Chapter 3

THEORETICAL FRAME WORK OF THE STUDY

3.1 Introduction

Ours is a world of organizations. All sorts of organizations whether large or small, formal or informal, economic, religious, governmental, educational, social or political, influence us in one or the other way. An educational institution can be classified as an organization which is built to attain specific goals and defined by its own boundaries. They can be unique in their identity, tasks, decision-making process, in the rules by which they operate and the forms of interaction among members. Though educational institutions are significantly different from other organizations, they offer us a huge challenge to study them as organizational entities, which enable us to make comparisons objectively among them, either in terms of their performance or individually as operating wholes. The improvement of school and successful execution of innovations in education depend largely on teachers who are primarily responsible for the educational activities in their schools. For this reason, a comprehensive attention should be given to the understanding of teachers’
behaviours and performance within the organizational environment of schools (Tsui and Cheng, 1999). Educational organizations such as schools, colleges and universities require satisfied teachers who are committed to their institution, profession and students. Job satisfaction is the quality, condition and level of satisfaction as a result of various interests and attitudes of a person towards her/his job (Dictionary of Education). It expresses the extent of match between the employee’s expectations of the job and the rewards that the job provides. Teachers having favourable attitude towards their profession are generally satisfied with their job.

Institutional or organizational commitment refers to ‘the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization’ (Mowday, 1979). Teachers who are strong in commitment find happiness in their job and involve themselves in it wholeheartedly. Committed teachers believe strongly in the institution’s goals and values, comply with orders and expectations voluntarily, exert considerable effort beyond minimal expectations for the good of the institution and strongly desire to remain affiliated with it (Kanter 1968, Mowday 1982).

The prerequisite for teachers to efficiently carry out their responsibilities is that they have a desirable school climate. The topic of school climate and its effect on teacher’s behaviour and overall performance have attracted the attention of many researchers across last decades as a result of its significant influences on educational outcomes. Climate has been described as ‘a description of the work environment and more specifically, employee’s perception of the formal and informal policies, procedures in their organization’ (Schneider, 2008). It refers to the “impressions, beliefs and expectations held by members of the school about their school as a learning
Theoretical Framework of the Study

A study on job satisfaction and institutional commitment among school teachers in Kerala (Homana, Barker 2006). The school climate dictates the feelings of the members and the way the staff members do things around the school (Barth, 2001). The school climate is influenced by formal and informal relations, personalities of the members and the leadership of the school (Hoy & Tarter, 1992). The presence of teachers with high job satisfaction and commitment along with healthy school climate are among the important factors affecting the success of educational institutions. Identifying the factors which promote job satisfaction and organizational commitment among teachers and creating healthy and open school climate can also have an effectual role in the achievement of educational goals and outcomes.

3.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction most likely, is the widely studied variable in organizational behaviour. It refers to the feelings people have about their job. Job satisfaction exists when one has positive feeling towards one’s job. In case it is negative, there exists dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction may be described as a combination of attitude or opinion about particular factors of the job. The staff members can be satisfied with some factors of the job while they can be dissatisfied with some other factors. In the words of Bullock (1952), job satisfaction is an attitude which is the outcome of a balanced abstract of many specific likes and dislikes practised in relation to the job. There is an argument that job satisfaction is a complex measure and it can be had through a fruitful grouping of the indices of individual, managerial and timely factors. Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as “the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs”. Weiss (2002) stated that as job satisfaction is an attitude, the
investigators may clearly separate the objects of cognitive evaluation which affect beliefs and behaviours later. This definition suggests that employees form attitudes towards their job by taking into account their feelings, beliefs, values and behaviours. How employees feel about their job is highly erratic. Some employees get great pleasure, sense and meaning from their job, while others not. In the words of Muchinsky (1999), this is because of the personal differences in expectations and in particular, the extent to which a job helps to reach one’s expectations. Altaf (2010) stated that “job satisfaction is a complex and multifaceted concept, which can mean different things to different people”. Thus, job satisfaction can be condensed as the favourableness or unfavourableness with which an employee views his/her job. Job satisfaction arises when job features and wants of employees are in conformity. Happier the people are, the more satisfied they are within their job.

3.2.1 History of Job Satisfaction

The Hawthorne studies happen to be one of the major beginings in the history of job satisfaction. The studies (1924-'33), made by Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School noticed the impact of various circumstances (most notably illumination) on the productivity of worker’s. These studies ultimately showed that new changes in working conditions temporarily increase productivity. This finding provided strong indication that people work for purpose other than pay, which lined the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction. Scientific management also had a considerable impact on the study of job satisfaction. “The Principles of Scientific Management”, the book written by Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911), contributed major changes in industrial production philosophies, causing a change from skilled labour and piecework towards the more
contemporary approach of assembly lines and hourly wages. Scientific management suggested a single best way to perform any given task. Initially, use of scientific management by industries greatly improved productivity at a faster pace. However, workers became fatigued, frustrated and dissatisfied, thus leaving researchers with new questions regarding factors leading to job satisfaction. Some argue that Maslow’s need satisfaction theory paved the base for job satisfaction theory. This theory explains that people try to satisfy five specific needs in life- physiological, safety, social, self esteem and self actualization needs. Maslow’s need satisfaction theory became a good base from which former investigators were able to make theories of job satisfaction.

3.2.2 Nature of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is not a precise concept. For Vroom (1964), it is one’s positive orientation towards the work that one is doing for the time being. It can be considered one liking more aspects of one’s work than one dislikes. Hoppock (1935) finds that there are six ingredients of job satisfaction and they are:

- Way the individual reacts to pleasant situation
- The facility with which she/he adjusts himself to other persons
- His /her relative status in the organization and economic group with which he/she identifies himself/herself
- The nature of work in relation to his/her abilities, interest and preparations
- Security of job and
- Loyalty
Katz and Khan (1952) approached job satisfaction from a facet approach rather than a general approach and found four relevant dimensions of job satisfaction. They are:

- Satisfaction with job
- Satisfaction with company
- Satisfaction with supervision and
- Satisfaction with mobility

Further, employee’s attitudes regarding factors of job were scored on a continuum with satisfaction and dissatisfaction at opposite ends

![Figure 3.1: continuum of job satisfaction](image)

3.2.3 Theories of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction improves job performance. Then some questions arise: what makes some people satisfied with their job or what makes some people more satisfied with their job than others? Answers to these questions are provided by theories of job satisfaction.

3.2.3.1 Traditional Theory

Hoppock (1935) observes that if a certain factor caused satisfaction, the absence of that factor would cause dissatisfaction. Similarly, lower amounts of the factor would lead to decreased satisfaction. Hoppock also states that there is a zone of neutrality in which the individual is neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Individual’s feelings about specific facets of their
job may fall anywhere along the continuum, including the middle of the line indicating neutrality and neither satisfaction nor dissatisfaction.

3.2.3.2 Locke’s Value Theory

Edwin Locke (1976) stated that “job satisfaction is the relationship between job outcomes realized as compared to those desired. In other words, satisfaction is high when an employee receives outcomes which he/she values high. Satisfaction is less when the outcomes received are valued less by the employee”. Locke’s theory focuses on any outcomes that people value, regardless of what they are and not necessarily lower order needs. According to Edwin Locke the key to satisfaction, is the difference between those aspects of the job one has and those one wants; the greater the difference, lesser the satisfaction.

3.2.3.3 Maslow’s Need Satisfaction Theory

As per Maslow’s (1954) theory, satisfaction could be conceptualised as a pyramid with five distinct horizontal levels and all human needs could be placed in one of these five levels in the pyramid. Maslow classified the needs as follows:

**Physiological Needs**

The basic needs or the lowest level needs in the pyramid consist of physiological requirements such as water, food and shelter. These physiological drives are for the biological maintenance of the living being. In the organizational point of view, physiological needs consist of employee’s anxiety for compensation and basic operational environment. It is the duty of the manager to ensure that these needs are met so that employees can be motivated to strive for fulfilment of higher order needs.
Chapter 3

Safety/Security Needs

The next level consists of physical safety and financial security. Safety needs include protected income, gaining of insurance cover and becoming the owner of a dwelling unit. In the organizational context security needs include factors like job security, salary increase, safe working conditions, unionization and lobbying for protective legislation.

