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CHAPTER - II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Introduction

A high quality teaching staff is the cornerstone of a successful educational system. Daily interaction between teachers and students is at the centre of the educational process; attracting and retaining high quality teachers is, thus, a primary necessity for education in India. One step in developing a high quality faculty is understanding the factors associated with teaching quality and retention. One of these factors is job satisfaction, which has been studied widely by organizational researchers and has been linked to organizational commitment as well as to organizational performance (Ostroff, 1992 and Mathieu, 1991). Often it is not merely satisfaction with the job but with the career in general that is important. Satisfaction with teaching as a career is an important policy issue since it is associated with teacher effectiveness which ultimately affects student achievement Ashton and Webb, 1986; Carnegie Task Force on Teaching, 1986. Because faculty are both the largest cost and the largest human capital resource of a school system, understanding factors that contribute to teacher satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) is essential to improving the information base needed to support a successful educational system.
Some people love their work, others dislike it. People take a job for their livelihood. Some stay in the same job and organization for a life time. Others are always on the move. Modern men have to work in organization so they are not only affected by the content but the context of environment in which they work. They may like some facts of their work and its environment. They may have dislike for some aspects of work or they may be indifferent to others. All these attitudes regarding the job come under the purview of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is satisfaction regarding work related dimensions. Bullock (1952) defines job satisfaction as "an attitude which results from a balancing and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced in connection with the job. This attitude maintains itself in evaluation of the job and of the employing organization. Job satisfaction is rather an evaluation of one's job and employing company as contributing suitably to the attainment of one's personal objectives".

Fundamentally an organization comes into existence exclusively through the efforts of people and people working in an organization are attracted to it because they anticipate that the organization will offer them rewards that will satisfy their needs. Expectations from work and its environment vary from person to person, depending upon the values and needs, people perceive. As such a person experiences different degrees of pleasures or displeasure on different job and / or with different aspects of the same job. Besides, there are
individual differences in the vocational needs of people and in jobs with respect to 'reinforcers' available for the satisfaction of needs.

Notwithstanding the controversy, a fact that stands out prominently in this century is the earnest desire of all serious thinkers to make work more agreeable, meaningful and interesting. Sociologists, Psychologists, Managers and Administrators today are pre-occupied with designing strategies for providing job satisfaction to all. And job satisfaction has been a favourite research area of both in India and abroad.

"Ideas, Whether those of art and science, or those embodied in practical appliances are the most 'real' of the gifts that each generation receives from its predecessors. The world's material wealth would quickly be replaced if it were destroyed but the ideas by which it was made were retained. If, however, the ideas were lost, but not the material wealth then would dwindle and the world would go back to poverty. And most of our knowledge of mere facts could be quickly recovered if it was lost, but the constructive ideas of thought remained, while if the ideas perished, the world would enter again the dark ages.

Job satisfaction is, therefore, receiving increasing attention to understand behaviour in organization. Studies and empirical research abounds both in India and abroad on job satisfaction. Research literature on the psychology of work
gives a lot of insight into some basic questions, such as, what motivates people to work? What are the effects of work? What makes work satisfying?

A concerted effort is required to study job satisfaction in secondary schools, so as to apply this knowledge for scientific management and advance beyond the twentieth century attitudes upon which our traditional job design principles are based.

2.2 Concept of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to a general attitude resulting from various specific attitudes to job factors, social factors, monetary factors, group relationships etc. Thus the job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes of an employee towards the job and related factors. The job satisfaction significantly contributes to employee, productivity and morale. The organizations which takes care of developing individual attitudes among the employees that contribute to job satisfaction will be benefited substantially. Hence, several authors have concentrated on this aspect and developed a number of theories. During the courses of time numerous meanings and concepts were also developed on this.

Work occupies an important place in the life of man. It is a major source for the satisfaction of the biological, psychological and social needs of the individual. Suitability of work is therefore very important for job satisfaction and the general mental health of the individual. The worker can remain contended
only if his needs gain satisfaction. This has necessitated a careful and scientific investigation into the determinants of job satisfaction.

The concept of job satisfaction is a many faceted one. Some researchers consider it as a generalized affective orientation to all aspects of the work situation. Such a view expresses the resultant of a whole host of orientations to specific aspects of the job. Job satisfaction is the sum total of the individual attitudes towards job. (Vroom, 1964).

Job satisfaction is a widely studied concept. It has been variously used as synonym of industrial morale and attitudes. Such an approach has been subjected to severe criticism from many researchers (Blum, 1956; Siegel, 1962; Harrell, 1964; Blum and Naylor, 1968).

Vroom maintains that attitudes and job satisfaction can be used interchangeably as both the concepts indicate "affective orientations on the part of individuals towards work roles which they are presently occupying, positive attitudes to the job are equivalent to job satisfaction and negative attitudes towards the job are equivalent to job dissatisfaction" (Vroom, 1964).

Need satisfaction is not to be confused with job satisfaction though both are closely interrelated. Need satisfaction refers to the process of fulfillment of various needs of the individuals; whole job satisfaction is a generalized attitude resulting from many specific attitudes in three areas: namely; specific job
factors, individual adjustment and group relationship. Though need satisfaction is a basic condition for job satisfaction, the two are not to be equated. Job satisfaction is much wider and complex process and is not entirely the function of the satisfaction of various needs of the individual. As Morse (1953) states, "Job satisfaction is the function of the strength of need and amount of environmental return".

The term job satisfaction has been used in a variety of ways, job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of ones job experiences. Job satisfaction is related but distinguishable from morale and job involvement, since a job is not an entity or a physical thing, but a complex of interrelationship of likes, roles, responsibilities, interaction, incentives and rewards. Job satisfaction to be intimately related to all of them.

Job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes of an employee towards his job. These attitudes are related with specific factors such as salary, service conditions, advancement opportunities and other benefits. Job-satisfaction is influenced by two factors one is the work he does and secondly his attitude towards the total work situation including the company, his supervisor and his follow workers. Job-satisfaction depends on the work situation which aims of the fulfillment of certain values that the individual possesses. It is the
psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that bring satisfaction to an individual with his job.

An acceptable definition of job satisfaction runs like this:

"Job satisfaction is the whole matrix of job factors that make a person like his work situation and be willing to head for it without distaste at the beginning of his work day".

This means that job satisfaction includes two things:

(a) Liking and enjoying the job

(b) Going to one's work without anger, feelings of frustration going, to one's job with head erect and with all smiles.

2.2.1 Definitions

Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) define: "Job satisfaction is a feeling towards discriminable aspects of job situations". These feelings are a function of characteristics of the job, judged in relation to a personal standard or frame of reference. Potentially important components of the frame of reference for the evaluation of job features include personal characteristics: namely; skills, expectations, values and aspirations which may be indexed by factors like background and experience of the worker and which may contribute substantially to an adaptation level; and situation variable which may represent
social norms as well as fealty constraints in terms of alternatives available in a
given situation.

Smith (1971) defines job satisfaction as “An attitude which results from a
balancing and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced in
connection with the job. It is the worker’s judgement of how well his job on the
whole is satisfying his various needs” In short this concept is individualistic and
hence subjective.

Blum and Naylor (1968) define “job satisfaction as a general attitude
which is the result of many specific attitudes in the three areas: namely; specific
job factors, individual characteristics and group relationship outside the job.”

As defined by Sinha (1971) “job satisfaction is the effect and attitudes
produced by individual’s perception of fulfillment of his needs in relation to his
work and the situation surrounding it.”

According to Hoppock (1935) “Job satisfaction constitutes a combination
of many psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances”.

Schaffar (1953), defines “Job satisfaction is a function of the difference
between the amount of some outcome provided by a work role and the strength
of a related desire or motive on the part of the person”. 
Chatterjee (1970), defines that "Job satisfaction is characterized as the degree of satisfaction obtained by the individual employee from performing the tasks which constitute the content of his job".

Different people look for different kinds of values in their jobs. Some people greater values on security while some others on income and so on. Individuals vary too much in their set of values depending upon economic, social and the like. But atleast some consistencies in values are found in the individuals within specific groups. Job satisfaction results from the attainment of values, which are compatible with one's needs.

