Chapter I

Theoretical Background of the Study
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1.1 INTRODUCTION

We are now living in a turbulent era where nearly every thing is changing fast pace and the future is uncertain. The existent organizations and individuals depend on their ability to adjust quickly and keep up with the rapid rhythm of change. Those who do not want to follow or are unable to respond to these changes will probably not be able to function properly in the long turn. People’s abilities, knowledge, skills and attitudes are the key factors of success in every aspect of human endeavor not least economic prosperity. Since individuals come to organizations with certain needs, desires, skills, and so forth they expect to find a work environment where they can utilize their abilities and satisfy many of their basic needs. Through an understanding of organizational behavior one can learn and develop skills in knowing about, and how to work with people in work setting. Understanding others may also lead to greater self-insight and self-understanding, which is an asset in personal and career growth.

Organizations are established to serve specific purposes and to carry out designated missions. To this end, they provide resources, infrastructure and necessary training to their employees to enable them to accomplish goals and objectives directed toward the greater mission. In a reciprocal way, it is important that employees of an organization share the vision of their organization and committed to its mission and goals. An organization may be defined as a place where groups of people perform specialized tasks that no individual could perform all alone (Smit & Cronje, 2001). The organization
of people into effective working groups has always been at the heart of the management process. Formal organizations have objectives which are explicit, limited and announced. They exist to serve a need of society, formed with a common purpose and require people to enter into formal relationships, which have some contractual basis (Gamage & Pang, 2003).

An organization may be a manufacturing firm, a business concern, an insurance company, a governmental agency, social organizations, hospitals, a university, a public school system, a religious trust, cause-oriented groups and even families. It may be small or large, simple or complex. An organization is a human grouping in which work is done for the accomplishment of some specific goals or missions (Mamorial & Gankar, 2003). Organizations are social arrangements, constructed by people who can also change them. Organizations can be repressive and stifling, but they can also be designed to provide opportunities for self-fulfillment and individual expression. The point is that human consequences depend on how organizations are designed and run (Buchanan & Huczynski, 1997). Organizations are a system of co-operative activities and their co-ordination requires something intangible and personal that is largely a matter of personal relationships (Barnard, 1938).

1.2 EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

The study of educational organization is a broad field, encompassing many different aspects, such as attitudes, communication, motivation, commitment, work value, performance, etc. Educational organization borrows many concepts and methods from the behavioral and social sciences such as psychology and sociology, because they are all relevant in helping one understand people’s behavior in organizational settings.
Educational organizations are set-up for achieving particular purpose. Schools, colleges, universities and professional training centers of a country are unique forms of organizations designed to achieve specific social, cultural and vocational goals. If educational administrators have to work in them or manage them, it is necessary for them to understand the organization nature and their working.

The success of a school depends largely upon the productivity of its faculty which, to a large extent depends upon their commitment and satisfaction. Thus, schools should seek ways to increase the commitment and the satisfaction of the teachers. Leaders should find ways to eliminate practices that may cause qualified members already in the service to leave or which may discourage qualified people from entering the teaching profession. Teaching is considered as a respectable job in the society. Teaching performance is one of the most important issues in education sectors. A diverse spectrum of factors may affect the performance. This is a common concern of all organizations in various sectors. Many research efforts have been put in the search of the clues.

Teachers are soldiers in the educational trenches, overcoming obstacles that make their work challenging and stressful. They are expected to work daily within two significant areas of responsibility: first, the overall professional enterprise of education, which includes the realm of curriculum and instruction; and second, the organizational environment of administrative and management functions. It is a Herculean task for some teachers in India and Iran to face classrooms full of children from unfamiliar cultures, whose native languages may not be understood. They are held responsible for shaping the personalities of the next generation but not being provided with required facilities, power, encouragement and respect of them.
When teachers perceive that they are being treated unfairly, (for example, their supervisors practice favoritism in some colleagues, or two teachers doing the same amount of work but receiving different salaries) they are likely to be frustrated. They begin to wonder why the school is treating them in this way. Did they do anything wrong to warrant such a treatment? These teachers tend to reduce their level of commitment to the school. They see no point in putting in so much effort in school and strongly believing in it and accepting its goals, when the school does not appreciate their effort, commitment and loyalty. In this context it is very important for school administrators to possess such personal characteristics and behavioral tendencies that will motivate teachers to accept them as leaders and to implement policies, directives, programs and innovative changes under their leadership.

The notion that commitment is important for the realization of organizational and professional goals particularly in the educational institutions has remained untapped by researchers. The study of employee’s commitment should be important to educational institution receiving large amounts of public funds and playing an important role in the development of the skills and knowledge of employees in the future and community as a whole. In a reciprocal way, it is important that employees of an organization sharing the vision of their organization to be committed to its mission, goals, and give unreservedly of themselves in order to attain this purpose. This stands true for educational organization as well. School excellence is essential to the educational mission of every educational organization. Such excellence is achieved in an environment of mutual confidence, collegial participation, effective leadership, matching work value of employee and goals of firm and Organizational Commitment of employee to his or her organization.
1.3 ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

The force that holds individuals together as members of an organization has been a subject of intense study through the development of the social sciences. Staffing classrooms and schools with teachers who are committed to their work is an important goal for the educational system. Exemplary teachers, those most sought after by students and parents, have instructional approaches and interpersonal relationships that appear to reflect strong personal and professional investments in their work. However, eliciting such commitments, and supporting teachers who are highly committed, can be challenging. First, we must know what does commitment means.

Weber’s dictionary defines, “commitment” as the state of intellectual and emotional adherence to some political, social or religious theory or action or practice…. something which engages one to do something…. a continuing obligation”. The commitment is also the psychological link between an individual and an object, an integration of goals and values (e.g. Allen & Meyer 1996; Mayer & Schoorman 1992).

During recent years, the concept of Organizational Commitment has received considerable attention from academic and managers alike. The concept has proved its usefulness not only as a theoretical construct and empirical predictor, but also as a powerful tool, which can be used as an aid to achieve higher levels of performance and discipline in an organization. Organizational Commitment is widely described in the management and behavioral science literature as a key factor in the relationship between individuals and organizations. Here are some definitions of organizational commitment:

Whyte (1956), fifty-two years ago evolved the concept of “The Organization Man” over-committed to his organization and described the organization man as a person
who not only worked for the organization, but also belonged to it. The organization man believed in the groups as the source of creativity and the belongingness as the ultimate need of the individual. Since then, the topic of commitment has been explored extensively. Paul R. Lawrence (1958), defined Organizational Commitments: “Ideally we would want one sentiment to be dominated in all employees from top to bottom, namely a complete loyalty to the organizational purpose”. Kanter (1968) views Organizational Commitment as the willingness of workers to devote energy and loyalty to an organization. Sheldon (1971) defined Organizational Commitment as an attitude or an orientation toward the organization that links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization. Porter et al., (1974) defined Organizational Commitment as “the strength of an individual’s identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization”. Mowday et al. (1982) defined Organizational Commitment as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Raju and Srivastava (1994); Mowday (1998); and Gilbert and Ivancevich (1999) all describe organization commitment as the factor that promotes the attachment of the individual to the organization. Organizations today are striving to become world-class organizations and compete globally (El Toukhy, 1998; Ensor, 1997; Hough & Neuland, 2001). For organizations to become a world-class organization, they need committed employees (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2002; Roodt, 2004; Rosen, 1992). Organizational Commitment is a desirable organizational outcome (Luthans, Baack & Taylor, 1987).

1.3.1 Basic Elements of Commitment
An individual may commit oneself to another person or to a group of people, or to an organization, which emphasizes the social character of commitment. The object of commitment means such things as action, practice, goals, values, organization, etc. For analytic purposes, it is useful to differentiate among consequences of commitment and basic elements of commitment, locus, object, base, focus, source and antecedents. This typology deviates from the vocabulary common in commitment studies.

- **Source of commitment**

Source of commitment shows the background from which different objects, loci bases and foci of commitment are generated. There are many alternatives: education, training, leadership styles and management systems, institutions, socioeconomic class, national culture and civilizations. These are all responsible for diverse contents of commitment, such as the occurrence of gender equality as a potential object of commitment.

- **Antecedents of commitment**

Antecedents of commitment like age, tenure, task autonomy, and role ambiguity, for example, can be understood as intervening variables that channel the occurrence and strength of different commitments. In order to “manage commitments,” it is necessary to know which constellations of different objects, loci, bases, and foci of commitment are related to which antecedents and, further, which antecedents are related to which source of commitment and how tangible their interrelations are. In this way, it is possible to create different commitments for different organizational purposes (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

- **Locus of Commitment**
Locus of Commitment refers to where we can find different objects to which commitment is oriented. Brown (1996) distinguishes among a person, a group of persons, an entity made up of people (as organization and an idea or cause), as an object of commitment, but he does not develop this distinction further. There are two loci of commitment. One may be committed to an idea as such—for example, gender quality—or one may be committed to an agent. The agent can be personal such as the deputy chief of the department of human resource management, or impersonal, such as an organization. An individual forms a commitment to an agent because he or she believes the agent to “carry” appealing ideas—for example, gender equality. The locus of commitment has implication for the measurement of commitment. The “carrier approach” relies more on behavior, whereas the “idea approach” relies more on intention or meaning in the formation of knowledge about commitments.

- **Object of commitment**

Object of commitment refers to an entity to which commitment is oriented, whether an idea or an agent. In an organizational context, ideational objects of commitment are values, goals, principles, and policies, but so are artifacts like myths and heroes. Agents are entire organizations or different levels of organizational structures: organizational units, managers, professions, and coworkers as individuals or groups. Traditionally, Organizational Commitment is understood as a commitment to an entire organization, but Organizational Commitment can be understood also as a function of multiple commitments to organizational ideas and agents can be upheld even if the ideas that the agent are seen to carry may be shifting or obscure. Organizations very often expect commitment to agents without giving members any opportunity to check the
coherence of the values, goals, principles, and policies that the agents may actually advocate. Individuals are also often committed to somebody or to something, even though they can describe only in very broad terms the ideas they share with that something or somebody. Many definitions emphasize an organization as the object of commitment (Allen & Meyer 1990; 1996). The object of commitment will be also a person, a group of persons, an idea, practice, work or other cause (Brown 1996) or objects will form many commitment relations and commitment to many objects at the same time (Reichers 1985; 1986).