Social Needs

Social needs consist of love and acceptance of others. In the organizational situation, social needs mean the need for a friendly work group, peer acceptance, professional association and pleasant supervision.

Self-esteem Needs

Self-esteem needs include such things as desire for competence, confidence, personal strength, adequacy, achievement, independence and freedom, prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, reputation and appreciation. In the organizational context, esteem needs correspond to job title, peer/supervisory recognition, challenging work, responsibility and exposure in company publications.

Self Actualisation Needs

The top level needs in the pyramid consist of self actualisation. According to Maslow, self actualisation is the ambition to become everything that one can. In an organization, self actualisation needs associate to desire for excelling oneself in one’s job, advancing an important thought/idea, effectively managing a business unit and the like.
3.2.3.4 Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory

Herzberg (1959) contributed two factor theory of job satisfaction. He identified two distinctly different sets of factors and observed that job satisfaction consists of both satisfiers (motivators) and dissatisfiers (hygiene). Job satisfiers (motivators), which are intrinsic to the employee, increase feelings of happiness. The motivators which are primarily responsible for job satisfaction, consists of recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility and the work itself. Dissatisfiers or Hygiene factors are extrinsic factors which consist of company policy and administration, technical aspects of supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions. The absence of hygiene factors cause dissatisfaction.
3.2.3.5 Fulfilment Theory

The need fulfillment theory states that job satisfaction will be determined in part by how much reward they receive for their work. This theory failed to explain the individual differences regarding how people feel about what they receive as well as the worker’s preconceived notion regarding what they should receive. Vroom (1964) developed two models of need fulfillment theory, subtractive and multiplicative. The subtractive model states that job satisfaction is dependent on the difference between the worker’s needs and the degree to which the job fills those needs. The multiplicative model includes the importance of the need to the worker. In this model, the preconceived degree to which a job meets the worker’s needs is multiplied by the importance of the need to the worker.
3.2.3.6 Work Adjustment Theory

Work adjustment theory originally focused on resolving problems related to work such as employee morale, work motivation and worker productivity. In 1964, Dawis and Lofquist published the first version of the theory of work adjustment. The theory is based on the belief that the worker is a responding organism and he constantly interacts with the environment which may include work, home, school etc. The interactions in one environment may affect interactions in another.

3.2.3.7 Adams Equity Theory

Adams Equity theory which originated around 1965 suggests that job satisfaction may be affected by the difference between what the workers expect and what they actually receive from the employer. An important part of the theory states that the worker has a preconceived notion of what they should receive for their efforts (Adams, 1965). It also suggests that the workers will look to co-workers to compare rewards. According to Adams (1965), “when employees work for an organization, they basically exchange their services for pay and other benefits”. The theory rests on the hypothesis that persons are inspired by their aspiration to be considered impartially in their job relationship and they try to minimise any inequity they feel as a result of this substitute relationship. The equity theory says that the motivation to act develops having the person compared inputs and outcomes with others. The major inputs contain ability and information, attempt, know-how, fidelity etc. The outputs include pay, recognition, job position, social relationship, intrinsic rewards etc. Satisfaction becomes a ratio of output to input”.

3.2.3.8 Reference Group Theory

Reference group theory is much similar to equity theory. It suggests that employees compare themselves to their co-workers regarding effort exerted on the job and rewards received. The result of these comparisons may affect job satisfaction (Hulin & Blood, 1968).

3.2.3.9 ERG Theory

Calyton Alderfer (1972) proposed three primary categories of human needs. They are:

(a) **Existence needs** include the basic biological/organic needs and protection from physical hazards
(b) **Relatedness needs** relate to social and affiliation needs such as need for a friendly work group, peer acceptance, professional association etc.
(c) **Growth needs** reflect the need to build up and understand one’s potential.

3.2.3.10 Landy’s Opponent Process Theory

This theory is proposed by F. J. Landy. According to this theory, initiating some change in the job may increase worker’s job satisfaction but not necessarily the equal increase over period. Landy asserted that in initial phase of employee’s career, employees might resist goal setting. But along with goal setting and goal attainment, their resistance to goal setting starts declining. Conversely, pleasure or job satisfaction tends to increase.

3.2.3.11 Affect Theory

Edwin, A. Locke’s affect theory is the most well-known job satisfaction theory. As per this theory, satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between
what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, this theory states that “how much one value a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren’t met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, and when his expectations are met his satisfaction is more or great. Contrary to this, when a person values a particular facet of a job and when his expectations are not met, his satisfaction is less compared to one who does not value that facet”.

3.2.3.12 Dispositional Theory

Dispositional theory states that people have some inborn and inherent dispositions that become the reason to have tendencies towards assured stage of satisfaction, without any regard to one’s job. This theory proposes that job satisfaction tends to be stable overtime across career and jobs. Core Self-Evaluation Model proposed by Timoty, A. Judge (1998) lessened the extent of the disposition theory. Timoty, A. Judge argued that “there were four core self-evaluations that determined one’s dispositions towards job satisfaction. They are: self esteem, self efficacy, locus of control and neuroticism. Higher levels of self esteem, general self efficacy and an internal locus of control lead to higher job satisfaction. Lower levels of neuroticism also lead to higher job satisfaction”.

3.2.3.13 Job Characteristics Model

Hackman and Oldham proposed five core job characteristics consisting of skill variety, task identity, task significance, and autonomy and feedback. These characteristics influence three decisive emotional states, viz., experienced meaningfulness experienced responsibility for outcomes and
knowledge of the actual results. These states influence work outcomes like job satisfaction, absenteeism, and work motivation etc. later.

3.2.3.14 Porter and Lawler's Expectancy Model

Porter and Lawler identified the sources of people’s valence and expectancies and tried to connect effort with performance and job satisfaction. As per this theory employee will show more effort when they believe that they will receive valuable rewards for job accomplishment.

The relationship between effort and performance is moderated by employee’s abilities, qualities and role perceptions. That is, employees with higher abilities attain higher performance for a given level of effort than employees with lesser abilities. Job satisfaction is determined by employee’s perceptions of the equity of the rewards received.

The abilities, qualities and role perceptions of employees moderate the relationship that effort has to performance. That is, employees with higher abilities reach better performance for a specified point of effort. And those who have lesser abilities reach comparatively lower or poor performance level. The employee’s perceptions on the fairness of rewards he/she gets determines the satisfaction on the job.

3.2.4 Model of Job Satisfaction

The determinants of job satisfaction consist of: (1) organizational factors, (2) group factors and (3) individual factors. These factors add very much to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Two variables, viz., outcomes expected and outcomes received do exist in betwixt such determinants and consequences. How it works is depicted in Figure 3.4.
3.2.4.1 Causes of Job Satisfaction

Organizational, group and individual are the significant factors which add to one’s attitude towards the job.

i) **Organizational Factors**

The Important organizational factors that make contributions to the attitude of an employee towards job consist of emoluments, scope for being promoted, nature of the work, rules, regulation and norms prevailing in the organization and the working environment.

a) **Emoluments/Pay** play(s) an important role in influencing job satisfaction because of two reasons. First money is an important instrument in fulfilling one’s needs; and second; employees often see pay as a reflection of employers concern for them. When pay system is fair, based on job demands, satisfaction is likely to result.
b) **Scope for being promoted** affects job satisfaction significantly. The desire for promotion is generally strong among employees as it involves change in pay, responsibility and status. The employee takes promotion as the crucial achievement in his career and when it is realized, he feels extremely satisfied.

c) **Nature of Work** creates opportunities for the application of skills and abilities and when the employees get a job which promises multiple tasks, independence and response regarding the way and quality of their doings, they become satisfied.

d) **Rules, Regulation and Norms prevailing in the Organization** include promotion & transfer policy, assignments abroad, policy of termination, lay-off, lockouts and retrenchments, appraisal and compensation system, techniques of motivation, participation in management/decision making etc. influence employees’ job satisfaction.

e) **Working Environment** that are in conformation with an employee’s material comfort and that pave way for doing a good job contribute to job satisfaction. Environmental factors like warmth, moisture, aeration, illumination and sound, duration and time of work, hygiene of the place of work and sufficient devices and equipment affect the level of job satisfaction of employees to a great extent.

