CHAPTER - 1

INTRODUCTION
1.1 Organizational Commitment

The phenomenon of organisational commitment is universally acceptable which is an outcome of physical working conditions and organisational climate other than individual employee's work related attitude and behaviour. Commitment refers to individual's attraction and attachment of the employees to their organisation. The attachment of the employees to their organisation had received considerable attention from behavioural scientists, managers and supervisors during the last few decades and as a result the phenomenon like attachment, identification, loyalty to the organisation etc, has clearly emerged as the most recognised research construct. Whyte (1956) evolved the concept of "The Organisation Man" that refers to one's over-commitment to the organisation. In Whyte's opinion organisation man is a person who works for the organisation as well as, possesses a feeling of psycho-belongingness. Similarly, Lawrence (1958) asserted," Ideally we would want one sentiment to be dominant in all employees from top to bottom, namely a complete loyalty to the organisational purpose".

According to Becker (1960) commitment involves "consistent lines of activities" in behaviour that are produced by exchange considerations to which he called side-bets, as pension that grows in proportion to years in the organisation. Later on Ritzer and Trice (1969) analyzed Becker's side-bet concept of commitment and tested its aspects on both organisation and occupational commitment. Becker's side bet concept was the first source for defining the term commitment. It suggests that commitment come into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity.

Etzioni (1961) for the first time developed a typology of
commitment and pointed out that the power of authority that organisations have over their employees is rooted in the nature of employee's involvement in the organisation. He described this involvement or commitment involving behaviour as (a) moral involvement (b) calculative involvement and (c) alienative involvement. Moral involvement is that which has positive and high intense orientation toward the organisation based on internalisation of organisational goals and values and/or identification with authority. Calculative involvement on the other hand, represents a less intense relationship with the organisation and is largely based on a rational exchange of benefits and rewards. Etzioni suggests primary control mechanisms that organisations often employ to secure compliance with organisational directives. Normative power which rests largely on the allocation of symbolic rewards is most often associated with moral involvement, whereas remunerative power is typical with calculative and lastly, coercive power is used in a situation where alienated involvement is concerned.

Kanter (1968) suggested three forms of commitment viz.; continuance commitment that refers to the member's dedication to the survival of the organisation. Cohesion commitment is referred as the attachment to the social relationships in an organisational context, which is brought through public renunciation of previous social ties or by engaging in different social ceremonies. Thirdly the control commitment which is the result of members' attachment to the organisational norms that shape behaviour towards desired direction or develop employees' pro-activity conducive to the organisational objectives.

Brown (1969) while describing commitment highlights three important facets that includes (a) the notion of membership, (b) current position of the individual, and (c) predictive potential concerning certain aspects of performance, motivation to work, spontaneous contribution and
other related outcomes. Brown suggests the different relevance of motivational factors. Hall et al. (1970) considered that commitment is the process by which the goals of the organisation and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent. This contention is highly logical as it is important in enhancing human working efficiency.

According to Sheldon (1971), an attitude or an orientation towards the organisation which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organisation is called commitment. Organisational commitment is a powerful tool that can be used as an aid to achieve higher level of performance and to develop and maintain discipline in an organisation. The construct has been found to be related to many important outcome variables like performance, absenteeism, employee’s turnover, tardiness, etc. Lack of commitment to the work and the organisation can contribute to the major problems faced by the organisations like high cost of production and poor services.

According to Porter et al. (1974) it is the strength of one’s identification with the job and the involvement in a particular organisation, hence, characterised by one's, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a desire to maintain membership in it. Further in 1976 Porter and his associates described commitment as more active and positive orientation towards the organisation. This definition clearly highlights to the aspects of functional desire to continue at work.

Salancik (1977) differentiated commitment as seen by organisational behavioural researchers and social psychologist. Organisational behavioural researches describe commitment as the process by which employees come to identify with the goals and values of the organisation and consequently are desirous of maintaining membership in the organisation i.e. attitudinal commitment where as the process by which an individual’s past behaviour serves to bind him/her to the organisation is
called as behavioural commitment by social psychologist.

According to a model of commitment developed by Steers (1977) there are three main categories of variables that influence commitment - personal characteristics/attachments, work experience and job characteristics. Personal characteristics include need for achievement, work experience, age, and education; work experience category includes the experience and attitude of the individual and the group towards the organisation; and job characteristics include job challenge, opportunities for social interaction and feedback.

Stevens et al. (1978) have suggested that different concepts of organisational commitment can be classified into two broad categories, namely, exchange approaches and psychological approaches. The exchange approach views commitment as an outcome of inducement/contribution transactions between the organisation and the member, with an explicit emphasis on the instrumentality of membership as primary determinant of members, accrual of advantage or disadvantage in the on-going process of exchange. In this approach Stevens et al. said that the greater the favourability of the exchange from the member perspective, the greater will be his/her commitment to the organisation. In contrast to the exchange-based conception of commitment, the psychological approaches which is originally conceived by Porter et al. (1974) described commitment as a more active and positive orientation towards the organisation. Here, Porter et al.'s. contention clearly indicates that the person willingly keeps himself committed to the organisation's goal and subsequently becomes difficult for such person to leave the organisation.

Mowday et al. (1979) defined organisational commitment in terms of three factors that includes (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the organisation, (b) readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and (c) a strong desire to
remain a member of an organisation. These factors refer to behavioural dimension to evaluate employee's strength of attachment. Further, Morris and Sherman (1981) investigated a multivariate predictive model of organisational commitment and focused on the role of job-level and organisational differences.

Rechiers (1985) viewed organisational commitment as a process of identification with the goals of organisation's multiple constituencies and these constituencies include from top management to the public at large. This approach represents the commitment in the organisation to the concepts of goals and values as the foci for multiple commitments. The relative complexity of this approach as compared to previous global concepts of commitment may more realistically reflect the nature of employee's organisational attachment as individuals actually experience them.

Mottaz (1988) viewed commitment in terms of attitude/effective response resulting from an evaluation of work situation which links or attaches the individual to the organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1991) noticed that generally the definitions related to commitment reflect three broad aspects viz., affective orientation, cost-based and obligation or moral responsibility. To acknowledge that each of these three sets of definitions represent a legitimate but clearly different conceptualisation of the commitment construct, Meyer and Allen proposed a three-component model of organisational commitment and applied different labels to which they described as three components of commitment: affective, continuance and normative. Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment in the organisation because they are internally compelled to do so.
Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. It clearly carries the meaning that if an employee perceives that he/she has to pay more cost then it is most likely that they will remain attached to the organisation but on the other hand if they believe that leaving the organisation and joining the other will be beneficial then such condition become instrumental in discontinuing their affiliation to one organisation or company. Finally normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation.

Becker (1992) provide additional support for the multiple-consituency approach by demonstrating that employee's commitment to top management, supervisor and the work itself contributed significantly beyond the organisation in the prediction of job satisfaction, intention to quit, and pro-social organisational behaviour. On the basis of the re-analysis of Becker's data, however Hunt and Morgan (1994) suggested that commitment to specific constituencies might be better viewed as exerting their influence on overall commitment to the organisation, that is, commitment to each constituency contributed to employee's over all commitment to the organisation which intturn influences on various outcome measures.

