CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
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SECTION I: THE ORGANISATIONAL FRAMEWORK

One of the variables being studied is school organisational climate. The purpose of this chapter is to review concepts that relate to this variable which are the school; an organisation, and the school as an organisation; the school as a system, and school organisational climate.

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF ORGANISATION AND THE SCHOOL AS AN ORGANISATION

From time immemorial, human beings have endeavoured to impart knowledge to the younger generation. In fact, the synonyms for the verb "to school" are train, inform, instruct, coach, teach (WordPerfect Thesaurus, 1991). The informal way of doing this (informal education) led to an organised, structured way (formal education) with children being grouped according to age, and nowadays even according to ability or disability (gifted children and special education). This was accompanied by an attempt to educate the whole person - head, hand and heart, and so went beyond the traditional "literacy" acquisition of the "3Rs" - Reading, Writing and Arithmetic. In Chapter 1, we saw that in Uganda this metamorphosis also took place: from "the homestead was the school, the fireplace the classroom and everywhere human activity took place was the laboratory" (Sekamwa & Lugumba, 1973) to what is recognised as the modern day school.

Gross (1959) observes that whenever human societies have become complex, some kind of formal system of group instruction has appeared. He purports that no society today, however small or isolated, starts from scratch to think out all over again about what would be the best way of educating children. This means that structures are already in place for educating children. Mead (1968) is of the same opinion: our thought or ways of doing things are "hidebound by a thousand outworn conventions":-
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Real school begins only at five or six. Before that, even if the children are in groups, it isn’t real; it’s nursery school or kindergarten. Real school occurs within term time and in the day time; otherwise, it has to be qualified again: it’s summer school, vacation school, after-school school, or night school. School is appropriate to the beginning of something - of childhood learning or preparation for a specialist career like garage mechanic or physician. And in all schools, it should be possible to finish, to receive some terminal imprint which is irreversible. Furthermore, these finishing points should be interrelated. When one has "got through" some level, it should be possible to go on later, to other levels. So a long battle goes on between the attempt of various purveyors of education to provide as cheap, rapid, and adequate an education as possible for which some degree or certificate can be given, and those who, as fellow professionals or consumers of the education, want to keep the standards high.

The schools in which the Ugandan secondary school teacher works are no different from the ones described by Mead (1968). In Chapter 1 the investigator described the different subjects that groups of students pursue at various levels of the Ugandan educational system. We also looked at the EPRC’s (1989) recommendation that secondary schools be classified into three categories. On successful completion of one level (in Uganda’s case Ordinary Level or Advanced Level for secondary schools), a certificate is awarded. One cannot go to the next level unless s/he has "got through" the one before.

As far as keeping standards high is concerned, the onus lies with the Inspectorate of the Ministry of Education. The Uganda National Examinations Board which consists of professional teachers then measures the success of schools through examination results. In a school, it is the teachers who are charged with the responsibility of ensuring success as they instruct the students; schools therefore provide employment for teachers. Since schools measure success by examination results, the teacher is faced with the challenge of seeing to it that the students succeed by passing their examinations. In this way, the school is a place that presents challenges.

A school serves a number of other purposes as well. For the teacher, school may be the only place s/he feels comfortable if s/he is not a particularly gregarious person. In this way, the school satisfies his/her social or affiliation needs. For the teacher who has worked diligently for many years, s/he may consider remaining in a particular school in order to realise what
s/he has always aspired to achieve: a promotion may be the fulfilment of the teacher's need to achieve or the need for power or the boost for an otherwise low self-esteem.

In Ozga's (1993) view, the school is like a family:-

One way of understanding the basic organisational dynamics of the school was to recognise that people behave according to a familiar model; that is, the school is organised as a large family of which the Head is either mother or father. Other members of the school cannot be other than children or relatives, and, of course, they cannot change their basic relationship. In most cases this means that no one is allowed to grow up.

One can say that what Mead (1968) calls "outworn conventions" are what Ozga (1993) calls "a familiar model." Although the term "family" connotes warmth and understanding, Ozga's explanation depicts some kind of patronisation rather than collegiality. Her ambivalent view of the school takes us back to the importance of studying the relationships that take place therein. Her description of the relationship between the Head and the other members of the school (here we are concerned about the teachers) is, in effect, what this study is all about: organisational climate.

Her conclusion that "no one is allowed to grow up" portrays some kind of dissatisfaction. From this we infer that she perceives that there exists a relationship between organisational climate and teacher job satisfaction. But, can this understanding be used as a blanket that embraces all cases? In this study, the investigator seeks to address issues such as these by obtaining views from the teachers themselves.

Previously, schools were described according to their philosophies (for example, Montessori schools); later on they were described according to the nature of the students they taught (for example, schools for the blind) or the subjects they offered (vocational schools), and now in addition to all these, schools are described according to their climate (Open or Closed climate) - and the list goes on. Because the gender of a Headteacher is said to affect the way in which a school operates (Ozga, 1993; Vinnicombe & Colwill, 1995: Wilson, 1997), one would not be surprised if schools began to be described as Male-Headed Schools and Female-Headed Schools. In this way, the concept of a school changes as time goes on, but the basic purpose of the school remains.
A school is a hierarchical institution set right within society, so it is affected by and affects whatever goes on in society. Although definitions of a school keep on changing, the school's basic purpose has remained throughout the years: to serve the community by passing on knowledge and values to the next generation. Teachers are the major channel of transference. For some teachers, the school in turn serves not only as a place of employment with its unique challenges, but also as a place where they can fulfill some of their needs.

An understanding of the concept of organisation is crucial to this study because the school is an organisation, and an organisational structure involves the kinds of interactions that the investigator is principally studying here.

In conceptualizing an organisation, the idea that comes to mind is that of some kind of order (to organise), as well as structure or arrangement (organisation). Mitchell & Larson (1987) say that our society is an organisational society: all the activities that surround our birth, education, work, leisure, spiritual growth, and death are all heavily regulated or influenced by an organisational environment. This, in effect, means that human beings are by nature "organisational" beings, and so complete anarchy cannot last for long. Human beings organise because they believe that that is the most efficient way to reach their goals; thus, organisations exist and are designed to facilitate goal attainment (Mitchell & Larson, 1987). As Newell (1978) puts it, the important question is not whether there should be structure, but rather, what kind of structure there should be.

The Encyclopaedic Dictionary (Biswa & Aggarwal, 1971) describes organisation as the process or the outcome of arranging different elements into a functional whole for achieving a certain objective. It then defines school organisation as the process of harmonising the different elements of a school and ensuring effective relationship among students, staff and community for obtaining maximum educational results. Barnard (1938) defined a formal organisation as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons. Tosi et al. (1978) say that an organisation develops and maintains relatively stable and predictable behaviour patterns even though the individuals in the organisation may change.
Much has been written on organisation and how an organisation operates. There was an epoch of what is called the Classical Organisation Theory ("classical" in the sense of traditionally accepted and long-established) running from late 1800s to mid-1900s and comprises personalities like Frederick Taylor (1911), Max Weber (whose classic work was published in 1920 and translated into English in 1947), Lyndall Urwick (1940s), Luther Gullick (1946), and Henri Fayol (1949). The 1920s and 1930s saw the ushering in of what was called the Human Relations Movement whose major works were those of Elton Mayo (1933) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) known as the Hawthorne Experiments, and then the book by Chester Barnard (1938). These theories paved the way for the development of more contemporary theories of organisation which include the Behavioural Approach with scientists such as Abraham Maslow (1954), Chris Argyris (1950s & 1960s), Douglas McGregor (1960s) and Rensis Likert (1960s) whose contributions will be reviewed in Chapter 3. After this, there came the Systems Approach which will be reviewed in the next section; and more recently, the Contingency Approach, the Information Processing Approach, and the Learning Organisation Approach. Organisational Theory today principally borrows from these approaches albeit with criticisms and modifications here and there.

Taylor's (1911) vision of an organisation was that of an entity achieving its goals through the elimination of strife through a close, mutually beneficial cooperation of management and labour. He emphasised the Scientific Management of production which was supposed to lead to efficiency (Rao & Rao, 1996; Luthans, 1998). The second major objective was that of improving the economic welfare of workers. In pursuing this, Taylor proposed that specialization be practiced, proper selection and training of workers be done - "scientifically", wage incentives be utilized and a standard method for a job be found. Taylor's ideas made a big contribution to the running of organisations at that time, and some of his proposals are beneficial to school organisation. However, the approach met with a lot of criticism.

One criticism was that the needs of the employees were viewed primarily in economic terms, and there was no recognition of the informal relations that are important for meeting social needs; in this way, the approach was considered to be anti-social (Rao & Rao, 1996). Another criticism was that the approach was undemocratic because only the managers were supposed to do the planning and decision-making while the workers only performed the routine-standardized and unchallenging activities; furthermore, people later discovered that there was no one "standard method" for a job to be done, and the repetitiveness of a job
caused boredom and dysfunctional behaviours in workers (Rao & Rao, 1996). Contrary to this, various approaches to teaching have evolved over the years (for example, Talk-and-Chalk, the Play-Way Method, the Child-Centred Approach, Project Method, etc.).