Among the most important values or conditions conducive to job satisfaction are:

1. Mentally challenging work which the individual can cope successfully;
2. Personal interest in the work itself;
3. Work which is most physically tiring;
4. Rewards for performance which are just and in comparison with the individuals personal aspirations;
5. Working conditions which are compatible with individuals physical needs and which facilitate the accomplishment of his work goals;
6. High self-esteem on the part of the employee; and
7. Conditions in the work place which help the employee to attain the job values, such as interest in work, pay and promotion etc. and minimize role-conflict and role-ambiguity.

2.2.2 Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction

Perhaps the best discussion on factors relating to job satisfaction has been provided by Harrell in his book Industrial Psychology (1964). According to Harrell, (1964) it is not one factor alone which influences job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is caused by many interrelated factors and it is very difficult to isolate these factors. Sometimes one and sometimes all these factors work and importance of these factors appear to change from one situation to another.

Harrell (1964) believes that job satisfaction is dependent upon three major categories of factors; personal factors, factors inherent in the job and factors controlled by the management. These factors are

A. Personal Factors

(i) Sex

Sex influences job satisfaction. It has been found out on the basis of large number of studies conducted in the field that women are more satisfied with their jobs than are men. May be that women’s ambition and financial needs are less.
The research evidence about possible differences in job satisfaction between men and women employees is inconsistent and contradictory. Even when differences in work values and job satisfaction have been shown, there is disagreement about the causes. A large scale questionnaire study of more than 6,000 employees in none Western European countries found no clear pattern of differences between males and females in job satisfaction (De Vaus and McAllister, 1991).

Other studies have shown that the sources of job satisfaction differ for women who choose a career in the business world and women who are forced to enter the work force to support their families.

It may not be gender, as such, that relates to job satisfaction as much as the group of factors that vary with sex. For example, women are typically paid less in some instances (e.g., construction labour – Road or Building) than men for the same work, and their opportunities for promotion are fewer. Most women employees believe that they have to work harder and be more outstanding on the job than men employees before they receive comparable rewards. Obviously, these factors influence job satisfaction.
(ii) **Age**

As evident from the findings, of the study conducted by Morse (1953) workers of the higher age group have more job satisfaction than younger workers.

It has been found that age has little relationship to job satisfaction for all employees but it is important in some job situations. In fact, in some groups job satisfaction is higher with increasing age; in other groups job satisfaction is lower, and in others there is no difference.

(iii) **Number of Dependents**

Job satisfaction is inversely proportional to the number of dependents one has. The more the dependents the lesser the job satisfaction - it is a well-known fact.

(iv) **Job Experience**

During the initial stage of employment, new workers tend to be satisfied with their jobs. This period involves the stimulation and challenge of developing skills and abilities, and the work may seem attractive just because it is new. (This period is known as honeymooning days with the job). This early satisfaction wanes unless employees receive evidence of progress and growth. After a few years on the job, discouragement is common, often being brought on by the feeling that advancement in the company is too slow.
Research on the first four years of employment for 625 British engineers found that those who changed jobs reported significantly greater job satisfaction than those who remained with their initial employer. Changing jobs brought feedback on progress and growth that provided increased opportunities for advancement (Newton and Kesenan, 1991).

A study of 124 salesperson from seven companies showed that they became more dissatisfied with their jobs over time. More experienced workers did not believe that job performance led to rewards. Their sense of challenge and job involvement had diminished, and they showed lower organisations commitment (Stout, Slocum, and Cron, 1987).

Job satisfaction appears to increase after a number of years of experience and improves steadily thereafter. The relationship between job satisfaction and length of work experience parallels the relationship with age. They may be the same phenomenon under different labels.

(v) Time on the Job

The more time you spend on the job, the more is the satisfaction. The highest morale is reached after 20th year, according to Hull and Kolstad (1942).

(vi) Intelligence

Level of one's intelligence has a great deal to do with job satisfaction. There is not always a positive relationship between I.Q. and job satisfaction. As
English investigation showed that the most intelligent girls employed in chocolate factory were most easily bored. In another investigation, however, there was no relationship between job satisfaction and intelligence, according to Sharp and Kornhauser (1932).

(vii) Education

Again there is great deal of evidence on the relationship between one's education and one's job satisfaction. One study of white collar workers conducted by Morse (1953) indicated that those who had not completed high school were more satisfied. Other studies have shown no relationship. However, right placement of workers in the light of their professional education matters. A B.A., B.Ed. if working on proper grade is certainly satisfied as compared to one who is B.A., B.Ed. but works in a lower grade as a teacher.

(viii) Personality

Last personal factor is the factor of personality exclusive of intelligence. Personality is a major cause of job dissatisfaction. According to Weitz (1952) certain specific traits of the personality are responsible for causing general dissatisfaction. It has been further observed that those who are rated by their co-workers as having maximum interpersonal desirability are usually satisfied in their job. Hence, the capacity to adjust with varied circumstances may be one of the causes of job satisfaction. Personality maladjustment on the contrary may be responsible for job dissatisfaction.
B. Factors Inherent In the Job

(i) Type of work

Type of work is the most important factor inherent in the job. Varied work brings about more job satisfaction as compared to routine work. Hoppock (1935) found that satisfaction varies almost from 0 to 100 percent depending upon the job. It has been, however, found that professionally trained people are more satisfied with their jobs than unskilled workers.

(ii) Skill of Work

Fairchand (1930) conducted a study of relation of skill and job satisfaction and concluded. "Where the skill exists to a considerable degree, it tends to become the first source of satisfaction to the workman. Satisfaction in conditions of work or in wages becomes predominant only where satisfaction in skill has materially decreased".

(iii) Occupational Status

Occupational status is related to job satisfaction, but it is not identical with job satisfaction. A person who occupies a high rated job is not necessarily satisfied with the job. An important thing to be noted. This status depends not only on the way the employee regards the status of the job, but also on the way it is regarded by other whose opinion is valued. Occupational status varies from country to country. In Russia medical profession occupies 4th position (1927) and peasant is rated as first. Occupations are rated for their prestige value. It
has been generally found that employees are more dissatisfied in jobs that have less social status and prestige value. And these values are constant but change only under compelling circumstances for example the status during a war.

(iv) **Size of Organization**

It has been found that in small organizations morale and job satisfaction of employees are higher than that in large organizations. Employees are optimistic about advancement in small organizations and are in a position to make suggestions. Thus, employees feel more secure.

C. **Factors Controlled by Management**

(i) **Security**

Security of service is a big factor which contributes towards job satisfaction. Employees want steady work. Fear of insecurity haunts many. This is more so in a period of depression caused by calamities like war, flood etc. Security for old age, security for family etc., and this security is an important factor.

On the other hand, it may be mentioned that security is of less importance to an exceptionally qualified persons for there is always a job waiting for him.
(ii) Pay

Pay is an important factor in job satisfaction but it is not a "cure-all" which makes all people happy in a company or a firm. Security, opportunities for advancement rate much higher than pay but still better emoluments have a great deal of relationship with job satisfaction.

(iii) Fringe Benefits

Another factor which influences job satisfaction is fringe benefits namely bonus, free medical aid and provident fund free transport and subsidized housing etc. This factor is not of much important as it is not a immediate concern to the employee but it still matters for fringe benefits are substitutes for security.

(iv) Opportunities for Advancement

Studies have shown that opportunity for advancement ranks above average among workers. This factor is very important for skilled workers they are always on the look out for higher avenues of work. Same is true of younger workers for they are yet to settle in life and they want to settle in a secure job. Despite the fact that one is not fit for promotion, one aspires to be promoted.

(v) Working Conditions

Another factor equally important is the working conditions is a concern or a plant. Working conditions include many things like hours of work, place of
work, weather and proper lighting and ventilation. It also includes the machine handled by one. It also includes the responsibility and supervision and attitude of supervisors towards the worker. Wherry(1954), Dabas(1958) and Harrison(1961) have found in their studies that attitude towards working conditions is one of the underlying causes of job satisfaction.

(vi) Co-workers

Every worker genuinely wants to be accepted by his co-workers and desires congenial interpersonal relationship with them. Better personal and social relationships in the working group have always been a contributing factor towards the maintenance of high morale and a favourable attitude. If one has more friends and less foes in the working group, is accepted by the group and has the sense of belonging, he has a better feeling of job satisfaction.

(vii) Downward Flow of Importance

Several studies have indicated a great desire of employees for information from management. Employees will like to know how they are doing and how they can improve. They also want to know about the organization its plans, processes, whether their jobs will continue and possibilities for promotion. In short, the employees want to be kept well informed.

