CHAPTER – II

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
CHAPTER – II
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The present study is an attempt to measure the professionalism in relation to emotional intelligence, locus of control and organizational climate. These concepts have been discussed in this chapter. The theoretical concepts and their relative significance have been continuously and consistently kept in mind throughout the study. Not to get tangled in the theoretical mesh, an effort has been made to remain concise and to the point without sacrificing the details whenever necessary.

2.1 HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF PROFESSIONALISM

In the 19th and early 20th centuries, professionalism developed in concern with the increasing division of labour and rationalization characteristic of industrializing Europe and the United States as competitors in market economies, occupational incumbents sought to professionalize to improve their status. In addition, they wanted better economic positions by securing occupational riches for their services (Ritzer and Walczak, 1986). In the United States, universities have played the key role of transferring both the technical know how and the culture of professionalism to new generations of professional aspirants (Bledstein, 1976).

Professionalisation of a job brings higher income, higher prestige, greater job autonomy and higher job satisfaction. Professionalization describes the process of consolidation of diverse practitioners under a set of homogeneous norms or rules, including the emergence of standards of certification, credentialization, ethics, the development of self-governing associations and the pursuit of legal recognition and protection (Dictionary of Social Sciences, 2002).
There are two basic approaches to the study of profession:-

(1) The Trait Approach: According to trait approach, the professionals are experts with abstract knowledge and skills, autonomy on jobs, code of ethics, authority over clients, altruistic and the public must recognize the occupation as profession.

(2) The Power Approach: The power theorists viewed the professions as monopolistic organizations intent on gaining and retaining professional control and ensuring their status in the stratification system. Professional incumbents create the myth of service orientation to gain public goodwill, enhance their status and minimize external control. Further, the power theorists state that the occupational characteristics of indeterminacy and uncertainty (Ritzer and Walczak, 1986) enables the professions to wield power.

The professions that have achieved and maintained power are those whose tasks cannot be broken down or otherwise routinized (indeterminacy). Similarly those that deal with areas of uncertainty are also likely to preserve their power.

Numerous studies have suggested that teacher job satisfaction and motivation affect their work performance. Maslow’s (1943) Human Need Theory, McGregor’s (1943) Theory X and Theory Y; Oldham and Hackman (1981) Job Design Theory and the movement of “Quality of work life” (Cammann et al. 1983) are all concerned with peoples job satisfaction and motivation and assume that these job attitudes are a determining factor of their performance.

For individual teachers, professionalism seems to be a kind of personal belief or cognitive and ethical orientation, potentially influencing their own affective performance and professional attitudes. At the school level professionalism among teachers may be a collective ethical force that can socialize new members and reinforce the personal behaviour of both new and old members. The current emphasis on
contribution of teachers professionalism to education quality in school is often based on the assumption that the existing positive and normative function of professionalism positively influences teacher performance. (Darling-Hammond 1988; Devaney and Sykes, 1988).

The traditional sociological approach is to delineate key traits of a professional occupation, largely based upon law and medicine (Parsons, 1954; Leggatt, 1970). It is argued that such traits include factors such as specialized knowledge base, a strong service ethic and procedure for self regulation embodied in a professional association. Given that the classic professions i.e. law and medicine have been associated with both high status and high pay, other occupations have sought to attain such rewards through a process of professionalization.

Professionalization is a concept denoting issues of occupational status and prestige, it is distinguished in the literature on teaching from the concept of ‘Professionalism’ which refers to teachers responsibilities to control and develop their own knowledge and actions for the benefits of their clients (Helsby & Mc Culloch, 1996). Despite powerful sociological critiques of the trait theory of professionalism (Johnson, 1972) and subsequent arguments that it is not a helpful way in which to conceptualize issues of teacher professionalism (Mc Culloch et al., 2000). The trait theory continues to have inference in terms of policy makers depiction of teaching as an occupation. A uniform notion of teacher professionalism does not exist. There is, however, a more general view which circulates about teacher professionalism, with regard to Teacher Training Agency, Britain. Broadly speaking this more general view of ‘Professional Identity’ is characterized in terms of teachers ‘rational’ capacity to ‘Behave Competently’ in the name of student achievement and social and economic change. This conception tends to be defined in terms of instrumentality of the teacher as reform agent and his/her role
in subverting personal interests (e.g. political concerns, personal wisdom) to accord with objective standards of practise.

Laun (1989) suggests that professionalism has been a ‘key contested term’ in the history of teaching reflecting in part the manner in which the term ‘professional’ has been used in a variety of ways in sociological research.

Carr (1989) writes education is seen as something which serves extrinsic purposes such as national interest, the economic needs of the society or the demands of the labour market. Teaching is portrayed as an unreflective technical process and ‘quality’ as synonymous with meeting prespecified standards through system of supervision, inspection and control. Teaching quality may use rhetoric of professionalism but in reality this amounts to giving teacher a little more than the right to exercise technical discretion. Within this model of teacher professionalism, the liberal discourse most commonly associated with the modern teacher is the rational instrumental actor, many sociologists in education have critiqued. This rational view of teacher professionalism represents one attempt by the State to marginalize egalitarian principles in practice. Similar ideas have been put forward by Lawn and Ozga (1981) suggesting that ‘teacher professionalism’ is used by the State as a potential device which gives the impression of liberation (i.e. collaboration, empowerment) but simultaneously deskills and deprofessionalizes teachers to the point of exploitation.

Socio Cultural Influences and Professionalism

Professionalism has a varying range of characteristics which are often culturally determined. Moreover, because of the status and material advantages generally associated with professionalism many groups of workers make attempt to gain professional status. Accordingly, each will seek to interpret the essential elements of professionalism in
map that favour their own particular circumstances. At the same time there is tendeney for the State to attempt to manage professional workers ideology of professionalism (Ozga, 1992) or to ‘deprofessionalize’ and ‘reprofessionalize’ teachers in a way more conducive to the government’s longer term aims (Barton et al., 1994) had led to further contradictions and tensions in its definition as well as geographical and cultural differences in defining the key characteristics of professionalism, seems clear that the roles of ‘professional groups’ in any given society and their relationship with the State and with the markets are subject to change over time (Larson, 1977 and 1979; Murphy, 1990; Mc Clelland, 1990).