Bobbitt (1913) found that Taylor's approach contributed greatly to the systemization of school administration: the implication for schools is that of cooperation between heads and their subordinates in order to bring about the realization of educational goals. Going by Taylor's principles, it would mean that the educational goals would be paramount and cooperation between Headteachers and teachers would only be a means to an end, and not an end in itself. However, throughout the current study, the emphasis is on the fact that interaction (as opposed to cooperation only, because interaction involves conflict as well) between Headteachers and teachers can, and should be an end in itself.

According to Luthans (1998), the starting point of any analysis of organisation theory and design remains the bureaucratic model. To a very great extent, the investigator subscribes to this view. Weber (1947) came up with what he believed to be an ideal organisational structure which he called a Bureaucracy. Many people from the fields of sociology, philosophy and management have vehemently criticised Weber's bureaucratic model (Drucker, 1954; Blau, 1956; Parkinson, 1957; Bennis, 1965; Peter, 1969; Karl Marx in Rogers, 1975; Peters & Waterman, 1982; more recently - Hammer & Champy, 1993 and Bassin, 1995), either turning a blind eye or forgetting that the model was an ideal one, and no real world organisation follows it to the letter.

One of the characteristics of Weber's (1947) model was that there was specialization and division of labour which he considered to be enhancers of productivity and efficiency. This is very true of a school where different teachers teach different subjects and as a result of specialization, the student is able to benefit from somebody who has a deeper knowledge of the subject. Luthans (1998) points out that a highly specialized unit may have its own terminology, interests, attitudes, and personal goals; because "outsiders are different", the specialized unit tends to withdraw into itself and not fully communicate with other units (also, cf. Rao & Rao, 1996). In the school set up, having departments helps with the co-ordination of subjects. However, especially in Uganda today where there is a lot of emphasis on students passing examinations, there is a tendency for departments to compete with each other in passing students rather than working together to see how they can help each other to
genuinely teach students so that if they pass well it is a result of having understood what they were taught.

A second characteristic of Weber's bureaucracy is that of a **hierarchical order**, whereby each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one. Simon (1960) pointed out that hierarchy is the natural order of things. By having hierarchical divisions, bureaucracy provides some form to an organisation (Rao & Rao, 1996). Dent (1947) believed that the teaching profession should be organised as a hierarchy based on professional merit. However, Luthans (1998) contends that although a hierarchy maintains unity of command, coordinates activities and personnel, reinforces authority, and serves as a formal system of communication - thus having both a downward and an upward emphasis - in practice, it has often turned out to have only a downward emphasis. Bassin (1995) says that the worst sin of hierarchy is that everyone is always looking upward for permission to act and there is very little entrepreneurship because everyone waits to see what the boss wants before they advance their own ideas. In this way, they engage in passive, dependent behaviour which is the very opposite of what one wants. Klatt et al. (1978) say that the formal and rigid lines of communication actually hinder rapid communication. These are very important points of criticism that Headteachers should be aware of. In fact, some Headteachers hold the view that in a strictly hierarchical set up, only s/he should lead or give orders for things to be done. However, a great deal of time and energy can be wasted in such a case especially given that some Headteachers are not in their offices often enough. Furthermore, individual initiative and participation are hindered and this may be a major cause of job dissatisfaction on the part of the teachers. As far as organisational climate is concerned, the teachers in this situation may feel that they are operating in a closed kind of climate which is not conducive for their work.

A third aspect of Weber's model was that of a **system of abstract rules**. Luthans (1998) says that a rational approach to organisation requires a set of formal rules to ensure uniformity and coordination of effort, and that a well-understood system of regulations also provides the continuity and stability that Weber thought were so important. Therefore whereas personnel may change, rules persist. Predictability and stability are major advantages of Weber's model. However, Luthans (1998) lamented that rules often become ends in themselves rather than the means for more effective goal attainment. Drucker (1954) also cautioned against the misuse of rules as instruments of morality, substituting them for judgement, using
them as punitive control devices and obliging bureaucrats to comply with those that have nothing to do with their jobs.

Let us take Weber's proposition on rules down to Ugandan schools today. It is true that rules and regulations are basically meant for running a school. In many instances, school rules have not had to change, and, indeed, this is what has enabled some schools to remain academically and morally outstanding through several decades. This is not to say that the rules have not changed at all; however, the rules that have changed have had to be changed in accordance with the times. For example, schools which were established in the first decade of this century cannot expect to go by all the rules that were laid down then - reasons being complexity, size and structure. With the development of different disciplines and areas of expertise, there is increasing division of labour, specialization, more complicated units and problems and there are many different people doing various kinds of jobs (Mitchell & Larson, 1987). In the Ugandan school setting, one would see this demonstrated in the different subjects which have come up for study and different departments or new positions of responsibility that have been created. For example, not even two decades ago, it was rare to find a school with more than one Deputy Headteacher, and that school used to be very big in terms of student population and with multiple shifts. Today, one finds that even some medium-sized schools have more than one Deputy Headteacher. The post of Director of Studies is becoming very common, one, and having a School Counsellor is almost compulsory owing to the nature and magnitude of problems that adolescent students experience today. Fifty years ago, schools were much smaller and therefore easier to manage than the ones we have today. It means that some of the rules that applied then are no longer applicable now if one is to effectively manage today's schools. In boarding schools, some areas of the compound that were out-of-bounds can no longer be so, otherwise students may not be able to find a quiet place to study on the compound. Then as far as environment and structure are concerned, Lawrence & Lorsch (1969) identified one type of organisation which operates in turbulent environments that are changing and unpredictable, and the other type which operates in stable environments that are static and predictable. Bennis' (1965) criticism was that the Weberian model does not take into account emergent and unanticipated problems. The Ugandan Headteachers who headed schools through the period 1971-1986 know very well that during these years, the rules had to change according to whether the environment was turbulent or stable. And even now, the schools in Northern Uganda are operating in a turbulent environment because of the on-going 13-year-old civil
war. Bennis (1965), Klatt et al. (1978) and Rao & Rao (1996) concluded that excessive emphasis on rules coupled with tight controls does not allow for personal growth; instead, it produces immature behaviour and dependency. In this way it discourages innovation and initiative.

It could be said that with schools, it is mainly the rules that relate directly to students which are strictly enforced and are more or less inflexible basically because of the tender nature of the minds of the students who need to be controlled for their own good. However, concerning the rules that relate to or govern teachers (and in many cases these are more of regulations than rules), there are relatively few schools that demand strict conformity from their teachers. For secondary schools one would probably observe the existence of strict rules in a few missionary schools or schools still headed by non-Ugandan Headteachers. Ugandan Headteachers tend to be more relaxed and, in some people's interpretation, "more understanding" of the current social and economic situation that prevails in Uganda which forces teachers to leave the school grounds in order to check up on some business or other during school time. Nevertheless, some Headteachers have lost very good teachers as a result of strict adherence to rules.

A summarising thought on Weber's rules can best be expressed in the words of The Apostle Paul who wrote, "for the letter kills, but the spirit quickeneth"² - rendered in another version as "for the written code kills, but the Spirit gives life"³. A strict adherence to the letter of the rules may render the whole idea of rules meaningless, and recalling Luthans' (1998) observation given above: the rules may become ends in themselves rather than the means for more effective goal attainment. Rules should be there to enhance and not to hinder the functioning of schools. So then, schools should go according to the spirit or essence of the rule, making reasonable adaptations according to the times and the environment, but they should strictly adhere to the rules which must be absolutely adhered to. A fourth aspect of the bureaucratic model concerns **impersonal relationship**. Weber believed that the ideal official should be directed and governed by what he called a spirit of formalistic impersonality, without hatred or passion, and hence without affection or enthusiasm. He felt that in order for bureaucrats to make completely rational decisions, they had to avoid emotional

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² *The Holy Bible* (The Authorised King James Version) : "The Second Letter of Paul to the Corinthians (2 Corinthians 3:6)"
attachment to subordinates and clients or customers. Behavioural scientists immediately found grounds on which to criticise such an approach to organisations: it tends to undermine the importance of human beings in an organisation and this leads to administrative practices which exploit rather than enhance the individual person.

Another important aspect of Weber's bureaucracy which is relevant here is that employment should be based on technical qualifications. If one was to strictly adhere to this facet, then the licensed (non-certificated) teachers would not qualify to teach in schools. However, one may argue that the term "technical qualification" can be redefined. In the investigator's opinion, this is a good point which needs to be emphasized in the recruitment of teachers. In the past when the country was going through difficult times with qualified teachers leaving the country, it could have been excused; but today, there are many opportunities for qualification and the Government of Uganda is emphasizing this as a prerequisite for recruitment. If the argument were to be extended to Headteachers, it would mean that only those who have undergone training for headship qualify to be appointed Headteachers. This prerequisite is difficult to emphasize; nevertheless, Headteachers can get technical qualification as part of their in-service training. If the Headteacher is seen to be setting a good example by studying and working hard himself, it would go a long way in boosting the Headteacher's "Thrust" aspect of organisational climate [cf. Halpin, 1966].