As anticipated, the relationship between commitment and employee's retention variables are well established. Several studies reported consistent negative correlation of organisational commitment with employee's intention to leave the organisation and actual turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Although correlations are strongest for affective commitment whereas, significant relations between commitment and turnover variables are found for all the three conceptualised form of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996).
Many aspects related to work performance viz., attendance, assigned duties, sense of belongingness etc. have been studied in relation to commitment. Performance was found to be significantly predicted by commitment and absenteeism was found to be negatively related with commitment (Mowday et al. 1979; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Gellallity, 1995 and Sommer, 1995).

Kim and Mauborgne (1993) found those with strong affective commitment to the organisation reported higher level of compliance with strategic decisions made at the corporate level than did those with weaker commitment. Significant positive relations have also been reported between employee's affective commitment and potentiality for promotion as assessed by employee's respective supervisors as well as their overall performance on the job (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; and Sages & Johnston, 1989). Like those with strong affective commitment, employees with strong continuance commitment are more likely to stay with organisation than are those with weak commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Normative commitment has been witnessed to be positively correlated to work effort and with overall performance (Ashforth & Sake; 1996). For many employees, working involves more than showing up and currying out required duties. Morrison (1994) argued that because the boundary between extra-role behaviour and in-role behaviour is often unclear, the distinction between the two might itself be related to the employee's attitudes. Commitment has also been found to be related to the way employees respond to dissatisfaction with events at work. Hirchman (1970), and Farrell (1983) examined three responses to dissatisfaction in addition to turnover. These are voice, loyalty, and neglect.

We now turn to the possibility that commitment to the organisation has implication for employee's well being and behaviour beyond the work place. Work experience or factors involving the treatment
of employee during their membership within an organisation has been empirically related to commitment (Mowday et al., 1979). Perception of warmth and supportive organisational climate, age, gender, & tenure are found to be related with commitment (Morris and Sherman, 1981; Alvi and Ahmad, 1987; Sharma & Singh 1991; and Sommer, 1995). Worker's personality, personal needs and values have been reported associated with commitment (Buchanan, 1974) and Robinowitz and Hall, 1977. Education inversely and negatively related with the commitment while work rewards and justice and fairness in organisation is positively related with the commitment (Koys, 1991; Folger & Konovsky, 1989).

Predictors from the characteristics of the job tasks that are most likely to affect commitment include task, identity, the extent to which workers expectations are met by job tasks, the opportunity for optional social interaction in completing tasks and job scope (Buchanan, 1974), higher level of responsibility, autonomy and interest and variety in a given job and satisfaction with job leads to higher level of commitment (Mowday et al, 1979).

Having given the description of the nature, concept and relevance of the phenomenon of organisational commitment, it is imperative to point out here that organisational commitment is one of the key phenomenon that is likely to govern the intensity with which motivation at work take place and subsequently make one feel satisfied with work. Moreover, organisational commitment is found conducive at work and has very significant influence on various organisational outcomes viz., performance, absenteeism, turnover, and other job related outcomes.

In the present study organisational commitment was taken as dependent variable which have already been discussed here, whereas occupational stress, job satisfaction, employee's morale and socio-emotional school climate were taken as independent variables. Therefore, in the
proceeding writings these independent variables will be undertaken for discussion one by one. Comprehensive details of occupational stress - an independent variable follows:

1.2 Occupational stress

There is a pervasive perception among teachers, and those who study their behaviour, that they suffer a good deal of occupational stress. Studies have found approximately one third of teachers surveyed who have reported their job as highly or extremely highly stressful (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978; Broiles, 1982; Manthei & Solman, 1988; Borg & Falzon, 1989; Solman & Feld, 1989; O’Connor and Clarke, 1990). This is perceived to occur because of the powerful interpersonal demands of the job and its attendant roles as well as its large task demands and expectations. The work environment after 1990's, characterised as it is by structural change, higher job performance expectations, increased organisational competitiveness and redundancy, might be expected to increase occupational stress levels even further (Glowinkowski & Cooper, 1987). Furthermore there is research evidence that indicates that work related stress among teachers has serious implications for their work performance, health and psychological status (Capel, 1987; Cooper, 1986; Pierce & Molloy, 1990). Therefore all those factors which influence occupational stress of teachers and its consequences must be studied thoroughly, but first of all it is important to have a clear picture about the concept and meaning of occupational stress.

The researchers in the area of organisational behaviour and management have used the term job stress to denote employees mental state aroused by a job situation or a combination of job situations perceived as presenting excessive and divergent demands. Some stress researchers have emphasised the role of job situations in their definitions of job/occupational stress. Caplan, Cobb and French (1975) have accordingly
defined occupational stress as "any characteristics of job environment which poses a threat to the individual". Cooper and Marshall (1976) have expressed that by occupational stress is meant negative environmental factors or stressors associated with a particular job.

But some other stress researchers have tried to define it in terms of interaction between worker and work environment. The definition proposed by Margolis, Kores & Quinn (1974) falls in this category. They defined stress as "a condition at work interacting with worker's characteristics to disrupt his psychological or physiological homeostasis". Similarly, Beehr & Newman (1978) described job stress as "a condition where in job related factors interact with the worker to change (disrupt or enhance) his psychological conditions such that the person is forced to deviate from normal functioning". Consistent with recent conceptualization, stress denotes the psychological state experienced by an employee when faced with demands, constraints, and/or opportunities that have important but uncertain outcomes (Beehr & Bhagat, 1985; Schuler, 1980).

French, Rodgers & Cobb (1974) proposed person-environment fit perspective of occupational stress. According to them poor fit or misfit between employee and his work and its environment results in stress and psychological and health strains. The theory is based on the assumption that people vary in their needs, expectations and abilities just as jobs vary in their requirements demands and incentives. When there is a poor fit or misfit between the employee and of the job, Person-Environment theory predicts that the employee's well being will be affected. In this theory the fit is not unilateral. It is rather bilateral fit between employee and his job. Both should satisfy each others' expectations or demands. Poor or insufficient supply from either side would cause stress. A good Person-Environment fit occurs when the supplies in the environment (i.e. money, support from superiors and colleagues, opportunities to satisfy needs
for affiliation, power and achievement) are sufficient to satisfy the motives of the employee.

Second form of fit involves the relationship between the requirements and demands of the job and the abilities of the employees to meet those demands. If the demands of the job exceed the abilities of the employees or do not match with the temperament and interest of the employees, it will cause stress and results in psychological strain. If supplies for the motives of the person are threatened by discrepancies between demands and abilities, the individuals will experience stress. Person-Environment fit theory emphasizes the causal relationship between misfit and strains. Though the exact contents and process of the relationship of the two is not very clear, it is assumed that severity of the strains caused from misfit is determined by (a) needs which are not being satisfied (b) abilities to meet the job demands (c) genetic and socio-cultural background of the employee (d) defence and coping predispositions, and (e) situational constraints on particular responses (Srivastava 2003).

Kyriacou & Sutcliffe (1978) defined teacher's occupational stress as, "a response of negative affect (such as anger or depression) by a teacher usually accompanied by potentially pathogenic physiological and biochemical changes (such as increased heart rate or release of adrenocorticotrophic hormones into the blood stream) resulting from aspects of the teacher's job and mediated by the perception that the demands made upon the teacher constitute a threat to his self-esteem or well-being and by coping mechanisms activated to reduce the perceived threat." As they pointed out intrapersonal characteristics (such as enduring personality traits) may interact with an individual's perceptions of stressful stimuli, so that stress reactions will vary differentially among individuals, even when the objective external conditions are the same.

