CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with a brief review of the works already done in the area chosen for the study. Studies related to educational leadership effectiveness (and its literature on Iranian and Indian leadership), job values, school climate and relationship between educational leadership effectiveness and job values and also between educational leadership effectiveness and school climate have been reviewed.

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

A body of evidences is accumulating that indicates that principals influence students’ performance indirectly (by setting goals, having high expectations, allocating resources and communicating with all stakeholders) rather than directly (by visiting classrooms, evaluating teachers, and training teachers to better instruct). Examples of this research include Hoy, Tarter, and Witkoskie (as cited in Waskiewicz, 2000), and Hallinger and Heck (1996) (as cited in Griffith, 1999). Therefore it appears critical to assess the intervening processes to determine those principal behaviours that are most closely aligned to school effectiveness.

Firestone and Wilson (as cited in Hoy, Hannum, and Tschannen-Moran, 1998) found that principal support was positively related to student learning outcomes, while principal control was negatively associated with these outcomes. Hoffman et al. (1994) (as cited in Hoy, Hannum, and Tschannen-Moran) found that teachers who were supported by their superiors as well as their colleagues were more likely to experiment
and take risks to improve the quality of instruction. Support and commitment go hand in hand.

Osragbemi (2004) explained reasons why the study of the relationship between leadership and age might be important and using a questionnaire survey to collect data from over 400 UK managers, it identified age influences in the leadership styles and behaviour of the managers. The findings suggested that younger and older managers have different profiles in their consultative and participative leadership styles. Older managers consulted more widely and favour more participation in comparison with younger managers. However, the two groups of managers both practice directive and deligative leadership styles at about the same degree. On leadership behaviour, only idealised influence showed a significant F-test between younger and older managers while the other measures showed remarkable similarities between the two age groups. Some implications of the findings were discussed including the need to hormonise the positive contributions of both the younger and the older workers and giving respect to the contributions of both groups.

Wafa, Ramaya, and Hoon (2000) in their study on leadership behaviour and effectiveness among secondary school principals in Penang, Malaysia found that (i) the leader behaviour of the principals did not have an impact on their effectiveness as perceived by the teachers. (ii) There was no significant difference between the teachers’ perceived leader effectiveness of male and female principals. (iii) There was no significant relationship between race, area of specialisation, and educational level of the principals and their effectiveness. (iv) In general, female teachers perceive their principals to be more effective than their male counterparts.
Karimi Haji Shoore (1997) in his investigation on effective principals’ qualities in high schools of Tehran, Iran found that: (i) age was not influence on principals’ effectiveness. (ii) Teaching experience was not significant on principals’ effectiveness. (iii) Educational qualifications were not influence on principals’ effectiveness. (iv) There was no difference between principals who were graduated from teacher colleges and other principals. (v) Principals with educational management backgrounds were not found to be more effective compared to principals with other backgrounds. (vi) Management experience was influence on effectiveness of the principals with diploma and associate degrees, however, it was not influence on effectiveness of the principals with education and non-education backgrounds.

Peters (1974) studied some aspects of leader style, adaptability and effectiveness among western Massachusetts’s principals. The study investigated the relationships between staff and self-perceptions of the principal’s leader behaviour as that behaviour was seen to be either dominant in style or adaptable to situational changes. The study attempted to assess the relationship between perceived leader style, dominant or adaptable, and perceived leader effectiveness. Seventeen western Massachusetts’s principals and their staff were selected to participate in the study. They were administered similar forms of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire to obtain data concerning staff and self-perceptions of principal’s leader style. The principals and their members of the staff were administered the leader adaptability and style inventory to obtain data concerning staff and self-perceptions of the adaptability of the principal’s leader behaviour. The following were the findings: (i) there was a significant and positive relationship between the principal’s self-perceived adaptability scores and the mean of
the staff perceived adaptability scores. The staff rated their principals higher in adaptability than did the principals themselves. (ii) There was a significant agreement between the staff perception of the principal’s use of consideration behaviour. (iii) There was a significant agreement between the staff perceived use of ‘initiating structure’ behaviour and the principals’ self-perception of initiating structure behaviour. (iv) The study was unable to demonstrate that adaptable leader behaviour is significantly related to being either an effective or an ineffective principal. (v) There was a close relationship demonstrated between the staff and self on leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire dimensions scores.