The discussion so far regarding the factors which influences the job satisfaction of teachers reveals that among all the factors, factors like sex,
experience, and pay scales, play an important role in determining the level of
job satisfaction of teachers.

2.2.3 Theories of Job Satisfaction

To explain the causes of job satisfaction some theories have been
advanced. These theories have attempted to explain their overall influence on
the worker's behaviour and performance in general.

Maslow's Theory (1943)

According to Maslow's theory the human needs can be classified into five
different groups such as (1) Physiological needs, (2) Safety needs, (3) Love
needs, (4) Esteem needs and (5) Self actualization needs. Thus, it proceeds from
very primary needs such as physiological and safety needs to a group of higher
social needs like love needs, esteem needs and self actualization needs. In
other words these five needs according to Maslow form a "hierarchy of needs"
structure.

Referring to the influence of Maslow's 'hierarchy of needs' structure on
job satisfaction, Blum and Naylor (1968) have pointed out "Jobs which are able
to satisfy more of the Maslow needs would be jobs which would result in
greater satisfaction on the part of the employee."
Vroom's Theory (1964)

Vroom has viewed that the strength of the force on the worker to remain on his job is the increasing function of the valence of his job. According to Vroom the attractiveness of a job depends upon this valence. Vroom’s theory suggests that job satisfaction should be negatively correlated to absenteeism and employee turnover. This has been supported by several experimental findings. However, the positive relationship between job satisfaction and production which may follow from this has not been proved in many cases.

Stogdill's Theory (1959)

Several investigations on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance indicate no definite relationship between the two. In other words, job satisfaction need not necessarily be the cause of job performance. Stogdill (1959) on the basis of his research holds the view that the output of organisations are group integration, production and morale. When individual expectations are fulfilled, cohesiveness and integration of the group occurs, but satisfaction may not necessarily be related to production. Actually it is production which depends upon the group structure. Production and morale can only be a function of job satisfaction when the conditions leading to high morale and production are more or less identical with those variables which lead to the fulfilment of worker expectations.
Thus, Stogdill has made an attempt to prove that the common notion that production is a necessary outcome of job satisfaction is not always true. This view of Stogdill has been supported by the findings of Mohanty (1981). Production and job satisfaction may or may not go together.

**Herzberg’s Theory**

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) made a study to find out the causes of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of engineers and accountants. Feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction about the job were collected from these subjects by the individual interview technique. They then tried to find out factors mentioned along with job satisfaction and the factors mentioned along with job dissatisfaction. They also made a study to find out if the factors described under the feeling of satisfaction and dissatisfaction were different. The findings suggested that factors related to high satisfaction (satisfiers) were different from variables or conditions which were associated with circumstances leading to low satisfaction (dissatisfiers). Under high satisfaction, achievement recognition responsibility and advancement etc. were pointed out. These are called satisfiers which are related to the content of the work. Under dissatisfaction were factors dealing with supervision, salary, the company policy and working environment. These items are named as ‘context factors’ as they relate to the situation in which a person performs his work.
Thus, the investigator classified work variable into two main categories known as satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Satisfiers are otherwise known as motivators and are usually job content factors which lead to job satisfaction. Dissatisfiers are called job context or situational or hygiene factors, which are usually associated with job dissatisfaction.

The satisfiers do not dissatisfy and the dissatisfiers do not satisfy. These two general classes of variables are known as Herzberg’s two factor theory. Herzberg held the view that the satisfiers give job satisfaction and the dissatisfiers give job dissatisfaction. The need for self actualisation is present in every individual and whenever this need is fulfilled, the individual gets satisfaction in his job. For this, his work is of the highest significance to him because it helps him to fulfill the aspiration and ambition of his life and finally it brings fulfilment of the self.

2.3 Concept of Personal Effectiveness

One precondition for personal effectiveness is better self-awareness. But only understanding one’s self does not make a person effective. One simple model for self-awareness, which is widely used, is the Johari Window, developed by Luft and Ingham (1973). In this model, there are two main dimensions for understanding the self; those aspects of a person’s behaviour and style that are known to him (self) and those aspects of his behaviour that
are known to those with whom he interacts (others). A combination of these two dimensions reveals four areas of knowledge about the self. (Figure 2.1) (Pareek, 2004).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Known to self</th>
<th>Not known to self</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Known To Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arena (A)</td>
<td>Blind (B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Known To Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed (C)</td>
<td>Dark (D)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2.1: Johari Window**

The upper left-hand square is the *arena* or the public self—that part of an individual's behaviour known both to himself and to those with whom he interacts. The *arena* includes information such as name, age, physical appearance, and the familiar or organizational affiliation.

The *blind* area contains those aspects of the person's behaviour and style that others know but person himself does not know about. A person may have mannerisms of which he is unaware but which are perceived by others as funny, annoying, or pleasing. For example, an individual might be surprised to
hear that his method of asking questions annoys others who may interpret them as cross-examination rather than curiosity or a request for information.

The closed area involves that which is known to the person but not revealed to others; things in this area are secret. For example, a subordinate may be annoyed if his supervisor does not ask him to sit down during the meeting, but he will remain standing without letting the supervisor know that he is annoyed. The supervisors may think that the subordinate does not mind standing and may accept his behaviour as a part of their hierarchical relationship. Most of us have many such feelings in our closed areas that we are unwilling to reveal to the persons concerned.

The fourth area is the dark area, inaccessible to both the self and others. Some psychologists believe that this is a very large area indeed, and that certain circumstances (for example, an accident), a particular stage of one's life or special techniques such as psychoanalysis or psychodynamics, may suddenly make a person realize some hidden aspects of himself. Because the dark area cannot be consciously controlled or changed, this discussion will be limited to the arena, the blind and closed areas.

In the Johari Window model the size of the arena or open space is critical for personal effectiveness. Arena increases in proportion to the decrease in the blind and the closed areas.
2.3.1 Aspects of Personal Effectiveness

Openness: Openness then, is critical for personal effectiveness. Openness has two aspects self disclosure (sharing with others what do not seem to know about one’s self), and use of feedback (being open to what others say on aspects which one may not be aware of.

The extent to which one shares ideas, feelings, experiences, impressions, perceptions, and various other personal data with others, shows the degree of openness which is an important quality and contributes a great deal to person’s effectiveness.

Openness in combination with perceptiveness and communication makes a persons much more effective. But openness alone is often misunderstood as sharing everything with everyone.

Openness can be characterized as effective, first, if the person sees that sharing what he wants to share is appropriate. Inappropriate sharing does not contribute to effective openness. For example, a typical task group is usually an inappropriate place for a person to share marital problems. Second, openness can be characterized as effective if the person is aware of what his openness is likely to do the others. Those who practice openness by calling others names or pouring out all their feelings are unlikely to be effective. For example, a supervisor who takes out his anger on a subordinate without taking into...
consideration that person's ability to process and use the data generated, will not be effective. The supervisor would be better advised to listen to the subordinate and share his concerns in a manner that will help the subordinate use the data he receives.

**Receiving Feedback** : Feedback on those aspects of a person about which others are aware but the person himself does not know about may be positive or negative. Generally, there is no problem in positive feedback. Negative feedback, however, creates dissonance with self-image, and may be threatening to the ego. When one receives negative feedback (for example, if one is criticized or blamed) one tends to be defensive, and generally uses defensive behaviour to deal with the feedback.

**Perceptiveness** : The ability to pick up verbal and non-verbal cues from others indicates perceptiveness. However, like openness, this dimension must be combined with the other two dimensions for effectiveness. A person who is not open may receive many cues and much feedback from others at first, but soon he may be seen as being manipulative and generally unavailable. Perceptiveness and openness reinforce each other and, if used effectively, are likely to increase personal effectiveness. Like openness, perceptiveness can be used appropriately or inappropriately. If a person is too conscious of others feelings, he may inhibit his interactions. Similarly, a person who is too conscious of his own limitations will tend not to take risks. Effective
perceptiveness can be increased by checking others reactions to what is said. A person who does not do this (in other words, if he is not open), may become over concerned about the cues he receives.

2.3.2 Developing Personal Effectiveness

Personal effectiveness must be viewed across three dimensions—openness, perceptiveness, and communication—all significant to interpersonal relationships. By becoming more open, a person reduces his or her closed area; the blind area is reduced by increasing perceptiveness. Communication can be improved in various ways. These three dimensions, however, do not function in isolation, but interact with each other. In order to increase effectiveness, it is necessary to work on a combination of all three.