**ii) Group Factors**

Group factors influencing satisfaction include group size and supervision.

a) **Size**: When the size of the group increases, opportunities for participation and social interaction decrease which in turn results in job dissatisfaction.
b) **Supervision**: Quality of supervision affects job satisfaction. Satisfaction tends to be high when people believe that their supervisors are more competent, capable and treat them with dignity and respect.

**iii) Individual Factors**

The personal variables such as self-esteem and ability to withstand job stress have a bearing on job satisfaction. Stronger an individual is on these traits, more satisfied is she/he on the job. Status also influences one’s job satisfaction. It is a fact that the higher the position of an individual in an organizational hierarchy, the more is the degree that the individual tends to be satisfied. Further, job satisfaction has an association with the size to which employees perform their jobs matching with their interests and aspirations. Finally, job satisfaction is seemed to be closely associated to the general life satisfaction of an individual.

### 3.2.5 Effect of Job Satisfaction:

High degree of job satisfaction may be moving towards improved productivity, low turnover, better attendance, and nil or low accidents, nil/low job stress and lower grouping or unionization (Aswathappa, 2008).  

#### 3.2.5.1 Productivity and Job Satisfaction

The general consensus is that in the long run, job satisfaction leads to increased productivity. When job satisfaction increases, productivity increases; when job satisfaction decreases, productivity decreases. The basic logic behind this is that a happy worker will put more efforts for job performance.

#### 3.2.5.2 Job satisfaction and Employee Turnover

Turnover of employees is the rate at which employees leave the organization within a given period of time. High employee turnover is a
major worry for employers because it disrupts usual operation, causes morale problems for those who remain and also increases the selection and training cost involved in replacement. So the employer does whatever possible to minimize turnover, making the employees feel satisfied on their jobs. It has been proved that workers who have relatively low levels of job satisfaction are the most likely to quit their jobs.

3.2.5.3 Job Satisfaction and Absenteeism

When satisfaction is high absenteeism tends to be low and vice versa. A high degree of job satisfaction will not necessarily result in low absenteeism, while a low level of job satisfaction is likely to bring about high absenteeism.

3.2.5.4 Job satisfaction and Safety

When employees are dejected and dispirited, they are more liable to experience accidents. Fundamental reason for such accidents is that dejection may take one’s concentration away from the task at hand and leads to accidents.

3.2.5.5 Job Satisfaction and Job Stress

Persistent job dissatisfaction leads to job stress and prolonged stress can cause serious ailments such as cardiac arrest, ulcer, vague vision, back pain, dermatitis and muscle aches. Employees under prolonged stress often consume too much alcohol, tobacco and drugs. These employees are expensive to the management in terms of time lost due to frequent absences and increased payments towards medical reimbursements.

3.2.5.6 Unionization

Dissatisfaction with wages, promotion, fringe benefits, supervision, amenities etc. will prompt employees to join unions.
3.2.5.7 Other Effects of Job Satisfaction

Satisfied employees tend to have better mental and physical health and learn new responsibilities more rapidly. Considering all this, managers and behavioural scientists would agree that job satisfaction is important to an organization.

3.2.6 Measuring Job Satisfaction

Following methods are available for measuring job satisfaction.

- **Likert Scale**: The most widespread method for collecting data regarding job satisfaction is the Likert Scale. Other less common methods include: Yes/No questions, True/False questions, point system, checklist and forced choice answers.

- **Job Descriptive Index (JDI)** developed by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) measures employee’s satisfaction in five facets: pay, promotion and promotion opportunities, co-workers, supervision and the work itself.

- **Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)**: In Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, respondents rate the degree to which they are satisfied with various aspects of their jobs like their degree of responsibility, opportunities for advancement, pay, etc. The choice of ratings is from ‘not at all satisfied’ to ‘extremely satisfied’. Higher ratings indicate better satisfaction and vice-versa.

- **Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ)**: In PSQ, individual’s reaction to pay raises, pay structure and benefits are measured.
**Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS):** Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was designed by Paul Spector in the mid-1980s specifically for workers in non profit and human services organizations. The JSS measures nine facets of job satisfaction such as Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Benefits, Contingent rewards, Operating procedures, Co-workers, Nature of work, Communication.

**Facet Scale:** The Facet Scale of job satisfaction measures job satisfaction with just one item which participants respond to by choosing a face.

### 3.3 Organizational Climate

The employee’s perception of work environment and the way these perceptions influence individual’s work-related attitudes and behaviours have been given very much concern by the researchers. Researchers like Katz & Kahn (2004); Likert (1997); McGregor (2000) are of the opinion that the climate or atmosphere in a workplace have significant impact on the performance and productivity of the employee’s. Having made extensive studies on the construct of climate, it has been proved to be holding good in capturing the work environment perceptions (Denison, 2006; Ostroff, Kinicki & Tamkins, 2007).

Organizational climate has been described as “a description of the work environment and more specifically, employees’ perceptions of the formal and informal policies, practices and procedures in their organization” (Schneider, 2008). Climate includes organizational structure, conditions governing on selection and assignment of personnel, supervision, planning, interpersonal relationship, rules and regulations, assignment of responsibilities.
Theoretical Framework of the Study

and support of employees in the organization. According to Litwee and Strincher (1978) organizational climate is individual perception of organization and it is defined as a sense of independence in terms of organization structure, rewards, consideration, intimacy, support and openness. Litwee and Strincher (1978) also suggested to measure climate along the following dimensions: structure, responsibility, warmth, support, reward, conflict, standards, identity and risk. Croft and Halpin (1963) defined organizational climate as internal characteristics that distinguish an organization from another which has impact on individuals’ behaviour. Authors like Hellriegel & Slocum (1994); James & Jones (2004) have bifurcated the climate into psychological and organizational. The own perception of individuals on the work environment is tantamount as psychological climate at the individual level of analysis. At the same time, the organizational climate has been advocated as the unit level or organizational construct. In the words of Jones & James (2004), unit-level or organizational climate takes place when employees within a unit or organization agree themselves on their perceptions of work environment. Benjamin Schneider (1975) defined organizational climate as “a mutually agreed internal (or molar) description of an organization’s practices and procedures”.

3.3.1 Climate versus Culture

Culture and climate happen to be the two most common concepts considered for evaluation of the atmosphere of an organization. The terms ‘culture’ and ‘climate’ are frequently and synonymously used in the organizational literature. It is doubtless that both of these concepts are obviously distinguished each other. Culture focuses more on judgments and
values than the perceived practices and procedures. Ashforth (1985) advocates that culture is made of shared assumptions and ideologies. Climate, on the other hand, is defined by shared perception of behaviours. Some personalities like Hoy & Tarter (1997); Luthans (1998) claimed that organizational climate is the feeling being transmitted by the physical layout, the way the members deal, interact and conduct themselves or with others while organizational culture is the customary way of thinking and behaving that is shared by each and every member of the organisation. All members have to learn and follow prior to their being accepted by the organization. It means that culture can be learned, shared and transmitted. Further, culture is also the summation various presumptions, values, symbols, language and behaviour that show the organization’s norms and values clearly. Studies on culture are most often humanitarian, anthropological and sociological in nature, but climate studies are more figurative and psychological. In the words of Daniel Denison culture means the deeply embedded values and assumptions and climate refers to environmental factors that are perceived intentionally and subject to organizational control. He added by stating that climate is something flexible that can be directly influenced by the policies of management and leadership, while culture is little bit rigid which tender more difficulties in effecting changes and bringing about control. Moreover, the study of climate is more measurable than organizational culture. Culture is linked with the deeply driven desires, while climate is linked with the useful strategies which can change in accordance with the environmental changes. Managers share organizational culture to all members of the organization in such a way so that employees can understand and internalize organizational culture and function at the same level.
3.3.2 Theories of Organizational Climate

Taguiri and Litwin (1968) defined the climate of an institution as “the relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an institution that

a) Is experienced by its members,

b) Influences the behaviour of the members,

c) Can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attitudes) of the organization”.