Linked to technical qualifications in the Weberian model is that of promotions being based on seniority and achievement as well as bureaucrats being protected against arbitrary dismissal. Rao & Rao (1996) regard bureaucracy as a channel through which democracy can be ensured within a job. The availability and fairness of promotional opportunities is a variable that determines the level of a person's job satisfaction. One may argue that achievement in a school setting may be difficult to define especially in Uganda today where teachers are under pressure to coach students to pass examinations (as opposed to educating them in a valuable way) and the number of students who pass with high grades determines the success of a school. However, the criteria for promotions (and dismissals) should be clear and made known to teachers. These two points are very important for the Ugandan system today where one hears numerous complaints of nepotism and tribalism, and, of course, the famous contemporary dictum, "It depends on technical know-who." Weber's model thus insulates the bureaucrat against these kinds of injustices, and encourages hard work as well as instilling a sense of job security.
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Today, there are efforts to modify the bureaucratic model. The emphasis has been on the ensuring that there is an optimum degree of decentralization instead of the highly centralized system that was said to characterize the bureaucracy; the flat and tall structure approach to the designing of organisations which refers to the number of management levels in the organisations (with wider spans encouraging decentralization); and then there is departmentation which is said to incorporate the positive aspects of specialization (cf. Luthans, 1998).

In conclusion, Luthans (1998) has this to say about the bureaucratic model:

\[ \text{Taken in perspective, the argument is not necessarily that the classical bureaucratic model is completely wrong but, rather, that the times have rendered many of those concepts and principles irrelevant. Bureaucratic organisation is thought to be too inflexible to adapt readily to the dynamic nature and purpose of many of today's organisations and customer needs. Flexibility, adaptability, and learning are necessary requirements for modern organisation structures.} \]

In the light of Luthans' earlier observation that the starting point of any analysis of organisation theory and design still remains the bureaucratic model, it can be said that certain elements of this model are here to stay. Headteachers and teachers therefore need to be aware of the dangers of rigidly adhering to the principles of this system and discover where they need to be flexible. The greater onus is on Headteachers to see to it that the structure does not come in the way of realizing the various goals of the school and meeting the needs of the teachers.

According to Urwick (1944), Gullick (1946) and Fayol (1949), major emphasis had to be placed on the processes of administration. These were to comprise what was known as Administrative Theory. Urwick concentrated on organisational design aspects like the division of labour; span of control; unity of command, line and staff; and delegation of responsibilities. Gullick became famous for his POSDCORB: Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Co-ordinating, Reporting, Budgeting (Newell, 1978). Fayol outlined management's essential functions as planning, organising, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling. His fourteen principles of management contributed invaluably to organisational analysis: unity of command, unity of direction, division of work, authority and responsibility, discipline, subordination of individual interest to the common good, remuneration, order, equity, stability.
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of tenure, initiative, centralization, "scalar chain", and esprit de corps. In Uganda, the past two decades have seen the creation of several deputyships and assistantships in large schools for the effective running of schools; before that, one deputy used to be overloaded with numerous responsibilities. The implications of Fayol's theory can clearly be seen in the schools' emphasis on pre-determined, planned and coordinated activities and using specified categories of personnel who are governed by specific principles. A teacher working in a school governed by such principles may find his/her job satisfying if s/he is the type who likes order and predictability in a job. As far as organisational climate is concerned, a Headteacher who adopts Fayol's principles would be perceived to be removing hindrances to work (the principle of "order" whereby materials and people are in the right place at the right time), providing thrust to the school (the principle of "initiative" with the Headteacher leading the way and encouraging others towards the same direction), being considerate ["equity" by the definition given by Rao & Rao (1996): a combination of justice and kindness] and promoting team spirit ("esprit de corps").

Even though Fayol's work met with criticism, the investigator concurs with Perrow (1970) that "the contribution of this theory probably far outweighs any other that had been developed before, or in that case, operational today because it addresses itself to the very real problems of management." One of the criticisms was that the theory assumed that all organisations can be managed by the same set of rules and principles (Koontz & Weihrich, 1990; Rao & Rao, 1996). This is a very important criticism for Headteachers to heed; sometimes Headteachers do not realize that a school is run differently from, say, a church organisation. Leadership styles need to change according to the nature of the organisation and the nature of the environment (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1969). Another criticism was that the Administrative Theory discounted human attributes such as emotion and attitude, and yet people have the capacity to act against organisational rules and principles (Rao & Rao, 1996). Therefore, Headteachers need to be attentive to the dimension of human behaviour in an organisation - which is one of the things that this study highlights.

To this group of theorists, an organisation was simply the formal structure which facilitates the achieving of a certain goal. However, as we saw earlier on, according to the Encyclopaedic Dictionary (Biswas & Aggarwal, 1971), school organisation involves "ensuring effective relationship" - which is what was lacking in all these theories. It was the human relations advocates and behavioural scientists who put forward the idea that an organisation
The first real insight into human behaviour in organisation has been attributed to Mary Parker Follett (1924) who viewed organisation as a dynamic system of human relationships in which integration, both between the individual and the organisation, and among the various parts of an organisation is a prime requisite for a successful enterprise. Metcalf and Urwick (1940) quote her:

*The chief function, the real service, of business is to give an opportunity for individual development through the better organisation of human relationships. Several times lately I have seen business defined as production, the production of useful articles... But the greatest usefulness of these articles consists in the fact that their manufacture makes possible those manifold, interweaving activities of men by which spiritual values are created... The PROCESS of production is as important to the welfare of society as the PRODUCT of production.*

In 1933, Mayo and his colleagues (and separately, Barnard, 1938) gave empirical support to Follett’s observations and changed the picture from what former theory made out to be an “economic man” to that of a “social man.” The Hawthorne Experiments indicated that employees were not only economic beings, but social and psychological beings as well, and they demonstrated that the man at work is motivated by more than the satisfaction of economic needs. By treating organisations as social systems, they vehemently argued for democratic participation, creativity and commitment (Rao & Rao, 1996). The emphasis was on creating a workforce with high morale, where each individual was recognized as unique, with work being a social experience where workers find satisfaction in membership in small groups. They concluded that a supervisor could contribute significantly in increasing productivity by providing a free, happy and pleasant work environment. Indeed, the thesis of this study concurs with such observations.

Roethlisberger & Dickson (1939) said that the two major functions of an industrial organisation are that of producing a product and that of creating and distributing satisfactions among the individual members of the organisation. At that time, they lamented that a great deal of attention had been given to the external function of the organisation and nothing comparable had been done in regard to getting individuals and groups of individuals working...
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together effectively and with satisfaction to themselves. One of the major aims of this study is to probe into the area of "internal balance" and to see how it can be improved in the education field in Uganda.

The Contingency Theory is one approach to organisation which has come up recently, and it yields meaningful insights into the understanding of schools as organisations. Rao & Rao (1996) say that the problem with universal principles of management as advocated by early theorists is that few principles are universal; no single way of solving problems is best for all situations, and because tasks and people in organisations differ, the method of managing them must also differ. In fact, Klatt et al. (1978) say that this means that there is no "ideal" or best structure. Contingency Theory is concerned with achieving a "fit" between the tasks that an organisation performs, the personalities of its members, its organisation structure, and its environment (cf. Selznick, 1949; Burns & Stalker, 1961; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1969; Tosi & Hammer, 1974; Lorsch & Morse, 1974). This approach has implications for Headteachers.

Since it purports that management is entirely situational, and management actions are contingent on internal and external factors; the Headteacher must analyze a situation carefully and act accordingly. This is important especially when trying to create a favourable organisational climate and to attain maximum job satisfaction for the members of his/her staff. However, the critics of Contingency Theory are of the view that it is theoretically complex: it is difficult to determine all relevant contingency factors and show their relationships, and in the end, even a simple problem involves analysing a number or organisational components, each of which have innumerable dimensions (Koontz & Weihrich, 1990; Rao & Rao, 1996).

It is common knowledge that widespread misunderstandings occur in organisations as a result of poor communications, and this relates both to the speed and accuracy of the information that is being conveyed (Klatt et al., 1978; Turner, 1983; Hamilton, 1987; Stewart, 1989; Tosi et al., 1998). A recent approach to organisation is the Information Processing System. Information processing in essence deals with communication. This has been brought about by the explosion in information technology that has seen the ushering in of Electronic Mail, the Internet, the Intranet, the World Wide Web, and other sophisticated methods of information transfer. As work-related uncertainty increases, so does the need for an increased amount of information, and thus the need for increased information processing capacity (Tushman & Nadler, 1978; Luthans, 1998). The implications of this is for schools to
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create mechanisms and structures that it can use to "diagnose and cope with environmental and task uncertainty" (Luthans, 1998).