The substance of professional socialization is professionalism which refers to the assimilation of values, norms, goals and expectations associated with professional work. Professionalism reflects the extent to which a person/individual has been socialized to become well adjusted to one’s work role in one’s profession. Professionalism also represents an implicit understanding among professional workers about what constitutes appropriate behaviour at work. Professional workers tend to conform to ‘code of ethics’ in order to gain social acceptance, out of fear of social reprisal and generally to avoid feeling guilty (Blau, 1960). In this sense professionalism serves as a tool of social control that generally approves, constraints or prohibits work behaviours (O’ Reilly, 1989). Professionalism through socialization explains why managers who make it to the top are virtually distinguishable as to their technical orientation and orientation to the organization (Seigel et al., 1997).

Helsby (1995) states that **Professionalism** is visualized as (i) being a professional (ii) behaving professionally. This relates well to distinctions made in literature between ‘professionalisation’ which relates to issues of status, public recognition, conditions of work and ‘professionalism’ which relates to issues of exceptional standards of behaviour, dedication and
strong service ethic, the difference between the ‘cynical’ and ‘naive’ views of professionalism (Lindbland, 1993).

1. **Being professional** is characterized by a number of traits/factors like importance of training, to the knowledge skills displayed by a professional, working in a public sector, offering service to a particular group/client, displaying certain interpersonal skills to instill in clients a feeling of confidence in their special expertise, having antonomy making own decisions, being trusted and responsible for securing the interests of their clients/society.

2. **Behaving professionally**: It is the ‘characteristic’ of professional behaviour. It is characterized as the ability to form relationships with students and to meet individual needs, maintenance of high standards, being involved in job, exhibiting strong commitment, making maximum effort, working to the best of one’s ability, ability to create and manage relationships, working well with colleagues, treating them with respect, showing due consideration and respecting others Professionalism, possessing skilful practice in responding to multiple demands in a complex and changing environment, flexibility, adaptation.

   **Miner (1993) and Miner et al (1994)** proposed 5 types of professional role requirements that capture the essential dimensions of professionalism. These are:

   (1) **Acquiring knowledge**: The essence of professional work requires technical expertise to be developed, transmitted and used in professional service to clients. Accordingly, to perform their work well, professionals must be willing to acquire related knowledge in order to provide expert service. Those who do not want to acquire knowledge or who find doing so distasteful will fall short of others performance expectations.

   (2) **Acting Independently**: Professionals have a personally responsible relationship with clients. It often requires independent action based on
their own best professional judgement. It is necessary to determine what
the best interests of the client are and then to act to serve those
interests, even if the client wants something else. Only in this way will
professional expertise be brought to bear fully. Professionals who find it
difficult to act independently or who are afraid to do so, run the risk that
their special knowledge will not be used, which in turn will affect the
quality of the professional services provided.

(3) Accepting Status: The provision of professional service to clients is
predicated on the client recognition of the professionals expert status.
Professionals must take steps to achieve and retain status in the eyes of
users and potential users of their services. Without this, the services will
simply go unused no matter how effective they might have been.
Consequently professionals, who are embarrassed at promoting
themselves or find such activities distasteful are unlikely to have
successful careers.

(4) Providing Help: The professional client relationship is central to any
professional practice. In that relationship the professional is expected to
assist the client to achieve desired goals or in some instances, what from
professional prospective is in the clients best interests, even if not
consciously desired. As a consequence, a professional often has a strong
motive to help others. In fact, helping is in some form inherent in all
professions.

(5) Exhibiting Professional Commitment: Professional careers are
intended to be of a life long nature. There is a substantial investment in
training over many years. Thus, members need to develop a strong
emotional tie to profession and be committed to it. This is achieved
through value based identification. This professional identification also
serves to keep members responsive to the profession’s ethical norms.
Without such identification, individuals may leave the profession in
search of greater opportunities prior to the time the training investment

33
is recovered and they may also act in ‘unprofessional’ ways perhaps to the point of being expelled from the profession.

*Tyack and Cuban (1995)* have suggested that much of the current focus on professionalism benefits from the empirical research in professionalism over the past decade which has focused on the lives of students and teachers including the ideas that teaching and learning should be behaviour based, that professional values conflicts are important learning opportunity and that changing the formal curriculum might not ultimately change the hidden curriculum.

*CarlGen (1999)* related in her study that professional behaviour is a continuous process and the mark of a professional is the ongoing willingness to analyse and evaluate what they are doing in order to improve.

**Teachers Professionalism**

Teachers work is complex and manifold, so is the meaning of teacher professionalism. Professionalism captures the quality of teachers work. But in as much as the work of teachers is complex and their professional knowledge differentiated, teachers professionalism cannot be reduced to just one thing. Theory and practice is traditionally considered to be a sign of professionalism. Theory is seen as a mirror of reality, a true description which is developed through research. Practice is perceived as applied theory, with good practice based on theory. Theory has to do with research and thinking while practice is acting.

*Niemi (1999)* gives 2 polarized views of ‘Teacher Professionalism’. On the one hand the term has been increasingly used by policy makers to mean an unquestioning compliance with agency directives. This can be seen in the English context where notions of professional teacher have been hijacked by the government to indicate the degree to which teachers accommodate themselves to agendas associated with the drive to raise
standards and 'commercialized professionalism'. These agendas are linked to government directives concerning prior competence required by teachers and mechanisms for school improvement derived from a narrowly conceived ‘school effectiveness’ research tradition (Slee et al., 1998; Whitty, 2002). It is based on discourse of instructional leadership, school based accountability and the measurement of performance indicators in an attempt to raise quality (Ball, 1993; Garman, 1995).

Such a conception of ‘Teacher Professionalism’ implies that teachers cannot be trusted and are therefore like other professionals i.e. doctors in need of surveillance (Quicke, 2000; O’Neill, 2002).

On the other hand Neimi (1999) points to the alternative conception of ‘Teacher Professionalism’ located in traditions of ‘Teacher Empowerment’ (Garman, 1995). This alternative has been embodied in a variety of educational traditions underlying both pre- service and in service teaching (Schons, 1983) and various educational research perspectives (Giroux, 1989; Carr and Kemmis, 1986). This conception of the teaching profession seeks to enhance the status of teacher and to encourage the latter to contribute actively to the promotion of educational reform and wider societal change. According to Web (2004) it implies different orientations from the policy directed view of professionalism to the promotion of professional autonomy rather than unquestioned implementation of government directives and the development of active learning concepts and a deeper understanding of pupil learning rather than a pedagogy based solely on technical skills to perform preordained competences.

