

2.7.3 Characteristics of Teachers with High Morale

Generally speaking, high morale is found in people who are secure, unafraid, productive and loyal. Teachers are co-operative. They are eager to get on with their work, to take part in the staff meetings, or to do some little extra chore for some one in the staff. They are constantly improving themselves, their methods, and their knowledge, through a variety of means. They initiate studies, look
for problems that need solutions, design experiments in methodology and use reports on educational research.

In schools in which faculty morale is high, teachers make excellent use of all the auxiliary service because they know the process of instruction is thereby enriched. They all encounter with principals and supervisors and constantly approach them for ideas on improvement.

2.7.4 **Characteristics of Teachers with Low Morale**

Teachers with low morale are normally those that tend to be absent from work, committee meeting, faculty meeting, appointments with staff members.

They are frequently out of the building during free periods, and late with corrections, and the distribution of grade given by them are either too high or too low. They are frustrated and hostile towards the school-working class time, and do not prepare and place their work. They have a general negative teacher reaction and constantly criticise colleagues or supervisors. They make, unfavourable comments on school and community and avoid meetings or keep silence at them. They have personal problems and show a lack of personal responsibility for property, duties etc.

2.7.5 **Factors Affecting the Teacher's Morale**

Clough (1976) describes about factors affecting the
teacher's morale that, there are some of the factors that appear to be relevant in considering the state of teacher morale at any one time, they are:

1. Public Esteem: How far teachers, as teachers, are respected by the general public.

2. Salaries: To some extent repeated salary claims are not only for money but also for a higher place in public esteem. Money is regarded as yardstick of this, and where salaries are low, they are resented not only in themselves, but as a sign that the general status of teachers is not as high as teacher would wish.

3. The way in which the total amount available (high or low) is allocated. Graded posts are a fruitful source of controversy, arguments and jealousies. There is evidence that they increase mobility between schools beyond the optimum, as teachers move from school to school in search of high allowance, and staffing instability results.

4. Wastage: The very high figures that are sometimes quoted in press articles may overstate the position, since many of the women who leave to raise a family will return to teaching later, and movement to other posts in the educational service (e.g., to administration) is included as wastage but when these points are allowed for the number of those who start teaching
and then give it up can be regarded as an index of job satisfaction.

5. Staff Turnover: Schools in some districts are notoriously more difficult to staff than others, but in 'good' districts some schools have a constantly changing staff.

6. Staff Absence: Happy people tend to be less ill than unhappy one and when they are ill, are more likely to make the effort to turn up at work. If very large schools, for example, were found to have higher absence rates than smaller ones, it could be an important index of teacher morale there.

7. Early Retirement: The number of those who retire as early as they can and sooner than must is a sign of weak morale.

8. The Growing Complexity of Schools: It means a greatly increased burden of administration. It has been said, "If you double in size of a school, you quadruple the administration". The time table becomes immensely complicated and the cumbersome structure tends to be unwieldy and not easily adaptable to meet necessary changes.

9. As schools become more impersonal, it becomes less easy for teachers to see the effectiveness of their work. When it is harder to see who is responsible for
what, the less conscientious can get by, the more conscientious resent this, and the able become dis-couraged.

10. With earlier maturity on average resentment as popu-lace grows and children become more difficult to con-trol, so that more time is spent by the teacher in setting disturbance, with all round dissatisfaction among both teacher and children.

11. Condition in schools have improved considerably over the last 20 years. Buildings are better, much more money is spent on equipment, and more technical help is available to look after it. Teachers work in more pleasant physical surroundings than they used to do.

Wick and Begg37 in "Evaluation for Decision Making in Schools" point out, while discussing the importance of decision making, the factors, such as given below, affecting staff morale, staff attitude and staff relationship.

1. Work Environment and Morale: If the work environment includes interpersonal relationship with other teachers and with administrators, then interpersonal relationship affects morale; factors associated with morale are adequate equipment and supplies, physical facili-ties and salary.

2. Teacher Characteristics and Morale: A potential source of job satisfaction, freedom to plan ones' own
work, desire for professional status, working with teacher - who had a professional attitude and high work standards are the factors affecting morale.

3. Decision-Making; expectation and Morale: Teacher morale would be higher if the teachers knew who is responsible for making decisions. Also if they are able to influence at least the decision which legitimately belong within his sphere of responsibility.

4. Curriculum Development and Morale: Teacher morale is related to staff judgements of the success of curriculum development programme. The programme are successful where the relationship with the superior and teachers are good. Hence it is the principals who fosters high morale. However, the high degree of satisfaction is not conducive in bringing out changes in the programme.

5. Student-Teacher Relationship and Morale: No amount of pleasant colleagues relation, good working condition, high salary or decision making could really boost up the morale of teachers unless they are interested in and satisfied with the age group of students they teach.