**Bases of Commitment**

Following Kelman (1958), they differentiate among three bases of commitment: Compliance or in-rewards, Identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation, Internalization or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organization values. Virtanen (2000) prefers a dichotomy of obligation, utilities and emotions. These concepts refer more directly to rational bases of commitment that make people bind themselves to objects of commitment. Emotions as bases of commitment mostly constitute a rational bindings through the process of identification. They are “beyond reason” not irrational (as the opposite of rational). Obligation and utilities as bases of commitment mostly constitute rational bindings through the mechanisms of compliance and internalization as well as part of compliance, because both internalized value congruence and compliance-related exchange rules create obligations. The same applies for utilities: value congruence enables acceptable rewards, and exchange rules provide the means for balancing mutual benefits. The binding force is not always
transparent to one who is committed. Rational bases are more transparent than rational ones.

- **Focus of commitment**

Focus of commitment explains the content of commitment; in the same way frameworks reveal the angle from which people see that what they see. The focus of commitment can be, for example, moral, legal, economic, political and in some cases even aesthetic. The foci of commitment are in many ways related to societal institutions because they have a profound effect on how people see the world. Together with the bases of commitment foci provide the motive of commitment as it is experienced. This is the perspective that previous research on commitment has not addressed directly. For example, in Reichers’s (1985) multiple-constituency model of organizational commitment, the foci of employees’ commitment are the goal and values of different groups inside and outside of the organization. For every object of commitment there are many foci of commitment, in the same way as there are many frameworks for any object. One may be committed to the idea of gender equality legally and politically but not morally, for instance. Multi-dimensionality of psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995) comes closer to his view in the sense that these contracts seem to include all kinds of mutual expectations about rewards, power, emotions and the like.

- **Consequences of commitment**

Following purposes can be refined as the consequences of commitment, such as turnover, job performance, and different normative characteristics of organizational behavior (Wiener, 1982). The strength of Organizational Commitment Brown (1996) defines as “its significance or importance in the life of a person who owns the
commitment relative to other commitments and pursuit” (p.234). He is right that relative strength must be linked to effort. The results of committed behavior depend partly on factors that are beyond the control of the one who is committed. Another way to understand the strength of commitment is through the idea that the more commitment constrains future behavior the stronger commitment is (Salancik, 1977). But because both effort and constraint depend on bases, foci and object of commitment, a better understanding of the strength of the commitment requires the analysis of their relation to the binding force of commitment.

1.3.2 Approach to Organizational Commitment

The distinction between an idea and the carrier of an idea comes close to the traditional distinction between “attitudinal” and “behavioral” approach to commitment (Brown, 1996, Mowday et al., 1979). This distinction assumes, however, something about bases of Organizational Commitment. For example, attitudinal commitment is sometimes called Affective Commitment, whereas behavioral commitment is called Continuance Commitment (Aven et al., 1993). This exemplifies the need for careful conceptual analysis. Organizational Commitment researchers can be divided in two major groups, those who view Organizational Commitment as an attitude and those who view it as behavior (Meyer & Allen 1991; Jarose et al., 1993). Meyer and Allen (1991) regarded attitudinal commitment as the way people feel and think about their organizations, while behavioral commitment reflects the way individuals have become locked into the organizations. The attitudinal approach regards commitment as an employee attitude that reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and an organization.

There are several types of Organizational Commitment that should be referred.
Organizational researchers agree that a consensus has not yet been reached over the definition of Organizational Commitment (Scholl, 1981; Benkhoff, 1997a; Mowday, 1998; Suliman & Isles, 2000a, 2000b; Zangaro, 2001). Taking Kelman's (1958) work as their basis, they argue that Organizational Commitment could take three distinct forms that they called compliance, identification, and internalization. Etzioni (1961), who, as cited by Zangaro (2001), another earlier normative contributor, described Organizational Commitment in terms of three dimensions, moral involvement, calculative involvement, and alienate involvement, with each of these dimensions representing an individual's response to organizational powers. Scholl (1981) indicates that the way Organizational Commitment is defined depends on the approach to commitment that one is adhering to. Accordingly, Organizational Commitment is defined either as an employee’s attitude or as a force that binds an employee to an organization. O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) understand Organizational Commitment as psychological attachment to the organization. They also support the notion that Organizational Commitment should be seen as a multidimensional construct. They developed their multidimensional approach based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization, and the fact that various mechanisms can lead to development of attitudes.

According to Suliman and Isles (2000a), there are currently four main approaches to conceptualizing and exploring Organizational Commitment. There are the attitudinal approach, the behavioral approach, the normative approach and the multidimensional approach.

- **The attitudinal approach** views commitment largely as an employee attitude or more specifically as a set of behavioral intentions. The most widely accepted
attitudinal conceptualization of Organizational Commitment is that by Porter and his colleagues who define Organizational Commitment as the relative strength of individuals’ identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1979, 1980). They mention three characteristics of organizational commitment: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organization and (3) a strong intent or desire to remain with the organization. Within this approach, the factors associated with commitment include positive work experience, personal characteristics and job characteristics, while the outcomes include increased performance, reduced absenteeism and reduced employee turnover.

- **The behavioral approach** emphasizes the view that an employee continues his/her employment with an organization because investments such as time spent in the organization, friendships formed within the organization and pension benefits, tie the employee to the organization. Thus, an employee becomes committed to an organization because of “sunk costs” that are too costly to loose. Becker’s (1960) side bet theory forms the foundation of this approach. Becker’s research on Organizational Commitment was built on the principle of consistent behavior, writing: “Organizational Commitments that come into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity”. Side bets are defined as anything the employee would view as valuable or any investment the employee has made. Becker’s (1960) theory explains that employees attach themselves and are committed to the organization by investing their time, effort, work relationships, and organizational-specific skills for which they receive rewards. According to him, employee’s commitment is continued association with an
organization that occurs because of an employee’s decision after evaluating the costs of leaving the organization. He emphasizes that this commitment only happens once the employee has recognized the cost associated with discontinuing his association with the organization. The focus of research according to the behavioral approach is on the overt manifestations of commitment; it refers to Organizational Commitment as behavior (Suliman & Isles, 2000b; Zangaro, 2001).

- **The normative approach** argues that congruency between employee goals and values and organizational aims make the employee feel obligated to his/her organization. From this point of view, Organizational Commitment has been defined as “the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests”. Suliman’s explanation of normative approach also reflects the same meaning as stated above.

- **The multi-dimensional approach** is relatively new. It assumes that Organizational Commitment is more complex than emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation. This approach suggests that Organizational Commitment develops due to the interaction of all these three components. Several studies, according to Suliman and Isles (2000b) have contributed to this new conceptualization of organizational commitment. They credit Kelman (1958) as the earliest contributor to the multidimensional approach. Kelman lay down the foundation for the multidimensional approach when he linked compliance, identification and internalization to attitudinal change. Another earlier contributor is Etzioni (1961) who, as cited by Zangaro (2001), described Organizational Commitment in terms of three dimensions: moral involvement, calculative involvement and alienative involvement, with each of these dimensions
representing an individual’s response to organizational powers. Moral involvement is defined as a positive orientation based on an employee’s internalization and identification with organizational goals. Calculative involvement is defined as either a negative or a positive orientation of low intensity that develops due to an employee receiving inducements from the organization that match his/her contributions. Alienative involvement, on the other hand, is described as a negative attachment to the organization. In this situation individuals perceive a lack of control or the ability to change their environment and therefore remain in the organization only because they feel they have no other options. Etzioni’s three dimensions incorporate the attitudinal, behavioral and normative aspects of Organizational Commitment.

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) also support the notion that Organizational Commitment should be seen as a multidimensional construct. They developed their multidimensional approach based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization, and the fact that various mechanisms can lead to development of attitudes. Taking Kelman’s (1958) work as their basis, they argue that commitment could take three distinct forms that they called compliance, identification, and internalization. They believed that compliance would occur when attitudes and corresponding behaviors are adopted in order to gain specific rewards. Identification would occur when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship. Lastly, internalization would occur when the attitudes and behaviors that one is encouraged to adopt are congruent with one’s own values.

1.3.3 Theory of Organizational Commitment of Teacher

Organizational Commitment may have several different psychological bases. For
that reason, researchers have tested Organizational Commitment in multi-dimensional ways. The most popular multi-dimensional approach to Organizational Commitment is that of Meyer and his colleagues. In 1984, Meyer and Allen, based on Becker’s side-bet theory, introduced the dimension of Organizational Commitment to already existing dimension of Affective Commitment. As a result, Organizational Commitment was regarded as a bi-dimensional concept that included an attitudinal aspect as well as a behavioral aspect. In 1990, Allen and Meyer added a third component, - Normative Commitment, - to their two dimensions of Organizational Commitment (Figure 1.1). Meyer and Allen stated that each dimension can be experienced as a result of different experiences and they claimed that each has different effects on work. They classified Organizational Commitment into three categories and emphasized three different themes in the definition of the term Organizational Commitment: Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment. The same is represented diagrammatically below:

**Figure 1.1: Types of Organizational Commitment, (Meyer and Allen1991)**

- **Continuance:** Continue working for organization because you cannot afford to do otherwise
- **Affective:** Continue working for organization because you agree with it and want to remain there
- **Normative:** Continue working for organization because you face pressure from others to do so
♦ **Affective Commitment:** In this type of commitment there is a positive interaction between the individual and the organization for having similar values (Shore and Tetric 1991). Although there are a lot of factors which influence Affective Commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) concluded that the strongest and most consistent relationship could be acquired through experience. Those who stay in their organizations with a strong commitment keep their existence not only because they need the occupation, but they also want it (Meyer et.al.1993).