Personal effectiveness can be increased by moving towards appropriate perceptiveness and openness. Organizational consultants and trainers, while working on the process leading to increased effectiveness, will find it useful to emphasize the role of both openness and perceptiveness as contributing factors to effectiveness. Movement in these directions is possible, however, only through a greater emphasis in communication. People must learn to take risks in giving feedback to others and to use in an appropriate manner the feedback they receive. Only in this way can personal effectiveness be truly increased.
2.4 Concept of Teachers' Attitude

Attitudes are evaluative statements. They respond one's feeling either favourably or unfavourably to persons, objects or/and events. In other words, attitudes reflect how one feels about something.

The quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement of secondary education has raised problems of selection of right type of teachers and enriching programmes of teacher-preparation. This necessitates not only improving the knowledge and teaching competence of a teacher but also to inculcate in him healthy professional attitudes and desirable teacher-like qualities.

Fundamentally, the success of secondary education does not depend either on the definition of aims, statement of objectives or discussion of subject values but on the academic and professional preparation of teachers.

For the professional preparation of teachers the study of attitudes held by them is very important. How a teacher performs the duty as a teacher is dependent, to a great extent, on the attitudes, values, and beliefs. A positive favourable attitude makes the work not only easier but also more satisfying and professionally rewarding. A negative unfavourable attitude makes the teaching task harder, more tedious and unpleasant.
In addition a teacher’s attitudes not only affect his behaviour in the classroom but also influence the behaviour of his students. Moreover effective and productive learning on the part of the pupils can be achieved by employing teachers with desirable attitudes or by shaping their attitudes in the desired direction.

Before considering what teachers can do to develop favourable attitudes in children. We should first take a look at their attitude towards children. The extreme case of the sadistic person who enjoys making people suffer can be used to illustrate the fact that people use others to satisfy their own personality needs. One person may like teaching because it provide, an opportunity to dominate, to give order, and to be the judge, jury, and chief executioner! Another may feel that need of excessive affection or admiration and use the pupils to obtain it. These are of course, not wholesome attitudes. A teacher, or parent, may seemingly be very kind, loving and over indulgent, but he is behaving this way in order to compensate for his true feeling of rejection and hatred, which he may not admit even to himself.

In general, what has been said of pupils also applies to teachers. They may have favourable or unfavourable attitudes toward young people especially unfavourable toward those who make trouble and these attitudes may transfer to the class and the whole educational system. Such attitudes may have developed, as consequences of the teacher’s own home and school experiences
and the way in which life has treated them. Since the attitudes of one person produce attitudes in others, we may well ask what characteristic of teachers' attitudes make pupils move toward them (acceptance) rather than away from or against them (rejection). It is possible to generalize from what we know of satisfiers and annoyers so far as pupils are concerned, and say that pupil's attitudes will tend to be favourable if the teacher likes children, likes to help, likes to learn and likes to lead.

2.4.1 Meaning and Definitions of the term Attitude

The conceptual definition of the term attitude has been given in many ways by different authors. The term attitude was first used to denote "the sum-total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats and convictions about any specific topics ". (Thurstone and Chave, 1929). Later however, when motivational and affective characters of attitudes were emphasized. Thurstone(1931) defined an attitude as "the affect for or against a psychological object."

Allport (1935) defined attitude as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's responses to all objects with which it is related". The affective quality of attitude was also emphasized by Krech and Crutchfield (1948). They defined an attitude as an "enduring organization of motivational,
emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world.

In an other definition an attitude is defined as “Attitudes are predispositions to respond, but are distinguished from other such states of readiness in that they predispose towards an evaluative response (Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957)

Good (1959) defines attitude as “a readiness to reaction towards or against some situation, person or thing in a particular manner e.g. Love or hate”.

All these definitions point out to the underlying dimensions of favourability and ‘unfavourability’ towards an object, which formed the cornerstone of Thurstone’s attitude scaling procedures. But some others like Fishbein and Ajzen (1972) have studied the problem of relationship between attitudes and behaviours. The attitudes are viewed by them as disposing the individual to think, feel and act in three sources. It is evident, therefore that attitudes consist of cognitive, affective and behavioral components. However, the affective component remains the central aspect of the attitude.

2.4.2 The Nature of Attitude

Attitudes involve some knowledge of a situation. However, the essential aspects of the attitude is found in the fact that some characteristics, feelings or
emotion is experienced, and as we would accordingly expect, some definite
tendency to action is associated. Subjectively, then, the important factor is the
feeling or emotion, objectively it is the response, or at least the tendency to
respond. In any case, attitudes are important determinants of behaviour. If we
are to change them we must change their emotional components. Frequently
the acquisition of new knowledge with reference to a person, a political party,
or an idea will result in arousing new emotional associations.

2.4.3 Dimensions of Attitude

Attitudes have four dimensions; intensity, direction, extensity and
duration. Each of these aspects is important in understanding attitudes and
their influence upon behaviour. Assessment of these characteristics is done
most frequently by observations of behaviour, but attempts have been made to
develop tests to evaluate attitudes. Behaviour patterns provide evidence of
each of these dimensions. Whereas most tests simply attempt to survey the
attitudinal patterns and determine their positive or negative direction.

Intensity of an attitude is evidenced by the extent to which it motivates
an individual's behaviour. Limits of intensity can be determined by the nature
of the barriers needed to inhibit a response. Behaviour motivated by a weak
attitude can be thwarted by obstacles that seem to have very little actual
resistance, but an intense attitude is likely to find expression in behaviour
despite almost overwhelming obstacles. An observer must be aware that an attitude can be expressed in several ways, and that if it is intense, there is likely to be a shift in mode of expression, when several obstacles are confronted. A child with an intensely negative attitude toward authority figures may be deterred from direct aggression toward them, but may write dirty remarks in public places, destroy property and act out these feelings indirectly.

The direction of an attitude is observed in behaviour as a force that repels, attracts, or fails to motivate the child in any direction as in the case of an "couldn't care less attitude". Although behaviour in a given direction frequently indicates a directly related attitude. There are numerous occasions when the opposite interpretation is in order. An individual having a negative attitude towards a given group may join them, outwardly seeming to have a positive attitude but by very subtle means bring about disruption and chaos in the group or diver it from its goal.

Extensity is observed in a broad survey of the patterns of attitudes within the individuals. Some attitudes seem to have broad and pervading influences. These probably develop from a wide variety of situations that have reinforced feelings until generalizations have occurred. A single potent incident of a sort that can be generalized may bring about an extensive influence. Other attitudes seem to be unique or at most related to only a small segment of behaviour.
Actions that are uncommon in a particular child may provide evidence of this type of limited attitude.

The duration of an attitude is another aspect that is important to education. A function of education is the modification of existing negative attitudes and the creation of new ones that are positive and enduring. Attitudes may endure for only a short time because they have not been reinforced by experiences. In fact, new experiences may bring about a complete reversal of a previous attitude. In general it can be said that, an attitude endures as long as it promotes the goal objectives of the individual. It is evident that attitudes are modified through experience. They may be changed from strongly negative to positive, strongly positive to negative or shades of change may occur between these extremes. Since attitudes are subject to change it is important to look at the methods that have been found effective and ineffective in producing change.

2.4.4 Factors Influencing the Development of Attitudes

As mentioned earlier 'Attitudes' are acquired once. Development of attitude is influenced by many factors. Following are some of the important factors.
Gender:

It is well known fact that attitudes are reactions towards something. There is no uniform pattern of attitude among different persons. This difference is remarkable with respect to gender of an individual. It seems that there are also some important gender differences in the development of emotions. Endocrinological effect may be one of the main reasons.

An other important gender difference is shown by Allport-Vernon ( ) study of values. On this test males receive higher scores for aesthetic, social and religious values. Quite obviously these and the other gender differences in interests and values will have an important effect on the results of institution.

Age:

Generally we all feel that the person's attitude varies according to the age. Common observation of everyone is that the older people and younger people differ in their attitude towards many things. This is commonly known as ‘Generation Gap’.

School Government:

The form the school government seems to be an important factor in determining attitudes both towards government itself and towards other things. In an experimental study, Lewin and Lippitt concluded that there were more tension and more evidence of egocentric feelings in a group under autocratic
control, whereas there were more co-operative endeavor, more expression of objective attitudes and of praise and friendliness, and more constructiveness in a group with democratic control.