Friedlander and Margulies (1968) investigated into the pluralistic impacts of organizational climate components on the satisfaction of workers. They understood that climate had the greatest influence on satisfaction with interpersonal relationships on a job, a moderate influence upon self-realization from the involvements in the task. From the survey made by Schneider (1973) on bank customers, he realised that the customers who have negative perceptions about their bank’s climate tend to switch banks more frequently. Contrary to this, those who perceived their banks having a positive customer-employee centered atmosphere, stick with the banks for a long period. Behavioural scientists like Pritchard and Karasick (1973) are of the view that organizational climate are highly related to individual job satisfaction than individual performance. James and Jones (1974) stated that the organizational climate can be viewed in two different ways: a ‘multiple-measurement-organizational attribute approach’ or a ‘perceptual measurements-organizational attribute approach’. They summarized the climate to be a set of summary or global perceptions held by individuals about their institution. Poole (1974) stated that climate is a feature of, rather than a substitute for culture.
Kaczka and Kirk (1978) described organizational climate as “a set of attributes, which can be perceived within a particular organization, department or unit”. Litwin and Stringer (1978) expressed the climate as an eternal quality of the internal environment of an organization. Dejnozka (1983) believed in the affective nature of climate which is inherent in its description. According to him it is how the individual reacts to those affective perceptions, both individually and as part of a group, that determines the significance of the climate to the organization. Bunker and Wijnberg (1985) viewed that organizational climate had become a common perception of the organization that a person makes as a result of manifold experiences he/she had at the work place. Accordingly, organizational climate has different implications to different employees working in a particular context as each employee attaches different implications to different contexts. In addition, the behaviour of people found within the organization may be influenced by climate. While stating with an example, an employee confronting job dissatisfaction may not be keeping his/her appointment with the work. Ekvall (1987) stated that the organizational climate arises in the confrontation between individual and the organizational situations.

Pruden (1989) defined organizational climate as “the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that:

a) Distinguish the organization from other organizations,

b) Are relatively enduring overtime, and

c) Influence the behaviour of people in the organization”

Agho, et.al (1993) defined organizational climate as “a conglomerate of attitudes, feelings and behaviours that characterise life in an organization.” They insisted on the significance of climate consequent on its potential to
Theoretical Framework of the Study

influence different organizational and psychological processes which include involvement, association, participation, communication, problem-solving, decision-making, learning, motivation etc. Later, it might have influence on the effectiveness, productivity and employee well-being at the workplace. The study conducted by Pritchard and Karasick in 1993 on 76 managers from two industrial concerns revealed that there exist a strong relation between climate dimensions and such job satisfaction facets like security, working conditions and advancement opportunities.

Churchill, Ford and Walker (1994) defined climate as “a set of attributes specific to a particular organization that may be induced from the way that organization deals with its members and its environment”. Xaba (1996) defined organizational climate as “consciously perceived environmental factors subject to organizational control”. As far as Low (1997) is concerned, the term climate is nothing but a set of attitudes, feelings and social process of organizations. For him, climate falls into three major and well-known leadership styles, viz., autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. Booyens (1998) explained organizational climate as “the employees’ subjective impressions of the organization in which they work”. Moorhead and Griffin (1998) observed organizational climate as “current situations in an organization and the linkages among work groups and their performance”. Accordingly, organizational climate is the current situation taking place in the organization which influences employees’ performance in one or the other way depending on how the employees perceive the current situation in the organization - positive or negative. Moorhead and Griffin also observed that the management can tap the advantages of the climate but, it will, indeed affect the behaviour of employees later.
3.3.3 Approaches to the Concept of Climate

Despite the presence of many approaches to the concept of climate, only two have been substantially supported. They are:

1) The cognitive scheme approach and
2) The shared perception approach.

As per the first approach, the climate is considered an individual perception and cognitive representation of the work environment. Climate assessments, therefore, have to be conducted at the individual level. The second approach has been advocated by Whitley (2012). It emphasizes the importance of shared perceptions as the keystone of the notion of climate. In the words of Wolpin, Burke & Green (1999) climate is a related set of attitudes, values and practices that configurates the members of an organization. Authors like Hellriegel, (1984) interpret the employee behaviour as a function of the variation in both organizational dimensions and individual characteristics which take place simultaneously. Researchers like Keuter, Byrne, Voell and Larson (2000) consider organizational climate as a set of figurative properties of the work environment viewed directly or indirectly by the people who work in similar environment. Glisson & James (2006) and Chan (2008) noted that perceptions of climate come forward as a result of the activities, involvements, interactions and experiences of the individuals who give different meaning to different situations. All these approaches have some homogeneous elements. Organizational climate is usually viewed as a molar concept as a particular organization, has an air of stationary or at least some ongoing status over time. In spite of the externality of climate to the individual, cognitively it is internal to the extent how far the individual perceptions affect it. However, it is doubtless that
climate is factual and reality based and can be shared in the sense that observers or participants may have same stance regarding it though this consensus may be fenced by individual differences in perceptions. Moreover, the climate is revealed from the interactions of the employees working in an organization. If there are no good linkages between work groups, the climate will be full of conflict leading to poor communication and lack of understanding and commitment among groups. Further, the climate of an organization potentially influences the behaviour of the people in the system. In other words organizational climate can have positive or negative result on employees.

3.3.5 Dimensions of Organizational Climate

The varieties of dimension related to organizational climate have a vital role in determining the features of any organisations. Such dimensions represent criteria such as ‘means emphasis’, ‘goal emphasis’, ‘reward orientation’, ‘task support’ and ‘social support’ (Peterson, 1995).

- Means Emphasis: It relates to the extent to which the employers inform employees about the methods and procedures they are responsible to observe in their jobs.

- Goal emphasis: It spells out the means the superiors adopt to make their employees aware of organizational results, norms and bases, standards and values, which the employees are expected to, adhere to or achieve as the case may be.

- Social Support: The extent up to which superiors give due concern to well-being of the employees. It includes amenities like free lunch or subsidised canteen, incentive bonus, extra duty allowance etc.
3.3.6 Activities that Promote Positive Organizational Climate

Smooth functioning of the organization is essential to have high level performance and satisfaction among employees. It is possible only if Positive Organizational Climate is there in the organisation. Therefore, the administration and top level officials may make it sure that the climate of the workplace is always positive and capable of preventing events creating job dissatisfaction among the employees. In his studies, Booyens (1998) has highlighted some actions that can be initiated by the management for creation a positive organizational climate. Such actions are listed below:

- Proper development of commitments to various courses of action which include organization’s vision, mission, purpose, goals and objectives can promote a positive organizational climate which allows optimum use of input from the employees in the implementation of these factors. Involvement of employees to the process of decision-making motivates employees highly and also develops a sense of belonging among them.
Creating a high degree of trust and openness between the management and the employees through creative and transparent communication would help in maintaining high morale. Free exchange of ideas help to raise problems that they encounter in the work place as well as their grievances. Creative feedback also helps the employees know their strengths and weaknesses so that they can make adjustments as and when needed.