♦ **Continuance Commitment:** It is related to one’s experience that has given to an organization difficulty in giving it up and the cost of things in case he leaves the organization or having few or no alternatives when he leaves the organization. In addition, Meyer stated that the skills and education are not transferred to other organizations easily, so it increases workers’ commitment to their own organizations. Those who stay within their organizations easily, so it increases workers’ commitment to their own organizations. Those who stay within their organizations with a strong Continuance Commitment are in their organizations just because they need it (Meyer et.al. 1993). Continuance Commitment increases when an individual invests in an organization or gets some thing from the organization because all these will be lost when one leaves the organization. When there is a limitation of alternatives this type of commitment is developed.

♦ **Normative Commitment:** It reflects the feelings of an individual’s obligations about staying within an organization. This kind of obligations is not for one’s own good but an individual reflects these behaviors just because he finds whatever he has done ethical and right. The commitment, which develops as a result of socialization, shows
one’s loyalty to his employer. Those who have a strong normative commitment stay in their organizations just because they feel obliged to do so. Normative Commitment can increase when an individual feels loyal to his employer or responsible to work for the benefits that he gets from the organization (e.g.; educational payments, training of skills) as a result of the desire to compensate the favors received from the institution (Meyer et al., 1993, p.539).

Meyer and Allen (1993) stated that when all these three types of commitments are taken into consideration, one’s relationship with his organization can be understood better. In these circumstances, desire appears to be one’s first priority, necessity as the second priority and obligation as the third priority. According to this model, workers experience these three types of commitments in different ways. Although it is important to identify the objects of commitment in a given study, tracing multiple commitments is problematic because they are sometimes so intertwined that it is difficult to measure them separately (Louis 1991).

Meyer and Allen (1997) differentiate among affective, normative, and Continuance Commitment. This resembles the tracheotomy of emotion, obligation, and utility. They understand, however, both affective and normative commitment as emotional commitment, perhaps a rational and Continuance Commitment as awareness of costs (people need to remain with the organization), probably rational. Contrary to their implication, Virtanen (2000) holds that the nature of obligations, related to normative commitment in Meyer and Allen’s view, is rational rather than arational, because people have rational arguments about norms. Obligations generated by socialization are often only partly transparent, but this does not make them emotional, only inefficiently
understood. Jaros et al., (1993) in turn, comes closer to this trichotomy, because they relate emotion only to Affective Commitment but costs to Continuance Commitment and “a sense of duty, an obligation, or calling” (p.955), to moral commitment. In this way, Continuance Commitment and moral commitment can probably be understood as rational commitment, and Affective Commitment as rational commitment. But, contrary to Jaros et al.’s view, obligation can also be more than moral obligations, and even costs have connections to emotions. For analytic clarity, bases of commitment should not be mixed with foci of commitment.

1.3.4 Organizational Commitment of Teacher

In the present study, Organizational Commitment was viewed as the teacher’s commitment to the local school or school division. Educational organizations such as schools, colleges and universities require individuals who are committed to their profession and well-being of students. The vitality of all educational organizations lies in the willingness of teachers to contribute to the development of the organizations. Teachers strong in commitment find it easy to be interested in whatever they are doing and can involve themselves into it wholeheartedly. They are rarely at a loss for things to do. They always seem to make maximum effort cheerfully and zestfully.

Teachers who are committed demonstrate a strong acceptance of the school’s values, tasks, and working manner. Teachers who firmly believe in these values are likely to manifest them in the performance. They keep these values in mind when preparing their lesson plans, when giving students projects, when thinking of examination questions. These teachers are also more conscious of their conduct and work attitudes, as they want to set good examples for their students. Commitment teachers also have strong
psychological ties to their schools, their students and their subject area. On the other hand, a commitment person believes strongly in the object’s goals and values, complies with others expectations voluntarily, and exerts considerable effort beyond minimal expectations for the good of the object strongly desires to remain affiliated with the objects, (Kanter, 1968, Mowday et al., 1982. page 26-27). Teachers may be committed to teaching, their school, or their students and that their patterns of behavior vary depending upon which commitments are assessed. Kushman (1992) examines separately the causes and consequences of commitment to students, which he equates with teacher efficacy, high expectations and Organizational Commitment.

1.4 WORK VALUES

1.4.1 Work Values

Very early in history, there was no separation between home and work. The word ‘work’ first appeared in the English language in 1599 – used by Shakespeare. Greeks and medieval Europeans had no word for work. Native North Americans have no equivalent word in their vocabulary (Thompson & McHugh, 1995). The classical Greeks and later the Romans considered work done with the hands, for income or for trade, appropriate only for the slaves. Work is essential in the lives of people for several other reasons. Work plays a key role in life, not only as the primary source of income, but also as a base for social participation, social statues, consumption, health, family life, and so on. Although work may refer to any activity that requires an individual to perform a task, in the context of the research it will refer to the specific tasks performed by an individual as a requirement of the formal organizational contract. People spend a large part of their day
at work. They work to satisfy their needs. Thus one can say that the work that a person does, is a reflection of his needs and objectives (Smith & Cronje, 2001).

When we think of our values, we think of what is important to us in our lives (e.g., security, independence, wisdom, success, kindness, pleasure). The value assigned to work is dependent on the meaning that one attaches to work. Most researchers on values in the vocational field focus on “vocational” or “Work Values”, asking individuals about the importance they attribute to various values when choosing a profession or while at work. Work is to be valued because it represents the best use of man’s time. Work Values are of vital importance in determining human behavior. They direct the way an individual believes, thinks, and acts. In management literature, “work value” is important, since the degree to which employees value their jobs influences their work attitude toward job satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty. A clear understanding of employee work value structure helps employers and managers develop effective human resource policies that meet employees’ needs and achieve satisfactory work outcomes in areas that their employees value most.

Various definitions of Work Values, as a unique concept, have been suggested: Herzberg et al. (1956) considered Work Values as representing motivational aspects, i.e. motivators and hygienic factors. Zytowski (1970) argues Work Values are a set of concepts which mediate between a person’s affective orientation and classes of external objects offering similar satisfaction”. According to Pennings (1970), Work Value systems can be defined as constellations of attitudes and options with which an individual evaluates his/her job and work environment. Wollack et al, (1971) defines Work value as an index of a person’s attitudes towards work in general, rather than his feelings about
specific job. In Super’s (1970) description of Work Values, he emphasizes on the various motivation that drive the individual to work. Work Values are regarded as values extrinsic to as well as intrinsic in work satisfaction. Work Values have been defined (Rokeach, 1973) as intrinsic, enduring prescriptive or proscriptive beliefs that a specific mode of behavior or end state of existence is preferred to an opposite mode of behavior or end state. Zagoria, too, does not regard all workers as being alike, “…. They come in assorted shapes, sizes, education and experience, attitudes and ambitions. Some work for a living, for others working is a living”…. He continues by mentioning that some regard work as the central goal in life, where as, others hank about work as a way of providing for the daily necessaries and then regards time away from work as the real joy in life.

Wayne defines Work value as refer to the usefulness or general worth that a person assigns to some behavior or conception of work (e.g. physical effort and length of time on task/job) and non-work activities (e.g. leisure, benefits, and rewards)”. It could be said that work-related values are indicative of an individual’s (worker’s) inner attitude or way of thinking towards his work, on condition that it does not merely apply to his own or a certain task, but rather to work in general. Work Values concern an individual’s belief toward work performances and meaning as more stabilized and deep-rooted (Dose 1997; Hazer and Alvares 1981).

The Survey of Work Value (Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, & Smith, 1971) measures five types of Work Values: activity preference, attitude toward earnings, job involvement, pride in work, and upward striving. There has been growing interest, in recent years, in the analysis of human values in general (Levy, 1990; Rokeach, 1979; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990) and Work Values specifically (Elizur, 1984; Elizur et al.,
1991; Furnham, 1984). Extensive empirical attention has been devoted to typology and measurement of values (Borg, 1986; Elizur et al., 1991), to the dynamics of value priorities such as stability and change (Elizur et al., 1991; Furham, 1984) and to the relationship between values and attitudes, goals and behavior (Rokeach, 1973). Research on Work Values can be divided into three main streams: structure correlation to other personal, social or organizational variables, and cultural factors (Sagie et al., 1996). Research on Work Values can be divided into three main areas: defining the basic components of the work value domain and testing hypotheses concerning its structure (Bolton, 1980; Hendrix & Super, 1968; Neumann & Neumann, 1983); the correlation between Work Values and other personal, social, or organizational variables (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Lee, Dougherty, & Turban, 2000; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989); and the impact of culture on Work Values (Sagie, Elizur, & Koslowsky, 1996).

Hofstede (1998) proposed that Work Values is influenced by local culture, suggesting that changes occur in the structure of the work value domain from culture to culture. With increasing globalization, the similarities and differences in Work Values among people with different cultural backgrounds have become the focus of research in the last two decades (Elizur, Borg, Hunt, & Beck, 1991; Furnham, Petrides, Tsaousis, Pappas, & Garrod, 2005; Pelled & Xin, 1997).

The relationships between general values and Work Values are being conceived in different ways. One view is that general values produce Work Values; for example, that Work Values emerge from the projection of general values onto the domain of work (Roe and Ester, 1999). Most researchers seem to assume that Work Values do somehow derive from general values, but they are not very explicit about the causal nature of this
process. Many studies have found general values to correlate with Work Values of a similar content (e.g. Kinnane & Gaubinger, 1963; Schwartz, 1999, and Ros, Schwartz, and Surkiss, 1999).