**The Teacher:**

Brown asked 300 primary and under below graduate students in Educational Sociology to evaluate various factors in their school experience that had been influential in the formation of personality and character traits. According to their adjustments, the personalities of their teachers had been the most important single factor: 65.3 percent thought this influence had been good but 33.3 percent thought it had been unfavourable. Only about 10 percent did not consider the teachers influence important. In 10 percent did not consider the teacher influence important in the line with this emphasis on the personality of the teacher, the group recommended that teacher be selected more on the basis of personality and love for children and lesson the basis of mastery of subject matter.

**Experience:**

It is well known that the attitudes are results of one's particular biography. It has also been pointed out earlier that education in attitudes to change term in the desired direction is possible. On the more purely intellectual side, attitudes are conditioned by the growth of the intelligence. Attitudes are
based on perceptual experience, and their development will depend on memory, understanding and reasoning, Ryans (1960) concluded that increase in age and experience of teachers influenced the teacher's characteristics in the negative direction.

Education:

As pointed out earlier attitudes are acquired once and modification or change of attitudes is greatly influenced by the acquisition of knowledge. It is very effective through the systematic formal education.

2.4.5 Importance of Right Attitudes of Teachers in Education

By considering the definitions given by many psychologists, it is obvious that, every, act, behaviour, performance of a person is determined by his attitudes. Therefore attitudes play an important role in determining one's personality. Person having positive favourable attitude towards something will behave in a proper, desirable, and acceptable way.

One of the important aims of education is to develop and modify the attitudes of pupils in the desirable way. Main characteristics of a particular society at particular time is dependent on its members who are the final products of the education system of that particular society.
Some attitudes of the teacher may produce results which are not necessarily intended. Studies by Lippitt and White (1943, 1947) and by Anderson et.al (1945, 1946) made it clear that the attitudes of the teachers towards pupils had a considerable effect on classroom relations. Where the teacher was autocratic or dominating, the children were likely to be aggressive or over submissive. They showed little pride in their work, and they did not co-operative well with one another. In the class room of the democratic or socially integrative teacher, on the other hand, the children were relaxed and intensely, they worked well together and they were interested in what they were doing. Careful observation made it clear that these differences in the children were the results of the differences in the attitudes towards them of their teachers. There is ample evidence that pupils reflect, in the classroom at least, the attitudes of their teachers.

It is probably true to say that their attitude to the teachers affects the attitudes of the pupils to their work. With younger children in particular, liking for a subject may often results from liking for a teacher, or for the classroom atmosphere associated with a teacher. Older pupils are less affected by such considerations and all the more likely to respond to the interest inherent in the subject. But Corey and Berry (1938) found some evidences that dislike of a teacher does sometimes carry over to the subject, though the converse is less likely to be true. The teacher who has little sympathy with the pupils, and does
not understand their needs, may induce a dislike of school and school work, which may affect their achievement. Smith (1971) made the following observation in this regard.

"Consequently, research on teaching is becoming more concerned with the problem of determining the effects of the teachers attitudes on what he does in the classroom and on the achievement of his pupils. There can be little doubt that the attitudes a teacher has towards himself influence his behaviour in the classroom and there are strong reasons for believing that the teachers attitudes towards his pupils for example, his expectations of them will influence their achievement. There can be no doubt that personality in the attitudinal sense is a factor in teaching behaviour.

Teachers may be able to disguise their attitudes both from themselves and outside observers, but they are still likely to influence their pupils. Symonds (1950) suggested that the personality of a teacher can be studied best by watching the reactions of the pupils. The teacher who is confident and secure, who is interested in children and able to accept them as they are, likely to be successful. But the teacher who is insecure, critical of the system and people and conditions of work, is often critical, sarcastic and authoritative towards the pupils. This kind of maladjustment teacher will tend to impose a barrier between himself and the children, and neither he nor they will be likely to be happy in classroom.
It seems that is more important for a teacher to be the kind of person that the pupils can feel they know than for him to feel he knows the pupils well. A teacher whose prevailing attitude is shy but friendly may do more for his pupils than one who is more extraverted in his approach, possibly because he is less likely to make them feel the need for defensiveness on their part. Support for this view came from the work of Phillips (1953). Using a controlled projection test, he obtained scores for a group of training college students on a number of personality attributes, and found that these gave appreciable product movement correlations with teaching marks. These he called sympathetic understanding of children, friendliness and good disposition and emotional stability.

Thus, mere transmission of knowledge is not a job of a teacher it can be concluded that the teacher with right attitude towards Educational aspects, can only develop the proper attitudes in pupils it is the teacher’s function to provide inspiration and use his greater knowledge and experience to develop and modify the attitudes of the children in desirable direction.

2.5 Concept of Role Efficacy

The performance of a person working in an organization depends on his own potential effectiveness, technical competence, managerial experience, etc. as well as on the design of the role that he performs in an organization. It is the interaction of the two (the person and the role) that ensures a person’s
effectiveness. Unless a person has the requisite knowledge, technical competence and skills required for the role, he cannot be effective. Equally important is how the role, which he occupies in the organization, is designed. If the role does not allow the person to use his competence, and if he constantly feels frustrated in the role, his effectiveness is likely to be low.

The integration of a person and a role comes about when the latter is able to fulfill the needs of the individual and when the individual in turn is able to contribute to the evolution of the role. More we move from role taking to role making, greater is the likelihood of the role being effective. Role taking is responding to the expectations of others, while role making is taking the initiative to creatively design the role so that the expectations of both others and the role occupant are integrated. The effectiveness, of a person’s role in an organization will depend upon his own potential effectiveness, the potential effectiveness of the role, and the organizational climate. The potential effectiveness can be termed as efficacy.

Personal efficacy is the potential effectiveness of a person and interpersonal situations. Role efficacy is the potential effectiveness of an individual occupying a particular role in an organization. Role efficacy can be seen as the psychological factor underlying role effectiveness.
2.5.1. Aspects of Role Efficacy

Role efficacy has several aspects. The more aspects there are the higher is the efficacy. These aspects can be classified into three groups of dimensions. One dimension is role making (as opposed to role taking). The former is an active attitude towards defining and making ones role as one likes, whereas the latter is a passive attitude that mainly responds to other's expectations.

Dimension 1: Role making

1: Self-Role Integration: Every person has strength, experience, technical training, special skills, and some unique contribution to make. When his role provides him with greater opportunity for using such special strength, his role efficacy is likely to be higher. This is called self-role integration. The self, or the person and the role get integrated through the possibility of a person's use of his special strength in the role. In a certain organization, a person was promoted to a responsible position. This was seen as a coveted reward and it makes the person concerned very happy.

2. Proactivity: A person who occupies a role responds to the various expectations that people in the organization have from that role. While this certainly gives satisfaction, it also satisfies others in the organization. However, if it is also expected to take the initiative in starting some activity, the efficacy will be higher. Reactive behaviour (responding to the expectations of others)
helps a person to be effective to some extent, but Proactivity (taking the initiative rather than only responding to others’ expectations) contributes much more to efficacy. If a person likes to take the initiative but has no opportunity to do so in his present role in the organization, his efficacy will be low.

3. **Creativity:** It is not only initiative that is important for efficacy. An opportunity to be creative and try new and unconventional ways of solving problems is equally important. In a state government department, people performing clerical roles met, as a part of reorganization experiment, to discuss how each individual could experiment with the system of cutting delays in processing papers. The results were amazing. Not only did the satisfaction of people in that department went up, but also delays were considerably reduced and some innovative systems emerged. Certainly, these were further discussed and modified, but the opportunity it gave people to be creative and try out innovative ideas increased their role efficacy and their performance improved markedly. If a person perceives that to perform only routine tasks, it becomes detrimental for high role efficacy and feels that the role does not allow any time or opportunity to be creative, efficacy is bound to be low.

4. **Confrontation:** In general, if people in an organization avoid problems or shift them on to others, their role efficacy will be low. The tendency to confront problems and find relevant solutions contribute to efficacy. When people facing interpersonal problems sit down, talk about them and search out solutions, their
efficacy is likely to be higher compared to situations where they either deny having such problems or refer them to their higher officers.

**Dimension – 2: Role Centering**

5. **Centrality:** If a person feels that the role he occupies is central to the organization, his role efficacy is likely to be high. If people feel that their roles are peripheral that is not very important their potential effectiveness will be low. This is true for all persons and not only for those at the lowest level.