Communication of information is very important, and it calls for extreme prudence on the part of Headteachers, especially as we talk about organisational climate and job satisfaction. Teachers would not like to continually experience information gaps. Headteachers need to inform them of decisions that have been made, and policies affecting them - say those that have been handed down from the Ministry of Education. A lack of swift communication of information may be perceived by the teachers as a hindrance to their work, and with the advent of sophisticated information processing systems, they may feel that they are being taken back to the previous century where information took a long time to get round. In addition, the teachers may feel that the Headteacher does not provide enough thrust for the school if s/he is always one of the last to get vital information, or if the information s/he passes on is inaccurate or incomplete. This also applies to situations where s/he needs to help teachers sort out differences; s/he needs to develop very strong communication skills, not only in passing on information, but also in interpreting what somebody is trying to communicate (Klatt et al., 1978; Turner, 1983; Hamilton, 1987; Stewart, 1989; Tosi et al., 1998).

The Learning Organisation is another very recent development in organisation theory which could be considered "new" in every sense of the word. Luthans (1998) says that the theoretical foundation for the learning organisation emphasizes the importance not only of adaptive learning (which basically involves organisations adapting to environmental changes), but also generative learning, leading to creativity, innovation, and staying ahead of change (cf. Senge, 1990, 1991). Many organisations tend to do things the way they have done in the past, but learning organisations break this and teach their people to look at things differently - from a systemic point of view whereby issues and events are seen as interconnected rather than isolated phenomena. According to Argyris (1978) and Senge (1990, 1991), the new work of leaders is to create learning organisations. This is a big challenge on the part of Headteachers. Teachers should be encouraged to learn to gain new experiences from what appears to be a repetitive job, and furthermore, to share new ideas which help in the achievement of both organisational and personal goals. Luthans (1998) says that the Learning Organisation approach ensures that organisations compete and are
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successful in the fast-changing, turbulent environment; more importantly, he maintains that organisations must be able to learn how to learn if they are to survive in the long run.

The kind of organisation we have looked at above is known as the **formal organisation** which Koontz & Weihrich (1990) define as the intentional structure of roles or positions in a formally organised enterprise. The **informal organisation** is another kind of organisation which exists within the formal organisation. Among those who studied the nature of the informal organisation in detail were Barnard (1938) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939).

Tosi *et al.* (1998) observe that informal organisations (which are sometimes referred to as cliques, or in some instances, the "grapevine") arise out of individual needs and the attraction of people to one another; membership, which is voluntary, is based on common values and interests. An informal organisation in a school may take the form of a group that plays Scrabble during lunch time, or that of old-timers, or that of teachers who studied in the same school, or that of female married teachers. Informal organisations are just as important, enduring, and rewarding as the relationship that employees have with the formal organisation (Barnard, 1938; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939; Katz, 1965).

Informal relationships may aid in the achievement of organisational goals, in that it is much easier to ask for help on an organisational problem from someone you know personally, even if s/he may be in a different department, than from someone you know only as a name on an organisational chart. In the same way, it is easier and much faster to pass on information at the informal level than through the formal channels, and this is one of the major advantages of the "grapevine" (Klatt *et al.*, 1978; Koontz & Weihrich, 1990; Luthans, 1998). The power of informal groups can be channelled so that they contribute to, rather than subvert, organisational goals. Even when the informal group conflicts with some formal purpose, this is not necessarily bad because it may signal some error on the part of management or be a symptom of a poor relationship with employees. Headteachers should therefore try to create an atmosphere which constructively encourages rather than stifles informal organisations. Through the informal organisation, the Headteacher may find answers to problems like teachers’ disengagement and their lack of Esprit; s/he may discover that s/he is too aloof for their liking; s/he may not be providing enough Thrust for the school to run effectively; teachers may perceive him/her as Hindering rather than facilitating their work, or it may be a matter of them wishing him/her to be more Considerate in personal issues. In the current
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study the investigator acknowledges the potency and purpose of the informal organisation and the fact that it is an important tool in the enhancement of teacher job satisfaction and favourable organisational climate.

Mitchell & Larson (1987) say that organisations exist to facilitate the attainment of many goals, and that some of these are the broad, formal, publicly stated or official goals which the organisation seeks to achieve. According to Barnard (1938), an organisation is concerned with effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness stands for the achievement of institutional goals and efficiency means their achievement for the people in the organisation. Human beings join organisations and continue to participate in them for a variety of reasons which usually go well beyond wanting to achieve the formal goals of the organisation (Simon, 1964; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984; Rao & Rao, 1996). These goals include meeting certain financial goals, the satisfaction of social needs, or the opportunity to exercise skills that individuals could not exercise when they are alone. Mitchell & Larson (1987) say that from a behavioural standpoint, these personal goals are likely to be at least as important as the formal goals of the organisation, and that if an organisation was suddenly unable to meet the personal goals of its members, it would quickly lose those members; if it were unable to replace them, it would ultimately go out of existence. Rao & Rao (1996) see this as some kind of exchange relationship between the individual and the organisation: organisations provide opportunities to people to exhibit their skills, knowledge and talent to reach their goals and individuals, in turn, contribute their talent, effort and time to the organisation.

Schools should be able to facilitate achievement for the individuals who work there. Roethlisberger & Dickson (1939) observed that no two individuals make exactly the same demands of their job. The demands a particular employee makes depend not only upon his physical needs but upon his social needs as well. These social needs and the sentiments associated with them vary with his early personal history and social conditioning as well as with the needs and sentiments of the people closely associated with him both inside and outside of work. The values of any particular group in an organisation are related to the logical purposes of the total organisation, and they are also related to the personal values of individuals within that group. The individuals within any particular group are concerned with handling these various values in ways that bring maximum job satisfaction to themselves. In this connection, three aspects of job satisfaction have been singled out, which are conflicts, organisational climate and motivation. Organisational climate and motivation will be
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discussed in more detail in the following sections, but at this point we briefly look at conflict in organisations.

Argyris (1960) came to the conclusion that the needs of even healthy individuals are in conflict with the demands of formal organisations. People often have to work in situations that coerce them to be dependent, subordinate, submissive, and to use merely their skin-surface abilities. At times their needs are not congruent with the traditional requirements of formal organisations.

Conflict ranges from the micro level to the macro level: intraindividual, interpersonal, intergroup and organisational conflict (Luthans, 1998). Intraindividual conflict comprises frustration (when a motivated drive is blocked before a person reaches a desired goal); goal conflict (where two or more motives block one another); role conflict and ambiguity when the expectations attached to a given role are not in agreement with the pattern of need and personality dispositions characteristic of the incumbent of the role; or there are contradictory expectations about how a given role should be played; or conflicts arise from differing requirements of two or more roles that must be played at the same time. In the investigator's opinion, whereas Headteachers may be able to deal with some of the situations that cause frustration, goal and role conflicts may have to be solved by the teacher himself/herself.

There are four sources of interpersonal conflict: personal differences, information deficiency, role incompatibility (this time between two or more people who have interdependent roles, like the Registrar and the Institute Secretary), and environmental stress (Whetten & Cameron, 1991). Whereas interpersonal conflict normally occurs within groups, intergroup conflict occurs between groups. Intergroup conflicts are brought on by competition for resources, task interdependence and status struggles (Yukl, 1990). Organisational conflict involves aspects like hierarchical conflict where the management may be in conflict with the workers; there may also be functional conflict between different departments, as well as formal-informal conflict.

So what is the role of conflict in today's organisations? Kelley (1975) says that whereas previously conflict was by definition avoidable, and was caused by troublemakers, boat rockers and prima donnas, where legalistic forms were emphasized and scapegoats accepted as inevitable, the new assumptions about organisational conflict are that conflict is
inevitable, it is determined by various structural factors, it is integral to the nature of change, and a minimal level of conflict is optimal. Getzels (1952) says that it should be appreciated that disagreements and conflicts are often important in themselves. They highlight the need for re-evaluation and modification of the current relationships; something must be done differently if satisfactions are to be enhanced (also, cf. Jewell & Reitz, 1981 and Baron, 1983).

Much has been written about positive ways of dealing with the various types of conflicts, ranging from Lee's (1993) suggestions (modelling attitudes and behaviours one wants their subordinates to emulate, identifying the source of conflict, focusing on the task and not on personalities, addressing conflict in a timely way and learning from conflict) to King's (1993) process (allow time to cool off; analyze the situation; state the problem to the other person; leave the person an "out") to Fisher & Ury's (1983) famous negotiation skills (separate the people from the problem, focus on interests not positions, generate a variety of possibilities before deciding what to do; insist that the result be based on some objective standard) and the Win-Win strategy. Bringing this down to schools, it calls for Headteachers to learn how to deal with conflict because this is a very sensitive area as far as organisational climate and teacher job satisfaction are concerned (cf. Back et al., 1991).