1.4.2 Approach to Work Values

A wide variety of values measures have been developed within the vocational behavior perspective, each with a slightly different focus and conceptualization of Work Values. There are different approaches to define approaches Work Values represented in the works of different researchers in this area. Some of them are presented further:

- **Super’s (1970) Work Values Inventory (WVI)**

Super’s Work Values Inventory (WVI) was developed in the 1950s as a means of assessing “the various goals that motivate men to work” (Super, 1970). Super envisioned Work Values as derived from needs, and serving as the objectives or goals that one seeks to attain in satisfying those needs. He defined interests as the more specific activities and objects through which values are expressed in meeting needs (Super, 1973). The Work Value Inventory is a 45-item scale measuring 15 subscales of Work Values: intellectual stimulation, altruism, esthetic, independence, creativity, achievement, economic returns, prestige, management, security, supervisory relations, associates, surroundings, variety and way of life. Super posited that needs are cognitively expressed as values, which are the goals that are attained through the pursuit of specific interests. Since any given value could be attained through more than one type of activity or occupation, interests are necessarily more numerous than values (Dose, 1997). Given the large number of possible interests an individual can have, Super (1970) argued that it is more fruitful to examine values as the standards upon which we determine our interests than to examine the
specific interests themselves.

- **Pryor's (1979) Work Aspect Preference Scale (WAPS)**

  Unlike many of the contemporaries, Pryor (1979) viewed the concept of Work Values as poorly formulated and confounding, and proposed that the term “preferences” may be employed in its place. Pryor viewed work preferences as a matter of personal choice in job attributes, rather than as beliefs about what is good or what ought to be done in a job, and noted that an individual’s moral beliefs (i.e. values) need not necessarily correspond to his/her preferences in the workplace, though they often do (Dose, 1997). He thus defined a work aspect preference as “a statement of the relation between a person (the subject of the relation) and a particular quality of work (the object of the relation).

  The relationship between the two is that of a greater or lesser liking when the person has the opportunity to make a choice”, (Pryor, 1979). According to Pryor (1979), there is no upward limit on the number of work aspects preferences that an individual may hold, as there may be as many preferences as there are work aspects. Nonetheless, Pryor’s (1979) measure, the Work Aspect Preference Scale (WAPS), consists of 13 subscales, each of which is represented by four items. Work aspects are rated on five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “quite unimportant” (1) to “extremely important” (5). The 13 sub-scales are: security, self-development, altruism, life-style, physical activity, detachment, independence, prestige, management, co-workers, creativity, money and surroundings.

- **Dawis and Lodquist (1984) Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ)**

  The Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ) was designed as part of the broader framework of the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis, England and Lofquist,
1964, revisited in Dawis and Lofquist, 1984), which examines the interactions of the individual and his/her work environment. The Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Lofquist & Dawis, 1971) used achievement, altruism, autonomy, comfort, safety, and status to measure Work Values. The theory seeks to explain the ways in which individual difference and job differences combine to determine the satisfactoriness of employees in a given environment, as well as the satisfaction of the individual in that job environment.

The employee’s satisfaction is considered a function of the degree of correspondence between individual needs and the reinforcer system provided by the work environment. The key psychological construct determining job satisfaction is the needs of the employee that are to be satisfied through working. Within the context of this theory, needs are defined as “preferences for reinforcers expressed in terms of relative importance of each reinforce to the individual” (Rounds et al., 1981, p.8). The term “reinforcers” is meant to refer to specific conditions in the work environment that have the potential to satisfy needs.


Some authors consider Work Values as representing Protestant work ethics (e.g. Furnham, 1984). According to Weber’s theory, the Protestant Work Ethic (PWE) arose from the protestant reformation and was adapted from primarily from the ideas of Lutheranism and Calvinism (Nord et al., 1988, 1990; Jones, 1997). According to Weber’s (1985) classic discussion of the Protestant Work Ethic (originally translated in 1930), work as one’s daily occupation is seen as a “calling from God”. A secular incarnation of PWE was enshrined in the founding principles of the United States, as evidenced in the writings of Benjamin Franklin and Horatio Alger (Nord et al., 1990; Bernstein, 1997). Weber argued that, beginning in the 16th century the PWE became embedded as a set of guiding social
and religious beliefs, forming the basis for the modern Western view of work. While work had been previously viewed as a burden, which was to be avoided whenever possible, the reformation glorified the notion of hard work, however menial the task, and accumulation of wealth, combined with ascetic self-control of consumption, as the highest form of human service to God.

- *Furnham and colleagues (1990) Integration on the PWE (IPWE)*

The study of PWE has flourished in the past two decades due primarily to the work of Furnham (1990) and his colleagues. Their research project has focused on integrating theory and research on the PWE and on measuring the concept across cultural contexts. Furnham compared and contrasted seven existing self-reporting measures of the PWE, including those of Blood and Mirels and Garrett, described above. Content analysis, as well as co relational and factor analyses were conducted in order to identify commonalities and differences among the measures. Content analysis conducted by three independent raters revealed seven discrete factors in the 78 total items of the seven scales included: 1) work as an end in itself; 2) hard work and success; 3) leisure; 4) money and efficiency; 5) spiritual and religious; 6) morals; and 7) independence and self reliance.

1.4.3 Work Values Theory

Herzberg et al. (1956) considered Work Values as representing motivational aspects, i.e. motivators and hygiene. A work value can be defined as the importance individuals give to outcomes arising in the work context (Elizur, 1984). Based on motivation theories, Elizur (1984) created a 24-item Work value Questionnaire (WVQ). A few years later, Elizur et al. (1991) proposed three underlying dimensions of the 24 Work Value Questionnaire items: cognitive (advancement, feedback, status); affective
(recognition, esteem, interaction); and instrumental (pay, benefits, security) (Figure 1.2). Content analysis of the literature on Work Values and examination of items included in various studies led to the delineation and classification of content areas that constitute the conceptual space of Work Values. One view is that values have a particular cognitive structure that produces a structural similarity between general values and Work Values. This view is represented and empirically corroborated by Elizur and Sagie (1999).

In order to analyze the Work Values domain systematically, an attempt was made to define its essential facets. A facet is a criterion or rule for classifying items associated with a given concept. More than one facet can be used simultaneously; each additional facet defines a new classification and further differentiates among items. Two basic facets were distinguished: modality of outcome and system performance contingency (Elizur, 1991) which are presented below.

**Figure 1.2: Types of Work Values (Elizur, 1991)**

- **Material Values:** Includes values that have some material return or outcome such as payment, vacation and sick leave.
- **Cognitive Values:** Include interest, achievement, personal growth, responsibility and contribution to society advancement.
- **Affective Values:** Deals with interpersonal relationships include items.
Facet A. Modality of outcome

Elizur distinguishes between two main categories of Work Values, namely, extrinsic value and intrinsic value. Extrinsic value can be further divided into inherent value and instrumental value. Inherent value is the type of value ‘attributed to objects which conduces to goodness found in the presence of that object itself’, while instrumental values are ‘those values of things which consist in an instrumentality to some other object, in presentation of which a value is directly realizable in experience. Work can be done as fulfillment of a purpose in one’s life (value) or as a mode of earning money (utility). Work as the instrument to earn a salary, is extrinsic, as opposed to work done as an act to fulfill a meaning individual purpose (intrinsic), such as charitable work performed for the reward of serving humanity. A charitable deed has inherent value in the satisfaction experienced from performing a selfless act but diligent effort put into a days work for which one is rewarded with a salary, has instrumental value, in that it supports a lifestyle that one wishes to maintain.

Various work outcomes are of a material nature. Some of them can be directly applied (such as pay), others have direct practical consequences (such as benefits, hours of work, work conditions, etc.). This class of outcomes can be defined as material or instrumental, in a sense that they are concrete and of practical use. It should be noted that the term “instrumental” is applied here in a fashion similar to that used in many attitude studies (Elizur, 1970; Elizur and Guttman, 1976) which can be contrasted with the meaning applied in theories of work motivation (e.g. Graen, 1976; Vroom, 1964). This facet constricted by Elizur takes different classification: Material (Instrumental), Affective and Cognitive components.
• **Material Component:** It includes values that have some material return or outcome, such as pay, the amount of money you receive benefits, vacation, sick leave, pension, insurance, job security, permanent job convenient hours of work, work conditions, comfortable and clean etc. Although material outcomes are more salient, there exist various other outcomes, which are not of material nature.

• **Affective Component:** It deals with interpersonal relationships include items, which ask about relations with people, including colleagues, supervisor and others. Recognition for doing good job co-worker- fellow workers who have pleasant and agreeable esteem- that you are valued as a person opportunity to meet people and interact with them, supervisor, a fair and considerate boss. These items deal with interpersonal relations and they are affective rather than material.

• **Cognitive Component:** It includes interest, achievement, personal growth, responsibility and contribution to society. Advancement, chances for promotion, feedback, concerning the results of your work, Job status, Job interest, to do work which is interesting to you, meaningful work, opportunity for personal growth, use of ability and knowledge, work responsibility, contribution to society, independence in work company, to be employed by a company for which you are proud to work, influence in work, influence in the organization. These items may be classified as cognitive rather than affective or instrumental.

● **Facet B. System-performance contingency**

The second classification concerns system-performance contingency and can be considered to cut across that of modality. Personnel managers recognize the necessity of motivating individuals to join the organization and to attend to work. For that purpose
they provide various incentives, which are usually given before task performance and are not conditional on its outcome. These include benefit plans, work conditions and various services such as transportation and subsidized meals, as well as other resources provided by the organization. Katz and Kahn refer to these as systems rewards, earned merely through membership in the system. The term resources are suggested to characterize this class of outcomes.

1.4.4 Work Values in School

Undoubtedly, a teacher is considered the torchbearer of the progress of human civilization. Swamy Ranganathananda states, “It will be seen that next to the parents, the teachers have an important and effective role in the inculcation of values amongst children. The behavior of the teacher therefore becomes important, for actions speak louder then words. If the teacher has good habits, good manners, courteous words and has ethical, social and spiritual values, the children will by loving and imitation, adopt these values”.