These alternative educational traditions underpin some educationalists attempt explicitly to redefine teacher professionalism eg. Nixon et al (1977) delineation of ‘emergent professionalism,’ that emphasize both the need for teacher continuous reflection and learning and the building of alliances by teachers and pupils and parents.
Hargreaves (2000) in paper four ages of professionalism and professional learning conceptualizes the development of teacher professionalism as passing through four historical phases in many countries: The pre-professional age, the age of the autonomous professional, the age of the collegial professional, and the fourth age of post-professional or post-modern. Current experiences and perceptions of teacher professionalism and professionalization, it is argued, draw on all these ages. Conclusions are drawn regarding new directions in teacher professionalism and the linking of professional projects to wider social movements for public education and its transformation. Hargreaves (2000) advocacy of partnership between teacher and wider public and the promotion of various forms of democratic collaboration and professionalism (Quike, 2000; Sachs, 2001; Webb, 2004).

Helsby (1996) has suggested that there is a need to develop a broad concept of continuing professional development which includes going beyond continuing teacher education.

Hanlon (1998) suggests that “Professionalism” is a shifting rather than a concrete phenomenon and defines professionals simply in terms of these groups commonly thought of as professional by the lay public, academics, the professional themselves etc. In doing so he argues that such groups far from being homogeneous as characterized in classical trait theory are beset by internal conflicts most notably between those epousing a traditional ‘social service’ views of professionalism and those adopting a newer ‘commercialized professionalism’; with emphasis upon managerial and financial skills.

Theoretical Framework for Multidimensional Construct of Professionalism

Schon (1991) stated that professionalism is essential to modern society. Jobs which do not have all these characteristics are not generally
regarded as being true professions. It consists of the characteristics below.

1. **Field of Knowledge** displays the characteristics of being specialised, firmly bounded, often scientific in origin and standardized among practitioners.

2. **Techniques of Application of this Knowledge**: Professions are concerned with the practical performance of services to a client. Decisions about implementation are made objectively. Most competent professions think about what they are doing. This results in improved future performance, an increase in understanding, greater ability to cope with uncertainty, the construction of an internalized model which enables the foreseeing of consequences of actions.

![Figure no. 2: The Model of Professionalism by Schon (1991)](image)

2. **Techniques of Application of this Knowledge**: Professions are concerned with the practical performance of services to a client. Decisions about implementation are made objectively. Most competent professions think about what they are doing. This results in improved future performance, an increase in understanding, greater ability to cope with uncertainty, the construction of an internalized model which enables the foreseeing of consequences of actions.
3. Ethics and Attitudes to the Client involve delivering services to the clients to the limits of competence, respects confidence granted them, not to misuse for their own benefit the special powers given to them, to be polite and courteous at all times and usually have a formal dress code.

4. Regulation by and Accountability to Peers: Professionals belong to a professional body as a condition of being in practice. This body can discipline or expel members who are incompetent or unethical.

5. Citizen: Professional view that everyone should try to live by a professional ethic.

Marco (1996) views professionalism as being made of four characteristics and he has named it the 4-P model. The four characteristics are:

1. Proficient: Whatever it is that a professional does, he must do it with deftness and agility, with skill born of long practice.

2. Permanent: The long practice comes from the permanence of the professionals calling.

3. Professing: There must be some act of involvement by which the professional declares his intention to be, now and forever, a part of one chosen calling. The act may be a public ceremony or it may be a simple, private resolution of the form: <name of profession> EQUALS ME.

4. Promise-Keeping: Professions make certain promises to themselves (sometimes to the public at large) about what they will and won’t do. Professionals keep those promises.
Mc Ber (2000) provided a framework to describe effective teaching. This research was commissioned by Department for Education and Employment. Mc Ber (2000) in his teacher effectiveness model reported three main factors within teachers control that significantly influence pupil progress: (i) teaching skills (ii) professional characteristics (iii) classroom climate. The three factors are different in nature. The factors teaching skills and professional characteristics are factors which relate what a teacher brings to a job. Classroom climate is an output measure. All competent teachers know their subjects. They know the appropriate teaching methods for their subjects and curriculum areas and the ways pupils learn. More effective teachers make the most of their professional knowledge in two linked ways. One is the extent to which they deploy appropriate teaching skills consistently and effectively in course of all their lessons – The sorts of teaching strategies and techniques that can be observed when they are at work in the classroom. The other is the range and intensity of the professional characteristics they exhibit – ongoing patterns of behavior which make them effective.
Professional characteristics can be assessed and good teaching practice can be observed. Classroom climate provides another tool for measuring the impact created by a combination of the teachers skills, knowledge and professional characteristics. Taken in combination these three factors provide valuable tools for effective teaching. Further more, the professional characteristics were defined as deep-seated patterns of behaviour which outstanding teachers display more often, in more circumstances and to a greater degree of intensity than in effective colleagues. McBer (2000) proposed model for professionalism as shown in figure no. 4.

**Figure no. 4: The Model of Professional Characteristics McBer (2000)**

*McBer (2000)* concluded that effective teachers use their knowledge and behaviours to create effective learning environments in their classrooms.

*Boyask et al (2002)* have given the model of ‘the Involved Professionalism’. The model of involved professionalism prioritizes the sociality of decision making, knowledge and learning for professional
development. Professional development can be understood as the outcome of engagements in social situations, whether these are in the environment of professional practice, within professional learning, communities or interactions between professional and other communities. In summary, involved professionalism ties together knowledge, individual responsibility, collective responsibility and responsiveness to society. The ‘Involved Professional’ displays following characteristics of professionalism:

- Learning to learn with others and to see learning as a multi-disciplinary and social activity.
- Learning to form and maintain effective professional relationships across discipline.
- Developing a professional self-concept and identification with professional communities.
- Develop ability and willingness to engage with professional knowledge products.
- Develop ability and willingness to share responsibility for developing professional context/structures.
- Develop social/ethical sensitivity/consciousness.