To sum up, organisation theories have been around for a long time, and they have found relevance in the operation of schools, which are themselves organisations. Strict adherence to certain aspects of organisational theory is unfavourable to the running of schools, and the challenge for Headteachers and teachers is to discover which aspects best suit schools in general and which ones suit one's school in particular. This is because it is very difficult to have a unified theory in the study of organisations. New theories of organisation are coming up but so far, in the investigator's opinion, apart from the Learning Organisation which appears to be a completely new direction in organisation theory, many of these "new" theories have been found to be embedded in older theories; therefore, they principally serve to enrich what we know about organisations rather than open up a completely new chapter which can find new applications to the understanding and running of schools. By organisational definition, schools are not only concrete structures, but equally so, they are interactions of various stakeholders. Apart from looking at how best to achieve the goals of the school, each stakeholder looks to the school to fulfill his/her own goals. Schools, as organisations, should therefore create favourable conditions in which both organisational and personal goals can be fulfilled.
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2.2 THE SCHOOL AS A SYSTEM

According to Mitchell & Larson (1987), an organisation is not simply the formal structure of organisations, the tasks that its members perform, the social aspect of the organisation and the impact of the informal work group. They postulate that organisation is the interaction among these factors, and it is the way that these factors function as a unified system that really defines what an organisation is all about:

Organisations are behaviour. Organisations are not formal structures. They are not tasks and jobs. They are not peer groups and informal social relationships. They are not even people. They are behaviour, and this behaviour is the result of the interactions among people, formal structures, tasks, and informal social relationships. Thus the way these various parts interact, or fit together, is of critical importance.

The focus on the interplay or interaction among the component parts of organisations is what is called the Systems Theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978), and it is geared towards the discovery of all kinds of meaningful relationships (Rapoport, 1958; Newell, 1978). In the last section we saw that Barnard (1938) defined a formal organisation as a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons. He went on to say that if organisations are systems, it follows that the general characteristics of systems are also those of organisations. It is therefore becoming increasingly clear that a knowledge of Systems Theory is helpful in understanding human behaviour in any organisation (Newell, 1978; Luthans, 1998; Rollinson et al., 1998).

Griffiths (1964) defined a system as a "complex of elements in mutual interaction." This means that a system is any set of interrelated elements, and interrelationship implies that a change in one element has a direct effect on one or more of the other elements. If one part changes, the other parts either change or force the deviant to conform to the existing system (Newell, 1978; Mitchell & Larson, 1987). In Barnard's (1938) and Roethlisberger & Dickson's (1939) words, "By 'system' is meant something which must be considered as a whole because each part bears a relation of interdependence to every other part."

There are two general types of systems: the Open system and the Closed system. The degree to which a system relates to and makes exchanges with the environment determines whether it is an open system or a closed system. An open system interacts with its
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environment, but a closed system does not do this (Miller & Rice, 1967; Churchman, 1968; Guba, 1968; Emery, 1969; Baker, 1973). Human beings are open systems: we affect the environment in which we live, and it, in turn, affects us.

Organisations are also open systems. They interact with their environment. The factors in the environment that influence the organisation are called inputs (Mitchell & Larson, 1987; Koontz & Weihrich, 1990; Rollinson et al., 1998). In a school, inputs may be the amount of money paid to run the school, the number and type of students who attend the school, the rules and regulations set by government which the school has to adhere to, and these make that particular school what it is. The organisation as an open system takes inputs, transforms them and produces outputs (Mitchell & Larson, 1987; Koontz & Weihrich, 1990; Rollinson et al., 1998). In the case of a school, it takes in new students, money, teachers, books and other facilities and transforms these into certificate holders with new knowledge and skills. However, it should be emphasized that the inputs into an organisational system include many more things than we normally think of. These may be time, legal requirements, or minimum basic amenities. Similarly, the outputs of an organisational system also go well beyond what we think of as an organisation's products. A school not only produces educated people, but also noise in the vicinity, more work for the local traffic-control authorities, happy parents and varying levels of teacher satisfaction. Koontz & Weihrich (1990) make a particular elaboration on the satisfaction output which is key in this study:

The organisation must indeed provide many "satisfactions" if it hopes to retain and elicit contributions from its members. It must contribute to the satisfaction not only of basic material needs (for example, employees' need to earn money for food and shelter or have job security) but also of needs for affiliation, acceptance, esteem, and perhaps even self-actualization so that one can use his or her potential at the workplace.

Therefore, if a school discovers that its teachers are deflecting in big numbers to schools in the vicinity, it will try to address the problem. This means that as open systems, organisations also receive feedback regarding the acceptability of their output and this feedback allows them to correct errors and change the type of outputs they produce (Mitchell & Larson, 1987).
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Nadler & Tushman (1980) elaborated on the basic open systems concept put forward by their predecessors and they came up with what they called the Congruence Model. The major focus of the Congruence Model is that the outputs from an organisation are the direct result of the way in which the following four elements of an organisation relate to each other: (i) the formal structures of an organisation, (ii) the characteristics of the tasks being performed, (iii) the informal social relationships that exist among work-group members and (iv) the personal characteristics of the people performing the tasks in question. When these elements fit together, there is a state of congruence, and desirable outputs can be expected. However, when they do not fit together, a state of incongruence exists and undesirable outputs can be expected. The implications for practice are that in order to be effective, an organisation should maintain the proper fit among organisational elements, and also maintain the fit between the organisation and its own larger environment (Van de Ven & Drazin, 1985; Mitchell & Larson, 1987).

The elements of the organisation operate as a social system. Parsons (1958; also cf. Parsons & Shils, 1962) developed a model based on analytical abstractions in which there were four generic types of subsystems: the organism, the social system, the cultural system, and personality. Apart from distinguishing these four generic types, Parsons (1958) found that they function in relation to the organic-physical environment, the cultural environment and the psychological environment. Schools function along the same lines (cf. Newell, 1978).

Apart from Parsons and his associates who studied the organisation as a social system using abstract analyses (and earlier on Barnard, 1938), there were those who saw the organisation as a social system comprising actual interacting persons. Three personalities who specifically contributed to the study of the school as a social system in this way were Getzels, Guba and Thelen. Each of these people made contributions to the development of what is commonly known as the Getzels-Guba-Thelen model (Getzels, 1952; Getzels & Guba, 1957; Getzels, 1958; Getzels, 1960; Guba, 1960; Getzels & Thelen, 1960). In this model, the school as a social system includes the following three major dimensions: (1) the Individual, with Personality and Needs, and closely related to these are the Organism, the Constitution and Potentialities respectively; (2) the Group with its Climate and Intentions; and (3) the Institution, with its Roles and Expectations, and closely related to these are the Ethos, Mores and Values respectively.
Newell (1978) concluded that the thrust of the Systems Theory is that human behaviour can be understood only when viewed within the context of the situation in which it occurs, and particularly within the context of its human system. This means that the behaviour of an individual is not an isolated phenomenon, but rather occurs as part of a system and is intertwined with the behaviour of others. While people sometimes behave as separate individuals, individual behaviour is often, at least in part, symptomatic of what is happening in a group or an organisation. When behaviour is considered as an individual phenomenon, symptomatic behaviours are often mistakenly identified as being causal. However, when behaviour is viewed as a system phenomenon, individual behaviour can be perceived as being symptomatic of the whole system, and causal elements can more readily be identified. Therefore, if a single individual in a school expresses strong feelings such as satisfaction, dissatisfaction, resentment, or appreciation, it is probable that others in the school feel much the same way. If a staff member does not want to do a fair share of the work, this resistance may be symptomatic of the interpersonal relationships that the individual is experiencing in the staff. If there is lack of creativity, individual members may well be conforming to group norms. Even as we seek to understand the nature of the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and organisational climate, we draw prescriptive implications from conclusions such as these ones.

Griffiths (1964) took interest in the environment of the organisation. He described the environment in which the organisational system exists as a "supra system", and the administrative apparatus within the system itself as "sub-systems" (also, cf. Barnard, 1938). The investigator subscribes to this view. This means that the school itself is a subsystem within larger systems ("supra systems") and it is itself a system composed of subsystems. Ugandan schools exist in the supra system of the Nation, Region, District, County, Sub-county, Local Councils and Ministry of Education, and their sub-systems basically comprise the Boards of Governors, Parent-Teacher Associations, Headteachers, Deputy Headteachers, Directors of Studies, Bursars, Heads of Departments, Heads of Subjects, Teachers, Auxiliary Staff, School Prefects and Class Monitors/Representatives and the Students themselves. However, according to Katz & Kahn (1978), the actual subsystems that are referred to are those such as the Managerial Subsystems, the Maintenance Subsystems, the Production Subsystems, etc. These would then be the ones that comprise the different departments as we know them.
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The observations on Systems Theory have far-reaching implications for school administrators in as far as creating a favourable organisational climate is concerned. One is that Headteachers should realise that their actions have rippling effects: they cannot be actions in isolation per se, but they link up with the actions of the rest of the school members and set what Newell (1978) describes as "the tone of an organisation". Through his/her relationships with individuals or groups in a school, a Headteacher may either set a good example to follow or s/he may provoke negative reactions. Secondly, Headteachers should direct their efforts towards the integration of the school system both internally and with its superordinate systems.

In recapitulation, as many theorists and practitioners have observed, the Open Systems approach to organisations (and, therefore, to schools) has been found to be beneficial to the understanding of organisations, not only in abstract or theoretical terms, but also in terms of human social behaviour. As far as job satisfaction is concerned, organisations must "organise" themselves and work towards the satisfaction of the various needs of its members. Since Systems Theory is based on interrelationships, it can be used to develop or enhance a favourable school organisational climate if the Headteachers and the teachers begin to understand and interpret their mutual responses as a function of the entire system and not just as independent phenomena. All these factors contribute to maintaining a proper fit among the different "elements" of the school, and also a fit between the school and its larger environment.