Teacher should have feelings of value and loyalty to their occupations or professions, their employer and their schools. For teachers who accept this belief, dedicated work is considered a positive virtue and are described by such positive terms as industrious, diligent, persevering, and willing to take initiative or devoted to one’s occupation. Teachers should take pride in their work and do their jobs well. Teachers who believe that work is important and who take pride in their work are expected to respond favorably to job enrichment, that is, to want important jobs where they can display their initiative and commitment. In contrast teachers who dislike work are expected to dislike having their jobs enriched.
Schools, as organizations, are exclusively concerned with people who are associated with each other. The quality of the functioning of the school as an organization is determined by the extent to which the school can give expression to the values of the teachers, learners and the parent community. If the school is to become an excellent service centre to all its stakeholders, it would be necessary for the school to ensure that its organizational culture and climate are directly linked to the value system espoused by the stakeholders. A school that is respected by the community would be more likely to have educators that display a better work ethic than a school that has a poor reputation in the community.

In any organization, the members generally have a set of values about what is acceptable and unacceptable organizational behavior. In addition, the members of the organization can order these values in importance in a reliable fashion. For example, in some schools, especially bureaucratic ones, doing things according to rules and avoiding any risk of failure is seen as the most important principle to consider in taking action. In some achievement oriented schools, getting the job done, despite the costs, may be the paramount values permeating the school life of the teachers.

It is important to note that organizational values are held by collections of individual’s values. Organizational values in a school are the general values that are espoused by most of its members, that is, teachers, administrators and the principal. Teachers are interred into the school by their willingness to accept these values and much of the focus of the school’s socialization is to shape these values and beliefs. Thus, while only individual members of a school can hold values, a school’s selection and socialization will produce a general, cohesive set of values that typifies the school. Such a
set of values will inevitably change gradually over time. The teacher’s place in society is of vital importance. He acts as the pivot of the transmission of intellectual traditions and technical skill from generation to generation and helps to keep the lamp of civilization burning. He not only guides the individual but also to say, the destiny of the nation. Teachers have, therefore, to realize increasingly their special responsibility to the society.

1.5 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

1.5.1 Leadership Behavior

Leadership can come from anywhere. It is a quality, which is found in many persons, everywhere. You see leadership anywhere, it is depends on ones ability. It lies in ones ability to work with and empower others, to be creative with the space, resource, and people that are available. Leadership Behavior plays a very important role in enhancing employee work motivation and performance.

Leadership, especially, is very much about doing what is right for the situation and the people involved in it. Underlying such flexibility and differentiation of response, however, must be a consistency of values and ground rules, if the leader’s professional credibility is to remain the crucial source of influence. Leadership is an important component of overall effectiveness because it is seen as the force that energizes and directs group behavior.

The study of leadership has been an important and central part of the literature on management and organization behavior for several decades. Bass, (1990) identifies twelve separate categories of definitions, which highlight the complexity of the phenomenon. These categories include definitions of leadership as: (1) the focus of group process, (2) personality and its effects, (3) the art of inducing compliance, (4) the
exercise of influence, (5) an act or behavior, (6) a form of persuasion, (7) a power relation, (8) an instrument of goal achievement, (9) an emerging effect of interaction, (10) a differentiated role, (11) the initiation of structure and (12) a combination of elements.

Leadership is “the process of influencing the behavior of an individual or group of people toward the achievement of goals” (Hosking & Morley, 1991). Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan (1994), “Leadership involves persuading other people to set aside for a period of time their individual concerns and to pursue a common goal that is important for the responsibilities and welfare of a group”. Bennis and Nanus describe the difference between managing and leading in this way: To manage means to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct … Leading is influencing, guiding direction, course, action, opinion but Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing. Bennis and Nanus (1985) argue that managers traditionally focus on the facility’s internal operations and the basic functions of management: planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, and controlling. Leaders focus on the external forces that affect the facility’s operations and future: markets, networks, customers, vendors, suppliers, legislative changes and so forth (Bennis & Nanus 1985). Although leadership and management are seen as related concepts, the differences are distinct (Smit et al, 2001) and should be clearly distinguished. Managers are concerned with non-behavioral aspects such as strategy development, organizational design and the control of activities to archive organizational goals. Leaders, in contrast, focus on behavioral aspects. They energies people towards positive changes and motivate them to commit and delicate themselves to new directions.
1.5.2 Educational Leadership Behavior

Scientific research on educational leadership began in the late 1950s and early 1960s, when researchers in the ‘theory movement’ began utilizing the techniques of the social sciences to examine these topics (Willower and Forsyth, 1999). The workplace impedes direct supervision and fosters the autonomy of employees (Lortie, 1975). The quality of education in schools and colleges is commonly to be influenced by the quality of leadership and management styles of school leaders and education officials. The school administrator or the educational leader is supposed to integrate ideas scientifically and creatively and also mobilize time, materials and resources. He is also supposed to support the school organization. These factors are important when it comes to moving the organization towards development and progress. On top of all this, school principals must be able to lead their staff and teachers to recognize and perform their tasks, functions and responsibilities for the education of children and, in the process make them feel that they are getting satisfaction and fulfillment. They must be able to influence the teachers to perform the tasks and functions without feeling coerced, pressured or exploited; able to influence teachers to integrate their personal goals and objectives with those of the school.

In education, the ideal was formalized as ‘democratic school governance’. In the past the responsibility for well-being of the school was vested in the hands of the principal – a situation that lent itself to the ‘authoritarian mindset’. His/her work entailed the complete ambit of management of people, processes and resources of the school. His/her success was measured on the basis of the performance of the school for which he was fully accountable. The South African Schools describes governance and management
in schools as two separate acts with two teams responsible for the efficient functioning of a single institution. The principal is now responsible for the professional management of the school which includes daily teaching and learning activities and the support activities needed by the school; policy and budgetary activities is the responsibility of the school governance chair. However, even in the execution of the professional management function, the responsibility lies, not exclusively with the principal but, with the school management team. The dynamics of the interaction between the school as an organization and the principal as an individual, especially when educational changes occurs, is an aspect that needs to be carefully managed. The principal, apart from being an educational leader of the school, acts as an executive officer of the governing body and is accountable to both the educational authorities and the governing body. Thus, the principal is in a diverse managerial position. On the one hand, the principal as an administrator or manager of a public institution has to adhere to administrative and legal regulations. On the other hand, he or she, as a professional educator with original and discretionary powers with regard to professional activities, is responsible to the professional authorities.

Leaders are challenged to create an environment that is good for teachers, students, faculty, staff, and the community. Being an effective leader is no easy task; good leaders must be enthusiastic about their work and the potential of the institutions that employ them. Furthermore, good leaders are confident in their judgment and hold themselves and followers to high expectations (Hoover, 1991).

The quality of education provided in schools and colleges is commonly thought to be influenced by the quality of leadership directing these organizations. But the meaning
of leadership, how it differs from everyday management and administration, and how it is manifested in educational organizations are matters of considerable dispute (Boyd, 2001). Although researchers recognized that schools and colleges were totally different from business and industrial organizations, little attention was given to differences among types of organizations in the early research. Instead, leadership and administration were treated as generic organizational issues for many years, with few questions asked about what might be distinctive about these functions or processes in educational settings. To the extent that a generic approach is considered sufficient, one only needs to look at the generic literature on leadership and administration in organizations. However, generic approaches, although valuable, are sufficient for comprehending effective leadership in educational organizations (Boyd, 2001).

Generally, numerous factors such as human and financial resources, required equipments and materials and so on affect instructional objectives and goals but essentially there must exists an appropriate emotional atmosphere for teaching and learning in the school. In other word, the suitable human relationships among heads of schools, teachers, and students are the most important of instructional goals. The heads of schools as leaders have an important role to accomplish this order. In fact, good leadership behavior of the Heads of Schools is essential for their ever-increasing professional growth as well as for creating a good emotional climate and commitment in the school. Heads of schools with bad leader behavior not only tends to incapacitate himself for the performance of his multifarious duties in the school, but also creates difficulties and problems for his subordinates.
Leadership in a school setting is the result of the way principals use themselves to create a school climate that is characterized by staff productivity, student productivity, and creative thought (Ubben & Hughes, 1987). Consequently, the principal’s qualities and behavior determine to a large degree how the subordinates feel about their organization (Eblen, 1987). A particular leadership style may either foster or hinder teacher commitment. The last decade has seen a shift from an emphasis upon management development, to a focus upon the transformative potential of leadership (Murphy and Louis 1991). It has seen a move from the tacit belief that the skills of leadership are naturally acquired as leaders rise to become school principals, to the view that the strategic development and deployment of school leaders is too important to be left to chance (Leithwood et al 1993).

Further, we have seen a move from the view that training and learning opportunities should be an available option for school leaders, to a climate in which potential leaders are increasingly expected to prepare for the role (and in some countries to be licensed for it), to be inducted into it, and to update their own learning continuously throughout their careers (Murphy and Marphs.J. 1991).

One of the fundamental areas of agreement between researchers who have investigated educational change concerns the powerful impact of school leaders on processes related to school improvement. Research findings from a variety of countries and school systems draw similar conclusions about the importance of the principal in school development and change processes (e.g. Van Velzen et al. 1985; Duignan and Macpherson 1987; Myers 1995; Hopkins et al. 1996; Ainscow et al 1994).
Traditionally, the principal was regarded as the leader of the school. However, with the tendency towards decentralization of management, the exclusivity associated with the position has dissipated to other persons with the school management structure. For the research, the principal will be considered as the person within the management team responsible for the well being of the school. He/she will also be viewed as the person accountable to the all stakeholders of the school community for whatever happens at the school. Having clarified the key concepts to be used in the research, the division of chapters will be presented as an outline of the study. A leader acquires leadership through interaction with the group he is the leader of and by demonstrating his ability of influencing and assisting the group in attaining goals and objectives. His/ Her main function is to influence teachers to accept his/her ideals and values, to cooperate with him/her in the performance of tasks and to assist him/her in the achievement of goals. Leadership is designed to formulate, implement new ideas and to evaluate goals or to discover those previously unrecognized. One of the important roles of an educational leader is the clear formulation and understanding of goals and development. Strong leaders are characterized by their commitment to academic goals as evidenced by their ability to develop and clearly articulate the vision contained in the goal.