Pelc (1987) made a study on the role of effective characteristics in the effective leadership of elementary school principals. The themes of effective leadership, the effective principal and effective characteristics (feeling and emotions) with emphasis on the male-female dichotomy were reviewed. A conceptual framework placing the three themes in a context to aid fuller understanding was developed. Qualitative methodology utilising observations and unstructured interviews was the research paradigm followed in the study. Portraits were drawn of three elementary school principals whose students scored in the top 25% of those in the Winston-Salem/Forsyth County Schools on the California Achievement Test, whose schools were among the 25% most requested by parents for student transfers and who were recommended by Central Office Administrators because they had consistently received very positive evaluations. An analysis of the portraits showed that although effective characteristics were not displayed identically by all three effective principals, they did play an important role in the leadership of each.
Stebbins (1987) studied “Educational leadership: a study of principal’s leadership of eight Michigan elementary schools selected for national recognition in 1985-1986 as perceived by the principals and teachers”. The characteristics of leadership were instructional leadership, monitoring of student progress, clear and focused school mission, emphasis of student attainment of basic skills, positive school climate for learning, high level of effectiveness, high expectations for students and teachers, and general behaviours. The major findings were (i) principals perceived themselves to be highly effective leaders in all areas. Teachers perceived principals to be highly effective in all areas but instructional leadership. (ii) Principals and teachers as a group perceived the principals as highly effective leaders in all areas but instructional leadership. (iii) Of the eight school principals, five were perceived by the principals and teachers as highly effective leaders in the eight areas and three principals were perceived by the principal and teachers as effective leaders in some leadership areas (instructional leadership, clear and focused school mission, creating a positive school climate, high expectations for students and teachers, level of effectiveness, monitoring student progress and general behaviour). (iv) Rural principals were perceived as highly effective in all areas except instructional leadership. Sub-urban principals were perceived as highly effective in all areas except instructional leadership, level of effectiveness, and general behaviour. Urban principals were perceived as highly effective in all eight areas.

Coombs (1988) made a study on “towards a conception of educational leadership” for his Ph.D. This thesis examines the extent to which the study of past and current leadership theory and research that is typically included in the preparation programme of educational administrators is relevant to fostering educational leadership. To this end it
develops a conception of educational leadership and assesses the relevance of leadership theory and research in light of that conception. The foundations upon which this conception is built are (i) the ordinary language meaning of ‘leadership’, (ii) the ideals fundamental to liberal, democratic society, and (iii) our ideal of the educated person. Rival conceptions of educational leadership are examined, and it is argued that the conception of educational leadership developed here is preferable to plausible alternative conceptions.

Leadership theory and research are reviewed and shown to be generally incompatible with the conception of educational leadership explicated and defended in this study and with the ordinary concept of leadership. The study concludes that it is probably not appropriate to make such theory and research and central component of courses which aim to foster or improve the exercise of educational leadership; rather, study of works which attempt to clarify and justify educational goals would seem to be more promising.

Dulle (1988) conducted a study related to future challenges of educational leadership. The author’s recounting of the findings of futurists is grouped under three trends, which will powerfully impact the future. They are: (i) entry of the post-industrial society into the information age, (ii) movement away from “the melting pot” of America towards an acceptance of cultural pluralism, and (iii) the shifting of demographics such as population, age, location and fertility in such a manner as to necessitate making the most of fewer human resources.
Lipsky (1996) tried to relate effective leadership behaviours in the managerial role to individual success. The research found that managerial leadership behaviours were related to both effectiveness and success.

Weiss (1984) found that (i) number of years of teaching experience might be related to instructional leadership effectiveness. Effective instructional leaders had taught more years than their ineffective counterparts. (ii) Number of years of administrative experience was also found to be related to instructional leadership effectiveness. Effective instructional leaders had administered at least two fewer years than ineffective instructional leaders.

Carr (1987) conducted a comparative analysis of leadership attitudes of male and female among California secondary public school principals. The purpose of the study was to compare the attitudes of male and female secondary public school principals in California using the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiation of structure. A second purpose of this study was to compare the leadership attitude of male and female secondary public school principals with certain demographic variables, which might have effect on leadership attitudes. From this study it was determined that no significant difference exists between male and female secondary public school principals in California. In the leadership dimensions of consideration and Initiation of structure, male and female principals demonstrated similar attitudes towards leadership. Also the following conclusions were drawn from this study: (i) male and female secondary public school principals in California are similar in attitude involving a leadership style characterised by mutual trust, respect, friendship and warmth between themselves and their respective staff. (ii) Male and female secondary public school principals in
California are similar in attitudes involving a leadership style characterised by leader organisation, clear definitions of group relationships and well-defined patterns of goal attainment. (iii) Varying demographic variables describing the age, education and experience of secondary public school principals do not have a significant impact on the leadership attitudes of principals when considering the sex of the individuals. It is recommended here, based on this research project, that women be provided with ample opportunity to secure administrative positions. Women’s attitudes about leadership are similar to those of men; thus, sex should not be used as a factor in assessing a principal’s attitudes or determining a principal’s potential effectiveness.

Martell and Desmet (2001) conducted a study on a diagnostic-ration approach to measuring beliefs about the leadership abilities of male and female managers. One hundred and fifty-one managers (95 men and 56 women) judged the leadership effectiveness of male and female middle managers by providing likelihood ratings for 14 categories of leader behaviour. The likelihood ratings for some leader behaviours were greater for male managers, whereas for other leader behaviours, the likelihood ratings were greater for female managers or were no different. Leadership ratings revealed some evidence of a same-gender bias.