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF SCHOOL ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

2.3.1 DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

Newell (1978) described organisational climate this way:

*In any group or organisation, there exists a system of subtle and pervasive interpersonal affective relationships. Some word was needed to identify the new construct, and that word is 'climate.' Climate as used in*
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**an organisational context consists of the total affective system of a human group or organisation, including feelings and attitudes toward the system, subsystems, superordinate systems, or other systems of persons, tasks, procedures, conceptualisations, or things. Climate thus refers to the relationships in any situation as these are affectively experienced by the people in the situation.**

New Webster’s Dictionary of the English Language (1981) describes climate as the tendency suggestive of the mood and temper of a social or political group, while the Oxford English Dictionary (1989) says it is the mental, moral, etc., environment or attitude of a body of people in respect to some aspect of life, policy, etc. The Dictionary of Education (Good, 1959) defines organisational climate as the pattern of social interaction that characterises an organisation.

According to Cornell (1955) organisational climate is "a delicate blending of interpretations by persons in the organisation of their jobs and roles in relationship to others and their interpretations of the roles of others in the organisation." He concluded that no two schools have the same climate, and the organisational climate has important effects on the performance of the schools.

Argyris (1958) defined organisational climate as a "homeostatic state of an organisation composed of elements representing many different levels of analysis".

Lonsdale’s (1964) definition of organisational climate was a "global index of the task achievement and the need satisfaction integration." He was of the view that in general usage, the term has a psycho-social flavour and reflects more concern with the task achievement dimension.

Azari (1991) purports that climate is attitudinal, and it is defined as the qualitative aspect of the interpersonal relationships within an organisation; it depends upon the perception by an individual of his own work and his status, of other members, and of the organisation: these perceptions are determined largely by individuals' participation in the organisation - the cumulative behaviour that defines the working relationships of individuals.
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Halpin and Croft (1963) concentrated on school organisational climate. Halpin (1966) highlighted the fact that schools differ from each other in their "feel", and it is this "feel" that is called "climate". He equated school climate to personality, and further clarified that school organisational climate was the condition that resulted from the social interaction between the teachers and the principal, and among the members of the teaching staff.

The Dictionary of Business and Management (Rosenberg, 1993) defined organisational climate as a set of properties of the work environment perceived by employees and assumed to be a major factor in influencing their behaviour.

Klatt et al. (1978) gave a comprehensive description of organisational climate:

Just as we live in a climate of weather, we work in a "climate" of other people's behaviour and organisational forces. A climate may provide stimulation and motivation which encourages the performance of human resources. It may also contain constraints, blockages, and frustrations which inhibit this performance. The organisation climate is intangible like the wind in our weather climate. It is felt but cannot be seen. It affects every member's performance. The organisation climate is a composite of many factors, some of which are the managerial style of the organisation; the values held by individual managers and reflected in the organisation as a whole; the formal organisation (rules, policies, organisation structure, the reward system); the informal organisation (norms of behaviour, beliefs, values and attitudes of the emergent behavioural system), the communication system, and all other managerial systems. The organisation climate is best thought of in terms of as a set of forces within the organisation that greatly affect the way people work. These forces influence the motivation and commitment of individuals and groups through their impact on interpersonal and intergroup relationships.

According to Armstrong (1984), the working atmosphere of an enterprise can be described as "organisational climate". He says that this comprises the ways in which the following aspects of organisational behaviour manifest themselves: teamwork and co-operation; commitment; communications; creativity; conflict resolution; participation; confidence and trust between individuals and groups and between managers and their subordinates. 

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Some writers use the terms "organisational climate" and "organisational culture" interchangeably. However, the researcher concurs with those who make a distinction between the two terms. Armstrong (1996) says that organisational climate is part of organisational culture under the umbrella of organisational behaviour. Organisational climate is less encompassing than the concept of organisational culture, and is more readily measured. Organisational climate is how people perceive (see and feel about) the culture that has been created in their organisation. French et al. (1985) define organisational climate as "the relatively persistent set of perceptions held by organisation members concerning the characteristics and quality of organisational culture". Armstrong (1996) purports that organisational culture can be described in terms of values, norms and artifacts, and that it will be perceived by members of the company as organisational climate. He says that every organisation develops its own culture and climate and these are reinterpreted in the informal system. Katz & Kahn (1964) say that organisational climate also reflects the history of internal and external struggles, the types of people the organisation attracts, its work processes and physical layout, the modes of communication, and the exercise of authority within the system. The personnel manager has to know his/her way around this maze if s/he is going to exert any influence or get anything worthwhile done. Every move s/he makes to change a policy or introduce a new technique must be thought against the background of his knowledge of the organisation's climate (Armstrong, 1984).

From the definitions given of organisational climate, it is clear that organisational climate is a complex set of factors. It combines both interpersonal behaviour and task achievement dimensions, and it affects the need satisfaction and performance of every member of the organisation.

2.3.2 THE ADMINISTRATOR'S ROLE IN ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

In this study, the researcher emphasizes the role of the administrator in creating a favourable organisational climate. Mathur & Kohli (1970) say that there is always a concern about administration because administration involves the management of an organisation. Newell (1978) says that administrators in particular are involved with people, "for co-ordination of human effort is the essence of administration, and the resolution of human problems is administration's lifeblood".
School administration can be said to have one very important basic purpose: to facilitate teaching and learning. The educational administrator has a number of critical tasks, each at a different level of importance. Those on the simple mechanistic or habit level will include the "simple" skills like driving an automobile and answering the telephone. Those on a higher level of skill - the technical tasks - will include things like preparing budget items and using certain testing and survey techniques. Finally, those at the highest level will involve stimulating people to make decisions regarding the purpose and nature of the school system and to carry out previously formulated plans and decisions. As in all socially significant work, these leadership tasks are of greatest importance to the success of the administrator's work (Graff & Street, 1956; Mathur & Kohli, 1970).

As far as teaching and learning are concerned, the educational administrator is supposed to make available needed services, materials and information (clerical, secretarial, research findings, etc.) in addition to avail proper storage facilities. In order to promote personnel welfare, the administrator assists in the adjustment of the personnel to the job, to associates, and to the community. S/he is expected to seek the continuous improvement of policies and practices at all levels (salary schedules, provisions for sick leave), make provision for counselling and guidance on personal and professional problems, and encourage wholesome social activities. S/he should stimulate the improvement of teaching methods, keep the instructional staff informed about new teaching aids and teaching methods, and provide opportunities for professional growth. This means encouraging counselling with associates, specialists, and others; advocating for and facilitate advanced study and educational trips as well as encouraging professional reading, workshop participation and active membership in professional organisations. In building and maintaining high staff morale, the administrator is supposed to create a feeling on the part of each person that s/he is a contributing factor to the success of the program. Furthermore, s/he should foster mutual confidence and wholesome relationships among all staff members. Development of the maximum leadership potential of each staff member should be encouraged, and there should be proper recognition and commendation of worth-while accomplishments. By responding to questions in the OCDQ, the teachers who took part in this study evaluated the extent to which their Headteachers were fulfilling these responsibilities. As Newell (1978) says, a wholesome climate is not simply one which helps individuals to feel secure; on the other hand, it is one which enables individuals to function effectively, that is, among other things, to perform work that needs to be done.
Many teachers and administrators are becoming acutely aware of the importance of human relationships. It cannot be overemphasized that administration includes both a task dimension and a human dimension: there is the work of the organization which must be done if the organization is to be successful, and there are the human beings for whom the organization provides varying degrees of satisfaction and upon whom it must rely in order that the work will be done. An effective administrator needs to understand both dimensions and develop the necessary competence in both. Actually, the human and the task dimensions can never really be separated. If administrators are to function responsibly in providing educational programmes which are effective in relation to needs, they need to develop an understanding of human behaviour together with the requisite competence in interpersonal relationships.

Newell (1978) maintains that because human relationships affect the ways in which individuals function, they are central to task achievement in administration. Conversely, because of the extent of task achievement affects the ways that people feel about themselves and others, task achievement affects human relationships. However, attention can usefully be directed to one dimension at a time provided that the interrelationships between the two dimensions are not forgotten.

An administrator's relationships with other people are crucial to success in achieving the goals of any enterprise and especially in achieving the goals of education. Newell (1978) cites three reasons why administrative relationships have far-reaching effects in education. First is that an administrator in a school or school system helps to achieve the goals of the educational enterprise through other people. It is of paramount importance, therefore, that an administrator work well with people if s/he is to be effective. Mathur & Kohli (1970) emphasize the point that since school administration is concerned with human beings, no matter how sound may be the educational theory, it can never find acceptance unless the human beings involved in its implementation are tackled properly.