The ‘involved professional’ is able to participate in shaping the dynamic professional culture in which he is engaged, informed by professional knowledge which policy makers and managers may not possess. He is aware of the need to work collaboratively with the communities served by the profession. He is responsive to community needs and takes responsibility for socially sensitive and ethical practice on the part of professional and professional bodies. Thoughtful professionals draw on their knowledge and experience to make judgements in complex situations. They draw on the collective skills and knowledge of their communities and take responsibility for the ongoing education and professional development of themselves and others. They seek out and trial theoretical rationales to make sense of their context.
and experience. They do this not simply as individual professional but as part of a professional learning community.

**Figure no. 5: Comparing the different characteristics of Models of Professionalism by Boyask et al., (2002)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>View of learning</th>
<th>Traditional Professionalism</th>
<th>New Professionalism</th>
<th>Involved Professionalism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning is an individual process</td>
<td>Learning is an individual process</td>
<td>Learning is a social process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional activity</td>
<td>Decision making about the nature of professional activity belongs in the hands of professionals</td>
<td>Professional activity needs to be organized by professional managers</td>
<td>Professional activity is a set of relationships between self (professionals) and others (stake holders) and the products of professional practice (i.e. research/theory). This makes up the content of professional practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality measures</td>
<td>Quality is determined by professional knowledge</td>
<td>Competency can be measured through performance criteria</td>
<td>Quality through professional development by intentional engagement and dialogue with the social, historical and ethical context of professional practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizations</td>
<td>Professions are organized according to their own disciplinary measures</td>
<td>Increased specialization and fragmentation enables professions to be organized by generic structures</td>
<td>Professions are organized according to their own disciplinary structures, however open to influence from stake holders and through dialog with related disciplines.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further, Boyask et al (2002) have compared their model of Involved Professionalism with the traditional model and New Model of Professionalism as given in figure no. 5.

Lui, Tang and Ngo (2003) have stated that the concept of professionalism basically describes the values, goals and expectations at work. Professional socialization is the process by which professional workers are instilled professional values and learn about proper work practices. It is a key to understanding the job attitudes and work
behaviours of professional workers. Professional socialization is a new measure of professionalism which has sufficient validity and reliability.

Wear and Kuzewski (2004) have stated their belief that too much of discourse on professionalism is at the levels of values and attitudes and too little at the levels of behaviours of teachers, learners and practitioners. They suggest that ‘the theory of professionalism should be constructed from a dialogue with those we are educating.”

From the ground level to abstract, principle based arguments look optimistic at best and at worst appear to represent wishful thinking on the part of leaders who might have little or no connection to the realities of education and practice.

Ginsberg and Stern (2004) further state that by framing professionalism in terms of behaviours rather than abstractions, we come much closer to a context bound, realistic framework for understanding professional behaviour. They further state that apart from the need to ground the theory of professionalism in the language of learners, one must also look at the discourse on professional assessment. The language often used to define professionalism i.e. altruism, honor, integrity, is so abstract and idealized that it stigmatizes the word professional such that it becomes a dichotomous idea-either one is perfect professional 100% of time, or one fails to be a professional even once and is forever after branded as “unprofessional” (Ginsberg et.al 2000). They have argued for a shift in thinking away from abstractions and “individuals” and towards concrete behaviours, in context, in order to remove this stigma and to provide appropriate feedback and evaluation. Indeed, it is this focus on behaviours that allows researchers to make the assessment of professionalism more practical. They recommend that professionalism assessment must be set in real life contexts where relevant value conflicts exist and where learners can be observed resolving these conflicts.
Wear and Kuczewski (2004) lament the emphasis on the “measurable evaluation of professionalism”, which they feel leads to attempts to test for the untestable. Stern and Ginsberg (2004) propose that creative approaches to assessing professionalism which include portfolios and learners reflections, can teach us a great deal about how learner make sense of the “ubiquitous rhetoric” of professionalism and how they learn to negotiate these competing principles and implications in order to develop a balanced professional stance.

Camp et al., (2004) state that professionalism is a multi dimensional concept. The concept of professionalism encompasses the 3 distinct themes of (i) interpersonal professionalism, (ii) public professionalism and (iii) intra personal professionalism.

Figure no. 6: Model of Professionalism by Camp et al. (2004)

The three themes within 'professionalism' provide a useful framework to guide the conceptualization of professionalism for each professional speciality and in each phase the description of the emerging themes of professionalism are as:

1. **Interpersonal professionalism** encompassed elements of professionalism that refer to prerequisites for effective and adequate contact with students and other professionals e.g. altruism, respect, integrity, service, honor, honesty, compassion, reliability trust, relationships with colleagues, team interpersonal skills, communication skills, leadership, caring, avoiding misuse of power, admit errors in
judgement, take time to complete work, ask help when necessary, participation, response to instruction, tolerance, be sensitive, thoughtful, polite, give information according to level of understanding, be responsive to students, and colleagues age and gender, responsibility, suspension of self interest, benevolence.

(2) **Public professionalism** covers elements of professionalism that relate to the demands society places on profession, it deals with the standards of profession e.g. accountability, submission to ethical moral commitment, excellence, duty self regulation, social contract, justice, high level of expertise, professional conduct, clear professional values, negotiation, understanding history, simplicity, faith in life’s meaning and value use of explicit standards, deliverance of quality professional awareness, technical competence, be knowledgeable, enhancing the welfare of community, protect confidential information, carry out professional responsibilities, fight for and guarantee standards, adherence to guidelines, expert authority, transparent rules, commitment, competence, autonomy and professional associations.

(3) **Intrapersonal professionalism** covers meeting the demands that have to be met to function effectively and adequately in the profession as an individual e.g. life long learning, maturity, morality, value work intrinsically, humility, critique, absence of impairment, good judgement response to stress, flexibility, virtue, deal with uncertainty, critical analysis, not letting personal beliefs influence behaviour, know limits of profession, humanistic values, being well organized, courage, self awareness, temperance.

The concept of professionalism is context dependent. The determinative role of context provides plausible explanation for the variability found in the way the concept of professionalism is defined and described in literature. Depending on the context from which one tries to conceptualize professionalism, constituent elements will differ in the
abstraction level, relevance and importance (Camp, Dassen, Bottema, Grol, 2004).