Calzini (1983) found no significant differences on the ratings of male and female leaders. Umbach (1993) also found no conclusions could be reached in respect to how the ten faculties viewed a female versus a male principal. He showed also that principals who serve longer periods in schools are not necessarily perceived to be higher in their teacher’s ratings for leader effectiveness.
Robinson (1996) found that there were no significant differences in responses due to age, gender, and ethnicity of teachers when comparing their responses on school effectiveness behaviours of elementary school principals.

Tanner (1981) found that factors which were more readily manipulated such as leadership style and climate had more impact on leader effectiveness than did attribute variables like principals’ age, sex, race, experience and pupils’ demographic features.

2.1.1 THE LITERATURE ON IRANIAN LEADERSHIP

The extant literature on Iranian leadership is rather sparse. A computer search on the topic produced a very small number of publications. In a comprehensive study of Iranian and Canadian managers, using a sample of 106 Canadian and 158 Iranian managers, Javidan and Dastmalchian (1993) found that there are some significant differences in effectiveness criteria and roles for the managers in the two countries. In a survey of 143 Iranian executives, Javidan (1994; Javidan and Dastmalchian, 1995) and Dastmalchian and Javidan (1998) found the concepts of visionary and high-commitment leadership as developed by such authors as Kotter (1988), Conger (1989), and Tichy and Devanna (1986) was confirmed within the Iranian sample. They showed that the Iranian view of a visionary leader is one who has a mental map, shares a new paradigm, has a global outlook, is enthusiastic about and dedicated to his/her vision, and is a credible communicator. These findings also showed that visionary leaders are highly valued and respected by their subordinates. These findings were also reinforced in study comparing Iranian and Taiwanese managers (Javidan and Dastmalchian, 1995). In another study, Javidan (1996), in a survey of over 100 Iranian executives, found strong empirical support for Conger and Kanungo’s concept of empowerment. The results also showed
that those executives who performed these practices left a strong emotional impact on their subordinates and built a loyal workforce.

Dastmalchian, Javidan and Alam (2001) conducted an empirical study on effective leadership and culture in Iran, using 300 Iranian managers from over 60 organisations. The primary purpose of their study was to examine the etic and emic aspects of leadership in Iran and to develop a profile of effective leadership for Iran. The results showed seven scales: supportive, dictatorial, planner, familial, humble, faithful, and respective. The first two factors were similar to the ‘etic’ charismatic and narcissistic dimensions of leadership. The remaining five leadership factors from the main factor analysis were regarded as ‘emic’ aspects of leadership. Attributes such as familial, humble, and faithful have more of a historical root and can be linked to the role of family and religion in the long history of the country. The others, planner and respective, may be more readily related to more recent social changes that Iranian society has been going through since the revolution in 1979.

Further analysis will shed more light on the effective attributes of a leader and the culture of Iran. The results need to be understood within the modern day context of Iran as well as the historical-cultural background of this country. According to the historians, Iranians have always lived within overlapping orbits of powerful authority figures. For centuries, Iranian culture has had a deep-rooted authoritarian tradition (Mackey, 1996; Hillman, 1990). In addition the notion of leadership has historically been very closely associated with this tradition. “In the Iranian concept of leadership, a leader possesses charisma because he [she] is endowed with supernatural powers, or at least exceptional qualities, that set him [her] apart from ordinary humans . . . [The leader] commands a
special grace and otherworldly quality that engenders trust, commitment and an irresistible desire to follow. The reality that charismatic figures bearing a new dynasty often appeared during pivotal points of history to sustain the Iranian nation reinforced the concept of the hero king. Thus, monarchy becomes a function of personality where authority flowed to the charismatic leader rather than being imposed by the institution of the throne. Furthermore, this ideal and expectation of charismatic leadership constitutes one of Iranian culture’s defining characteristics” (Mackey, 1996).

2.1.2 THE LITERATURE ON INDIAN LEADERSHIP

There is a fairly large body of Indian research literature on leadership in general. Almost all research studies and assessments of leadership skills and effectiveness are based on the use of tools made in the west like LBDQ and LEAD Questionnaires. Just as the FPS system cannot generate data in centimetres and grams, the leadership measurement tools developed in the western world have only helped measuring Indian leaders against western norms (Buch, 2004). Indian leaders have been measured against ‘initiating structure’ and ‘consideration’ in LBDQ or in terms of the four styles proposed by Hersey and Blanchard. Such measurements do not represent ethos, culture, and intricacies of Indian leadership in Indian Institutions. Deriving strength from the western researchers, it is important and necessary to carry out qualitative analysis of leadership effectiveness and behaviour of the Indian leaders in education to understand what leadership attributes and styles work in building Indian institutions.