6. Salary and Morale: A poor salary can lead to job satisfaction but a good salary does not necessarily lead to job satisfaction.
7. Performance and Morale: The greatest significance to job-satisfaction and morale is that of its relationship of job performance. The administrator should insure that his best teachers are the most satisfied teachers and thus maximising the relationship between satisfaction and productivity, because performance is the function of interaction between reward system and the individual expectations for reward for superior work.

Unruh has described some factors affecting morale as follows:

1. Social Climate: It influences morale because teachers are affected by social interaction. If this interaction is intellectually and culturally high the morale will be high. Teachers who are active in organization often have high morale than those who are inactive. Isolation is an important factor involving morale.

2. Economic Factor: As the teacher grows older, economic security becomes more important. If this security is threatened or affected, his morale gets lowered down.

3. Intellectual Factor: For teachers the intellectual basis for morale is highly important. Most teachers value a satisfying intellectual climate.

4. Poor Leadership: It depresses the morale of the
professional groups like teachers very much.

5. Working Conditions: If the school schedule and job utilize so much of a teacher's working hours that he has little or not time for cultural pursuits or recreation, his morale will sag. Inadequate instructional supplies, aids and equipment, clerical work, extra assignments and routine chores day-after-day also bring the morale down.

Bentley and Rempel concluded 10 factors that may affect the teacher morale. They are:

1. Teacher rapport with the principal
2. Satisfaction with teaching
3. Rapport among teachers
4. Teacher salary
5. Teacher load
6. Curriculum issues
7. Teacher status
8. Community support of education
9. School facilities and services
10. Community pressure

2.7.6 Measurement of Morale

Morale is still an imprecise although highly important term. Some authorities consider morale to be the emotional and mental reaction of a person to his job. It may best be
conceived of as a continuous variable. The level of morale is then determined by the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied, and the extent to which the individual perceives satisfaction as coming from the total job situation. High morale is evident when there is interest in and enthusiasm for the job. What is important in morale is what the person believes and feels, rather than the conditions that may exist as perceived by the others.

Bentley and Rampel (1970) define the term 'morale' as professional interest and enthusiasm that a person display toward the achievement of individual and group goals in a given job situation.

This definition recognizes the satisfaction of both individual and group needs and these effective harmonization as a basis for morale. Given a certain task to be accomplished by the group, morale pertains to the factors in the individual's life that bring about a hopeful and energetic participation on his part so that his efforts enhance the effectiveness of the group in accomplishing the task at hand.

Many different instruments and devices to measure morale and job satisfaction have been developed. Some supposedly, have general application to many kinds of jobs; others have been prepared appropriate to a particular occu-
pation, e.g. nursing, rail road work, governmental employment etc. A few scales have been developed and designed more specifically to measure teacher morale, but they have had limited use since they seem to have unknown validity and reliability.

In general, two basic approaches have been used. In one approach, the individual estimates his own morale or job satisfaction. This was the technique used by Hoppock in his comprehensive study of job satisfaction of teachers in 1935.

The other approach consists of asking the individual to make qualitative judgements and express his feelings about himself or herself and things in his/her environment that may be related to his/her morale. These responses are appropriately weighted and qualified so that, a total score or index can be assigned. It was this approach that was used in the present study.

2.8 Motivation

As a living person in active relation to an environment, the child responds to stimulation with various amounts of energy, makes certain products, shows various skills and knowledge and functions at certain levels in comparison with other, similar persons. For scientific purposes, it is often helpful to make a distinction between these aspects
of his being by dividing them into content, level and motivation. "If we think of the person for the moment as comparable to a machine manufacturing a product, we can think of motivation as the fuel or energy that goes into the machine to make it run, content as the product made by the machine out of the materials fed into it, and level as the quality of the product". A machine for making cans might be motivated by electricity or gas, might produce cans from tin or iron, and might produce cans of poorer quality than another machine of later design.

For persons, content means the retained experience, including both skills and knowledge, of the person and whatever products result from his action. He draws a house or a barn, spells one word or another, reads a novel or a textbook on physics, produces a play or an opera, speaks English or French, plays cricket or baseball, etc. In measuring content, concern is essentially with the results of his achievement or the products of his activity. Products vary with the culture or environment; i.e. if the child grows up in France he speaks French, if in England he speaks English.

By level is meant the quality or attitude of performance of the person. An expert in any area can turn out products at a high level in comparison with a novice; an older child generally performs better than a younger child. A child with special ability performs better than children
without it on a task related to that activity.

By motivation is meant the activity, drive, or energy manifested by the person. A person of high level will not produce in a given situation unless he is motivated. Motivation is measured by placing persons of the same levels in contact with particular contents, materials, and facilities. In general, motivation is also concerned with what is done over a period of time & may involve what is done against pressure or resistance. Content usually can be measured quite directly; level & motivation is usually measured indirectly.