When individuals are exposed to stressful stimuli,
personality dispositions play a mediating role in the onset of stress reactions (Boyle, 1983; Evans, 1986; Grossarth-Maticek, 1994; Krohne, 1990; Ormel & Wohlfarth, 1991). Clearly there are considerable individual differences in susceptibility to stress. As compared to extraverts, introverted individuals tend to perceive negative affect at lower stimulus intensities (Eysenck, 1991), implicating cognitive appraisal as a mediating variable (Lazarus, 1990). Given the role of cognitive appraisal, it is evident that stress reactions are not solely the result of external sources but are determined to a large extent by individual’s perceptions and interpretations of such stimuli, as well as their coping mechanisms. According to Strelau (1988), reactivity to such stimuli varies with strength of excitation of the nervous system as measured for example, in the Pavlovian Temperament Survey (Boyle, Strelau & Angleitner, 1992). High sensitivity and reactivity to stressful stimuli is directly related to low strength of excitation and introversion, and vice versa. Individuals with discernible neurotic tendencies tend to be more susceptible to stress reactions and to recover only slowly (Eysenck, 1991; Schmitz, 1992).

Kyriacou & Sutcliffe (1978) pointed out that potential stressors may be primarily physical in nature, psychological or a combination of both. Evidently all these mechanisms may act synergistically in the onset of a stress reaction (Grossarth-Maticek et al. 1994; Ormel & Wohlfarth, 1991). The key aspect is that individuals perceive a threat to their self-esteem or security (Roe & Gray, 1991), and that their coping mechanisms are unable to mediate adequately the increase in negative hedonic tone. Brenner & Bartell (1984) maintained that teacher stress results from the combined effects of the teacher and school characteristics, potential stressors in the school environment, actual stressors, overall perceived work-related stressors, stress reactions/symptoms and health status, personality characteristics and coping mechanisms, as well as
non-work related (life-events) stressors.

Sources of occupational stress reported include poor working conditions, work overload or underload, role conflict and ambiguity, unsatisfactory career development and erratic work hours (Quick & Quick, 1984). How much stress each person reports however appears to be mitigated by factors such as job experience, ability level, type A personality pattern, self-esteem and fear of negative evaluation (Hogan & Hogan, 1982). Stressors arising from non-work personal domain, such as family and financial stressors, may contribute to occupational stress levels in an additive way (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987).

A wide range of occupational stressors is reported by school teachers whether they be from urbanised societies or from different environments (Payne & Furnham, 1987) and these approximate many of those reported by others occupational groups. For instance, research in Australia (Otto 1982,1986) using a wide range of schools and teachers has indicated stressors in the area of the work role (e.g., work load, class sizes, administrative demands); role conflict and ambiguity (e.g., conflicting demands by management, school-community conflict, teacher's role as counsellor etc.); lack of recognition; poor physical environment and resources (e.g., noise, geographic isolation); lack of control and decision making power (e.g., bureaucratic structure); poor communication and the emotional demands of teaching (e.g., its complexity, high quality teaching performance, dealing with students of different backgrounds, culture and gender). A range of other studies indicate similar stressors for teachers elsewhere and that it is not necessarily the weak, ineffectual teachers who suffer most from stress-related illness (Rogers, 1992).

Punch & Tuetterman (1990) found among Western Australian secondary school teachers job-related factors that were related to stress. These were perceived lack of efficacy/achievement, inadequate
access to facilities, lack of collegial support, excessive societal expectations, lack of influence, student misbehaviour and lack of praise/ recognition. The teachers' responses to their working environment were often gender related. Tuetteman & Punch (1992) have recently reported evidence showing that perceived level of influence and autonomy and perceived level of efficacy and achievement (which are associated with control of the work environment) can have an ameliorating effect on the reported level of teachers' psychological distress.

For their New Zealand sample Manthei & Solman (1988) isolated seven stress factors: pupil recalcitrance, poor remuneration, curriculum demands, low professional recognition, poor working conditions, community antagonism and time demands. Borg et al. (1991) reported that their sample of primary school teachers rated problems with time and resources, lack of professional recognition, pupil misbehaviour and poor relationship as major occupational stressors.

Brown & Ralph (1992) have reported a major study by a British teachers union showing the most common sources of teacher stress as structural change, classroom discipline, heavy work loads, lack of resources and poor school management. Pierce & Molloy (1990) have found that teachers in a high burnout group perceived more role stress indicated by higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity. Other workers also have found that role ambiguity and conflict can play a major role in burnout (e.g., Capel, 1987). For instance in a major British study Cooper and Kelly (1993) studied a wide range of senior educators ranging from primary school heads to principals of higher education institutions. The two main sources of occupational stress that emerged as predictors of teacher job dissatisfaction and mental ill health were work overload and handling relationship with staff.

A substantial body of contemporary research has examined
the cognitive factors affecting individual susceptibility to stress amongst teachers. Chorney (1998) investigated self-defeating beliefs by asking 41 teachers to identify what they must do to be a good teacher. 92% of responses were couched in absolute terms, such as 'must', 'need' etc. Endorsement of these beliefs was widespread in the sample and significantly associated with high levels of stress. In another study by Bibon-Nakou et al. (1999) the role of attributions was examined. 200 primary school teachers were presented with four hypothetical class management situations and they were questioned as to their attributions in each case. There was a significant association between internal attributions and symptoms of burnout, suggesting that teachers who blame themselves for difficulties are more vulnerable to stress.

Self-efficacy has also been researched as a cognitive vulnerability factor. Friedman (2000) examined the self-reports of newly qualified teachers and described his findings as the 'shattered dreams of idealistic performance'. Respondents revealed sharp declines in self-efficacy as they found that they could not live up to their ideal performances. In another study, Brouwers & Tomic (2000) used structural equation modelling to analyse the relationships between self-efficacy and burnout in 243 secondary school teachers. It emerged that self-efficacy had a synchronous effect on personal accomplishment and a longitudinal effect on depersonalisation.

However, low self-efficacy had a synchronous effect on emotional exhaustion. The direction of the causal relationship between self-efficacy and stress symptomatology is particularly significant as it suggests that cognitive interventions designed to improve self-efficacy may mediate the effects of stress.

The greatest volume of contemporary research concerning cognitive vulnerability to teacher stress relates specifically to individual
differences in coping style. In one recent study Griffith et al. (1999) questioned 780 primary and secondary school teachers, aiming to assess the associations between stress, coping responses and social support. High levels of stress were associated with low social support and the use of disengagement and suppression of competing activities as coping strategies. Interestingly, stepwise multiple regression revealed that coping style not only mediated the effects of environmental stressors, but also influenced teachers' perceptions of their environment as stressful. This is significant as it suggests that some of the stressors associated with teaching may not be inherently stressful but act as stressors only in transaction with coping style. A different approach to assessing the relationship between coping strategies and teacher stress was employed by Admiraal et al. (2000), which was concerned with active v/s passive responses to disruptive behaviour in the classroom. 27 student teachers gave a total of 300 responses to indicate their coping responses to everyday stressful classroom situations. A strong relationship emerged between a coping style involving active behavioural intervention and teacher satisfaction and a weaker relationship with pupil time on task and was also evident.