6. **Influence:** A relative concept is that of influence or power. The more influence a person is able to exercise in the role, the higher its efficacy is likely to be. One factor that makes roles in the public sector or in civil services more efficacious is the opportunity to influence a large section of society. A gatekeeper in a hospital was trained to screen visitors outside visiting hours. Gatekeeper used his own discretion in admitting them and referred a case to nurses or doctors only for clarification and guidance. Interviews with such employees in this hospital showed that they were very proud of their roles. One obvious factor underlying the higher motivation of the workers was the discretion given to the roles.

7. **Personal Growth:** Another factor that contributes to role efficacy is the perception that the role provides the individual with an opportunity to grow and develop. There are several instances of people leaving one role and becoming
very effective in another this happens primarily because they have greater opportunity to grow in the second role. A head of a training institute accepted a new position, taking a big financial cut in the salary, because it was felt that there was nothing more to learn in the previous position while the new one afforded good opportunities to grow further. Examples of executives switching over to faculty roles at management institutes indicate the importance of self-development in role efficacy. In many institutes of higher learning, the roles of the research/teaching staff pose problems of low efficacy. The main reason is the lack of opportunity for them to grow systematically in their roles. Institutes that are able to plan the growth of such people in their roles will increase the efficacy of the roles, and in turn, obtain greater contribution from them.

Dimension-3: Role Linking

8. **Inter-role linkage:** Linking one’s role with others’ in the organization increases efficacy. If there is a joint effort to understand problems, find solutions, etc, efficacy of the various roles involved is likely to be high of course, the presumption is that people know how to work effectively. Similarly, if a person is a member of a task group that is set up for a specific purpose, his efficacy (other a person works without any linkage with other roles) reduces role efficacy.

9. **Helping Relationship:** If person performing a particular role feels that one can get help from some source in the organization whenever the need
arises, is likely to have higher role efficacy. On the other hand, if there is a feeling that no help is forthcoming when asked for, or that the respondents are hostile, role efficacy will be low. A helping relationship is of two kinds – feeling free to ask for help and expecting that help would be available when it is needed, as well as willingness to give help and respond to the needs of others.

10. **Superordination:** A role may have linkages with systems, groups and entities beyond the organization. When a person performing a particular role feels that what is likely to be of value to larger group, the efficacy is likely to be high. The roles that give opportunities to role occupants to work for superordinates goals have the highest efficacy. Superordinate goals are those that serve large groups, and those, which cannot be achieved without some collaborative effort. Roles in which people feel that what they are doing is helpful to the organization in which they work, have higher efficacy.

### 2.5.2 Role Efficacy and Effectiveness

Research shows that persons with high role efficacy seem to experience less role stress, anxiety and work-related tension. They rely on their own strengths to cope with problems, use more purposeful behaviour, are active and interactive with people and the environment, persist in solving problems (mostly by themselves), show growth orientation, attitudinal commitment and
positive approach behaviour. Such persons feel satisfied with life and with their jobs and roles in the organization. This is a profile (measured by influence, amenities at the work place, nature of job, and supervisory behaviour). Stepwise multiple regression yielded supervisory behaviour as an important dimension in role efficacy. Role efficacy has also been found to be related to age, the type of role, the location of the work place and length of employment.

Regarding organizational aspects, a participative climate, in which the employees get higher job satisfaction, contributes to role efficacy. It seems that a climate promoting concern for excellence, use of expertise, and concern for the large issues also contributes to role efficacy. On the other hand, a climate characterized by control and affiliation seems to lower employees' role efficacy. An innovation-fostering climate was found to be a strong predictor of role efficacy.

2.6 Concept of Teachers' Involvement

Over the years, teachers have been extensively involved in the development of provincial achievement tests. The teachers have participated in item development, field-testing of items in their classrooms, and test review. Teachers also participate in the marking of the achievement tests. When the curriculum of a course is revised, teachers participate in the work of redesigning the achievement test in accordance with the new curriculum, and in setting appropriate standards for expected student performance. Teacher involvement
in these activities helps ensure the validity and fairness of the assessment and appropriateness of the standards.

While teachers have assisted in the testing programmes, the programmes also have provided valuable professional development for teachers. The criteria that are provided for making, together with samples of students' work demonstrating various levels of proficiency, help teachers to clarify their understanding of the provincial standards, and thereby help the teachers in planning and implementing effective instructional programs. Feedback from teachers indicates that working with colleagues from across the province during the marking of achievement tests is also a mean for teachers to share perspectives and gain valuable information about teaching and classroom assessment. Teachers also may access the professional development sessions related to assessment that are offered through the regional professional development consortia.

2.6.1 Meaning of Involvement

Involvement at work means co-operation and commitment, in people finding significance and achievement in their task, in regarding it not merely as a way of earning a livelihood, but as an outlet for both energy and skill, where judgement as well as dexterity are needed and where decisions have to be made.
Involvement in the broadest sense of the word could also mean democratization of ownership, of government, of terms of employment and management.

Definition of involvement was given by the Duke (1970) of Edinburgh in his opening address to the Industrial society's two-day Conference on Involvement at Work in November 1970:

It would seem that involvement is really three separate situations. It is first a concern for the nature and quality of the work to be performed; second, the contact of the group immediately active at the place of work; and, third, it is the need to influence the total situation—to know that views are heard and respected. In fact to participate in the whole enterprise.

Closely related to motivation and job satisfaction is teacher involvement—the intensity of a person's psychological identification with the job. Usually, higher the identification or involvement with a job, the greater is the job satisfaction. Teacher involvement depends on personal characteristics and on the nature of the job tasks.

The potential for application of skill, the social significance of the job and even success are not enough to ensure job satisfaction. Job satisfaction involves the exercise of a particular skill, which the individual sees as having some
significance to himself, so that he can identify with it. The extent to which the individual identifies with the job is known as teacher involvement.

Personal characteristics important in teacher involvement are age, growth needs, and belief in the traditional work ethic. Older workers are usually more involved with their jobs, perhaps because they have more responsibility and challenge and more likely to believe in the value of hard work. Younger workers, typically in entry-level positions, hold less stimulating and challenging jobs.

Social factors on the job can influence teacher involvement. Employees who work in group report stronger teacher involvement than employees who work alone. Participation in decision making is related to teacher involvement, as is the extent to which employees supports organizational goals. Feelings of success and achievement on the job enhance one's level of job involvement.

When an employee is involved with the job, the total job satisfaction is thought as being central to the life or self concept. An involved worker expects that the work provides opportunity for self-expression. On the contrary, and alienated employee does not consider work intrinsically rewarding and meaningful. The teacher involvement attitude refers to the internalisation of values about the goodness of work or the influence or work in the worth of the person. It represents an employee's age, involvement or commitment to the
job. A person's commitment to the job is a by-product of employees background, personal experiences and is carried from job to job. It is therefore conceived as a more stable individual characteristic and more a function of the person than of the job (Lawler and Hall, 1970).

2.6.2 Job Satisfaction and Teacher Involvement

Intimately related to the concept of supervisory style is the question of involvement in decision-making. It was pointed out that in the Lawin, Lipptee and White experiment, the democratic leader allowed group members to express their views, which were taken into account in decision-making. Considerate leadership, however, involves more than allowing individuals to participate in decision-making; it also involves dimensions of pleasantness and of taking an interest in the individual as an individual. It may therefore be the case that it is the 'pleasantness' aspects of considerate leadership that is related to job satisfaction rather than involvement in decision-making.

Immediate participation

A distinction is made between involvement which is immediate and which involves one's own immediate work-group, and distant involvement which involves participation in wider company policies.
As far as immediate involvement is concerned, Lischeron and Wall (1975a) note that the correlational evidence certainly supports the view that the degree of perceived involvement is related to employee satisfaction. For field studies however, the evidence is far less compelling. Coch and French (1948), in their famous study on 'Overcoming resistance to change', found that involvement in participation resulted in increase in productivity.

Distant participation

Whilst the evidence on immediate involvement and job satisfaction is at least suggestive, the same cannot be said of the relationship between job satisfaction and distant involvement (Involvement in the general policy-making of an organisation).