Sinha (1980 and 1990), about the model of effective leadership styles in India, proposed that the nurturant task leader characterises an effective leader behaviour in India. The nurturant task leader exhibits concern for both task and relationships
simultaneously that may turn into a participative behaviour after the participant/follower gains experience/independence over time. Parallel with Sinha’s findings, Kanungo and Aycan (1997), in their seven country study of paternalism as one of the four socio-cultural dimensions of societies, found India to carry more paternalistic values alongside China, Turkey, and Pakistan, as opposed to the relatively less paternalistic cluster of Romania, Canada and US.

A review of research (quoted in Jagdeep, 2003) identified two broad streams of leadership studies. One of the streams dealt with personal characteristics and traits distinguishing leaders from non-leaders and did not yield any theoretical formulation. The other dealt directly with effective leadership styles, which reflected a mixture of concern for task, for turbulent environment and for the cultural needs and values. Culturally specific phenomena such as personalised and dependency relationship, power distance, care, consideration and familial attachment were found to affect leadership practices.

A recent study was conducted with managers (quoted in Singh, 2004) in the Indian subsidiary of an American company (to represent the private sector) as well as with managers at a government-owned bank (to represent the public sector). The purpose was to understand how those managers define and perceive leadership. To support this study, a media analysis was also undertaken and the contents of two prominent newspapers were scanned to gauge the commonly held views about leadership. The results of the research are summarised as follows: six characteristics seem to be most strongly associated with effective leadership in India. Communication and direction are the most important, followed by vision, action-orientation, charisma, and change.
Relationship orientation seems to be a more important characteristic of effective leaders than performance or task orientation. At the aggregate level, the most effective leadership styles in India seem to be charismatic and action-oriented, autocratic and bureaucratic. The most effective leadership style in India would thus combine integrity, personal organisation, emphasis on action orientation, being a self starter, charisma and having an emphasis on collective orientation, with problem solving, being a visionary and entrepreneurial and inspirational abilities, in that order.

The findings of both qualitative and quantitative analyses are in general agreement on the importance of action-orientation and charisma, and these can therefore be considered to be the most important characteristics for effective leadership in India. Four characteristics – communication, direction, vision, and change-orientation – which the qualitative analysis found to be important did not attain the same level of importance in the quantitative analysis. Similarly, being bureaucratic, autocratic, and collectivistic, which emerged as important in the quantitative analysis, were not as prominent in the qualitative analysis. In part, this could be a function of the two methodologies – qualitative and quantitative. It may also be a reflection of the complexity of India, which has been described as “a land famous for extremes”. Collectivism and humane orientation continue to be the most important characteristics. The society appears to be in a period of major transition towards power equalisation. At the same time, there is an increasing preference for individualism.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO JOB VALUES

A review of research literature pertaining to the problem revealed that comparative studies of job values dimensions in respect of other variables have not been
explored thoroughly. As a matter of fact the educational and psychological research on job values has not received a great deal of attention for a long time. The obvious reason was that the concept of ‘values’ and then ‘job values’ was complex and seemed somewhat ‘mentalistic’ which rendered it difficult to fit into the structure of laboratory experiment of mental testing projects. But in recent years they are gaining significant place in the dimension of behavioural patterns. The most researches that have been done already were related to the ‘work values’ and ‘occupational values’, which are explained in the following along with studies related to job values.

Konrad (2000) indicated that traditionally gender roles assign men the role of income provider and women the role of homemaker. Lacy et al. (1980) reports that men more than women value high earnings. Job security is more important to men because it helps to ensure the ability to generate income and provide for the family’ needs (Konrad et al., 2000). Lacy et al. (1980) reports that women more than men value good hours and an easy commute. Covenience geographic location is more important to women because as homemaker she must follow the income provider’s job location. Caring for the family is difficult for jobholders who travel. Because of this, women are less likely than men to desire jobs that require travel (Konrad et al., 2000). William and Bess (1990) consider preference for achievement and autonomy as belonging to masculine stereotype. According to Thompson et al. (1992) men are less likely than women to express a desire for a comfortable work environment. William and Best (1990) found that females are more associated with the trait of affiliation and so they seek numerous personal friendships. Stein and Bailey (1973) found that females have greater need for social approval.
Feather and Rauter (2004) investigated organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) in a sample of 154 school teachers from Victoria, Australia, of whom 101 were in permanent employment and 53 on fixed-term contracts. Participants completed measures of OCBs, job insecurity, organisational commitment, organisational identification, job satisfaction and work values relating to influence, variety and school utilisation. Results showed that the contract teachers reported more job insecurity and more OCBs compared to the permanent teachers. OCBs were positively related to perceived job insecurity and negatively related to opportunities to satisfy influence and skill-utilisation work values for the contract teachers and positively related to organisational commitment, organisational identification and to opportunities to satisfy variety and skill-utilisation work values for the permanent teachers.