1.5.3 Theories of Leadership Behavior

Since the turn of the 19th century, many studies have been done on the theories of leadership and Leadership Behaviors. All of these theories have focused on what it is that makes leaders effective. As leadership, in essence, is referred to the ability of a person to effectively influence the performance of others, the various models researched and developed represent effort to describe how and why some people positively influence the
performance of others. There are numerous types of leadership behavior and some of them are presented below:

- **Trait Theories**

  The ‘great man’ or ‘trait’ theories represent the earliest and, until the 1940’s, the main approach used to understand the leadership phenomenon. Trait theories are concerned with determining the personal attributes which differentiate leaders from non-leaders and which make some people better leaders than others. The trait approach considers leadership as one-way, generally directive or controlling. This approach focuses on individual personality traits that set the leader apart from the followers. This theory was based on the belief that great leaders throughout history possessed certain traits that enabled them to accomplish high levels of leadership effectiveness (Borgatta, Bales, & Couch, 1954). The research goal of the great man theory was to identify several traits that would distinguish leaders from non-leaders (Tannenbaum & Massarik, 1957). The hypothesis at the time was that the more leadership traits a person possessed, the more he or she is likely to be an effective leader (Yukl, 1994; Jago, 1982). Once these traits were known, they could be measured via standardized tests; which would predict future leadership effectiveness (Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 1999). There are five categories of traits: capacity of intelligence and judgment, achievement of knowledge, responsibility, participation, and status position. As a result of the extensive research conducted, several problems with this approach emerged. The most significant was the high level of inconsistencies of trying to predict leadership effectiveness based on a predefined set of traits. For example, the leadership trait intelligence was assumed to be directly related to
leadership effectiveness, but research has shown that superior intelligence does not correlate to superior leadership and vise versa (Jago, 1982).

**Behavior/style Theories**

The behavioral leadership theory began with the Ohio State study in the late 1940’s (Robbins, 1993). The purpose of this research was to identify specific leader behaviors. The result was that over a thousand different Leadership Behaviors were identified. Behavior/style theories suggest that leader effectiveness is determined by the specific behaviors in which leaders engage. The behavior, or style, approach focuses on leader behavior and involves the two dimensions: (1) consideration of human relationship and (2) efforts to organize work and tasks. Following Stogdill’s critique of trait theories, researchers began to investigate the possibility that leader effectiveness is determined by the specific behaviors in which leaders engage. The task of researchers was to identify those behaviors that distinguished effective from ineffective leaders. Child Welfare Research Station; Continuum of leadership behavior (Tannenbaum and Massarik, 1957); Ohio State Leadership Studies; Michigan University Studies (Likert, 1961); The Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964); Theory X and Theory Y (McGregor 1960).

**Situational/ Contingency Theories**

The situational approach to leadership is built on the concept that effectiveness results from a leader using a behavioral style that is appropriate to the demands of the environment. These theories recognize a contribution of effects between leader, the subordinate and the situation in determining leadership effectiveness. Instead of focusing on unobservable traits, many researchers shifted their attention to characteristics that a leader exhibits in various situations when he or she is interacting with followers
Situational/ Contingency theories suggest that the situation determines the best person and approach to leadership. The contingency approach views leadership as a composite of responses to a situation and depends on a variety of approaches such as the leader’s personality, leader/member relationship, and group maturity.

1- Friedler’s Contingency Theory
2- Path-Goal theory of House
3- Hersey and Blanchard the Situational leadership theory
4- Vroom and Yetton the Rational Decision Making theory

1.5.4 Leadership Behavior Theory

The concept of transformational and transactional leadership was originally developed by Burns (1978). In his research, Burns studied the leadership characteristics of several political leaders. As a result, he defined transformational leadership as the process in which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation; and transactional leadership as an exchange of rewards for compliance. In more recent years a new paradigm of leadership had emerged which goes beyond the realm of reward based leadership upon which previous theories are based. Moreover, these new theories attempt to explain how leaders are able to lead organization to attain outstanding accomplishments and also how they achieve an extraordinary level of follower motivation, commitment and loyalty. The work of Bass, (1980a) builds on these early conceptions by applying the concepts to the business and industrial organizations.
He described leadership in terms of three broad categories of behavior – transformational, transactional and Laissez-faire Leadership Behavior. The multifactor leadership theory developed by Bass (1985) encompasses a range of Leader Behaviors:

- Transactional Leadership Behaviors
- Transformational Leadership Behaviors
- Laissez-faire Leadership Behaviors

Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1997) have identified the components of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Both the transformational and transactional leaders are described as leaders who actively intervene and try to prevent problems, although they use different approaches (Figure 1.3). When researching these two active forms of leadership, one finds that they are often contrasted with a third style of leadership, called laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1990a; Deluga, 1990).

**Figure 1.3: Types of Leadership Behavior (Bass, 2006)**

- **Transactional**: Emphasizes the transaction or exchange that takes place among leaders, colleagues, and followers.
- **Laissez-faire**: Is the avoidance or absence of leadership and is, by definition, most inactive, as well as most ineffective according to almost all research on the style.
- **Transformational**: Motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they thought possible.
**Transactional Leadership Behavior:** Burns (1978) argues that Transactional Leadership entails an exchange between leader and follower. Followers receive certain valued outcomes (e.g. wages, prestige) when they act according to leader’s wishes. Transactional seeks to motivate followers through extrinsic rewards. Bass and Avolio (1994) stated that, Transactional Leadership is concerned with the basic needs of followers and emphasizes the exchange between leaders and their followers. Transactional leadership is generally sufficient to maintain the status quo in schools. Transactional leadership on the other hand, is viewed as an exchange of rewards for compliance; it caters to followers’ immediate self-interests. It is based on contingent reward and discipline. Transactional leadership occurs when the leader rewards or disciplines the follower, depending on the adequacy of the follower’s performance. Transactional leadership depends on contingent reinforcement, either positive contingent reward (CR) or the more negative active or passive forms of management-by-exception (MBE-A or MBE-P).

**Contingent Reward (CR)**

This constructive transaction has been found to be reasonably effective in motivating others to achieve higher levels of development and performance, although not as much as any of the transformational components. Contingent reward leadership involves the leader assigning or obtaining follower agreement on what needs to be done with promised or actual rewards offered in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment. A sample contingent reward item is: “The leader makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.” Contingent reward is transactional when the reward is a material one, such as a bonus. Contingent reward can
be transformational, however, when the reward is psychological, such as praise (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

★ **Management-by-Exception (MBE)**

This corrective transaction tends to be more ineffective than contingent reward or the components of transformational leadership. The corrective transaction may be active (MBE-A) or passive (MBE-P). In active MBE, the leader arranges to actively monitor deviations from standards, mistakes, and errors in the follower’s assignments and to take corrective action as necessary. MBE-P implies waiting passively for deviations, mistakes, and errors to occur and then taking corrective action. Active MBE may be required and effective in some situations, such as when safety is paramount in importance. Leaders sometimes must practice passive MBE when required to supervise a large number of subordinates who report directly to the leaders. Sample MLQ items for management by exception are: “The leader directs attention toward failures to meet standards” (active) and “The leader takes no action until complaints are received” (passive).

• **Transformational leadership:** A new paradigm of leadership has captured widespread attention. Burns (1978) argued that concept of Transformational Leadership has generated considerable interest among practitioners and academics. Pivotal in the development of theories of Transformational Leadership has been the work of Bass (1985). It refers to the leader moving the follower beyond immediate self-interest for the sake of the organization or team. It elevates the followers’ level of maturity by activating their higher order needs for achievement and self-actualization. Transformational leadership has been found to be reasonably effective in terms of the achievement of set goals, but it is not considered to be capable of motivating the kind of
performance beyond expectation associated with Transformational leadership. Bass (1985) views transformational leadership as distinct from charismatic leadership in several respects. Unlike charismatic leaders, transformational leaders seek to empower followers by building their confidence and encouraging them to take more initiative in carrying out the work. According to Bass (1985) “Charisma is a necessary ingredient of transformational leadership, but by itself it is not sufficient to account for the transformational process. Transformational leadership depends on idealized influence (II) and inspirational motivation (IM) and intellectual stimulation (IS) and individualized consideration (IC).

★ Idealized Influence (II)

Transformational leaders behave in ways that allow them to serve as role models for their followers. The leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them; leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination.

Thus, there are two aspects to idealized influence: the leader’s behaviors and the elements that are attributed to the leader by followers and other associates. These two aspects, measured by separate sub factors of the MLQ, represent the interactive nature of idealized influence it is both embodied in the leader’s behavior and in attributions that are made concerning the leader by followers. A sample item from the MLQ that represents idealized influence behavior is: “The leader emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.” A sample item from the idealized influence attributed factor is: “The leader reassures others that obstacles will be overcome.”
In addition, leaders who have a great deal of idealized influence are willing to take risks and are consistent rather than arbitrary. They can be counted on to do the right thing, demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct.

**Inspirational Motivation (IM)**

Transformational leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers’ work. Team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. Leaders get followers involved in envisioning attractive future states; they create clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet and also demonstrate commitment to goals and the shared vision. A sample MLQ item for IM is “The leader articulates a compelling vision of the future.” Idealized influence leadership and inspirational motivation usually form a combined single factor of charismatic-inspirational leadership. The charismatic-inspirational factor is similar to the behaviors described in charismatic leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1993a).

**Intellectual Stimulation (IS)**

Transformational leaders stimulate their followers’ efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged. There is no public criticism of individual members’ mistakes. New ideas and creative problem solutions are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches, and their ideas are not criticized because they differ from the leaders’ ideas. A sample item from the MLQ that represents
intellectual stimulation is: “The leader gets others to look at problems from many different angles”.