Hespe and Walls (1976) own, however, shows that there is desire for participation in decision-making at a medium and distant level. Startup and Gruneberg (1979), in their study of the job satisfaction of university teachers, also found considerable desire for participation in university policy-making at all levels of teaching staff. For example, 52 percent of senior lecturers and 45 percent of lecturers wished to play a greater part in university policy-making. surprisingly, 30 percent of professors also wished to play a greater part, indicating, perhaps, that even those of a professorial status feel limited in the amount of organisational control which they exercise. (Gruneberg (1979)
2.7 Concept of Organizational Culture

The concept of culture from an organizational point of view refers to a set of values, which are developed, inculcated and unique to each organization. They may be implicit or explicit, taken for granted and have to be inferred from the members of an organization. These values are communicated by way of symbolic means. When such values are strongly shared and widely held amongst a large number of members, a value system is evolved called as 'Organizational Culture'.

Moorhead and Griffin (1989) have defined organizational culture as "that set of values often taken for granted, that help people in an organization understand, which actions are considered acceptable and which are considered unacceptable".

Howard and Stan (1989) offer a practical definition of culture as "a pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organizational members. These beliefs and expectations produce norms that powerfully shape the behavior of individuals and groups".

Terrence (1991) shares the same view and describes culture as "a set of explicit and implicit rules by which people operate and interrelate". From a management perspective culture in the form of shared expectations may be thought of as a social control system.

"School culture" sontaya_sen@hotmail.com
2.7.1. Meaning of Culture

Culture is a subtle instrument of civilization and every human endeavor is culturally conditioned. It provides social energy and acts as a cohesive bond uniting directing people in their day-to-day lives. A culture that cares, shares, trusts and empowers employees, is a pre-requisite to stimulate, sustain and enhance institutional commitment and performance. A healthy cultural environment in tune with organizational objectives is a sign of institutional success. Leadership style to a large extent shapes the culture of an organization. Creating and sustaining a proactive organizational culture is a skilful leadership act. Leaders as culture perpetuators constitute the core group in any organization. The achievement of institutional goals is contingent upon them and hence playing a vital role they can make the organization vibrant and viable. A dynamic leadership style, a positive organizational culture congruent with commitment for the institution can do miracles in school life. It strengthens school identity as one organization.

Gorden (1984) argues that "Schools have a belief system independent of the belief system of teachers and principals and the school culture is dominated and determined by the schools belief system. The principal needs to support a school culture that integrates community and staff norms, he needs to develop and promote a positive culture which fosters noble qualities and in which individual differences and cultural diversity are respected. Consciously
nurturing school culture is the essence of leadership. Leaders influence organizational culture by appealing to the expressive side of human nature. Expressive activities evoke emotion, touches values and creates a sense of commitment to the institution.

2.7.2. Strong and Weak Cultures

Some organizational cultures are considered strong and others weak. There are two major factors that determine the strength of an organizational culture: sharedness and intensity. Sharedness refers to the degree to which the organizational members have the same core values, i.e., the homogeneity and stability of group membership and the length and intensity of shared experiences of the group. If a stable group has had a long varied and intense history; if it had to cope with many difficult survival problems and has succeeded, it will have a strong culture. If a group had a constantly shifting membership or has been together only of a short time and has not faced many difficult issues, it will have a weak culture and there will not be enough shared experiences for the group as a whole to have a defined culture. It should be noted that an organization has a strong culture if the leadership remains stable.

2.7.3. Functions of Organizational Culture

Culture performs a number of functions, it defines the rules of the game. It is a frame of reference that helps distinguish one group of people from
another. The more specific functions include conflict reduction, co-ordination and control, reduction of uncertainty, motivation and competitive advantage.

Culture is critical in developing and maintaining levels of intensity and dedication among employees that often characterizes successful organizations. A strong attachment towards the organization improves performance and high levels of motivation are derived. Culture helps distinguish between one organization and another. It conveys a sense of identity for organizational members.

A strong organizational culture increases behavioral consistency. A relatively strong relationship between culture and commitment can be established. It is proposed that commitment will be highest where there is congruence between individual needs and the organizational culture. Hence commitment varies according to the employees perception of the organizational culture.

Organizational culture can be a powerful tool for effective organizational leaders and can improve its performance. This is possible when leaders are sensitive to and have an understanding of organizational design and the developmental programme.
2.7.4. The School Culture

The culture of the school exerts a powerful and pervasive influence over everything in the school. An examination of School culture is important because, as Goodlad’s study (1984) points out, “Each school has an ambience (or culture) of its own and, further, its ambience may suggest to the careful observer useful approaches to making it a better school”. The culture of the school reflects the local culture in many ways (Rossman, Corbett, & Firestone, 1988; Welch, 1989). When schools seek to improve, a focus on the values, beliefs, and norms of both the school and the environment outside the school is necessary (Sarason, 1982; Deal and Peterson 1994).

Patterson, Purkey, and Parker (1986) summarize the general knowledge base regarding school culture;

♦ School Culture does affect the behaviour and achievement of elementary and secondary school students (though the effect of classroom and student variables remains greater).

♦ School culture does not fall from the sky; it is created and thus can be manipulated by people within the school.

♦ School cultures are unique; whatever their commonalities are no two schools will be exactly alike - nor should they be.
To the extent that it provides a focus and clear purpose for the school, culture becomes the cohesion that bonds the school together as it goes about its mission.

Though we concentrate on its beneficial nature, culture can be counterproductive and an obstacle to educational success; culture can also be oppressive and discriminatory for various subgroups within the school.

Lasting fundamental change (e.g., changes in teaching practices or the decision making structure) requires understanding and, often, altering the school's culture; cultural change is a slow process.

2.8 Concept of Organizational Climate

The concept of organizational climate originated in late 1950's as social scientists studied variations in work environments. Climate initially was used as a general notion to express the enduring quality of organizational life, a particular configuration of enduring characteristics of the ecology, milieu, social system and culture would constitute a climate as much as a particular configuration of personal characteristics constitute a personality.

Litwin and Stringer (1968) suggest that perception is a critical ingredient of climate and defined it as a set of measurable properties of the work environment, based on the collective perceptions of the people who live and
work in the environment and demonstrated to influence their behavior. Indeed, the climate of an organization may be roughly conceived as the 'personality' of the organization, that is climate is to organization is what personality is to individual.

2.8.1 Meaning and Definitions of School Climate

School environment is a powerful force and plays a pivotal role in the all-round development of the child. School is a social institution where a number of teachers having different personality traits, values and dispositions have to work together for the harmonious development of the children's abilities, attitudes, and the personality as a whole. Needless to mention, interaction goes on among the teachers and between the principal and the teachers, which weaves and intricate and delicate web of the school climate.

Thus, school can be viewed as networks of interpersonal relationships, with an interaction system resulting in a particular kind of climate, affecting teaching-learning activity substantially. The social climate of the organization is the product of all the relationships that affect it. This climate results from the conscious and unconscious efforts of all who are involved therein.

School climate can be defined as 'the result of various environments prevailing in a school. It consists of all those human and physical factors...
which are made available in a properly organized manner for attaining the desired end results.'

The term school climate has been variously understood in many ways such as 'the feel', 'the atmosphere', 'the environment', 'the condition prevailing' and 'the tone of the institution'. The concept of school climate has been defined in many ways. According to Halpin and Croft (1962) in schools where 'the feeling' was good, (a) teachers were secure, confident and satisfied (b) teachers did not feel threatened or confused and they exhibit a genuine concern for students, (c) the principal was similarly confident, wise and showed fairness, (d) the principal was approachable as well as open minded, (e) the principal was a good leader able to bring out the best in others, and tapped their strengths to enhance the operation of the schools and (f) the students were unique, feeling good about themselves as well as their work and school.

Kind (1987) assessed the perceptions of parents with regard to the quality of their child’s school and examined the relationship of the quality of the school to 14 indicators of school effectiveness. Findings showed that the schools commitment to vision and mission and school climate, high structure and order, academic emphasis and leadership were moderately related to quality of the 14 school effectiveness indicators, 12 were highly or moderately related to the other indicators. (www.gsets.unra.edu/ERIC)
Ediger (2004), while stressing the need for improving the schools, avers that improved School Climate would be conducive to optimizing learner achievement. (www.gsets.unra.edu/ERIC

2.8.2. Conceptualization of School Climate

The sum of the values, cultures safety practices, and organizational structures within a school that cause it to function and react in particular ways. Some schools are said to have nurturing environment that recognizes children and treats them as individuals; others may have the feeling of authoritarian structures where rules are strictly enforced and hierarchical control is strong. Teaching practices, diversity, and the relationships among administrators, teachers, parents and student contribute to school climate. School Climate refers to the schools effects on students, and the way teachers and other staff members work together. The following figure represents a conceptualization of the attributes that impact on a School’s Climate.
Climate has been perceived as consisting of two dimensions: an academic climate and a social climate. Each of these in turn comprise a number of attributes which when taken together will result in a positive School Climate. The academic climate is a resultant of how the school uses rewards and praise,
the effectiveness of the teachers and the principal, and the collaborative processes that exist within the school. The school climate, on the other hand, is a resultant of the appearance comfort and orderliness of the school facility, the opportunities students have for participation in the school programme, as per norms that are prevalent and the nature of the administrative staff-student cohesion and support system. Taken together, the dimensions and attributes contribute to a positive school climate.