Jennings & Kennedy (1996) used the term 'systematic factors' to denote a broad cluster of organisational factors that are not intrinsic to the nature of teaching, but rather dependent on the climate of the educational institutions or the wider context of education including the political domain. Travers & Cooper (1997) found that teachers name lack of government support, lack of information about changes, constant change and the demands of the National Curriculum as among their greatest sources of stress.

At the level of the institution, factors such as social support amongst colleagues and leadership style have found to be important in affecting levels of stress. Dussault et al. (1999) assessed isolation and stress
in 1110 Canadian teachers and as hypothesized, found a strong positive correlation. In another study Van Dick et al. (1999) questioned 424 teachers from across all German sectors about their work stress, social support and physical illnesses. It was found that social support had both a direct positive effect on health and a buffering effect in respect of work stress.

Leadership style has also emerged as a significant organisational factor which affects teacher's stress. Harris (1999) assessed teacher stress and leadership style in three American primary schools using the Wilson Stress Profile for Teachers. The principal in each school was classified differently and teachers had significantly lower stress in the school where the principal was classified as high in both task and focus-this leadership style being associated with both strategic vision and a close personal relationship with staff. Leadership style appears in part to be a response to 'trickle-down' stressors. Hoel et al. (1999) surveyed English teachers and found that 35% reported having been bullied by a manager in the last five years, as opposed to an average of 24% across all occupational sectors. Hoel et al. (1999) interpreted this in terms of managers failing to cope with workloads and resorting to bullying as a maladaptive coping strategy.

Stress in teaching has a number of problematic outcomes related to the health and work performance effectiveness of the teachers. The health problem can take the form of coronary artery disease, alcoholism, fatigue, recurring headaches, insomnia, nervous tension (Cooper, 1986; Kyriacou & Prati, 1985), abdominal complaints, vulnerability to virus infection, respiratory disorders, muscular tension, gastrointestinal disorders and mental ill health (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978). Stress also has been associated with reduced immune functioning and resultant infectious diseases, peptic ulcers and hypertension (Lobel &
Dunkel-Schetter, 1990). In addition, obesity and diabetes, as well as faulty lipoprotein metabolism and atherosclerosis have been associated with stress (Brindley & Rolland, 1989). Psychological factors linked to stress include high anxiety, depression, irritability at home, irritability in the classroom, hostility, feeling of powerlessness and futility, propensity to depersonalise others, emotional exhaustion, lowered self-esteem and burnout (Capel, 1987; Furber, 1984; Pierce & Molloy, 1990).

Health and psychological outcomes can lead to poorer teaching performance, poor job satisfaction, increased absenteeism, poor decision making and bad judgement (Eckles, 1987; Quick & Quick, 1984). This often leads to a breakdown in personal work and home relationships and perhaps, finally, to total emotional breakdown (Hendrickson & LaBarka, 1979). Stress impacts greatly on teacher retention. A Study reported by Jarvis (2002) found that 37% of secondary vacancies and 19% of primary vacancies were due to ill-health, as compared to 9% of nursing vacancies and 5% in banking and the pharmaceutical industry. Recruitment also appears to be affected by representations of stress. Schools face costs associated with recruiting and replacing burned-out teachers who opt to leave the profession altogether.

So, pupils of stressed teachers have less effective professional and personal attention with attendant negative educational consequences. There is also a general community cost. In the short term, work stress results in excessive sick leave and other forms of absenteeism. In the longer term it may mean early retirement and resignations and thus premature loss of expertise from the education system.

1.3 Job Satisfaction:

Having discussed occupational stress, it is now warranted to take up the job satisfaction—another independent variable for detailed description. The phenomenon of satisfaction has always been important for
human being but in work context the very concept of job-satisfaction was for the first time coined in 1935 by Hoppock, who opined that job-satisfaction is "a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, "I am satisfied with my job." He enumerates six major factors of job-satisfaction which he extracted from his study are (i) the way the individuals react to unpleasant situations, (ii) the facility with which the employee adjusts himself with other persons, (iii) has relative status in social and economic group with which he identifies himself, (iv) the nature of work in relation to his abilities, interest and preparation (v) Security, and (vi) Loyalty.

The concept of job-satisfaction is central to psychologists and other behavioural scientists who tried their level best to explain the phenomenon of job-motivation and job-satisfaction as these two terms are generally used as synonym to each other.

Herzberg and his associates namely, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) on the basis of their findings put-forth two-factor theory advocating that there are two different sets of factors, one of which is responsible for satisfaction and the other only for dissatisfaction. The former set of factors is also called as 'content factors', 'motivation' and 'intrinsic factors'. These factors include achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, work itself, etc. Herzberg et al., also viewed that contrary to satisfiers there is another set of factors which is only responsible for dissatisfaction which is called as 'dissatisfiers' and it is also known as 'hygiene' 'context' and 'extrinsic factors'. These factors include job-security, company policy, status, supervisory relations, quality of supervision, peer-group relations, pay, working conditions, etc. One appealing aspect of Herzberg's explanation of motivation is that the terminology is work-oriented. Despite this important feature, Herzberg et al.'s work had been criticised on the ground of using critical incident technique (CIT)
(Pestonjee and Basu, 1972; Pareek and Keshato, 1981; Davis, 1977; and Akhtar and Bhargava, 1974). The other two criticisms which were raised are— the study is a sample biased, it involves respondents' ego-defensive reaction (King, 1970). Inspite of these criticisms Herzberg et al.'s model has provided conducive and highly fruitful information in quest of enhancing and maintaining motivation and satisfaction at work.

Adams (1963) also proposed a theory and his theory is known as 'equity theory'. He asserts that for some type of needs a person's preference level for the thing he fulfils the need is affected by social comparison process. A person compares his pay with those workers who have almost similar jobs, skills, and seniority. If a person's pay is higher or less than person(s) compared, he will perceive it to be inequitable. In a nutshell, it is to say that in the light of Adam's approach the feeling of experience of satisfaction-dissatisfaction is a function of input-outcome ratio. When input-outcome is perceived to be equal then this condition is likely instrumental in enhancing motivation and satisfaction. On the other hand, if there is any discrepancy between input-outcome factors, it is most likely to create inequity or dis-equilibrium. subsequently generating either over satisfaction or dissatisfaction or under both the conditions it is most likely that performance is deteriorated.

Criticisms are labelled against Adam's theory too, with reference to problems related to the classification of reference persons, testing of theory on real life in organisations and as the theory almost entirely focuses on the outcome of pay which may not be the only factor that motivates people (Goodaman, 1974).

Vroom (1964) while proposing his theory defines motivation as a process, governing choices among alternative forms of voluntary activities. He defines expectancy as a person's anticipated perception of how his actions can be related to the attainment of first level
outcomes. The valence (force) refers to attraction towards e.g., job in the work conditions that leads to improved performance. The two propositions based on expectancy and valence have been central to Vroom's expectancy model referring to employees' job attraction as a function of anticipated probabilities that certain action will bring positive outcomes (reward). Vroom's Expectancy theory was criticised for its validity, complexity and predictability (Lawler & Suttle, 1973; Schmidt, 1973; Feldman, Reitz & Hilterman, 1976). It is imperative to point out here that inspite of the questionable validity of Vroom's approach, it looks to be the good model for describing the process involving work and organisational commitment.