The second reason runs deeper: human relationships are the stuff out of which personality develops. Within the limits of an inherited organism, a person becomes what s/he is largely as a result of the meanings which s/he attaches to his/her relationships with other people.
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The second reason runs deeper: human relationships are the stuff out of which personality develops. Within the limits of an inherited organism, a person becomes what s/he is largely as a result of the meanings which s/he attaches to his/her relationships with other people.
The third reason is that human relationships are not merely a means; they are an end in themselves. Human relationships themselves are an essential aspect of life - both to the administrator and to the people with whom s/he relates. Human beings do not only need one another's services; they need each other as persons. People must feel that their relationships with others are meeting their basic needs if they are to be healthy and productive. The best human relationships are those which, in the long run, result in the most productive organization. When people feel that an organization really cares about them, they tend to respond by caring about the organization.

Newell (1978) highlights six basic considerations of all human relationships which are important in the understanding of organisational climate. The first consideration is that each of us substantially affects his or her own relationships with others. Each of us functions in ways which affect in large measure the kinds of situations in which we find ourselves: there is clinical evidence that the individual himself is an important causal factor in his human relationships (Newell, 1978). In ways of which we are often unaware, in ways which may be ever so subtle, we indicate our feelings towards and expectations of other people, and thus provoke their responses to us. When someone has a problem in human relationships, s/he is usually contributing to the problem. Others may also be responsible for the problem, but if a person can find out what s/he is contributing to it and can change this aspect of his/her behaviour, the problem will usually be less severe and often will be on the way to solution.

The example is given of a hardworking, competent administrator who is the principal of a large urban junior high school. Despite his putting in long hours at his job, he is facing many difficulties: during the day he has to make frequent trips around the school otherwise discipline disintegrates; he seldom calls group meetings as he prefers to relate to teachers individually; the teachers do not take initiative or responsibility but are dependent on him. He complains that although he wants to develop an innovative school, the staff is phlegmatic. Staff members neither carry normal responsibility nor move ahead creatively. The principal is worn-out simply trying to keep the school operating. What the principal does not seem to realize is that his own actions - including staff selection and his relationships to staff and students are a major factor in creating the problems. This is one of the dysfunctions of interpersonal relationships which we will discuss later.
The second consideration in human relationships is the strength of the self. Each person needs to develop in terms of his or her own individuality and uniqueness in order to be effective in human relationships. If self is not allowed to develop, if people’s feelings and desires are frequently put down, they will express less joy, spontaneity, and uniqueness in their interpersonal relationships. However, the development of self inevitably involves a certain amount of isolation. It does not come through consensus - it is only possible through individual identity and decision. Even though an administrator needs to be in continuous communication with others in order to exchange ideas, perceptions, and opinions, his decisions must be his own if s/he is to be himself/herself.

The development of self also includes growth in the capacity to be responsible and helpful. An administrator who is developing as a self is one who is searching for ways in which his or her potentialities and those of the staff can be more fully realized. It is inevitable that schools, like other organizations, exert pressures toward conformity. Because individual personality is unique, however, the development of self results in nonconformity. If administrators are to encourage the development of self, they need to learn to accept nonconformity and to cherish it.

The development of self is closely related to the concept of authenticity (genuineness). Halpin (1966) discussed this after studying the organizational climates of schools. After a number of variables had been taken into account, the only way in which the differences between Open and Closed climates could be explained was through reference to the concept of authenticity (or genuineness). He said, “These observations [of authenticity and inauthenticity] fitted neatly with the climate data, for the Open Climate appeared to reflect authentic behaviour, whereas the Closed Climate reflected inauthentic behaviour. The OCDQ subtests, and in particular those for Thrust and Esprit, provided indexes of this very quality of authenticity.”

The third basic consideration is that good human relationships are those which are functional. Good human relationships exist when work is done effectively, and by the same token, optimum work accomplishment is possible only when good human relationships are experienced. Relationships of this type are not soft. They demand that an individual take the consequences for his or her own acts, and at times necessitate administrative action which may involve vigorous disagreements and aggressive action. However, work is essential, and
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the interpersonal relationships which result in the accomplishment of needed work are in the long run, the best for people. When staff members believe that they are part of an effective organization and that hard work on their part is necessary to enable the school to function well, their morale is considerably higher than when genuine effort seems unnecessary. Klatt et al. (1978) say that in many ways the reward system is closely related to the organisational climate, since both constitute major elements of the internal environment of the firm. As such, both the organisational climate and the reward system communicate much to each employee about the organisation in s/he is working. Moreover, the reward system determines the basis on which individuals in an organisation will be able to satisfy their personal needs. Since the opportunity to satisfy personal needs is the only basis for the individual's association with the organisation, the reward system is a critical element in determining each individual's relationship to the organisation.

One implication of functional relationships is that administrators must be able to control some part of their own time. No one can function at a professional level without time to think and to plan. Wiles (1955) recommends that a school administrator or supervisor "keep an 'open door' to all staff members." This recommendation is sound if taken in spirit rather than literally. Although an administrator needs to be available (and at times may literally keep an "open door"), s/he needs to reserve time to consider the major dimensions of the job, or else s/he will get lost in detail and lose the perspective which is the hallmark of a true professional. For Headteachers this balance can sometimes be difficult with the many groups of people who need his/her attention (teachers, parents and the larger community). Unfortunately, the Headteacher's wish to have some time for planning activities may sometimes be misconstrued as lack of desire to attend to problems - Aloofness.

The fourth consideration is that good human relationships acknowledge the importance of reality - of people, things, and relationships as they are. If administrators are to be in touch with reality, they need to develop ways of checking the accuracy of their perceptions. The best way for administrators to grow in interpersonal relationships is to communicate at a deeper level with the people close to them, for example, by asking others for feedback in interpersonal relationships. By responding typically in a non-punitive way, the administrator can encourage further sharing of perceptions. Meetings in which there is openness rather than a highly judgemental or contentious atmosphere promote the validation of perceptions.
The fifth consideration is that the goal of effective human relationships is continual improvement in the functioning of individual persons and groups. To achieve this goal, attention must centre both on the processes of functioning and on the completion of important work tasks. Improvement in group functioning is closely related to improvement in individual functioning. Individual group members, and their responses to forces outside the group determine the group's functional level at any specific point of time. By the same token, the group's functioning affects the development of each individual group member. It is important that groups mature in order to enhance individual personality and to provide effective ways of achieving work goals.

The sixth consideration is that human relationships can best be understood through the utilisation of Systems Theory. Systems Theory is useful to an administrator because it makes possible the conceptualization of many complex phenomena (also cf. Prasad, 1984). The concept and application of Systems Theory was dealt with in the section entitled "The School as a System". However, the feeling system in particular is very fundamental to the understanding of organisational climate.

The climate or atmosphere in an organisation is made up of the feelings of the people (Newell, 1978). Feelings are more fundamental to climate than behaviours but are far more difficult to measure. Behaviours are significant as a measure of climate simply because they are related to feelings. The kind of feeling system which comes into being results from the extent of acceptance or nonacceptance of the right of each individual to be an autonomous person with perceptions, values, interests, and behaviours which are unique rather than prescribed by the norms of the group or enmeshed with the selves of the other group members. Once a feeling system has developed, it powerfully conditions the behaviour of the individuals who comprise it as well as that of individuals entering the system. Newell (1978) gives an example of a faculty member who works in a small department who does everything in the "right" or acceptable way except in matters of dress (unusual and non-conforming clothes) and conversation (often making risque comments). He says that it is significant that the nonconforming aspects of the individual's behaviour are accepted by the group in the areas of dress and conversation. However, if this member tries to change his behaviour as far as the "right" things he does are
behaviour as far as the "right" things he does are concerned, the group members will make sarcastic remarks, avoid social relationships with him, and use whatever other pressures are necessary to get him to give up the change. Halpin (1966) used conformity as one of the criteria that measures a school's organisational climate.

The expectations which people have in relation to specific roles as compared to the actual performance of the individuals in these positions have much to do with their feelings towards one another. Conflict tends to be created to the extent that there is a discrepancy between role expectations and performance; if such conflict is not resolved through communication, it can lead to increasing tension throughout an organisation. Moreover, systems usually perpetuate rather than change an individual's level of functioning, and this is because individuals seek out roles and enter into interpersonal relationship systems which enable them to perpetuate their own functional level and style (Newell, 1978).

The Headteacher does more than any other one person to create the climate of a school. Teachers tend to function effectively in an Open climate in which ideas and feelings can be openly expressed; ideas are judged on their own worth rather than on the basis of who offered them; the staff as a whole works together rather than as small cliques or separate compartments of the organisation; respect for individual personality is reflected in the professional behaviours of the organisation, and zest for living is sensed in the atmosphere. Teachers tend to function less effectively in a Closed or repressive climate (Newell, 1978).

The surest way to change a feeling system in a school is through a change in the behaviour of the Headteacher (Newell, 1978). In addition to delegated authority, a Headteacher symbolises a parent figure to many children and staff, and thus has power to affect the school which goes far beyond actual delegated authority. The emotional climate experienced by most teachers is affected by the climate in the school as a whole. It takes a rare teacher to feel joyous and energetic in a school in which the Headteacher lacks respect for teachers and takes administrative actions which are generally upsetting to them.