2.8.3 Determinants of School Climate

School Climate can be referred as the environment prevailing in schools. This environment is the sum of the values, cultures, safety practices and organizational structure within a school. The main determinants of a school climate are given below.

1. Student-Staff Cohesion and Support

Good student-teacher relationships are important attributes of schools with good climate. Wynne (1980) indicated the importance of good relationships and extra-curricular activities as contributing to a school’s coherence. Shared activities by staff and students encourage students to accept the school norms (Rutter 1979). Dude and Perry (1978) noted that good student-teacher relationship were associated with good behaviour, while the PDK study (1980) found these relationship to be associated with academic
achievement. The latter study found that where the student-teacher relations were good, students tended to work harder and to enjoy their school work more.

Evidence of cohesion and support between staff and students can be seen in such areas as staff commitment to co-curricular activities, teacher-student interactions outside the classroom, and the willingness of teachers to work with students outside of regular class time.

2. **Staff Relationship**

Teacher relationship have also been suggested as an important climate variable. Rutter (1979) and the PDK (1980) studies indicate that in effective schools teacher cooperation and concern is high. Similarly, Wynne (1980) found that positive school climate was associated with the amount of socialization among facility.

It appears that in schools where staff appreciate one another, share and plan together, show a positive school climate. This attitude seems to carry over into their relationship with students.

3. **Administrator-Teacher Relationships**

Research appears to support the notion that the relationship of administrators with teachers is important in creating a climate for achievement.
The New York State Study (1979) and the Ellet and Walberg (1979) study both found that administrator-teacher relationships were positively related to student achievement.

It should be noted that much of the literature talks about collaboration, group planning and shared decision-making as aspects of administrator-staff relationships. Good relationship also imply that there is consensus on school goals and student outcomes. These relationships focus on academic aspects, and not necessarily social relations.


Rutter (1979) found that the extent to which school staff and parents work together to promote student learning is related to school effectiveness. The PDK (1980) study also reported that this variable relates to student achievement.

Murphy (1985) believe that school-home relations are a function of our activities and processes:

First there is frequent communication from the school about what parents can do to help the school reach its goals. Effective schools often have a clear set of expectations for parents. Second, there is structured parent input into school goals and decisions. Third, there are opportunities for parents to
participate in school functions and activities, including classroom instruction. Fourth, there are opportunities for parents to learn about school programmes, develop parenting skills and learn how they can work with their children at home on academic subjects.

2.8.4. Importance of Organizational and Better School Climate

Teachers and supervisors need to spend a considerable amount of time in improving school climate. With an improved school climate, pupils should learn more than previously. A climate which is conducive to optimizing learner achievement, is a must. A negative school climate hinders pupil from achieving and may also develop inappropriate attitude. The negative school environment makes for lower state mandated test scores and all-around lower achievement in the classroom.

A quality-learning environment is needed for pupils to do well academically and socially. The education system might have aims and objectives. It might have developed good administrative structure, but without efficient teachers, the system cannot function well. Only a satisfied teacher can be an efficient teacher. A teacher unsatisfied with the job will not be able to work efficiently. A healthy environment in work place is considered as one of the major pre-requisite for effective work. A healthy school climate is needed for effective teaching and learning process.
Some observations found that every school has its own institutional personality which is rather unique at a given time. This personality keeps changing constantly. It is true that each and every school differs from the other in terms of environment. Every school has its own personality in the sense and what various aspects of the school-life give rise to a unique climate which is much more than a mere totality of different aspects.

Such an environment is a powerful force and plays a pivotal role in the all-round development of the child. Researchers have proved that the more congenial the school climate, the better the development of the part of the students and teachers.

2.8.5. School Climate and Teachers

In the ancient times when mankind was in a primitive stage of development, education was in its simplest form. Life was simple and easy. As it grew complex, education became sophisticated for formalized. As the social life was very simple, the family used to provide the child with all the activities and experiences that he needed for preservation and improvement of his life and culture. He was learning the vocations and life patterns from the adults in the family, church, religious ceremonies, social functions and so on.

In course of time, however, the society became more complex and life more complicated; there was growth of human civilization and the quantum of
knowledge and experience enhanced. Thus, emerged a formal agency of education called the school. The parents and other family members had to spend most of their time and energy in vocations and the children had to devote more time and attention to acquire sufficient knowledge, and skill and to assimilate the cultural values for equipping themselves for their future life. Thus education of children became a specialized job or profession. The work of imparting education was handled by a group of persons who were learned and interested in the job of teaching others. These persons teaching children came to be called as teachers.

In modern times, the schools have multifarious functions and duties to discharge. School organization and administration are gradually shifting from authoritarian to democratic trends. Now the climate prevailing in schools is better and healthier. Now-a-days the school climate determines the achievement of pupil and performance of teachers. Attempts are being made to cater to the individual needs, interests, attitudes and aptitudes of both teachers and pupils. Adequate facilities are being provided for unfurlment of latent, talent and optimum growth of students and teachers in the emotional, psychological and physical aspects.

A number of external and internal forces act upon a teacher and influence his behaviour in implementing the educational policy of a nation. There is a due need to identity the conditions necessary to facilitate the
teachers in their working situations. Human interaction gives a personal touch in the educational process. The school is a web of interactions among people who live and work together in a particular way. This interaction environment of the institution generates the school climate.

Teachers decision participation, school climate, sense of efficiency, and job satisfaction have increased the importance in recent years. Aspects of school climate emerged as stronger predictors of job satisfaction of teachers.

2.8.6 Types of School Climate

Out of the eight factors six school climates are identified, which could be arrayed along a continuum defined as one end by an open climate are - open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, parental and closed. The combination of the eight factors defines particular climate. Although all eight factors define each climate, esprit and thrust possess a special significance. Esprit corresponds to morale, and thrust represents a critical attribute of leader's behaviour. Halpin (1966) describes each of the six climates basing upon the content of each of the eight subtests.

The Open Climate: Depicts the situation in which the members enjoy extremely high esprit. The teachers work well and do not feel burdened by heavy work. The teachers obtain considerable job satisfaction and are sufficiently motivated to overcome difficulties and frustration. The behaviours of
the principal represents and appropriate integration between his own personality and the role he is required to play as principal.

**The Autonomous Climate**: Principal gives complete freedom to teachers to provide their own structures for interaction so that they can find ways within the group for satisfying their needs. Teachers achieve their goals easily and quickly. The principal provides thrust for the organization by setting an example and by working hard himself.

**The Controlled Climate**: Is marked by a press for achievement at the expense of social needs satisfaction. Every one works hard and there is little time for friendly relations with others. In this climate job satisfaction is mainly due to task-accomplishment rather that social-needs satisfaction. The principal is dominating and allows little flexibility.

**The Familiar Climate**: Principal and teachers are friendly. Principal exerts little control in directing the activities of the teachers. There is a high degree or social-needs satisfaction. Little is done to evaluate or direct the activities or teachers and principal does not emphasize production. Job satisfaction among teachers is mainly due to social needs satisfaction.

**The Parental Climate**: Principal is ineffective in his attempts to control the teachers and unable to satisfy their social needs. The teachers do not enjoy friendly relationships with each other and do not work together.
derives only minimal social needs satisfaction. Group maintenance has not been established because of the principal's inability to control the activities of teachers.

Group members obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task achievement or social-needs in closed climate. The principal is ineffective in directing the activities of the teachers, at the same time he is not inclined to look out for their personal welfare. The principal does not facilitate the task accomplishment of the teachers. Principal is highly aloof and impersonal in controlling and directing the activities of the teacher but expects everyone else to take initiative without giving them the freedom required to perform

Figure-2.3: Hierarchy of School Climate