Alderfer (1969) criticised Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation that lays emphasis on a continuum of needs than level. Alderfer (1969) classified needs into three categories and he gave the name of his theory as the ERG-theory. He classified needs into three groups of core needs: existence, relatedness, and growth. The existence needs are concerned with survival. The relatedness needs stress on the importance of interpersonal and social relationships. The growth needs are concerned with the individual's desire for personal development. Unlike Herzberg's theory, it does not contend that a lower level need is aroused first and deprivation is the only way to activate a need.

A job is not an entity but a complex inter-woven activities viz., task, roles, responsibilities, interpersonal interaction, incentives, rewards etc. Thus a thorough understanding of job attitudes require job analysis in terms of its constituent elements. These elements may be classified as conditions or agents.

French, Kornhauser, and Marrow (1946) have completed a list of on-the-job factors, which are considered by various investigators as the underlying causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of workers. These factors are-(a) factors related to the individual's ability, health, age,
temperament, desires and expectations, neurotic tendencies, and unconscious conflicts (b) factors related to life conditions other than work include home conditions, recreational facilities, consumer problems, labour union activities, and socio-politico-economic conditions (c) factors pertaining to employment conditions which involve wages of earnings, steadiness of employment, transfer, lay-off, retiring procedures, kind of work performed, supervision, training, conditions of work, opportunity for advancement, opportunity to use ability, social relationship on the job, recognition and fair evaluation of work, opportunities for participation, prompt and fair setting of grievances etc. These factors indicate that satisfaction is not merely on-the-job phenomenon but it is also connected with various aspects of individual's life as job life can not be isolated from off-the-job conditions.

Worthy (1950) enumerated six composite factors of job-satisfaction viz., (a) company in general, (b) the local organisation, (c) local management, (d) immediate supervision, (e) co-workers and (f) working conditions. Grove & Kerr (1951) concluded on the basis of interrelation between these factors that wages and interpersonal relation at work appear to be major components of job-satisfaction.

Before accepting a job, generally people have aspirations to be fulfilled at work. The satisfaction in one's job depends on the extent to which the work, the job and the way of life that goes with them enable one to play the kind of role that one wants to play. According to Super (1953) needs, aspirations, values and motives that we associate with our jobs, if are found, conducive or fulfilled then these may lead to enhance satisfaction. Smith (1955) suggested that job-satisfaction is "the employee's judgement of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs". Further Blum (1956) and Blum & Nylor (1968) consider job-satisfaction as the resultant of many attitudes held by a worker. They were of the opinion that job-satisfaction is a general attitude, which is the
result of many specific attitudes especially in three areas, namely, specific job factors, individual characteristics, and group relationships outside the job. Blum (1956) asserts that satisfied employees are the greatest assets whereas, dissatisfied employees are the biggest liability. Satisfaction refers to the way one feels about event, people, and things. According to Blum, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is an attitude of the person/s which they hold toward the job-related factors in general.

Job- satisfaction is a matter of individual's own contemplation. Individuals are interested in those aspects of job which suit to their own value systems thus, different persons place different values for different job factors, hence, perception towards job-satisfaction factors vary.

Guion (1958) believed that the extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives the conditions conducive at work refers to the feeling of satisfaction (global or general satisfaction). There are some situations when satisfaction appears only with some specific dimensions of the work environment (facet of satisfaction) and these facets also either appear individually or in conjunction thereof. Blum & Nylor (1968) had defined the concept of job- satisfaction as a general attitude, which is the result of many specific attitudes in three areas, viz., specific job factors, individual characteristics, and group relationships outside the job. Job- satisfaction refers to the feeling and emotional aspects of the individual's experience towards his job that may be different from one's intellectual or rational aspects. The experience of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with one's work and various aspects of it, is in large part, the consequence of one's positive and negative job attitudes.

Smith and Kendall (1969) opined that job-satisfaction refers to the "persistent feelings towards discriminable aspects of the job situation." Discriminable aspects refer to such factors as the work-itself,
pay, promotional opportunities, the supervision, co-workers, and the hours of work. Hulin (1969) has also proposed the same factors. Further in 1969, Locke asserted that job satisfaction is a complex assemblage of cognition (beliefs and knowledge) and emotional feelings (sentiments or evaluation). He admits that job-satisfaction and job-dissatisfaction are seen as a function of perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives as offering or entailing. In 1970, Ronan has identified minimum seven important facets which can elicit worker's feeling of satisfaction viz., (a) Work, (b) Supervision, (c) Organisation and management, (d) Promotional opportunities, (e) Pay, (f) Financial benefits, and (g) Co-workers and working conditions.

Job-satisfaction is also developed as a fit between job characteristics and the wants of the employees or employers. It expresses the amount of congruence between one's expectations from the job and the rewards that the job provides. (Steers & Porter, 1971).

Job-satisfaction is probably the most widely studied area in the field of organisational psychology. Locke (1976) defined job-satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job experience. The positive emotional state is highly contributive to an employee's physical and mental well being. Job-satisfaction literature indicates that it is related to both on-the-job and off-the-job variables.

Job-satisfaction in itself is a complex concept affected by wide range of variables relating to individual, social, cultural, organisational and environmental aspects. These different factors affect job satisfaction of certain individuals in a given set of circumstances but not necessarily others in other circumstances. Thus, causes of job satisfaction are neither in the job nor solely in the man, but lie in the interface among them. In other words, Ghose & Ghorpade (1980) state that
"Job-satisfaction is a generalised attitude resulting from many specific attitudes in three areas viz., specific job factors, individual adjustment, and group relationship". Solanki (1992) rightly pointed out that no single theory can fully explain the dynamics of job satisfaction because of dynamic, complex and varying sensitivity of the situation. So there are too many determining factors which govern job satisfaction as age which is found positively related to satisfaction (Shrestha & Singh 1975; Nicholson et al., 1976; Singh & Singh, 1980) and other personal factors and background variables like sex, education, seniority, marital status, level of skill and efficiency, income, extroversion and tenure (Singh & Singh, 1980; Prasad, 1965; Marry, 1987; Johnson, 1974). Similarly, nature of employees' job, their financial rewards, promotional opportunities, supervisors' attitudes, job status, security, organisational climate, job-involvement, organisational commitment, equitable treatment, job communication responsibility and power are reported to be significantly related to job satisfaction (Harrison, 1961; Vroom, 1964; Schuh, 1967; Kuhler, 1963; Locke, 1976; Ronan, 1970; Furnham & Schaffer, 1984; Richardson, 1988).

Comprehensive description of job satisfaction clearly speaks of the truth that it is not a simple rather a complex phenomenon, which is a combination of personal characteristics, psychological and environmental circumstances that help in giving the experience of satisfaction-dissatisfaction. Hence, employees' mental health, their well being, and organisational conditions require proper care for inducing and enhancing employees feeling of satisfaction.

1.4 Employee's Morale

Having discussed two independent variables- occupational stress and job satisfaction, the researcher will now concentrate himself on the third independent variable, i.e., employee's morale. The descriptions follow:
La Pierre and Farnsworth (1949) considered morale as the "general level of regard that members of a group have for that group." Parker and Klumier (1951) define morale as "the attitude hold by the individual member of a group which makes put the achievement of group goals ahead of the achievement of personal goals." Scott, Clothier, and Spriigel (1954) consider morale as a "somewhat continuing state of mind or attitude of individuals or groups having a sufficiently common objectives to provide a focal point for action". According to them morale is usually zeal and the will to do.