Johnson (2001) conducted a panel study of young people in the US, which addressed a set of interrelated questions on how job values change during the transition of adulthood, indicating whether the gender differences in job values apparent in adolescence persist across the transition to adulthood and whether young men’s and women’s job values change in similar ways. The data were from a panel component of the Monitoring the Future study, a cross-sectional survey of the US high school seniors carried out annually since 1976. Data from the senior year and the seventh biennial follow-up were utilised, participants were approximately 31-32 years old at the time of the seventh follow-up. The findings indicated that there was a good deal of instability in job values during this stage of the life course, as young people make the transition from student to adult worker. Gender differences in job values narrow in the process, though
do not disappear. For both males and females, job values change in response to the attainment of value rewards and not in response to their family roles.

Isaksson, Johansson, Bellaagh, and Sjoberg (2004) examined employment status change (e.g. from work to unemployment) and work values development in a 15-month time period, using longitudinal data from a Swedish representative sample (888). Furthermore, the relationship between employment status change and well being was explored, with a special focus on the roles played by work values and gender differences. Results indicating that work values are fairly stable over 15 months. As expected, the long-term unemployed (mostly active job seekers) had higher measures of work involvement after 15 months. Further, no gender difference was found with regard to work involvement but females were more likely to agree that there is an entitlement to work. Becoming unemployed was associated with negative health effects, but only among unemployed men.

Super (1962) and Roe (1956) held that persons who have similar values will select similar occupations and conversely those persons who are in similar occupations will have similar values with regard to age, sex, marital status.

Suryanarayana Reddy and Govinda Reddy (2003) in their study on gender and work value preferences indicate that females rated the work value of facilitating work environment and congenial social relationship as significantly more important than males, whereas males considered the work value of authority and status and travel abroad as significantly more important than females. With regard to these four work values, the males and females seem to be retaining their traditional roles and stereotypes. The study also reveals that males and females have scored alike on the importance of the work
values, namely, professional skill development, job security, fringe benefits and leisureliness in the job. Males and females are converging on these work values due to pressures of modern times.

Pestonjee, Akhtar, and Chowdhary (1981) conducted an investigation on occupational values of male and female students in Aligarh Muslim University and Banaras Hindu University. Centres’ Job Values Card was used. Result indicating that social service, fame and security were found to be the three most preferred values and power, leadership, and self-expressions were least preferred values in the male post-graduate whereas in the under-graduate males, self-expression, power, and independence values were least preferred. In the under-graduates and post-graduates, social service, security, and interest were the most preferred values. Among the least preferred values in two groups of females were power, self-expression, leadership, and profit respectively.

Brenner, Balzinin, and Greenhaus (1988) investigated race and sex differences in the work value of white male and female and black male and female managers. Results indicated that white female placed more importance on extrinsic outcomes (e.g., respect from others) than white males. Whereas, black males rated extrinsic outcomes as more importance in independence than did whites and women placed greater emphasis intrinsic job characteristic (e.g. task variety, feelings of accomplishment) than did men. White males placed less emphasis in intrinsic/extrinsic outcomes than the other groups and displayed relatively little value for job independence.

Poonam (1996) investigated effects of stress on job satisfaction and work values among female teachers of secondary schools, indicating that the work values were related to economic return, social services, intellectual challenge, power, independence, chances
of progress, material handled, adventure, associates, surrounding and variety. In the study, stress was found to be negatively related to work values.

Sinha and Yunus (2000) conducted a study on values and personality dispositions of university teachers on two samples, 200 male teachers and 200 female teachers of Bhagalpur university. Out of 200 males and 200 females, 100 males and 100 females were from colleges situated in rural areas and 100 males and 100 females were from colleges situated in urban areas. The following were the findings: (i) the female respondents were more political than male respondents. (ii) The rural respondents were more social, religious, and economic than urban respondents. (iii) The younger respondents were more economic and aesthetic than elders. There was a significant difference between male and female teachers in every value system, Machiavellianism, Internal LOC (Locus of Control) and Chance LOC. There was no significant difference between the two sexes in powerful others scores. (iv) A significant difference was found between urban and rural samples in respect of Machiavellianism, Chance LOC and above 45 years age group. A part of this, attempts were also made to find out the difference between urban and rural male teachers in respect to different values, Mach and LOC and no significant difference was found in value system and Machiavellianism. Further, the female urban and female rural were compared and no difference was found in powerful others, aesthetic value, social value and religious value. The urban male and female teachers differed from each other on every value system, Machiavellianism and Chance LOC. The rural male and female teachers differed from each other on different values, Machiavellianism, Internal LOC and Chance LOC.
Havalappanavar (1998) in an investigation on work values of professional and non-professional college students in Hubli-Dharwad, Belgaum and Bangalore, using Super’s “Work Values Inventory”, found that the professional college students – agriculture, engineering, and medical – differ significantly in seven work values, namely, management, achievement, surrounding, way of life, independence, economic return, and altruism, out of fifteen different work values. The students of non-professional college – arts, commerce, and science – differ significantly in three work values – creativity, intellectual stimulation, and associate. He also found that the two groups – professional and non-professional college students – differ significantly in ten work values. The professional college students have more developed work values than the non-professional college students.