Practice of an open-door policy where employees are allowed to come to the manager with anything that bothering them improves interpersonal relationship between managers and their subordinates. It is possible if free expression of ideas, constructive criticism, opinions and suggestions are ensured in the organisation.

Provision of a workable career ladder through promotional opportunities helps the management identify employees with exceptional performance so that they can be promoted to higher positions. This will motivate employees for higher achievement in their units.

As per the suggestions of Lockburn & Terry (2004), positive organizational climate can be attained by means of development of organizational goals, openness through communication, the provision of opportunities for growth and an adequate career ladder. A climate that does not promote flow of communication upward, downwards and lateral would lead to fear of expression of ideas and opinions. Similarly, non-existence of an open door policy can also have negative effect on employees. Experts like McNeese & Smith (1999) are of the opinion that the academics become more constructive when the atmosphere in the organization turns pleasant.
and employees enjoy the work when the employer helps them do their level best in a comfortable environment.

3.4 School Climate

Anyone who spends time in schools quickly discovers how one school can feel different from other schools. School climate is a general term that refers to the feel, atmosphere, tone, ideology or milieu of a school. Just as individuals have personalities, so too do schools: a school climate may be thought of as the personality of a school (Education Encyclopaedia). The feel of a school is difficult to explain; however, parents, teachers, Principals and students have always sensed something special, yet undefined, about their schools. The sense of how a school feels is often recognised as the school climate (Karpicke & Murphy, 1996; Sweeny, 1992). According to Perkins (2006) school climate is the learning environment created through the interaction of human relationships, physical settings and psychological atmosphere.

As seen earlier, school climate refers to “the impressions, beliefs and expectations held by members of the school about their school as a learning environment”. It also consists of: the explicit mission and policies expected to create positive personal associations and relationships, attitudes or dispositions and perceptions among the members of staff of the organisation. Barth (2001) stated that the school climate dictates the feelings of the members and the way the staff members do things around the school. According to Hoy & Tarter (1992), the school climate is influenced by formal and informal relations, personalities of the members and the leadership of the school. The climate is manifested in member’s patterns of behaviour. School climate vary as they take their cues from a wide variety
of sources such as local, economic and social conditions and expectations. Bonstigl (2001) claimed that in response to a variety of influences from both inside and outside the school setting, climate can be affected by positive and negative events that occur within the school and within the society.

School climate consists of a shared set of values or beliefs. According to Keefe and Kelley (1990) school climate is a pattern of shared perceptions held by teachers, students and the community. Not only does the school community share the perception of school climate, they are directly influenced by it (Hoy & Hannum, 1997). School climate most directly affects the members of the school community who spend the majority of their day within the school and it has also repercussions that extend into the geographic community that supports the school (Balfanz & Maciver, 2000; Conner & Krajewski, 1996). Ellis (1998) described school climate as a metaphor for a complex phenomenon that is easy to perceive but difficult to define, measure or manipulate. The elements that make up school climate are complex. Every aspect of the school is shaped, formed and moulded by underlying symbolic elements. According to Deal and Peterson (1998) school climate is reflection of the informal stream of norms, values, beliefs and rituals that shape how those in the school think, feel and act. School climate influences what people pay attention to, how they identify with the school, how hard they work and the degree to which they achieve their goals.

It is also characterised by the social interactions between the members of the school community. The interaction of various school and classroom climate factors can create a foundation of support that enables all members of the school community to teach and learn at high levels.
According to Strand and Patrician, the message a school sends through its structure, organization, behaviour it enables and encourages and even its physical space affect every person in that school. School climate reaches all students, all teachers and all parents - everyone who is a part of the school community. Both students and teachers learn more and do more when they feel a part of something that they have helped to create and that is important and larger than them. School climate exists in multiple dimensions and components. Members can perceive climate in their own unique way. The perception of climate may be the climate for each individual in the school setting. Whether the perceptions of climate are held by the teachers or by the students, the collective consensus of climate based on the group’s perception becomes the climate of the school (Dunn & Harris, 1998).

**3.4.1 Factors Influencing School Climate**

Major factors influencing school climate can be categorized under the following heads:

- Number and quality of interactions between teachers and students (Kuperminc, Leadbeater and Blatt, 2001)
- Student’s and teacher’s perception of their school environment or the personality of the school (Johnson, Johnson & Zimmerman, 1996)
- Environmental factors such as the physical buildings and classrooms and materials used for instruction
- Academic performance (Johnson & Johnson, 1993)
- Feeling of safeness and size of the institution (Freiberg, 1998) and
- Feeling of trust and respect among students and teachers (Manning & Saddlemire, 1996)
A variety of factors contribute to the establishment of an open school climate. These include external factors (particularly characteristics of the larger community of which the school is part), public policies (of state government, district and possibly local government), the history of the institution, its culture, administrative leadership, the characteristics of the teaching staff and the students themselves. Characteristics of the institution, such as the physical structure of the building and the interactions between students and teachers are the two diverse factors that affect and help to define the broad concept of school climate. Creation of a positive school climate requires the shared recognition and commitment of the members of the school – the student as a prime focus.

With a view to having a positive organizational climate, intellectual and institutional leadership, competent, considerate and caring teachers who share common goals with students, parents and the community are required. A promising school climate is characterised by flexible, identifiable, open and nurturing institutional philosophy that attempts to forward a sense of responsibility and usefulness among students and teachers. Such a positive climate has reciprocated respect and co-operation among administrators, teachers, students, parents and the community. Further, it is also characterised by an atmosphere of conscious commitment capable of promoting and ensuring the well-being, academic achievement and civic development of students and rating of the institution at higher standards/grades.

Creation of an open school climate has been supported by a variety of factors which include external factors, public policies, history of the institution, its culture, administrative leadership, characteristics of the teaching staff and the students themselves. External factors are particularly
the characteristics of the larger community of which the school is a part and
the public policies mean the policy of State government, district and the
local self government. Characteristics of the institution, such as the physical
structure of the building and the interactions between students and teachers
are the two diverse factors that affect and help to define the broad concept
of school climate. Creation of a positive school climate requires the shared
recognition and commitment of the members of the school – the student as a
prime focus. In order to have positive organizational climate there is the
need for intellectual and institutional leadership and competent and caring
teaching staff who share common goals with students, parents and the
community. A positive school climate includes an identifiable, open and
nurturing institutional philosophy that attempts to foster a sense of
responsibility and efficacy among students and staff. There is mutual respect
and cooperation among administrators, teachers, students, parents and the
community. Above all, there is an atmosphere of conscious commitment to
promote the well-being, academic achievement and civic development of
students.

Meanwhile, many investigations have established concrete relationship
between the organizational climate and individual achievements and issues
such as performance, satisfaction, commitment, involvement and accidents.
Organizational climate has been researched for many years and continues to be
examined and redefined as a result of its significant influence on educational
outcomes. Clearly school climate is multi-dimensional and influences many
individuals including students, teachers, parents, school personnel and the
community. Freiberg (1998) notes, “school climate can be a positive
influence on the health of the learning environment or a significant barrier
Theoretical Framework of the Study

to learning”. School climate bears a significant relationship with student achievement, teacher satisfaction and retention and the ability for schools to sustain reform. And in fact, this is what a series of studies has shown (Pilla J. K. S., 1974; Edmonds, 1979; Freiberg, 1998; Good & Weinstein, 1986; Griffith, 1995; Shipmam, 1981). Positive school climate promotes cooperative learning, group cohesion, respect and mutual trust or a climate for learning (Ghaith, 2003; Kerr, 2004; Finnan, et al, 2003). When students feel safe, cared for, appropriately supported and lovingly ‘pushed’ to learn, academic achievement should increase. Positive school climate benefits students, teachers and other staff. Teachers are motivated to teach and students are motivated to learn. According to Peterson & Deal (2002) school climate influences the way teachers, students and administrators think, feel and act. Hoy (2006) also drew the conclusion that school climate is directly related to school outcomes. Therefore it is crucial that leaders must shape and nourish a school climate where every teacher can make a difference and every student can learn better. Dedicated administrators who are working toward improved school climate are making conscious efforts to enhance and enrich culture and climate in schools so that teachers can teach better and students can learn more.