Katz (1952) considered that morale involves two factors- (a) presence of a common goal among the members of the group, and (b) the acceptance of socially recognised view that having a high morale entails that: (i) the individual must possess firm convictions and values which makes life worthwhile for him so that he has the energy and confidence to face the future, (ii) he must be aware of a job to be done to defend of extend his store of values; and (iii) his values must be in essential agreement with those of his group and there must be a coordination of effort in attaining objectives.

Maier (1955) is of the view that there are three group conditions which can influence morale. These are: (a) the extent to which the members of group have a common goal, (b) the extent to which the goal is regarded as worthwhile, (c) the extent to which members feel the goal can be achieved. While enumerating the characteristics of morale, Maier observes, "In describing an individual one can speak of his attitudes, his motivation and his adjustment. When one attempts to describe a group one uses the term morale and it communicates all of these things but with a group reference. This means that the relationship between individuals is also a part of the meaning of morale." A group having high morale is characterized, then, by (a) team spirit (b) staying quality, (c) zest or
enthusiasm, and (d) resistance to frustration. On the other hand groups having low morale are characterized by such terms as (a) apathy (b) bickering (c) jealousies (d) disjointed effort, and (e) pessimism. Maire has also provided "scale for different levels of morale". It runs from Zest at the top, through Active- cooperation, Satisfied, Jab OK, Passive cooperation, Job unimportant, Work as Burden and Hostility to Apathy. Certain physical and psychological factors which contribute to high and low morale have also been discussed by Maier. The physical factors are:

(i) Satisfaction with the company
(ii) position in the group-popularity or otherwise
(iii) the immediate supervisor and
(iv) higher level of supervision

Amongst the psychological factors are-

(i) mutual sacrifice
(ii) participation in group activity
(iii) the experience of progress towards a goal
(iv) tolerance and freedom within the group and
(v) type of leader

Viteles (1962) defined morale as "an attitude of satisfaction with, desire to continue in and willingness to strive for the goals of a particular group or organisation."

Stagner (1956) considers morale as having a passive and active side. He observed that morale can "best be understood in terms of the extent to which individual goals have become identified with group goals. "On the dynamic side it refers to" the channeling of individual effort into the attainment of the group purpose". On the passive side, "morale is a feeling of security and confidence in the group and an optimistic orientation towards the probability of group success. These attitudes naturally tend to be closely associated with the channeling of effort into
Although motivation and morale are different, morale is related to an individual's pursuit of goals required for the realisation of self-concept. Evans (1992) suggests a definition of morale as "a state of mind determined by the individual's anticipation of the extent of satisfaction of those needs which he/she perceives as significantly affecting his/her work situation". Therefore, facets of job experience which are deeply satisfying or dissatisfying to individuals also have the potential to impact upon morale as well as motivation and hence contribute to possible retention or exit from the profession.

Morale, according to Pestonjee (1967) is "a fairness of employer's policies and behaviour, adequacy of immediate leadership, a sense of participation in the organisation, and an over-all belief that the organisation is worth working for." In short this is an index of their regard for the organisation which employs them.

The researchers have reported a lot of factors which influence employee's morale. Among the important factors are: immediate supervision (Katz, 1951; Kahn, 1951; Katz and Kahn, 1952; Schooler, 1952; Burns, 1951; Dabas, 1958; Roach, 1958; Wherry, 1958; and Scott et al., 1954), satisfaction with technical and organisational aspect of supervision (Ganguli, 1957), satisfaction stemming from supervisor as a person (Ganguli, 1957), progress and development (Katz, 1951; Kahn, 1951; Katz and Kahn, 1952; Schooler, 1952; Scott et al., 1954; Roach, 1958; and Wherry, 1958), financial rewards (Burns, 1951; Dabas, 1958; Wherry, 1958 and Scott et al., 1954), psycho-physical conditions of work (Burns, 1951; Dabas, 1958; Wherry 1958 and Scott et al., 1954), satisfaction with fellow workers (Dabas, 1958; Roach, 1958 and Scott et al. 1954), workload and pressures (Dabas, 1958; Roach, 1958 and Scott et al., 1954), integration in the organisation (Burns, 1951), belief in justice and interest of management
(Dabas, 1958; Roach, 1958; Wherry, 1958; and Scott et al., 1958), identification with the company (Burns, 1951; Scott et al., 1954; Katz, 1951; Kahn, 1951; Katz & Kahn, 1952), communication (Roach, 1958; Scott et al., 1954) and overall job satisfaction (Katz, 1951; Kahn, 1951; Katz & Kahn, 1952; Schooler, 1952; Burns, 1951, Roach, 1958; and Scott et al., 1954). Belief in organising ability (Dabas, 1958), general satisfaction with personal actions (Dabas, 1958), overall confidence (Ganguli, 1957), satisfaction with job standards (Roach, 1958) and environmental setting (Dabas, 1958) also have been reported to influence morale.

The present investigation is conducted on the teachers and it has been indicated that teachers' morale has a direct effect on teacher's performance and student achievement implying that where morale is high, school show an increase in student achievement (Ellenberg, 1972). Likewise morale can have a positive effect on pupil attitudes and may create an environment that is more conducive to learning (Miller, 1981) and can have farreaching implications for the health of the organisation and the health of the teacher (Mendel, 1987). Therefore at this juncture of time it seems to be crucial to have a bird eyview of the factors in the educational settings, which enhance or diminish teacher morale.

Expanding teacher loads, declining provision of resources and working conditions, and diminished status of teachers appear to be crucial factors that generate dissatisfaction, low commitment, low morale and detract from the enjoyment of teaching. In recent times the high expectations placed on teachers are also taking their toll on morale. It seems that the paradox between the community expecting high results from teachers while affording the professional low status has a serious effect on the way teachers feel about their work (Heafford and Jennison, 1998; Sinclair, 1990). Teachers have higher morale and are more personally invested in their work when- (i) they are empowered, (ii) they have a voice in what happens
to them, (iii) their work has meaning and significance in contributing to a higher purpose or goal, and (iv) have positive feedback and support from the community (Stenlund, 1995; Heafford and Jennison, 1998).

Researches have shown that the principals and administrators are very important in enhancing teacher morale. They can improve teacher morale by (i) Providing conditions in their schools which maximise positive interactions with students. This is the most significant predictor of teacher morale and satisfaction (Latham, 1998; Kim & Loadman, 1994; Boylan & McSwan, 1998). (ii) Providing opportunities for positive interaction with colleagues, including both social interactions and the time to interact professionally by, for example, timetabling faculty professional development time (Kim & Loadman, 1994; Boylan & McSwan, 1998). (iii) Allowing professional autonomy by giving teachers opportunities to make their own curriculum, teaching programme and assessment decisions to the extent that is feasible; and empowering them by involving them in decision about policies and practices (National Centre for Education Statistics 1997) (iv) Providing challenges for teachers that involve leadership and the chance to contribute to the schools higher purposes or goals (Stenlund, 1995) (v) Providing a voice to support and recognise teachers and to promote the profession to the wider community (Blackmore, 1999). (vi) Supporting teachers to maintain discipline, reinforcing their authority to enforce policy and standing behind them when disputes arise with students and/or parents (National Centre for Education Statistics 1997).