Newell (1978) explains three interpersonal dysfunctions which the investigator considers to be vital in the understanding of human relationships, and therefore, of organisational climate. The first dysfunction is the automatic response mechanism. He says that the feeling system in a particular group or organisation tends to be dysfunctional to the extent that automatic
response mechanisms replace rational action; for example, when a staff member presents a problem to an administrator, the administrator "automatically" responds by giving advice; when a particular member who has sometimes demonstrated poor judgement speaks, s/he is "automatically" turned down by the other members of the faculty; when a particular individual tells a "joke," however lacking in humour, the whole group laughs; when a major administrative post is to be filled, the group seeks a White man (and not a Black man or a woman) for the position. Newell (1978) concludes that in schools and other organisations which are functioning more effectively, automatic responses are less characteristic. The behaviour in tackling problems in such organisations is characterised by spontaneity and ingenuity. Old patterns are not followed automatically, and divergent views are respected and considered. Each person feels free to express his/her own thoughts, and the climate is characterised by an ever-deepening level of communication, that is, by more and more open and appropriate expression of feeling-level and intuitive responses. In this type of school, conflict is utilised constructively because solutions which are effective over the long run are preferred to temporary relief from anxiety through customary responses.

Nevertheless, human beings are naturally inclined towards the familiar. Therefore they need to be "trained" - directly or indirectly - to respond in "unconventional" ways. Eradicating automatic response mechanisms is very difficult in many highly bureaucratic Ugandan schools, or those with Headteachers who rule with an iron hand and the non-typical response has not been cultivated and/or nurtured. Therefore the observation made about the importance of the changing Headteachers' behaviour in order to change the feeling system of a school is a vital one for Ugandan schools. Headteachers should not make teachers feel that they have to conform to predetermined responses to situations. In fact, Newell (1978) observes that schools that are basically functioning by automatic response mechanisms are not actually democratic. However, the issue of creating more open and appropriate expressions of feeling-level and intuitive responses should not end with the Headteacher. Teachers also have the responsibility not to bear undue pressure on non-conforming members, especially if the reason for non-conformity is a sound one.

The second dysfunction of the feeling system occurs through the development of triangular relationships (Newell, 1978). Triangling implies that one person or group draws someone else into a common non-rational emotional field. The simplest type of triangular relationship exists when two persons conspire against rather than communicate with a third person in an
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attempt to resolve interpersonal problems. This happens when (1) one person draws another person into feelings of hostility toward a third person or group; (2) one person talking to another is able to evoke feelings of sympathy concerning his troubles with somebody else; and (3) two persons feeling hostile toward one another transform their mutual hostility into shared hostility toward a third person (group or cause) or into shared emotional investment in a third person (or group or cause). More complex variations of triangular relationships develop when several persons or a group occupy one of the positions in the triangle. This could be by one person telling a "joke" which demeans Black people, Jews, or some other minority group, and draws his non-objecting listeners into a feeling system in which prejudice and hostility are shared and approved.

It should be noted that realistic planning and the discussion of problems with colleagues or consultants can serve useful and necessary purposes and are not necessarily a form of triangling, for as long as the "consultant" continues to be rational rather than emotionally involved with the "consultee" (Newell, 1978). In this case, triangling does not occur even though the consultee's relationship with a third person is the subject of discussion. Therefore, exchanges only become dysfunctional when they become a substitute for appropriate action toward the resolution of real problems.

The third dysfunctional response phenomenon is the **stereotyping** of faculty members by one another. Whereas stereotyping of the members of minority groups is an obvious phenomenon, the major type of stereotyping which is not generally recognised in faculties is the categorisation of faculty members as either "caring" or "task" oriented (Newell, 1978). These stereotypes develop as defense mechanisms. He gives the example of an argument involving the human and the task dimensions of education or organisation: a staff member who feels that he has had a difficult time upholding his side of the argument can conveniently stereotype the other person as being "soft" ("caring") or as "not caring" (being "task" oriented). Nevertheless, Newell (1978) observes that the tendency to stereotype faculty members is less characteristic as faculties develop their capacity to tolerate conflict and to utilise it constructively.

A competent administrator who respects human personality, who trusts cooperative thinking and action, can set an organisational tone which enables others in the organisation to learn efficiently and to develop in effective functioning. This is because administrative decisions
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affect everyone in the organisation, in relation to both job-related satisfactions and dissatisfactions. Other organisational members invariably react to administrative actions, some copying them and others opposing them, and administrative actions are instrumental in determining the procedures and conditions which facilitate or impede the resolution of organisational problems.

Newell (1978) demonstrates that refusing to cater to another's idiosyncrasies and getting out of the problem are two strategies that can improve climate. He gives the illustration of a play entitled "And Miss Reardon Drinks a Little" which centres around three sisters: Anna - a psychotic teacher, Catherine - an assistant school principal who "drinks a little", and Ceil - an assistant school superintendent. Catherine and Anna live together. Anna's psychosis stems from the fact that she cannot stand anything that represents corpses [leather, fur, eating meat (parts of a dead animal), and even telephone poles, which she considers to be dead trees]. Catherine keeps all these out of the house because of Anna, although she occasionally eats raw red meat under cover. At the end of the play, Ceil becomes so disgusted with both Anna and Catherine that she decides to break off the relationship. On the other hand, Catherine decides that she is going to continue to live with Anna, but she makes it clear to Anna that she intends to order large amounts of meat and that she will no longer cater to Anna's idiosyncrasies. One has reason to believe that Catherine's decision will enable Anna to find her way back to a better life. In this case, Catherine intends to stay in the relationship but to get out of the problem.

Another illustration is that of a young teacher who was appointed to a school principalship. After a few months he found that he was working hard but that the staff was shirking its duties. His visits to classes convinced him that many of the teachers were not effective in the classroom, and students were not under control; in committee and faculty meetings he had to do more than his share of the work in preparing materials between the meetings and sustaining the discussions; the faculty offered very little help when it came to organising special events, and they always came to him for advice on specific matters of classroom procedure. Having taken stock of the situation, he realised that he was not acting as an administrator. He began to discuss with individual teachers and faculty groups the ways in which the school programme could be improved, and when teachers came to him for inconsequential matters, he refused to become involved or alternatively, he helped them to

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arrive at their own decisions. He eventually quit doing so much of the preparatory work, and in some instances he deliberately missed some of the committee meetings. He also stopped running through the buildings to keep things under control. Gradually, the faculty responded to the change: some faculty members became more responsible while others became more irresponsible. When the principal persisted in this change in behaviour, the faculty as a whole became more responsible; teachers began to do a better job in the classrooms; they did more work in relation to faculty and committee meetings; and a few even began to volunteer to help the administrator on special tasks.

From this, Newell (1978) concludes that refusing to cater to another's idiosyncrasies and getting out of the problem may mean to the other person that one does not really care, but a deeper kind of caring can be shown through feeling-level communication. Teachers or administrators can only help themselves and others - whether one person or a social system - by developing and maintaining relationships. Breaking off a relationship or continuing to be part of the problem is seldom, if ever, helpful.

Newell (1978) highlights the fact that any brief statement on how to improve the organisational climate in schools is inevitably an oversimplification, and that in the final analysis, improvement in the organisational climate in a school is possible only to the extent that there is improvement in the school as whole - the quality and quantity of books, supplies and equipment; the buildings and grounds; the lunches and the transportation; and, of course, the learning of subject matter, skills, procedures, and attitudes.

One of the key issues in this study is the improvement of human relations in school administration. As Armstrong (1984) says, the way in which an individual behaves at work will depend on the climate of the organisation. A friendly and supportive organisational climate can be a motivator because some people see it as part of the system's rewards. Furthermore, he emphasised says that studying or examining an organisation's climate is important in organisational design: it helps explain how a structure has evolved into its present state and also identifies the factors that have to be taken into account in changing the structure and implementing change. According to Klatt et al. (1978), organisational climate can be used to instill new behavioural values such as openness and trust. As we saw above, a wholesome climate not only helps individuals to feel secure; it enables individuals to function effectively.
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We have seen that organisational climate is a complex set of factors which combines both interpersonal behaviour and task achievement dimensions. It affects the need satisfaction and performance of every member of the organisation. Organisational climate is as real as the weather, and just as intangible. However, means have been devised to measure it in various organisations. Whichever way is used, the most salient aspect is that of the measurement of attitudes since organisational climate is more of an attitudinal phenomenon. Although some writers do not make a distinction between organisational climate and organisational culture, the difference is highlighted in the present study in order to clarify what exactly is being measured.

Improving organisational climate is possible by realising that although the greatest onus lies with the administrator - because he typically wields more influence than any other single individual in a school - the teachers also have their part to play. The suggestions given for improving organisational climate include an appreciation of the intrinsic value of human relationships; understanding the basic factors that govern good, effective human relationships; recognising and dealing with the dysfunctions of interpersonal relationships which are basically the elimination of automatic response mechanisms, resisting the urge to resort to triangling, avoiding the stereotyping of persons within the organisation, developing and maintaining relationships, and refusing to be a part of the problem. The study of organisational climate is a powerful tool in the improvement of human relations in school administration, and therefore in the improvement of the functioning of schools both as need-satisfaction centres and goal-fulfilling organisations.