Gray (as cited in Venkataiah and Sandhya, 2004) studied the comparison of work values of secondary school teachers, engineers, and accountants. Career and prestige were the prime factors for engineers and accountants and the teachers preferred social rewards.

Harvey, Carter, and Mudimo (2000) compared work values and attitudes for 117 African and 82 British managers and management students. They predicted that African would place more importance on status, prestige and positions as motivators would be less likely to accept criticism, and rate courtesy, social approval and loyalty more favourably than British respondents. Existing scales of social approval and derived need satisfaction modified and a third one constructed in order to obtain the measurements. The results confirmed the hypothesis related to status, prestige, and position; tentatively
supported that related to social approval; partly confirmed the hypothesis for loyalty; and the results for courtesy and acceptance of criticism were found proven.

Halaby (2003) developed a framework for conceptualising preferences for different job properties in terms of a trade-off between risk and return in the pursuit of economic welfare. Following portfolio theory, job properties were viewed as having mean-variance properties with respect to the distribution of rates of growth in economic welfare. Actors may pursue a high-return, high-risk ‘entrepreneurial’ strategy, or a low-return, low-risk ‘bureaucratic’ strategy. An actor’s choice was determined by ‘entrepreneurial ability’ and risk preferences, which in turn are rooted in the major dimensions of family and schooling background, cognitive ability, and gender. This theory was tested by anchoring it in the Wisconsin status attainment model and then fitting rank-ordered logit modes to data from the 1957 to 1992 Wisconsin Longitudinal Survey. The findings supported the theory: actors who were ‘advantaged’ with respect to family background, schooling, cognitive ability, and gender expressed a preference for ‘entrepreneurial’ as opposed to ‘bureaucratic’ job properties. Findings also highlighted the strong parallels between the process generating adult job values and the process of socio-economic achievement itself.

Bhargava (1997) in a study aimed to examine the main effect of job prospect on preference for rewards of prospective managers, indicating that statistical treatment, as per requirement of data shows non-significant main effect of background and psychological factors on rewards selected in the study. All students had high job prospect in this study and exhibited similar pattern of reward preference. Small sample size and high job prospect for all could be the possible reasons for non-significant main effect of
the factors. In general, trend of reward preference of the prospective managers was same for all sub-groups. It was visible that the management students preferred higher pay but they emphasised on the intrinsic rewards like responsibility, recognition and interesting work. This reflects that the management graduates of the repute institute of India can not be motivated and retained to the organisations by attractive perks only. Organisations have to improve their quality of work and prepare a culture conducive to them. The least preferred rewards in this study were luxury life, power and security. Were they not important to them? The investigator indicated that analysis of their interviews revealed that subjects treated least important rewards as the outcome the intrinsic rewards. The study found that prospective managers value self-respect (individual), achievement (outcome), personal hygiene (physical health), and family’s future security (moral) as important values of their life. They gave least importance to the manipulation, dependency, and spiritual life. This finding is important revealing value framework of our tomorrow’s managers. Most striking finding was that variation in their personal, social, psychological, and background did not alter their main value structure.

Suryanarayana Reddy and Govinda Reddy (2001) showed that intrinsic work values were the most important in MBA students’ job selections. The extrinsic values of total pay, prestige and status and friendly and comfortable environment were considered as the second most important values. The least important work values were security, convenient work place location, opportunities to travel and fringe benefits. MBA students aspired to get jobs in the private enterprises. This might be the reason why they did not give important to job security.
Agnes Rezler (as cited in Sinha and Yunus, 2000) examined the occupational values and occupational choices of young Indians. His hypothesis that occupational values would reflect traditional values but those occupational choices would be guided by emergent values proved valid.

Pestonjee’s and Akhtar’s study (1981) highlights the importance of occupational values of university teachers. Two groups of science (106) and engineering (87) teachers were selected from Aligarh Muslim University, and Banaras Hindu University. The Job Value Cards developed by Centres (1984) were used. The result indicates that median occupational values of two groups were found to be nearly identical except that science teachers preferred ‘independence’ significantly more than their engineering counterparts. The main findings were that the most preferred ‘self-expression’ and the least preferred ‘leadership’ values were common for the two groups, besides the fact that these two groups had other common value preferences as well.