Teacher morale may also be lifted by more extrinsic rewards such as salary increases and opportunities for advancement. The research suggests however that these rewards are secondary to the need of teachers to help their students and feel valued by their principals and the community (Adams, 1992).
In the preceding writings the three independent variables, viz., occupational stress, job satisfaction and employee's morale have been discussed. It is imperative at this juncture of time to give the details of meaning and concept of the last independent variable i.e. socio-emotional school climate, which follows:

1.5 Socio-emotional school climate

In the contemporary organisational psychology the term Socio-Emotional Climate represents the emotional tone which is concomitant of interpersonal interaction of any organisational system. It is now established fact that the socio-emotional climate affects all types of activities and is a useful construct for planning, predicting, modifying and evaluating the various organisational systems. The perception of the members of the organisation affects their motivation and behaviour. In fact, an individual perceives his organisation in accordance with the prevailing conditions and climate in the organisation to which he/she has to interact (Schneider, 1973, 1975). This organisational climate exists as a perceived organisational attribute. Thus organisational climates are abstract perception of individuals within the organisations (Schneider, 1975). Knowledge about the nature and kind of organisational climate may help the educational authorities in the growth and development of the organisations.

The concept of organisational climate become popular in the industrial and organisational literature particularly in the 1960's and 1970's with the book of Litwin and Stringer (1968) and the two major reviews of Forehand and Gilmer (1964) and James and Jones (1974). Attempting to define or operationalize the concept, Forehand and Gilmer (1964) noted, "Organisational climate is the set of characteristics that describe an organisation and that (a) distinguish one organisation from another (b) are relatively enduring over a period of time and (c) influence
the behaviour of people in the organisation."

However, the concept proved ambiguous, nebulous and controversial. The main problems in the conceptual clarification concern whether climate should be conceived of in terms of the objective (physical or structural) features of the organisation or the subjective (perceptual) reactions to the organisation. Hence Guion (1973) argued that a perceived climate concerned both the attributes of an organisation and those of the perceiving individual and that as most often conceived climate was simply an alternative label for affective responses to organisation, like job satisfaction. James and Jones (1974) suggested the 'psychological climate' be used to emphasise the fact that it is the aggregated cognitive interpretations of an organisational work-force which arise from experience in the organisation and provide a representation of the meaning inherent in the organisational features, events and processes (Schneider, 1983; Kozlowski and Farr, 1988).

Climate may be conceived of as an independent variable as for instance in the work of Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick (1970), it is assumed that organisational climate itself directly influences (causes) various work outcomes both positive like productivity, satisfaction, and motivation, and negative like absenteeism, turnover and accidents. Other have considered climate a dependent outcome variable that is the result, and not the cause of organisational structure and process. In this sense climate may be a useful index of organisation's health but not a causative factor of it. A third and perhaps more common approach has been to see climate as a moderator variable in that climate may be the indirect link between two organisational outcomes. Thus climate may be the moderator variable between job satisfaction and productivity. Various untested but heuristically satisfying models consider climate as one of a number of powerful moderator variables (Litwin and Stringer, 1968). Finally some
researchers believe that climate is epiphenomenal, neither a direct cause or effect variable but one that emerges in some form in all organisations with no influence on it. Employee perception is then interesting but not directly relevant to the functioning of the organisation.

Sinha and Bhargava (1994) critically surveyed the literature on the organisational climate of the academic institutions and found that the common elements of this climate is its enduring qualities, which may be measured. It is obviously related to the role behaviour and interpersonal relations (Disterly and Schneider, 1974; Grainer, Leitch and Barnes, 1968; Johnston, 1976; Jones and James, 1979). It involves two classes of phenomenon which are conceptually independent and interactive. They are (i) institution, role and expectations, and (ii) individual, personality and disposition (Johnston, 1976; Tagiuri, 1968; and Waters, Roach and Batlie, 1974). Thus the organisational climate is concerned with the structure, processes and functions of the organisation (Field and Abelson, 1982; Forehand, 1968; Schneider and Snyder, 1975).

The socio-emotional climate of educational institution is a bridging concept between teachers and the school in which they work (teach) and is the perception of the structure, process and values by the teachers. It is related to their task, achievement, satisfaction and behaviour in a particular schooling system to which they belong (Lawler, Hall and Oldham, 1974; Litwin and Stringer, 1968).

There are a number of dimensions of the organisational climate which are of specific importance to a particular organisation. However researches show that four common dimensions are apparent (Hemphill and Westis, 1950; Howe, 1977; James and Jones, 1974). They are (i) autonomy/ control, (ii) degree of structure, (iii) reward, and (iv) consideration, warmth and support. In addition to these four dimensions, the tolerance of conflict and need for innovation may be considered as other
dimensions. They are said to be organisation specific (Pace and Stern, 1958; Payne and Mansfield, 1973). These dimensions can be assumed interacting with number of inter-related conditions (Payne and Pugh, 1976 and Waters, Roach and Batlie, 1974).

Halpin and Croft (1963) conceived of climate as being either open or closed. They identified six types of climates on a continuum: open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, parental, and closed. These climate types were based on various degrees of four teacher-related factors: hindrance, intimacy, disengagement, and espirit; and on four principal-teacher relationship factors: production emphasis, aloofness, consideration, and trust. An open climate, for example is characterised by low hindrance, low disengagement, average intimacy and high espirit of teachers; and low aloofness, low production emphasis, and high trust and consideration on the part of the principal. In essence the degree of openness of a school climate is the result of the quality of human interactions in the school.

The relationship between the factors of school climate and teacher commitment has also been examined. Strong associations have been reported between organisational commitment and climate openness, collegiality, collaboration, and teacher empowerment (Coladarci, 1992; Graham, 1996; Louis, 1998; Rosenholtz, 1989). Overall these studies make a strong case for a potential relationship between the climate of a school and levels of teacher commitment.

It also seems quite evident from prior research that a significant relationship could be expected between leadership style and factors of school climate. Al-Gasim (1991) for example found a strong relationship between an open climate and principals who were high in both consideration and initiating structure dimensions of leadership. Other studies have likewise underscored the importance of the leadership style of
the principal to the development of a positive school climate (Cheng, 1994; Dinham, 1995) Given that school climate is a reflection of the quality of human interactions in the school, the evidence seems quite strong that the leadership behaviour of the principal can be an important factor in building an open, facilitative climate at various educational levels.

From the preceding writings it is clear that the perception of social and emotional aspects of the organisational climate are considered of great significance in the betterment of educational institutions, the welfare of teachers and in a cordial relationship between the teachers and principals. It also affects teacher morale, their satisfaction, productivity and commitment with their job and the institution in which they are working.

1.6 Rationale of the study

Teachers commitment to the institutions where they are employed has been identified as one of the most important factors for the future success of education and schools. Teacher commitment is closely connected to teacher's work performance and their ability to innovate and to integrate new ideas into their own practice, absenteeism, staff turnover, as well as having an important influence on student's achievement in and attitudes toward school. Now a days, when we want to create a just society in India, based on scientific attitude and democratic principles, teacher's commitment is considered to be a key factor in achieving the said goal as it heavily influences teacher's willingness to engage in cooperative, reflective and critical practice.