Teachers professionalism may also be assessed by the extent to which they can subscribe to the code of ethics. It is often believed that when teachers professionalism is based on the code for educational professions, such professionalism can ensure quality education (Code for the education profession of Hong Kong 1990, Llewellyn et al; 1982).

State of Texas Library Service Website (2008) shows that professionalism covers some important areas like following:

**Figure no. 7: The Model of Professionalism by State of Texas Library Service (2008)**

I. **Responsibilities:** The professionals have a:
1. final say of what is accurate about profession.
2. juggle many alternatives.
3. maintain associations which advance the goals of the profession.
4. protest against stereotyping.
5. publish information and research to explain the professions uniqueness.
6. find money to support the profession.

46
7. promote favourite legislation.
8. make sacrifices.
9. control access to knowledge about the profession.
10. develop standards for themselves and their institutions.
11. promote wellbeing of professions member.

II Criteria:
1. Training:- There’s extensive period of training often after a combination of formal education, training apprenticeship, usually in higher educational environment.
2. Intellectualism:- The Intellectual component is dominant.
3. Autonomy:- Professionals have autonomy in their work.
4. Judgement:- Professionals are in a position given their training and education to use their own judgement in determining appropriate approach to clients or customers.
5. Independence:- They can work independently and charge fees or they can be part of an organization.
6. Service:- Their abilities can provide valuable service to society and operate with little or no interest.
7. Dedication:- Professionals are dedicated to service and institution.
8. Pride:- They take pride in quality of their work.

III. Competencies: The following diagram covers this area:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mastery of Theoretical Knowledge</th>
<th>Capacity to solve problems</th>
<th>Application of theoretical knowledge to practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ability to create knowledge as well as express it.</td>
<td>Enthusiasm and commitment to clients.</td>
<td>Commitment to continuous learning about the profession.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IV. **Education:** Becoming professional involves (1) unique training (2) formal education (3) achievement and activity in continuing educational opportunities (4) joining and activity involving oneself in professional associations.

V. **Expectation:** Professionals are (1) expected to establish special relationship with client/patron. (2) have lack of self interest. (3) be involved in all aspects of profession. (4) publicize what the profession ‘does’ and ‘is’.

VI. **Support:** 1. Professions have responsibilities to professionals.
2. Professions create structure of sub-cultures for professionals.
3. Professions involve legal reinforcement for activities of professionals.
4. Professions strive to provide environment of public acceptance.
5. Professions promote ethical practices. 6. Professions define penalties for professionals who work against the practice of profession.

VII. **Issues:** Any professional reading current body of professional literature will encounter discussions, research information. The reality is to answer the question by the size of community, environment, geographical region, structure and administration of the organization involved.

VIII. **Characteristics:** The professionals are expected to exhibit: (1) high degree of generalized and systematic knowledge with theoretical base. (2) primary orientation of professionals is towards public/community interest. (3) Professionals have high degree of self control of behaviour and are governed by the code of ethics. (4) The code of ethics is a statement of values code of the ethics ensures high quality of service, code guarantees competency of membership, honor, integrity, code is direct expression of professions principles of service orientation (5) code emphasizes no personal gain and protection of client/patron. (6) The professional system of rewards is primarily a set of symbols of work achievement. There is a system of testing competence of the members.
2.2 CONCEPT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

On the one hand, Emotional Intelligence is as old as time. But to garner a practical perspective, focus has to be on the development in the 20th century of the concept of EQ.

In the 1920’s the American psychologist Edward Thorndike talked about ‘social intelligence’, he found that social intelligence was a complex of several abilities or complex of an enormous number of specific social habits and attitudes. His references to social intelligence included three elements –

1. The individual’s attitude towards society such as politics, economics, science and values such as honesty.
2. Social knowledge such as being well versed in contemporary issues and general knowledge about society.
3. The individual’s capacity for social adjustment such as interpersonal relations and family bonding.

Thus, Thorndike did refer to emotional aspects of intelligence in his definitions of social intelligence way back in 1920’s.

David Wechsler in 1940 urged that the ‘non – intellective (i.e. affective, self and social factors) of general intelligence’ be included in any complete measurement.

R.W. Leeper in 1948 promoted the idea of ‘emotional thought’ which he believed contributed to ‘logical thought’. Albert Ellis in 1955 began to explore what would become known as Rational Emotive Therapy – a process that involved teaching people to examine their emotions in a logical thoughtful way.

Then in 1983, Howard Gardner at Harvard University wrote about the possibility of “Multiple intelligences”, including what he called ‘intraphysic capacities’ – in essence, an aptitude for introspection and ‘personal intelligence’. The term “Emotional Intelligence” was coined and formally defined by John (Jack) Mayer of the University of New
Hampshire and Peter Salovey of Yale University in 1990. They expanded on Professor Gardner’s concept, settled on the definition of Emotional Intelligence. Peter Salovey and Jack Mayer, who created the term “Emotional Intelligence”, describe it as “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought to understand emotions and emotional meanings, and to reflectively regulate emotions in ways that promote emotional and intellectual growth.

The most significant breakthrough in the history of emotional intelligence took place in 1980, when the American born Israeli psychologist Dr. Reuven Bar-On began to work in this field. In 1985, he contributed the phrase of emotional quotient and developed an instrument which became known as Bar on EQ-i which stands for emotional quotient inventory. He believed that emotional intelligence was made up of a series of overlapping but distinctly different skills and attitudes that could be grouped under five general realms and then subdivided into 15 components. Dr. Reuven Bar-On (1996) defined emotional intelligence “as an array of non-cognitive capabilities and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.” Reuven Bar-On’s emotional intelligence inventory is constituted of basically of 5 basic realms which are further subdivided into 15 different components which have been described as:

1. **The Intrapersonal Realm** concerns ability to know and manage oneself. It has 3 components of (a) self awareness (assertiveness, independence) (b) self regard (c) self actualization.

2. **The Interpersonal Realm** concern people skills, the ability to interact and get along with others. It is composed of 2 components (a) empathy (b) social responsibility.
3. The Adaptability Realm involves the ability to be flexible and realistic and solve a range of problems as they arise. It is composed of 3 components (a) reality testing (b) flexibility (c) problem solving.