3.4.2 History / Approaches to School Climate

The study made by Kurt Lewin and his colleagues about children’s school clubs and the characterized leadership styles within the clubs as corresponding to one of three styles – autocratic, democratic or laissez faire. The ‘social climate’ within the clubs is determined by such styles. Later on Kurt Lewin has given birth to his well-known field theory of behaviour, which was linked to the Gestalt psychology of holistic perception and
widened to cover the whole organizations. ‘Social processes are determined by an interaction of the personal characteristics of individuals and elements of the environment’ is the underlying principle of the field theory. The theory is defined by the formula given below.

\[ B = f(P, E) \]

Where; \( B \) = behaviour, \( P \) = person and \( E \) = environment.

Kurt Lewin’s Field theory was invaluable in helping to recognise and understand individual and group phenomena within organizational settings. Later, Rensis Likert expanded Lewin’s ideas and invented System 4 model of effective management or participative management. Likert formulated System 4 management style with system 1 (exploitative authoritative), System 2 (benevolent authoritative), System 3 (consultative) and System 4 (participative). And as in Lewins model, each management style was associated with a corresponding organizational climate.

There are four well known constructs for conceptualizing organizational climate in schools. Halpin and Croft’s concept of open and closed climate; Hoy and Tarter’s organizational health construct; National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) Comprehensive Assessment of School Environment; Willower, Eidell and Hoy’s concept of Pupil Control Ideology.

The most well known conceptualization of school climate is the early works of Halpin and Croft (1963). They described school climate as the personality of the school and viewed it along a continuum from open to closed based on the presence and absence of eight dimensions of climate such as disengagement, hindrance, espirit and intimacy as reflected in the
behaviour of the teacher and aloofness, production emphasis, thrust and consideration as reflected in the behaviour of the Principal.

Halpin and Croft (1963) reduced eight dimensions to six broad and more comprehensive dimensions such as open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, parental and closed. The distinctive feature of open climate is that the Principal and faculty are genuine in their behaviour. The Principal leads by example, providing proper direction, support and consideration to teachers. The teachers work well together and are committed. Further in an open climate there is no burdensome paperwork, close supervision, impersonality and rigid rules and regulations. In closed climate Principal stressing for routine and unnecessary paper work. Teachers are responding at minimal levels and exhibiting little satisfaction. The Principal is impersonal, aloof, and inconsiderate which results in teacher frustration and apathy. In closed climate the behaviour of both Principal and teacher is not genuine.

Another way to measure climate is by examining its health. Organizational health refers to “an organizations’ ability to adapt to constant changes in its organization” (Hoy &Tarter, 1992). Health climate perspective examines the relationships among teachers, the relationships between the school and the community; teachers and the Principal; teachers and students. The Comprehensive Assessment of School Environments (CASE) is a psychometrically sound instrument that can be used to measure student, teacher, and parent satisfaction in addition to school climate. The NASSP (The National Association of Secondary School Principals) School Climate Survey collects and measures data about perceptions on the following subscales: Teacher-student relationships, Security and maintenance, Administration,
Student academic orientation, Student behavioural values, the quality of academic and career guidance and personal counselling, Student-peer relationships, Parent and community school relationships, Instructional management and Student activities.

Pupil Control Ideology is a 20-item Likert-type scale that measures the degree to which an individual's pupil control ideology is custodial; the higher the score, the more custodial the ideology and conversely, the lower the score, the more humanistic the attitude. Custodial orientation model provides a highly controlled setting concerned primarily with the maintenance of order. Students are stereotyped in terms of their appearance and behaviour. Teachers believe that students’ misbehaviour should be corrected through severe punishments. Humanistic orientation is conceptualised as a school in which members learn through interaction and experience. Student learning and behaviour are viewed in psychological and sociological terms rather than moralistic ones. Teachers believe that students can learn to be responsible and self-regulating individuals. Moreover, the humanistic teacher is optimistic about the student and has open and friendly relations with students. Teachers desire a democratic classroom climate with flexibility in status and rules, open channels of two-way communication.

As much as six behaviour dimensions including both Principal’s behaviour and teacher’s behaviour have been identified by Hoy & Clover (1986, p.101). Accordingly, the Principal’s behaviour can be:-

1. **Supportive Behaviour**- This Principal’s behaviour reflects a basic concern for teachers. He/she listens to teachers and the teachers’ suggestions are solicited. They are appreciated for their good activities and praise is
Theoretical Framework of the Study

given realistically and habitually, and criticism is dealt with very creatively in an unbiased way. Principals who are very supportive do respect the proficient capability and competency of their members of staff and show both special and professional interest in each of the teachers.

2. **Directive behaviour**- Directive behaviour reflects rigid and close supervision. The Principal maintain close and constant control over all teachers and school activities, down to the smallest details.

3. **Restrictive behaviour**- Restrictive behaviour involves hindrance rather than facilitation of teachers’ performance. The teachers are shouldered with more clerical work, custom duties, and other assignments. Also, often the Principal interferes in the teaching activities.

The teachers’ behaviour can be:

1. **Collegial behaviour** which involves free, open and practised interactions among the teachers who feel pride of the institution, happy and ready to work with their colleagues regardless of their positions, and are very passionate. They follow a ‘give and take’ approach and respect mutually their professional ability.

2. **Intimate behaviour** represents a solid and powerful network of societal backing among the faculty members. The teachers know one another, socialize regularly, come closer, provide support to one another.

3. **Disengaged behaviour is reflected by the absence of professional manners and common goal orientation. Teachers waste time and are less productive in collective attempts. Often, their behaviour tends to be negative and critical of the colleagues and the institution as a whole.**
In 1991 Hoy and his team defined four dimensions of climate, identifying the interactions that occur among the fellow teachers and also between the teachers and the Principal and they are:

1. **Open Climate**: In open climate the Principal willingly accepts suggestions from teachers with appreciations. The teachers enjoy high degree of autonomy and freedom in the discharging their assignments which reduces the need of close supervision. A professional and open relationship prevails among the teachers. Teachers are keen to do their work jointly together and behave as close friends one another. If the behaviours of both the Principal and the teacher are open, it can be considered an open climate.

2. **Closed Climate**: In this case, the Principal displays domineering behaviour. He dominates more as the rules are rigid. Here too much concentration is made on regular and futile activities. The Principal is uncooperative and firm. The teachers become alienated and in turn to be unaccountable and uncommitted. If the behaviours of both the Principal and the teacher are closed, it is nothing but a closed climate.

3. **Disengaged Climate**: In disengaged climate, the Principal is friendly, dynamic, helpful, liberal, flexible, and open to the colleagues. Regrettably, the reverse is not so. The teachers are reserved, divided, sceptical and totally uncommitted. Thus, it is the climate where, behaviour of Principal is open whereas the behaviour of the teacher is closed.

4. **Engaged Climate**: In engaged climate Principal is autocratic and restrictive, often insisting faculty to do worthless task. Conversely, the teachers like their profession; they are highly committed, hard-working, show high integrity. They exhibit a degree of team spirit. Thus, the engaged
climate is one where the behaviour of the Principal is closed, but that of the teacher is open.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Behaviour</th>
<th>Principal Behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open Behaviour</td>
<td>Open climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Engaged climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closed Behaviour</td>
<td>Disengaged climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Closed climate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Hoy and Clover (1986)*

**Figure 3.5: Typology of school climates.**

### 3.4.3 Perspectives on School Climate

A number of instruments have been developed to study the organizational climate of schools (Halpin and Croft 1963, Stern 1970, Hoy and Tarter 1991). For the time being, there are mainly two frameworks for analysis and measurement of school climate which use the metaphors of openness and health for the climate study.