Rao, Reddy, and Samuliah (1997) in a study on differences between hardcore Type ‘A’ and Type ‘B’ individuals in respect of their preference for different work values, showed that there were significant differences between the two types of individual and the following work values: creativity, management, supervisory relations, security, prestige, independence, variety, economic returns, altruism, and intellectual stimulation.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO SCHOOL [ORGANISATIONAL] CLIMATE

School climate was referred to as “the general flow of behaviour and feelings in groups in a school” (Halpin and Crofts, 1962). The concept was then, thought of as a quality of interaction between person and environment (Rensis Likert, 1961; Roger
Backer, 1968). It was Scoll (1963) who introduced the Systems Theory Model to the study of organisational climate and then school (as an organisation) climate. Brown (1965) refers to organisational climate as the cathartic patterns giving identity to sub-groups and interpersonal relations in a living organisation.

Sharma (1969), Sharma, Buch and Rai (1971), Mubayi and Sharma (1971) found that schools differ in terms of their climates (environment). Sharma (1971) found that students’ academic performance has significant relationship with school climate. Sharma and Santhanam (1971 and 1972) studied relationship of school climate with classroom teacher behaviour. Sharma and Quraishi (1972) explored relationship between school climate and teachers’ morale. In all studies, a significant relationship was found.

Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) observed that an organisation might be seen as performing two major functions, that of production and that of creating and distributing satisfaction among the individual members of the organisation. According to Gulick and Urwick (1937), Urwick (1943), Mooney and Reiley (1939) and Dennison (1931) organisation may be viewed from two stand points which are analytically distinct, but which are empirically united in a context of reciprocal consequences. On the one hand any concrete organisational system in an economy; at the same time, it is an adaptive social structure.

What differences individual variables create in perceptions of Climate? Personality, cognitive, and demographic (e.g. gender) differences among workers may all be hypothesised, but research has examined little directly the relationship between these variables and perceptions of climate. Few exceptions have been examined gender differences in perceptions of climate (e.g. Booth and Lantz, 1977; Hoiberg, 1978 as cited
in Hershberger, Lichtenstein, and Knox, 1994). However, some researchers studied relationship between demographic variables like sex, age, and type of school, on the one hand and perceptions about school climate on the other. Oparaji (1988) found that age, grade level, taught years of teaching experience and size of student population were not relevant factors when teachers’ perception of the organisational climate was considered. McGrath (1991) stated that no significant associations were found between students’ perceptions of school climate and age. Garcia (1994) indicated that teachers over the age 47 years perceived the climate differently from the lower age group. Lund-Glassman (1999) found that the sex of the principal did not have a significant relationship to school climate. Louw (1989), Sharma and Gaba (1989), and McGrath (1991) found that there was no statistically significant relationship between the type of school and organisational climate. Natarajan (2001) conducted a comparative study of organisational climate of government and private secondary schools of Tarupattur district in Tamil Nadu. He found a greater number of private schools with open climate and greater number of government schools with familiar climate. Many researchers have come to the conclusion that teachers of an open climate school tend to work more effectively and derive more job satisfaction than the teachers working under closed climate school (Pandey, 1989).

An important factor asks, does school climate improve student achievement or does high student achievements produce improved school climate? Hoy, Hannum, and Tschannen-Moran (1998) suggest that school climate affects achievement but the reverse is also true. The two are mutually dependent. The researchers make no claim to demonstrate causality, but rather theoretically “it seems reasonable to assume a reciprocal relationship between climate and achievement”. The researchers do not equate student
achievement with effectiveness because achievement is just one facet of school effectiveness. School effectiveness also involves other outcomes such as social-emotional growth, satisfaction of teachers and goal accomplishment.

Sharma (1974), in his investigation into the organisational climate of secondary schools of Rajasthan, aimed at identifying and classifying the organisational climate of the sampled schools; comparing schools of various types, investigating relationship between organisational climate and faculty size, faculty experience, faculty age and experience of the headmasters, relationship between organisational climate and teachers satisfaction; investigating relationship between organisational climate and school effectiveness and relationship between school organisational climate and leadership behaviour. In this investigation, in addition to identifying the eight dimensions of organisational climate given by Halpin, some new dimensions, namely, psychological hindrance, alienation, controls and humanised thrust were also found out with respect to the principal’s behaviour. Significantly positive correlations were found between (i) faculty age and ‘disengagement’, (ii) faculty size and ‘disengagement’, (iii) teacher satisfaction and school climate, (iv) headmasters effectiveness and school climate, (v) leadership behaviour of the principals and school climate, (vi) school academic achievement index and humanised thrust, and (vii) school climate and teachers’ satisfaction, headmaster’s effectiveness and school effectiveness.