4. The Stress Management Realm concerns ability to tolerate stress and control impulses. It has 2 components (a) stress tolerance (b) impulse control.

Figure no. 8 : Model of Emotional Intelligence by Bar-On (1996)

Boyatzis et al., (2000) have given a model of emotional intelligence which is being propagated by the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in organizations (2000), Dr. Goleman is the founder and chairman of the Consortium for research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations, based in the graduate school of applied and professional
psychology at Rutgers University. The consortium seeks to recommend best practices for developing emotional intelligence/competence.

This framework presents 20 competencies that nest in 4 clusters of general emotional abilities. The framework illustrates i.e. that we cannot demonstrate the competencies of trustworthiness and conscientiousness without mastery of the fundamental ability of self-management or competencies of influence, communication, conflict management etc. without a handle on managing relationships.

The 4 major clusters are described as below:-

I. The Self Awareness Cluster – It refers to accurate self assessment and understanding feelings and contains 3 competencies relating to workplace performance:-
   a. Emotional Self Awareness – Reflects the importance of recognizing one’s own feelings and how they affect one’s performance.
   b. Accurate Self Assessment – Self awareness is the key to realizing one’s own strengths and weaknesses. Individuals with accurate self assessment competence are aware of their abilities and limitations, seek out feedback and learn from their mistakes, and know where they need to improve and when to work with others who have complementary strengths.
   c. Self Confidence – Among Supervisors, managers, executives, a high degree of selfconfidence distinguishes the rest from average performers.

II Self Management Cluster – It refers to managing internal states, impulses and resources and has 6 competencies relating workplace performance:-
   a. Emotional self control – It manifests itself largely as the absence of distress and disruptive feelings.
   b. Trustworthiness – It translates into letting others know one’s values and principles, intentions and feelings and acting in ways that are consistent with them.
c. Conscientiousness – It includes being careful, self disciplined and scrupulous in attending to responsibilities.

d. Adaptability – Superior performance in management ranks exhibits this competence.

e. Achievement drive – The competence that drives the success of enterprises. It refers to an optimistic striving to continually improve performance.

f. Initiative – This means taking anticipatory action to avoid problems before they happen or taking advantage of opportunities before they are visible to anyone one.

III The Social Awareness Cluster – It refers to reading people and groups accurately and encompasses 3 competencies relating to work performance.

a. Empathy – This competence gives people an asute awareness of others emotions, concerns and needs.

b. Service orientation – The ability to identify a customer’s often unstated needs and concerns and match them to products/services.

c. Organisational awareness – The ability to read the currents of emotions and political realities in groups is a competence vital to behind-the-scenes net working and coalition building that allows individuals to wield influence, no matter what their professional role.

IV The Relationship Management Cluster – It refers to inducing desirable response in others and has 8 competencies relating to work performance

a. Developing others – It involves sensing people’s developmental needs and bolstering their abilities – a talent not of excellent coaches/mentors but also of outstanding leaders.

b. Influence – Individual practice the essence of the influence competence when we handle and manage emotions effectively in other people and are persuasive. The most effective people sense others reaction and fine-tune their own responses to move interaction in the best direction.
c. Communication – Creating an atmosphere of openness with clear lines of communication is a key factor in organizational success. People who exhibit the communication competence are effective in the give and take of emotional information, deal with difficult issues straightforwardly, listen well and welcome sharing information fully and foster open communication and stay receptive to badness as well as good.

Figure no. 9: A framework of Emotional Competencies by Boyatzis et al (2000)
d. Conflict management – Effective conflict management and negotiation are important long term, symbiotic business relationships.

e. Visionary leadership– Those adept at this competence draw on a range of personal skills to inspire others to work together towards common goals. They are able to articulate and arouse enthusiasm for a shared vision and mission, step forward as needed.

f. Change catalyst – An effective change leader articulates a compelling vision of the new organizational goals. A leader’s competence at catalyzing change brings greater efforts and better performance from subordinates, making their work more effective.

g. Building bonds – The building bonds competence epitomizes stars in fields like engineering, computer science, biotechnology, and other ‘knowledge work’ fields, in which networking is essential for success, these stars tend to choose people with a particular expertise or resource to be a part of their networks.

h. Collaboration and Teamwork – Teamwork itself depends on the collective emotional intelligence of its members, the most productive teams are those that exhibit emotional intelligence competencies at the team level.

Emotional competence seem to operate most powerfully in synergistic groupings, with the evidence suggesting that mastery of a critical mass of competencies is necessary for superior performance. Organization and individuals interface in ways that require a multitude of emotional intelligence abilities, each most effective when used in conjunction with the others.

Finding a comfortable fit between an individual and an organization is easier when important aspects of organizational culture (i.e. rapid growth) link to a grouping of competencies rather than a single competency. The competencies operate together in an integrated fashion, forming a meaningful pattern of abilities that facilitates successful performance in a given role or job.
Singh (2003) has defined Emotional intelligence as “Emotional Intelligence is the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from the inner self and immediate environment”. Emotional Intelligence constitutes three psychological dimensions – emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity which motivate an individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behaviour. The above operational definition requires some words which may require interpretation i.e. (1) Ability-refers to the conscious emotional effort by an individual to adapt to the environment. (2) Emotional Stimuli – means prompts from the inner self and the immediate environment. (3) Motivate – means how behaviour gets satisfied, energized, sustained and directed to active desired goals. (4) Appropriately – means right mixture of head and heart. (5) Success – means to do what one has tried or waited to do with favourable results. (6) Tactfully – means being creative and practical Emotional Intelligence is the right mixture of head and heart.

Emotional Intelligence is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s emotions, to discriminate between these emotions and to use this information effectively to guide one’s own thinking and actions.

**Emotional Quotient (EQ)**

In the most literal dictionary sense, emotion is defined as ‘any agitation or disturbance of mind, passion, any vehement or excited mental state’. Emotion refers to a feeling with its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states and ranges of propensities to act. There are hundreds of emotions, along with their blends, variations, mutations and nuances i.e. anger, sadness, fear, enjoyment, love, surprise, disgust shame etc. Emotions can be defined as a reactive impetus. Emotion is largely an automatic response determined by the way you set yourself up to respond and react to the world. Emotions are
reactions to specific situations. 'Emotional Quotient' is used interchangeably with 'Emotional Intelligence'. In simple terms, it can be defined as knowing what feels good, what feels bad and how to get from bad to good. A more formal academic definition refers to emotional awareness and emotional management skills which provide the ability to balance emotion and reason so as to maximize long-term happiness.