**Individualized Consideration (IC)**

Transformational leaders pay special attention to each individual follower’s needs for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or a mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successively higher levels of potential. Individualized consideration is practiced when new learning opportunities are created along with a supportive climate. Individual differences in terms of needs and desires are recognized. The leader’s behavior demonstrates acceptance of individual differences (e.g., some employees receive more encouragement, some more autonomy, others firmer standards, and still others more task structure). A two-way exchange in communication is encouraged, and “management by walking around” workspaces are practiced. Interactions with followers are personalized (e.g., the leader remembers previous conversations, is aware of individual concerns, and sees the individual as a whole person rather than as just an employee). The individually considerate leader listens effectively. The leader delegates tasks as a means of developing followers. Delegated tasks are monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support and to assess progress; ideally, followers do not feel they are being checked on. A sample MLQ item from the individualized consideration scale is: “The leader spends time teaching and coaching”.

**Laissez-Faire Leadership Behavior:** In addition to the four components of transformational and transactional leadership, the full range of leadership model also include along with laissez-faire (or no leadership) behavior.
Laissez-Faire Leadership

As mentioned, laissez-faire leadership is the avoidance or absence of leadership and is, by definition, most inactive, as well as most ineffective according to almost all research on the style. As opposed to transactional leadership, laissez faire represents a no transaction. Necessary decisions are not made. Actions are delayed. Responsibilities of leadership are ignored. Authority remains unused. A sample laissez-faire item is: “The leader avoids getting involved when important issues arise”. Fundamental to the FRL model is that every leader displays each style to some amount. The third dimension of this model (depth) represents how frequently a leader displays a particular style of leadership. The horizontal active dimension is by self-evident definition; the vertical effectiveness dimension is based on empirical findings. Deluga (1990) describes the laissez-faire leader as an extremely passive leader who is reluctant to influence subordinates, make decisions or give direction. Such a leader generally refrains from participating in group or individual decision-making thus giving his/her subordinates considerable freedom to the point of abdicating his/her responsibility. In a sense, this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership (Bass and Riggio, 2006). A third category of leadership is also recognized, Laissez-faire leadership is thought of as avoidance leadership and here the leader avoids action or decision-making. Responsibilities of the leader are ignored and authority remains unused. Laissez-faire Leadership Behaviors are characterized as inactive, which are contrary to typical proactive or reactive Leadership Behaviors. Leaders also exhibit behaviors that are considered non-relations-oriented and non-task oriented (Bass, 1990a). These behaviors are called laissez-faire (Bass & Avolio, 1995, 1997), although additional descriptions
have included non-task (Bass & Avolio, 1997), non-leadership (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1997), and non-relations-oriented and non-task-oriented (Bass, 1990a).

1.5.5 Leadership behavior in school

“If there is any profession of paramount importance, I believe it is that of school master”, Rabindranatha Tagore.

While it is generally acknowledged that where you find good schools you will find good leaders, it has been notoriously difficult to construct an account of school leadership, grounded in everyday practice that goes beyond generic heuristics of suggested practice. We know relatively little about school leadership; that is, knowledge of the ways in which school leaders develops and sustains those conditions and process believed necessary for innovation. While there is an expansive literature about what school structures, programs, and processes are necessary for instructional change, we know less about how these changes are undertaken or enacted by school leaders.

We define school leadership as the identification, acquisition, allocation, coordination, use of the social, material and cultural resources necessary to establish the conditions for the possibility of teaching and learning. Leadership involves mobilizing school personnel and clients to notice, face, and take-on the task of changing instruction as well as harnessing and mobilizing the resources needed to support this process. Specifically, we are concerned with leadership as it relates to the transformation of teaching and learning. It is clear that interaction among the teachers in the school, the communication between the teachers and head influence school improving.
1.6 EDUCATION SCENARIO OF INDIA AND IRAN

Comparative education tries to understand the similarities and dissimilarities of the educational systems. The main object of the comparative education is that the qualities and drawbacks of different systems of education should be properly understood. One of the objects of comparative education is to find out the characteristics and qualities of educational system of different countries of the world. Study of comparative education is not made only with the object of finding out the qualities of the system of education, but it also tries to have a study in the proper perspective. In short, the object of comparative education is the analytical study of the basic principals of educational systems of different countries in a historical perspective (Raj, 2008).

1.6.1 Scenario of Education in India

India is located in Southern Asia, bordering the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal, between Burma and Pakistan. With an estimated population of 1.3 billion, India is the world’s second most populated country. India consists of 32 States and Union territories. In 2005 the literacy rate of the population was 61 percent. The rate for male was 73 percent and the rate for female was 44 percent.

India has a long history of organized education. The Gurukul system of education is one of the oldest on earth and was dedicated to the highest ideals of all-round human development: physical, mental and spiritual. Gurukuls were traditional Hindu residential schools of learning; typically the teacher's house or a monastery. Education was free, but students from well-to-do families paid Gurudakshina, a voluntary contribution after the completion of their studies. British records show that education was widespread in the 18th century, with a school for every temple, mosque or village in most regions of the
country. The subjects taught included Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Theology, Law, Astronomy, Metaphysics, Ethics, Medical Science and Religion. The schools were attended by students’ representing all classes of society. The current system of education, with its western style and content, was introduced and founded by the British in the 20th century, following recommendations by Macaulay. Traditional structures were not recognized by the British government and have been on the decline since. Gandhi, is said, had described the traditional educational system as a beautiful tree that was destroyed during the British rule.

The greatest problem in understanding the nature of Indian education is that it is not uniform throughout the country. Prior to independence and even after that different states are following varied patterns in school education. In Karnataka, the primary education stage is of seven years. In Karnataka, I, II, III and IV standard are together called- primary school and V, VI and VII standards are called higher primary level. The stage comprising of VIII, IX and X are considered as high school level and XI and XII standards are together called Pre-University level (Padmaprasad, 2005).

There are different minority groups in India like Hindi, Kannada, Tulugo, Bangale, Bihare, Malae and Tamili and so on. So the medium of instruction in India at all levels is English. India is a multilingual, multi-religious, and multi-cultural country with variation in the life style, culture and educational requirements. Hence variations in content, quality and medium of education are widespread. These variations influence the structures of education and its administration. Although the broad guidelines, structures of education and its administration may be laid down by the Central Government, yet, the States are free to evolve and frame their own policies and structures of education within a
broad framework. The Indian constitution provides that both the Central and the State Governments can bring laws and frame policies on education or, in simpler words, the subject education is the responsibility of both the respective State Governments as well as the Government of India. Almost every State has its own Secondary Education Board and is responsible for establishing State Universities and maintaining them. Therefore the Central Government acts as a co-coordinator. Its role is determining a uniform standard of education in the country.

All schools are not single-sex; there are co-education schools as well. There are around 2264000 schools throughout India, teaching over 320 million children. It is estimated that there are almost 16 million teachers within the education system. In India most of the schools start to work from June till March. During these 240 days students go to school from 9 AM to 3:30 PM or 10 AM to 4:30 PM, and 7:30 AM to 1:30 PM in different schools. Schools are on holiday on Sunday and also on some special ceremonies (religious days, Independence day, New Year…). Most of the teachers in India are women, but you cannot call this job is special for women. There is lunchtime in schools and rest time is different in each level. Schools are not segregated and students are required to wear uniform.

In Indian Elementary school for each standard there is only one teacher who has to teach the entire subject by himself, except for Hindi Subject which is taught by a separate teacher. In Primary schools for each subject there is one teacher who has to teach the entire subject. At the Elementary level, students will get familiar with Environment, Science, History, Geography, Social, Religious, State’s Language, English and Mathematic (Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division). In Secondary School
subjects are the same as in Elementary where; Sanskrit and one more language like French or Germany are introduced. Theses subjects are taught by the separate teachers as well.

The Indian education system, which includes Elementary School (7 years), Secondary School (3years) and Higher/ Secondary School (2years), is based on 12 years of schooling (10+2). Government Secondary Schools as well as most of the Private Schools are affiliated with Central or States Boards for conduct of examination or with the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE).

1.6.2 Scenario of education in Iran

Iran is located in Middle East, boarding the Gulf of Oman, the Persian Gulf, and the Caspian Sea, between Iraq and Pakistan. With an estimated population of 70 million, Iran is the world’s twentieth most populated country. It consists of 30 States and Union Territories. In 2005 the literacy rate of the population was 77 percent. The rate for male was 86 percent and the rate for female was 73 percent.

Prior to the mid-nineteenth century, it was traditional in Iran for education to be associated with religious institutions. On those days until the establishment of relatively modern primary-school (in Persian: Dabesstaan or Madresseh), Iranian girls and boys used to attend the Learning Traditional Centers (in Persian: Maktab Khaaneh) where pupils between 4 to 14 years old could sit next to each other on the floor (sometimes covered by rug or mat) and listen to the teacher. These schools were established in mosques and teachers were religious men. There was no any age limitation for boys; girls were only allowed to attend these centers until age 7, they had then to stay home to help the family or get a private female mentor to continue their education.
The roots of the modern Iranian educational system lie in the mid-19th century. The first Ministry of Education, established in 1855, was modeled on the basis of French system. In the late 19th century the demands of certain intellectual and political groups in Iran, for greater modernization and Westernization, including the development of educational provision, met with powerful opposition from the Church, the aristocracy, and, intermittently, the State. Prior to the mid-19th century, education was associated with religious institutions. Education is highly centralized and Ministry of Education is the center of power. Ministries of Education and Higher Education specify a national course of study for all subjects, publish textbooks, finance the education, design and make tests. There are different minority groups in Iran like Turk, Kurd, Lure, Balouch, Arab, and Turkmen and so on. The medium of instruction in Iran at all levels is Farsi (Persian). Under the constitution, primary education (between ages 6 and 10) is compulsory. As a general rule, primary, secondary and higher education is free, although private schools and universities do exist and are permitted to charge tuition fees. According to government figures, over 95% of Iranian children currently receive primary and secondary education. All schools are single-sex. There are over 185,000 schools throughout Iran, teaching over 22 million children. It is estimated that there are almost 1.5 million teachers within the educational system. In Iran all the schools start to work from 20th of September till end of May. During this 9 months (200 days) students go to school from 7:30 AM to 1:30 PM. Schools are on holiday on Friday and on some special ceremonies (Fiesta, Revolution, New Year…). Schools (grades 1-12) are segregated and girl-students are required to wear uniform. Most of the teachers in Iran are women (especially in Elementary and Secondary School), but you cannot call this job is special
for women. There is no lunchtime in schools and rest time is different in each level 60 minute in Elementary School, 30 minute in Primary and High Schools, which is divided to 3 parts.