A diverse spectrum of factors may affect the teacher's commitment. But what are exactly ones need attention? The body of literature in industrial/organisational psychology represents a potentially fruitful domain of theory and research that may be applied to know a few of these factors. The important ones are- occupational stress, job satisfaction,
employee's morale and socio-emotional school climate. The relationship of organisational commitment with the above said variables may be of great importance for the human resource policies in the education sector as well as the key to understand the motivational base and qualitative performance in the secondary schools to enhance the capability of management through commitment and subject-specific norms. It is also significant for school leaders as they engage teachers in school initiatives, and teachers themselves as they struggle to find a balance between the personal and professional.

Although a few studies in India and abroad have been conducted to know the relationship between organisational commitment and one or two of the said variables, but within the limited time period and on the basis of available literature the researcher could not find even a single study which investigated the influence of all the said variables on the organisational commitment of secondary school teachers. Therefore, it becomes very essential to know whether there is any influence of the said variables on the organisational commitment of secondary school teachers.

It is in this specific context that the present investigation has been undertaken to specifically provide empirical answer to the following questions-
(i) Which type of relationship exists between the organisational commitment of secondary school teachers and any one of the variables—occupational stress, job satisfaction, employee's morale and socio-emotional school climate.
(ii) Which dimensions of independent variables (occupational stress, job satisfaction, employee's morale and socio-emotional school climate) predict the organisational commitment of the secondary school teachers.

1.7 Statement of the problem
Incorporating the above raised questions, the study has been formally titled as:
A STUDY OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT IN RELATION TO OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, EMPLOYEES MORALE AND SOCIO-EMOTIONAL SCHOOL CLIMATE

1.8 Objectives of the study

The study was undertaken with the following objectives:

1. To know how organisational commitment (dependent variable) is related with each of the independent variables i.e. occupational stress, job satisfaction, employees' morale and socio-emotional school climate, for male teachers, female teachers and the total sample.

2. To know which of the independent variables predict the dependent variable for male teachers, female teachers and the total sample.

3. To know which dimensions of independent variables (out of five of occupational stress, four of job satisfaction, four of employees' morale and three of socio-emotional school climate) predict the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) and the organisational commitment as a whole, for the male teachers, female teachers and for the total sample.

1.9 Hypotheses-

Corresponding to the objectives of the study the following null hypotheses were made for the empirical verification:

Ho1: Work load- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho2: Student misbehaviour- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho3: Professional recognition- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or
organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho4: Classroom resources - a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho5: Poor colleague relations - a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho6: Occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho7: Attitude towards profession - a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho8: Attitudes towards working conditions - a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho9: Attitude towards authority - a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho10: Attitude towards institution - a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho11: Job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho12: Fairness of policies and behaviour - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.
Ho13: Adequacy of immediate leadership - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho14: Sense of participation - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho15: Regard and identification - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho16: Employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho17: Warmth and support - a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho18: Structure - a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho19: Autonomy - a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho20: Socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the total sample of teachers.

Ho21: Work load - a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho22: Student misbehaviour- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho23: Professional recognition- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho24: Class room resources- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho25: Poor colleague relations- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho26: Occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho27: Attitude towards profession- a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho28: Attitude towards working conditions- a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho29: Attitude towards authority - a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho30: Attitude towards institution - a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho31: Job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of
organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho32: Fairness of policies and behaviour - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho33: Adequacy of immediate leadership - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho34: Sense of participation - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho35: Regard and identification - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho36: Employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho37: Warmth and support - a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho38: Structure - a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho39: Autonomy - a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.
Ho40: Socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the male teachers.

Ho41: Work load- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho42: Student misbehaviour-a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho43. Professional recognition- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho44. Classroom resources- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho45: Poor colleague relations- a dimension of occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho46: Occupational stress will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho47: Attitude towards profession- a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho48: Attitude towards working conditions- a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho49: Attitude towards authority- a dimension of job satisfaction will not
influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho50: Attitude towards institution- a dimension of job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho51: Job satisfaction will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho52: Fairness of policies and behaviour- a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho53: Adequacy of immediate leadership- a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho54: Sense of participation- a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho55: Regard and identification - a dimension of employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho56: Employee's morale will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho57: Warmth and support- a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.
Ho58: Structure- a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho59: Autonomy- a dimension of socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

Ho60: Socio-emotional school climate will not influence any of the dimension of organisational commitment or organisational commitment as a whole for the female teachers.

1.10 Operational definition of the terms

The terms used in the title of the study are to be defined for making the topic both easy and comprehensive. Therefore the investigator feels obligatory to define the terms used very often in order to make the report congenial even to those who are not expert in the area but definitely show interest in going through such investigations. The description follow:

(a) Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is concerned with the level of attachment and loyalty to an organisation. It may be defined as a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs as to sustain the activities and his / her own involvement. Meyer and Allen (1984) proposed three components of organisational commitment- affective, continuance and normative. In this investigation affective, continuance and normative commitment of secondary school teachers to the schools where they are employed has been studied.

(b) Occupational stress

We are living in an era of growing complexities and pressure where human constitution and capacities are being taxed severely. The stress relating with occupation or profession is called occupational stress
In this investigation the occupational stress of secondary school teachers have been studied with reference to five dimensions- workload, student misbehaviour, classroom resources, professional recognition and poor colleague relations as suggested by Boyle et al. (1995).

(c) Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction may be defined as an attitude which results from a balancing and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced by an employee in the performance of his job, or a employee's judgement of how well his job, on the whole provides opportunities to satisfy his needs. In this investigation the job satisfaction of secondary school teachers has been studied with reference to four dimensions-attitude towards profession, attitude towards working conditions, attitude towards authority and attitude towards institution as suggested Kumar and Mutha (1996).

(d) Employees morale

The term 'employee's morale' refers to a feeling of togetherness of employees of any organisation. There is a sense of identification with and interest in the elements of one's job, working conditions, fellow workers, supervisors, employer and the company. The more a employee possess such feelings the higher his morale. In this investigation the morale of secondary school teachers has been studied with reference to four dimensions- fairness of policies and behaviour; adequency of immediate leadership; sense of participation; and regard and identification as suggested by Pestonjee (1967).

(e) Socio-emotional school climate

Socio-emotional school climate may be described as the social and emotional "feel" of a school and as its "collective personality". As one moves from school to school, it is possible to note that one school feels different from another. Such differences are primarily the results of
socio-emotional school climate. In this investigation the perception of secondary school teachers about the socio-emotional school climate of their schools is studied with reference to the three dimensions- warmth and support, structure, and autonomy as suggested by Sinha and Bhargava (1994).

(f) Secondary school teachers

The teachers working in the schools which is aided by the government and where students upto class 12th are taught, has been defined as 'secondary school teachers' in this investigation.

1.1 Delimitations

Due to the paucity of time and resources, the present investigation is delimited in terms of area, content and sample as follows:

1. The influence of only four independent variables namely occupational stress, job satisfaction, employee's morale and socio-emotional school climate on the dependent variable i.e. organisational commitment has been studied.

2. Sample is delimited only to five districts of eastern U.P.

3. Sample is taken from urban areas only.

4. Out of various demographic variables namely gender, age, marital status, number of dependents, type of school (govt. and private), stream of teaching (science, arts and commerce) and type of family (nuclear/joint), only gender has been taken for the study.