2.3 CONCEPT OF LOCUS OF CONTROL

Locus of control is a psychological construct in which two types of persons come. Firstly, the internally oriented – who attribute the responsibility of what happens to them on themselves and the second ones – are the externally oriented – who contrary to the internals fix the responsibility of events in their life on others and external forces like chance and luck etc. (Rotter, 1966).

Not everyone reacts to a catastrophic illness or to noise pollution with the same sense of powerlessness. Then too, some people march through life reacting to nearly every situation as if they were handcuffed by fate. In contrast others persistently strive to grab those same situations by the tail and twist them to their own purpose. Its as if certain people feel that the outcomes of their efforts are controlled by factors or events external to themselves while others are convinced that control is an internal matter which is related to their own efforts or attributes. This is the Internal-External Locus of Control of reinforcement notion which first emerged from Rotter's social learning theory in mid 1950's (Phares, 1971).

As defined by Rotter (1966) the construct of locus of control refers to a generalized expectancy, individuals have concerning the extent to which they themselves play a causative role in a specified life events. Internals tend to believe that a given outcome i.e. success/failure depends on their behaviour, skills, resources. Externals believe that control reside outside themselves in the form of outside environment or powerful others.
The variable of locus of control is of major significance in understanding the nature of learning processes in different kinds of learning situations, also consistent individual differences exist among individuals in the degree to which they are likely to attribute personal control to reward in the same situation.

Locus of control has proved to be extremely useful in the prediction of a variety of behaviours and it is this usefulness that has contributed to its present popularity as a research variable. Rotter (1966) states that “When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his actions, then it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate as under the control of powerful others or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him, this belief is labled as in External Control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behaviour or his own relatively permanent characteristic this belief is labled as Internal Control.

Lefcourt (1966) defines that internal locus of control refers to the perception of positive or/and negative events as being a consequence of one's own action and thus under personal control. Where as external locus of control refers to the perception of positive and/or negative events as being unrelated to ones own behaviours in certain situations and therefore beyond personal control. The locus of control construct deals with a person as he views himself in conjunction with the things that befall him and the meaning that he makes of these interactions between his self and his expectancies (Lefcourt, 1976). Locus of control is a measure of persons perception of the determinants of the reinforcement he receives. It is a generalized expectancy as opposed to specific expectancy being an abstraction developed from a host of experiences. Personality theorists have long been concerned with the willingness of individuals to accept responsibility for the consequences of their behaviour.
White (1969) construct of ‘competency’ and ‘effectance’; Adlers concept of ‘striving for superiority as a basic motive; the ‘inner’ and ‘outer’ directed man of Reisman (1950); Angal’s trends towards autonomy; Piaget’s notions of causality and other concepts such as self confidence, ego, strength, mastery etc. have been used to denote the degree to which man is able and believes himself to be capable of controlling the important events in his life space (Lefcourt, 1966). He further said that Locus of Control is not to be regarded as an omnibus trait similar to ‘competence and intelligence’ which pertains to each and every fact of human endeavour. Rather it can more fruitfully be defined as a circumscribed self appraisal pertaining to the degree to which individuals view themselves as having some causal role in determining specific events. Locus of control refers to the extent to which a person believes that he has control over the reinforcements he experiences.

Veblen (1899) statement that a belief in luck or chance represented a barbarian approach to life and was generally characteristics of an inefficient society. Rotter (1966) reflects that as far back as 1899 the social scientists were interested in the locus of control. Early empirical investigation of this ‘belief in personal control’ has stemmed primarily from Rotter (1966) construct of ‘Perceived Locus of Control, this concept which grew out of Rotter’s Social Learning Theory (1954).

In the words of Ducette and Wolk (1972) an internal person perceives that he is in control of his fate and that effort and reward will be correlated. But an external person perceives that powerful others or the systems determine how well he can do and that rewards are distributed by such powerful others in a random fashion. The greatest impetus for interest in locus of control derived from the creation of an assessment device. The first such device was a Likert type scale developed by Phares (1955). This was followed by revision of the Phares
Shane, Ann, Gilinow (2005) have defined that Locus of Control refers to a generalized belief about the amount of control people have over their own lives. Individuals who feel that they are very much in charge of their own destiny have Internal Locus of Control; those who think that events in their life are mainly due to fate, luck or powerful others have External Locus of Control.

Locus of control is a generalized belief, so people with an external locus can feel control in familiar situations. However their underlying locus of control would be apparent in new situations in which control over events is uncertain.

Some basic characteristics of external are: they believe success or failure is a result of luck, chance, fate or powerful others, they tend to be negative, give up easily, not try too hard, will not initiate contact or attempt to repair damaged relationships, they work better when pace is automated, feel victimized by illness, stress and take less preventive action, correlated with emotional instability, anxiety, neuroticism and they feel more anger and perceive others to be less friendly.

Some basic characteristics of internal are: they believe they have control over personal successes and failures, do better in jobs where they can set their own pace, are more health conscious and seek medical attention when needed, are less prone to stress related illness, anxiety or depression, they have high achievement and expect themselves to perform well, are more independent, achieving and dominant and express more contentment with life.

2.4 CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Organization Climate reflects the history of internal and external struggle, the types of people the organization has, its work processes, the
mode of communication and the exercise of authority within the system. Just as society has a cultural heritage, like wise the social organization possesses distinctive pattern of collective feelings. In organizational climate the focus is generally on the interpersonal relationship between members and the organization. Organizations are always unique. Each organization has its own culture tradition and method of action, which in totality constitute its climate for people. Organizational climate can have a major influence on employees motivation, productivity, performance and job satisfaction. Organizational climate represents the entire social system of a work group. If effects each and every individual in an organization. A pleasant, happy and favourable climate produces good citizens and responsible persons for the society. It not only affects the behaviour of individuals but also how organizations themselves interact.