School education in Iran is divided into the following cycles. Pre-school (1 year cycle, children aged 5), Primary (5 year cycle, children aged 6-10), Guidance (3 year cycle, children aged 11-13), Secondary (3 year cycle, students aged 14-17) and Pre-university (1 year cycle, students aged 18). Students begin to learn English when they enter the seven grades, (at the age of twelve), two hours weekly. In order to teach in high schools teachers must hold Bachelor’s degree in one of the fourteen specialized subjects. Since 1993 high school has been divided into two periods of three years, one year of college or a pre-university period. In the previous system (before 1993) it was a single period of four years.

Elementary Schools level is first standard till fifth standard, for each standard there is only one teacher who has to teach the entire subjects by himself/herself. At the Elementary level students will get familiar with Environmental Science, History, GeoFigurey, Social Science, Religion, and Mathematic (Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division). At the Secondary School subjects are the same as in Elementary where, English and crafts are introduced. For each subject there is one special teacher qualified in those subjects.

1.7 NEED AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Every country has hoped to have name, and desire that life of their people be as well as people of other countries, so also every school has hope to have name, and desire that its teachers as well as its students do their best teaching and learning according to
what are expected to teach and learn. Education determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of the people of any nation. A sound educational system is considered to be the backbone of a developing country like India and Iran, and the teacher is the pivot around which the entire educational system revolves. The success of any educational system depends on the quality and capability of the teacher who is indispensable in the system, thus the teacher forms an important force in the development of a society.

A job of being a teacher is the most important and challenging in the world. It is the teacher who is the embodiment of knowledge who can help and guide young mass. It is an accepted fact that the teacher is the creator of future citizens of society. S/he is the pivot of a school. The quality of any education is largely determined by the quality of teachers who make it. Personality, attitude, morale, commitment, work value of a teacher assumes a paramount significance in determining the quality of education. No system of education can rise higher than its teacher. Teachers have always had a most difficult task to perform. The teacher is both an agent and a scholar. The orderly transmission of a body of knowledge, skills and values is done only under the guidance of the teacher.

Many seem to repent over their choice and would be too willing to change their job in favor of some other lucrative ones if only opportunities are available. Anjaneyulu pointed out that in addition to the loss of special recognition, the profession has been infested with a number of problems, like rise in the work load, lack of security of service and growing indiscipline among the students. Today’s teachers lack the value to work as a result of many problems they have to face in their profession. Teachers with less emotion and feeling value in his work, affect the quality of education and national
growth. Unless the teacher is greatly motivated, fully involved in work and committed, all other attempts that are taken to effect any improvement in the field of teaching are bound to be futile. It is therefore necessary to identify causes for this serious problem. Determining the factors that keep teachers committed to do their best at their job, educational administrators need to concern how a high level of teachers’ commitment can be aroused, directed and sustained. Administrators must design and use practices which encourage teachers to try new things, take on new challenges which inspire teachers to achieve excellence. It is of primary importance that administrators foster the individual and collective best efforts and contributions of teachers in order to accomplish educational goals and improve student’s learning. As Indian National Education Commission (1964-1966) has pointed out: “Teacher is the one who shapes the destiny of the whole country through the process of the education” (Challenges of Education: A policy perspective, 1985:6).

The school head’s job is complex and demanding, it is becoming more demanding with each passing year. The task of recruiting and retaining heads of schools and bad teachers is a daunting one. It is time to modify and change the role of the heads of schools. Nothing could be more important than recruiting and retaining heads of schools to lead ours schools in the twenty-first century. One of the most persistent findings from research on school is the symbiotic relationship between professional development and school improvement. School improvement cannot occur without a closely connected culture of professional development. Staff development cannot be separated from school improvement (Fullan.1991).
Generally, numerous factors such as human and financial resources, required equipments, materials and so on affect instructional objectives and goals, but essentially there must exist an appropriate emotional atmosphere for teaching and learning in the school. In other words, the suitable human relationships among heads of schools, teachers, and students are the most important of instructional goals. The heads of schools as leaders have an important role to accomplish this order. In fact, good leader behavior of the heads of schools is essential for their ever-increasing professional growth as well as for creating a good emotional climate and commitment in the school. Head of school with bad leader behavior not only tends to incapacitate himself for the performance of his multifarious duties in the schools but also creates difficulties and problems for his subordinates. There is a general feeling that teachers’ Organizational Commitment and Work Values; heads’ leadership behavior at different levels of education play an important role in development of the desired commitment and loyalty among the teachers. Hence, there is a need to study the Organizational Commitment and Work Values of teachers about their work and influence of their heads’ leadership behavior on their work.

An important reason for linking Organizational Commitment and Work Values of teachers and Leadership Behavior of heads of school together is that teachers and heads both can contribute significantly to development of their society. Ever since academic attention was drawn to the education systems, considerable research has been conducted and adequate literature is prepared/published. A through review of research studies related to Organizational Commitment and Work Values of teachers and Leadership Behavior of heads revealed that considerable research has been done on different aspects
of Organizational Commitment, Work Values and Leadership Behavior of employees
with different variables, but only a few studies have been carried out to measure the
existing levels of Organizational Commitment and Work Values among teachers and
Leadership Behavior among heads of high schools.

However, most of the studies carried out on Organizational Commitment, Work
Values and Leadership Behavior of teachers in India and Iran have been done only in the
area of curriculum analysis in order to find out their adequacies or, in other words, for
integration of them in to school subjects. Furthermore, it is found that considerable
number of research studies have attempted to study Organizational Commitment, Work
Values and Leadership Behavior in relation to certain variables like sex, subject studied,
qualification, teachers experience, etc. Some of those studies have reported the
difference in the Organizational Commitment and Work Values of the teachers,
Leadership Behavior of school heads between/among different categories on the selected
variables and some have reported no differences. Hence, the conclusions of those studies
are found to be inconsistent and therefore, it is attempted to study the influence of
mentioned variables on Organizational Commitment, Work Values of the teachers and
Leadership Behavior of heads of high schools. In this work, it is attempted to study and
compare the Organizational Commitment and Work Values of the teachers and
Leadership Behavior of heads of high schools in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj(Iran).
Thus, the study stated as follows: “ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND WORK
VALUES OF TEACHERS AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF HEADS OF HIGH
SCHOOLS IN BANGALOR (INDIA) AND SANANDAJ (IRAN) - A COMPARATIVE
STUDY”.
1.8 RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR THE STUDY

In this study following research questions have been raised.

1. What is the level of Organizational Commitment and Work Values of High School Teachers of Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran)?

2. What is the level of Leadership Behavior of Heads of High Schools in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran)?

3. Do the following categories of High School Teachers of Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran) differ on their Organizational Commitment and Work Values?
   a) Male and Female High School Teachers
   b) Government and Private Aided High School Teachers
   c) Teachers with different Lengths of Experience

4. Do the following categories of Heads of High Schools in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran) differ on their Leadership Behavior?
   a) Male and Female Heads of High Schools
   b) Government and Private Aided High School Heads
   c) Heads with different Lengths of Experience

5. Is there any relationship between:
   a) Organizational Commitment and Work Values of High School Teachers in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran)?
   b) Organizational Commitment of Teachers and Leadership Behavior of Heads of High Schools in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran)?
c) Work Values of Teachers and Leadership Behavior of Heads of High Schools in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran)?

1.9 CHAPTERIZATION

The present thesis consists of five chapters:

- The first chapter deals with the theoretical background of the study, Education Scenario of India and Iran, the context, need and importance of the study, the problem undertaken and chapterization.

- The second chapter focuses on the review of related literature, i.e. the details of the studies related to Organizational Commitment, Work Values, and Leadership Behavior in India, Iran and other countries.

- The third chapter deals with the statement of the problem and methodology of the study. This chapter presents the details on the objectives, hypotheses of the study, variables, operation definition of key terms, delimitations of the study, design and procedure, tools used, sample selected, and statistical techniques used for analysis of the data.

- The forth chapter presents the details of the analysis of the data, its interpretation and discussion under the following heads:

  I) Description of the sample of High School Teachers of Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran) on their Organizational Commitment and Work Values.

  II) Comparison of High School Teachers of Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran) on their Organizational Commitment and Work Values.

  III) Description of Heads of High Schools in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran) in their Leadership Behavior.
IV) Comparison of Heads of High Schools of Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran) in their Leadership Behavior.

V) Differences in Organizational Commitment in relation to different background variables (gender, type of school, length of experience) of High School Teachers of Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran).

VI) Differences in Work Values in relation to different background variables (gender, type of school, length of experience) of High School Teachers of Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran).

VII) Differences in Leadership Behavior in relation to different background variables (gender, type of school, length of experience) of Heads of High Schools in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran).

VIII) Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Work Values of High School Teachers in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran).

IX) Relationship between Organizational Commitment of High School Teachers and Leadership Behavior of Heads of High Schools in Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran).

X) Relationship between Work Values of High School Teachers and Leadership Behavior of Heads of High Schools of Bangalore (India) and Sanandaj (Iran).

- The fifth chapter presents the summary and conclusions of the study. In this chapter, the details of the chapters I and IV are summarized, implications of the findings are discussed and topics for further study are suggested.