**Openness of school climate**

The most well-known conceptualization of school climate is the early work of Halpin and Croft (1963). They described schools' climate based on ‘feel’ and ‘personality’. With a view to measuring the school climate, they developed the OCDQ (Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire). The OCDQ made serious attempts to know how open or closed a school was. It puts the school on an extreme range of ‘open to close’. The teacher’s perception of the organization is a major determinant of openness. The relationship between teacher interactions among themselves and with the...
Principal is the base of teacher perceptions. The distinctive feature of an open climate is its high degree of authenticity. The Principal and the teachers are genuine in their behaviour. The Principal provides proper direction as well as support and consideration. There is no burdensome paperwork, close supervision, impersonality and plethora of rules and regulations. Teachers working in an open climate work well together and are committed to the task at hand. The closed climate is virtually the antithesis of the open. The Principal and teachers simply go through the motions, with the Principal imposing unnecessary works, teachers responding at minimal levels. The Principal is ineffective, impersonal, aloof and inconsiderate. Although the frame work of openness and its measure have been extensively used to study climate, it’s utility for studying urban and secondary school climate was questioned.

Health of school climate

Another way to examine school climate is to explore school health. In the words of Miles, (1969) “a healthy school is one that continues to grow and faces challenges through successfully coping with ever changing dynamics”. The works of Miles and Parsons route the study of climate within the outline of school health. For Miles (1969), a healthy school is one which “not only survives in its environment, but continues to cope adequately over the long haul, and continuously develops and extends its surviving and coping abilities” (p. 375). The thinking of researchers like Parsons and colleagues (Parsons, Bales, & Shils, 1953), organizational health was dependent on the accomplishment of four basic requirements, viz., adaptation, goal attainment, integration, and latency.
Hoy and Feldman (1987) were able to devise the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI) to measure the health of schools. Hoy and Tarter (1992) define a healthy school as one that is protected from exterior influences and pressures. The administration is dynamic, supportive, and sets high attainable objectives. In addition to these attributes, the administration has clout with superiors and the ability to gain resources when needed. The teachers in a healthy school are committed, work well together, and set high but attainable goals for students. The students in a healthy school are motivated and respect the achievement of other students. By contrast an unhealthy school is susceptible to outside factors (parents and community). The Principal is ineffective and offers little support for teachers. The teachers exhibit very low morale and are mistrustful of the administration. OHI is the instrument used to measure school health. There are three versions of the OHI- elementary, middle and secondary. The secondary version maps seven aspects of school climate:

Hoy and Feldman (1987) developed the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI) to determine and measure the health of schools. In the words of Hoy and Tarter (1992), a healthy school is one that is secured from destructive influences and pressures from outside. Moreover, the administration is vibrant, encouraging, and frames high but achievable objectives. In addition to these qualities, the administration has influence with superiors and is capable of mobilising resources as and when need arises. The faculty members of a healthy school are highly devoted to their role; discharge their duties jointly and openly, establish very high but attainable ends for their students. The students of such schools are highly inspired and they recognise the achievements made by other students of the same institution. Contrary to this, an unhealthy school
Chapter 3

is vulnerable to the outside factors which include even the parents and community. The Principal is inactive and ineffective. Often he is biased and offers little support for his colleagues. Resultantly, the teachers show very low morale and are distrustful to the administration as a whole. There are three versions of the OHI- elementary, middle and secondary. The secondary version maps seven aspects of school climate:

- Institutional Integrity is the extent to which the school is able to manage its constraints from the outside community
- Consideration is the Principal behaviour which is genuine, collegial, friendly, open and caring toward the faculty
- Initiating structure is the Principal behaviour which is oriented towards both tasks and achievements through clearly expressed work expectations and performance standards
- Principal influence describes the ability of the Principal to influence superiors
- Resource support is the ability of the Principal to obtain resources needed by the teachers
- Morale is the collective sense of friendliness, openness and enthusiasm among teaching staff
- Academic Emphasis denotes commitment among teachers and students for academic excellence

The description of a healthy school is similar in context to that of an open school. The conceptual overlap of openness and health led to the development of the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) (Hoy, Hannum, &
Tschannen-Moran, 1998; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002). The OCI is a mixture of the OCDQ and OHI, designed to measure the openness and health of schools. The four dimensions of the OCI are: institutional vulnerability, collegial leadership, professional teacher behaviour, and achievement press. The OCI and its four dimensions serve as a key component to this study of the relationship between job satisfaction, school climate and institutional commitment.

Regarding the description of a healthy school in context, it is more or less similar to that of an open school. On account of the conceptual overlap of openness and health, another set of questionnaire called the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) (Hoy, Hannum, & Tschannen-Moran, 1998; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002) was evolved. It is a mixture of both the OCDQ and OHI. It has been purposefully designed to measure both the openness and health of schools. The OCI consists of four dimension, viz., (1) institutional vulnerability, (2) collegial leadership, (3) professional teacher behaviour, and (4) achievement press. The OCI along with these dimensions serves as the key component to the study of the relationship among job satisfaction, school climate and institutional commitment.

3.5 Organizational Commitment

Recently, the term organizational commitment has got significant attention from academics and policy-makers. Webster’s dictionary defines commitment as “a pledge, or promise or an obligation of some sort”. In 1956 Whyte defined the concept of commitment by describing the “Organization Man” over committed to his organization. According to him “Organization Man” is one who has not only worked for an organization but also belonged to it. Following White’s attempt, various studies have
explored the concept of commitment which has proved to be useful not only as a theoretical construct and an empirical predictor but also as a powerful tool for higher levels of performance and outcomes. The Black well Encyclopaedia (2000) defines organizational commitment as “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals; a readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to remain part of the organization”. In the early 1950’s the concept of commitment was introduced to organizational behaviour research and since then hundreds of articles have been published on the concept of commitment. In 1980’s organizational commitment emerged as a key factor of the relationship between individuals and organization (Mowday et al 1982). In 1991 Allen & Meyer identified three forms of commitment as affective, continuance and normative.

3.5.1 Definitions of Organizational Commitment

Hall et al (1970) described organizational commitment as “the process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly congruent”. Sheldon (1971) defined organizational commitment as “an attitude or an orientation towards the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization”. According to Porter et al (1974) organizational commitment can be defined as “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals and values, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership”. Salancik (1977) defined organizational commitment as “a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement”. Morrow (1983) defined organizational commitment as
“one’s attitude towards continued participation in the organization”. According to Morrow (1983) organizational commitment is “an effective response resulting from an evaluation of the work situation which links or attaches the individual to the organization”. Romzek (1989) described organizational commitment as a sense of attachment to the work organization. Sharma and Singh (1991) described organizational commitment as the product of two independent factors, personal and organizational, simultaneously operating in every organization. Allen & Meyer (1991) defined organizational commitment as “a psychological state that

a) Characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization and

b) Has implications for the decisions to continue or discontinue membership in the organization”.