It was first time in spring 1954 when the idea of a study of organizational climate of schools was discussed (Halpin, 1954). At that time only a general plan of study was presented, but the study was actually taken up in September 1954 by Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft. The report was published by the mid-west Administration centre and synopsis of the findings was published in the Administrators Notebook (1963). Again an abridgement of the findings appeared in the book “Theory and Research in Administration (Halpin 1966). The two other books which discussed the idea of openness and closeness are ‘A Dynamic Theory of Personality” by Lewin (1935) and “The open and closed mind” by Rokeach (1960).

In considering the work environment of teachers Andrew Halpin and Don B. Croft developed a data gathering instrument. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, which reflected perceptions of teachers and administrators of their schools climate.
One finds that each school appears to have a “personality” of its own. It is this “personality” that we describe here as the ‘Organizational Climate’ of the school (Halpin, 1966). Through their research, Halpin and Croft classified schools into one of the six climates on a continuum of ‘openness to closedness’. Each climate was described in terms of behaviour characteristics of Principals and Teachers which were measured by the subtests of the instruments. The 6 climates were identified as ‘The open climate’, “The autonomous climate,” “The controlled climate” ‘The familiar climate’, ‘The paternal Climate’, ‘The closed climate’. The sample of 71 schools used by Halpin and Croft was a fortuitous sample. It was not drawn at random from a clearly defined population (Halpin, 1966).

Since the development of Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) a large number of studies have been done on organizational climate. Studies have also been done linking organization climate to other aspects of the schools.

Brown (1964) conducted a study the main purpose of which was to replicate the work of Halpin and Croft. In his study he made use of a randomly selected sample of a designated population of Minnesota metropolitan suburban Elementary schools. He found organizational climate description questionnaire (OCAQ) to be a well constructed instrument which could and should continue to be used in research and administrative theory and in the theory of social organization.


Organizational climate has been one of the concepts studied in research on organizational behaviour. Halpin (1966) explained his concept of school climate by this illustration. Anyone who visits more
than a few schools notes quickly how schools differ from each other in their feel. In one school the teachers and the Principal are zestful and exclude confidence in what they are doing they find pleasures in working with each other. This pleasure is transmitted to students, who thus are given at least a fighting chance to discover that school can be a happy experience. In a second school the brooding discontent of teachers is palable, the principal tries to hide his incompetence and his lack of sense under the cloak of authority and yet he means this cloak poorly because the attitude he displays to others vacillates randomly between the obsequious and the officious and the psychological sickness of such a faculty spills over on the students, who, in their own frustration give feedback to the teachers a mood of despair.

A third school is marked by neither joy nor despair, by hollow ritual here one gets the feeling of watching an elaborate charade in which teachers principal and students alike are acting out parts. The acting is smooth even glib, but it appears to have little meaning for the participants, in a strange way the show just doesn’t seem to be “for real”. And so, too, as one moves to other schools, one finds that each appears to have a “personality” of its own. It is this “personality” that is described as the “Organizational Climate” of the school.

Analogously, “personality is to the individual what organizational climate is to the organization” (Halpin, 1966).

From the above quotation it is quite obvious that each and every individual observes that a unique climate atmosphere or personality is felt whenever one spends even a short time with the members of a particular organizations. The feeling is definite and described in various terms of theorists concerned with explanations of phenomenon associated with complex organization. These theorists tend to explain this particular phenomenon in teams of interaction of role participants at
the various hierarchical levels of the organization housed in a particular building as the organizational climate.

*Sinclair (1970)* used the term ‘educational environment’ as synonymous to ‘organizational climate’. As early as *Cornell (1955)* in discussing school administration spoke of organization climate. He defined organizational climate as a delicate blending of interpretations or perceptions by persons in the organizations of their jobs or roles in relationship with others and their interpretations to the roles of other within an organization.

*Argyris (1958)* defined organizational climate as the “homeostatic state of an organization composed of elements representing many different levels of analysis”.

According to *Gibb (1960)* when the new observer comes into a group for the first time, he is able to sense a feeling about the group which one calls ‘climate’.

According to *Lonsdale (1964)* “Organization climate may be defined as the global assessment of the interaction between the task achievement dimension and the needs – satisfaction dimension within the organization or the extent of the tasks – needs integration.

In *Sullivan’s (1947)* view “Organizational Climate refers to the cathetic patterns giving identity to sub-groups and interpersonal relations in a living organization”.

*Halpin (1966)* defined climate as the “personality” of an organization. School climate was “personality” of a school described in terms of the social interactions between the teachers and the principal and among members of the teaching staff. Organizational Climate may be defined in terms of interactions that take place between organizations members (i.e. superiors and subordinates) as they fulfill their prescribed roles while satisfying their individual needs.
Thus, Organizational Climate of an institution means the interpersonal relationship within the group and between the group and its leader i.e. staff personnel and the head of the institution. It is the social milieu the human behaviours or social atmosphere that pervades all activities of an institution. The constituents (i.e. the principal and personnel) of an institution are comparable to the working parts of a machine which in turn corresponds to its organization. In the process of discharging duties, there is interaction between super ordinate subordinate hierarchy that is the organization.

What strikes the public or the visitors to an institution is its personality or image which is the sum-total of its traditions, tone, human behaviour etc. Organizational climate is influenced by two factors (a) interpersonal relationships within an organization (b) the external agency administering it.

The concept of “Organizational Climate” is drawn generally from group dynamics theory. Climate is the distinctive tone or feeling of a particular group or organization. Organizational climate, is hence a broad somewhat loosely used term use to encompass the factors related to the involvement, motivation and morale of the group members.

Moos et al., (1976) advanced the concept of “Social Ecology” at the Social Ecology Laboratory at Standard University. Social Ecology approach focuses on relationships between the behaviour variables within an environment.

Insel and Moos (1974) maintain that the concept of social ecology transcends simpler approaches to human ecology by dealing with a wider variety of mediating factors which intervene between the actual physical properties of the environment and the specific behaviours of individuals. Social Ecology focuses on the perceptions and cognitions of the people “about” their environments and how to intervene to regulate behaviours.
In this sense, variables like public opinion, social norms, economic factors, communication processes and other essentially social constructs are studied and related to behavioural outcomes.

The learning environment inventory developed by Walberg (1969) and the organizational climate description question developed by Halpin and Croft (1963) are both instruments frequently used to assess organizational climate in educational environment.