"Motivation" is an umbrella term having a wide variety of connotations and denotations. On the one hand, the classroom teacher sees motivation as the characteristic that makes the "good" student learn; the "lazy" student is said by the teacher to be unmotivated. On the other hand, the psychologist gives motivation a much broader meaning; it refers to the processes involved in the arousing, directing, and sustaining of behaviour.

Both conceptions have their usefulness. The teacher has an implicit idea of what a good student is like and tries to develop these qualities in the classroom - tries to motivate the class. The problem is that different teachers have different ideas of what a good (that is, motivated) student is, ranging from a highly active, challenging, and curious student to an obedient, well-mannered, and com-
and curious student to an obedient, well-mannered, and compliant one.

The psychologist's definition will be used because most of the research on motivation has been set within the context of this definition - the arousal, direction, and sustaining of behaviour. Five points about motivation need to be emphasized. 41

1. Motivation is a hypothetical construct that is inferred from a person's behaviour in a particular environment. Motivation cannot be measured directly as explained earlier.

2. The concept of motivation should not be overused as an explanatory device. What is inferred as a person's motivation does not explain the person's behaviour that allowed one to make the inference in the first place. The concept of motivation is nonetheless useful because it does help us to make more accurate predictions about future behaviours of a person or group.

3. Motivation is one of many constructs presumably affecting a person's behaviour.

4. Motivation, as defined here, concerns many processes that are perhaps related. No current theory or research covers and integrates all the concepts that have been proposed under the umbrella term of "motivation". 41
5. **Motivation in education necessarily leads us to questions about values.** Social motives based upon respect for authority, interpersonal motivation based upon competition and a system of incentives for the best competitors, and intrinsic motives that emphasize personal autonomy and self-reliance are three kinds of classroom motivational environments.

2.9 **Achievement Motivation**

McClelland et al.\(^4\) initiated research into a motive called "need for achievement" that has blossomed into a complex and sophisticated movement covering a wide variety of issues.

Achievement motivation refers to a pattern of actions and feelings connected to striving to achieve some internalized standard of excellence in performance.\(^5\)

Revelle and Michaels\(^6\) point out that achievement motivation can be seen as a special case of the inertial tendency postulate, but research has not been carried out to verify this observation.

Achievement-oriented behaviour is seen to be a function of a number of factors including the motive to succeed, the motive to avoid failure, the perceived probability of success, and the incentive value of success. Of key interest
to educators are the practical attempts to increase achievement orientation in students - an early interest of McClelland and one continued by his followers. The crux of the method is to use a variety of techniques including games, group meetings, and public incentives in order to encourage independence, acceptance of personal responsibility for one's own behaviour, and the acceptance of goals that require moderate risk taking for achievement, careful planning, and entrepreneurial activities.

2.10 Practical Implications

From the above discussion, the following implications regarding motivation can be arrived at:

1. Children are differently motivated. What works with one student may not work with another.

2. Students are more likely to work without extensive supervision if they have an internal locus of control - if they see themselves as responsible for their own behaviour.

3. Teachers should lead students to attribute successful performance to ability, or, if relevant, to long-term effort. However, teacher educators should lead teachers to see that external socio-economic factors are not under the students' control.
4. Competitive learning situations compared to co-operative learning situations increase self-punitive reactions to failure and greater self-esteem after success. Care has to be exercised in dealing with competitive learning situations, especially when involving less able students.

5. Efforts to make children feel that they are the origins of their own behaviour and not simply pawns pushed by external forces can be fruitful. This can be done by establishing a classroom climate in which initiative is encouraged, and children are taught to reflect on their feelings when presented with a challenge, to take moderate risks, and to be independent.

6. Getting rid of anxiety in the classroom may make students feel more at ease but is not likely to improve academic performance. Mild anxiety levels may enhance learning, but teachers must be aware that high anxiety is counterproductive. If a student is highly anxious, careful structuring of the class climate can help. Let the student know what is required in the short term. Don't emphasize the long term.

7. For humanitarian reasons teachers should try to enhance the way students see themselves. The self-concept, however, is a complex construct and self-concept scores typically have a low correlation with
student performance.

8. Curiosity in the classroom requires the presence of novel stimuli. Teachers who want their students to be curious have to give students the privilege of exploring. This can only happen when the teacher morale at his highest pitch and the leadership behaviour of the principal shows high consideration and high initiating structures.

2.11 Conclusion

Hamachek wrote a monograph which included a great deal of practical advice which are linked to ways of structuring children's learning. The ultimate aim of educational institute is effective and permanent learning which modifies the behaviour of the pupils. Behaviour modification through learning is a joint or interactive product of various variables of student's motivation, teacher's morale, school climate and leadership behaviour of the principal. It is the tacit assumption of the present investigator that these variables interact with each other and produce a lasting impact upon the student's achievement.
2.12 References


3. Ibid., p. 4.