The Blackwell Encyclopaedia (2000) defined organizational commitment as “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals; a readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to remain part of the organization”. According to Newstorm & Davis (2006) “organizational commitment looks like a strong magnetic force attracting one metallic object to another and indicates the degree to which an employee identifies with the organization and wants to remain within the organization”. Though these definitions do not show any consensus, there is a common theme in these definitions that organizational commitment is a psychological bond or identification of the individual with the institution that takes on a special meaning and importance. As a result the committed person believes strongly in the goals of the institution; exerts considerable efforts beyond minimal expectations and strongly desire to remain or affiliated with it (Kanter, 1968; Mowday, 1982).
3.5.2 Approaches to Organizational Commitment

Allen & Meyer defined organizational commitment as a “psychological state that binds the employees to the organization” and proposed a model that is consisting of three components; affective, continuance and normative. As defined by Allen & Meyer, affective commitment refers to employees’ involvement and emotional attachment to the organization. It is the individual’s psychological or emotional connection to, identification with and participation in the organization. Individuals who are at an emotional level usually remain with the organization because they see their individual employment relationship in harmony with the goals and values of the organization for which they are currently working. Beck & Wilson (2000) states, that affective commitment involves identification with the organization and internalization of organizational principles and standards. Continuance commitment refers to employee’s awareness of costs that employees incur when they leave the organization. In other words it is regarded as an awareness of costs associated with leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer 1997). Individuals with continuance commitment remain with a specific organization because of the money they earn as employees as a result of the time spent in the organization and not because they want to. Normative commitment implies the feelings of obligation of employee’s to be a part of the institution for ever. Newman (2011) is of the opinion that normative commitment is determined by employee’s cultural, social and personal background and experiences, attitudes and values generally before joining the organization. According to Allen & Meyer (1997) normative commitment can be explained as a sense of responsibility to carry on employment with a specific organization. March & Mannari (1977) state that the normative
element is seen as the commitment individuals consider morally appropriate regarding their remaining with a specific organization, irrespective of how much status improvement or fulfilment the organization provides the individual over the years. All these commitment levels are distinguishable psychological states that employees can experience at varying degrees.

Allen & Meyer argued that despite the presence of a link between the employee and the organization, the affective commitment and continuance commitment were quite different constructs. Employees having strong affective commitment do stay with the organization as they want to, but employees with strong continuance commitment stay with the organization as they need to.

Kelman (1958) argued for three conceptually different ways of considering the process. They are:

a) Compliance or exchange
b) Identification or affiliation
c) Internalization or value congruence

Compliance occurs when people recognize the influence as they want to realize various positive reactions from others. People with high compliance adopt the induced behaviour to add specific rewards and avoid penalties. Identification can be said to occur when people accept influence because they want to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship with others. They adopt the induced behaviour due to its association with a desired relationship. Internalization can occur when people accept influence because the content of the induced behaviour is intrinsically rewarding. They also consider that the ideas and actions associated with the induced
behaviour are internal rewards. People having high internalization adopt the induced behaviour since it is matching with their value systems. Compliance means that attitudes and behaviours are adopted, not because of shared beliefs, but simply to get specific rewards (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Commitment predicted on compliance refers to an obligation to remain with the organization but with a superficial attachment. Compliance may be regarded as a component of organizational commitment which means that employees are committed to their organizations due to the costs of leaving them (Balai, 2000; Balci, 2000; O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). In identification, an individual may feel proud of being a part of the organization (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Identification requires employees’ wish to be close to each other and view behaviours of colleagues as an important factor to continue working in the organization.

According to O’ Reilly & Chatman, (1986), internalization is said to be more desirable than compliance commitment as it requires individual and organizational value congruence. Moreover internalization implies that the individual values and the values of the group or organization are very similar. Newton and Shore (1992) stated that commitment predicted on internalization occurs when individual values are congruent with the goals and values of organizations. There are three independent foundations which form the base for the psychological attachment of an employee to an organization. They are:

- Compliance or instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards;
- Identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation; and
- Internalization or involvement related to congruence between individual and organizational values.
These may represent separate dimensions of commitment. Mathieu & Zajac (1990) believed that developing a better perception of organizational commitment has an effect on employees, organizations and the world in general. The level of employees’ commitment will possibly ensure that they are better suited to receiving both extrinsic rewards (which include remuneration and benefits) and psychological rewards (which include job satisfaction and association with fellow employees). Further organizational commitment is generally assumed to reduce abandonment behaviours, which include tardiness and turnover. In addition, employees who are committed to their organization may be more willing to participate in ‘extra-role’ activities such as being innovative or creative, which frequently guarantee the organization’s competitiveness in the market (Katz & Kahn 1978).

3.5.3 Organizational Commitment of Teachers

In recent years research on commitment has been extended to educational organizations. Educational institutions require committed teachers who care for the wellbeing of their institution and students. The improvement of school and successful execution of innovations in education depend largely on teachers who are primarily responsible for the educational activities in their schools. For that reason, more comprehensive attention should be given to the understanding of teachers’ behaviours and performance within the organizational environment of schools (Tsui and Cheng, 1999). Teachers who are committed are always able to put in their maximum effort cheerfully and zestfully. Thus teacher performance and commitment is a crucial input in the field of education. In the absence of capable and committed teachers educational institutions can not develop into a potential instrument of national development.
3.5.4 Benefits of High Teacher Commitment

- Committed teachers care about the quality of teaching services and provide creative ideas to improve the system.
- Committed teachers care about the goals and objectives of the institution and are willing to put in extra effort.
- Committed teachers speak well of their institution to their friends and relatives, which will enhance its reputation and image.
- Committed teachers are less likely to quit their jobs.
- Committed teachers are happy in their jobs as a result team spirit comes naturally with more cooperation and group interaction.

Educational organizations such as schools, colleges and universities require teachers who are committed to their institution, profession and students. Teachers strong in commitment find happiness in their job and involve themselves in it wholeheartedly. Committed teachers believe strongly in the institution’s goals and values, comply with orders and expectations voluntarily, exert considerable effort beyond minimal expectations for the good of the institution and strongly desire to remain affiliated with it (Kanter 1968, Mowday 1982).

Firestone & Rosenblum (1988) stated that teachers may be committed to teaching, their school or their students. Commitment to students may contribute to a warm, supportive climate which will reduce the dropout rate. Commitment to students may not contribute much to academic achievement while commitment to teaching may have opposite effect. Kushman (1992) examined the cause and consequences of commitment to students, which he equates with teacher efficacy, high expectations and organizational
commitment. Louis (1991) suggested that tracing multiple commitments is problematic because they are so intertwined that it is difficult to measure them separately.

3.6 Conceptual Frame Work of the Study

The major concepts that guided this study consist of Job Satisfaction developed by Spector (1997), School Climate developed by Hoy et al (2002) and Organizational Commitment developed by Mowday et al (1982). Based on literature, the below diagram illustrates the relationship among these three major concepts and variables.

![Conceptual Frame Work of the Study](image)

Figure 3.6: Conceptual Frame Work of the Study

3.7 Conclusion

Job satisfaction is required to have full dedication and commitment of teachers towards the institution, line of work and students. If the teachers attain job satisfaction, they will be in a position to fulfil the educational objectives and national goals. When teachers believe that they can organise
and execute their teaching in ways that are successful in helping students learn, and when the school climate supports them, teachers plan more and accept personal responsibility for student performance. They are not deterred by temporary setbacks, and act with determination to enhance student learning. It is important to try to understand how specific school climate attributes influence critical teacher behaviours that improve teaching and learning in the classroom. Authorities have to locate the methods through which teachers can be assured with a facilitating and promising learning surroundings which will influence their satisfaction and commitment. Investigating the relationship between school climate, job satisfaction and organizational commitment may significantly contribute to enhancing both the performance of schools and the quality of education system in Kerala.

References


Theoretical Framework of the Study


[17] Bullock (1952) *Social Factors Related to Job Satisfaction*, Research Monograph, No. 70, Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, Columbus.


Theoretical Framework of the Study


Theoretical Framework of the Study


Theoretical Framework of the Study


[76] Litwin & Stringer (1978) Motivational and Organizational Climate, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, Boston, USA, Pp.1-3.


Theoretical Framework of the Study


Theoretical Framework of the Study


Chapter 3


[128] Taguiri & Litwin (1968) *Organizational Climate: Explorations of a Concept*, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, Boston, Pp.13-32.


---

*A study on job satisfaction and institutional commitment among school teachers in Kerala*