A few studies that have been carried out on the relation between organisational climate and sex of teachers yielded contradictory results. Brinkmeyer (1968), Winter (1968) and Sahasrabudhe (1977) reported that sex of the teachers was significantly related to the organisational climate. Contrarily, Gandhi (1977), Varshneya (1981),
Timothy (1989) and Yasoda (1990) observed that both men and women teachers had the same perception of the organisational climate of their schools. Babu and Reddy (1996) also in their study on organisational climate of schools in relation to type of school and sex of teachers in secondary schools of Rayalaseema of Andhra Pradesh indicated that when the schools were categorised as open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal and closed based upon their climate, there was not much difference between the number of residential and non-residential schools falling under different climates. In terms of percentage of schools falling under open or autonomous climate in contrast to paternal or closed-climate residential schools seem to be at an advantage. There was greater intimacy and lesser disengagement, hindrance and aloofness in residential schools compared to non-residential schools. Women perceived greater consideration, while men perceived greater hindrance in the organisational climate of their schools.

Jamnalal Bayti (1970) made a comparative study of the organisational climate in Rajasthan schools. His main objectives were to find out the patterns of organisational climate of urban and rural schools and also to ascertain whether there existed sex and area difference in the dimension of the organisational climate of schools. His findings included (i) teachers of girl’s schools perceived the climate of their schools as controlled as compared with boy’s schools. (ii) The dimension of ‘disengagement’ was found to be high in boy’s schools compared to the girl’s schools. (iii) The intensity of ‘thrust’ was found to be significantly high in girls than boys, and (iv) schools having open and autonomous climates were found to have a significantly high achievement index as compared with closed climate.
Khan (1995) in a study on organisational climate of schools in Hyderabad in relation to pupil’s academic achievements concluded that there was not significant difference in the organisational climate of boys’ schools, girls’ schools, and co-education schools under private management and that they have similar type of climate, which is not the case with the schools under government management. Significant difference was found between boys’ and girls’ schools and also between girls’ and co-education schools under government management. It is also interesting to note that there was a positive relationship between the openness of climate and pupils’ achievements. The percentage of passes in the SSC examination for the past two years of each school has been taken to see the relationship between the organisational climate and the schools and the SSC results. It was observed that for the schools with an open climate, the SSC result is encouraging (above 75 per cent) while those with a closed climate have a result as low as 5-10 per cent, which is negligible.

Arani and Abbasi (2004) conducted a comparative study on influence of gender and type of school on organisational climate of secondary schools in Iran and India. They found that there was a significant difference between teachers in Iran and India in four dimensions of organisational climate. In three dimensions of organisational climate, namely, ‘Disengagement’, ‘Esprit’, and ‘Production emphasis’, Indian teachers scored significantly higher than Iranian teachers. The level of ‘Disengagement’ was high among men teachers in India. In India, the level of ‘Esprit’ was high among men teachers compared to other teachers. In India men teachers believed that the level of ‘Production emphasis’ as one dimension of organisational climate was high in their schools. Finally, there was a significant difference between the two countries in terms of ‘Intimacy’.
behaviour in organisational climate of schools. It was found higher among men teachers in Iran. It is interesting to note that in both the countries, teachers believed that among all dimensions of SOC, dimensions related to teachers’ behaviour had effect on organisational climate of schools. In both the countries, gender of teachers was not a significant variable to affect organisational climate of schools. However, the main differences between male and female teachers were only on two dimensions of organisational climate. For female teachers the main dimension was ‘Humanised thrust’ which refers to the behaviour of the principal, whereas, the main dimension for male teachers was ‘Intimacy’ which refers to the behaviour of the teachers. They showed also that in both the countries, type of school had no influence on teachers’ perception about organisational climate of schools. At the item level (8 dimensions of SOC), there was little evidence of significance type of school with only two items for government and private schools showing evidence of significant of ‘Esprit’ and ‘Humanised thrust’. It was found that in government schools, the level of ‘Esprit’ among teachers was more as compared with private school teachers. ‘Humanised thrust’ as one of the principal’s behaviours had more effect on organisational climate of private schools than government schools.

Pandya (1991) made an investigation on the classroom climate in schools under different types of management. The main aim of the study was to compare the classroom climate in schools under different types of management. The conclusion was that dimensions of classroom climate of students coming from aided and central schools do not differ significantly from each other, but the students coming from municipal schools differ significantly.
Feldvebel (1964) investigated two possibilities while defining the organisational climate: (i) that organisational climate was a function of the socio-economic status of the school community that the school serves, and (ii) that the output of the school, as measured by standard achievement tests, was a function of the organisational climate as well as the socio-economic status of the school community.

Gentry and Kenny (1965) conducted a comprehensive study of the organisational climates of Negro and White elementary schools. They found that the Negro faculty tend to view their schools as falling on the ‘closed’ climate continuum (paternalistic or closed), while White teachers see their schools having a bipolar distribution of the climate (open or paternalistic).

Plaxton (1965) found stronger relationship (0.61) between teachers’ satisfaction and school climate and an even stronger relationship (0.68) between teachers’ satisfaction and ‘Esprit’. Seven such test scores (Thrust, Esprit, Intimacy, Production Emphasis, Disengagement, Consideration and Hindrance) were related significantly and in a predictable fashion to principal’s effectiveness. Teachers’ rating of school effectiveness was correlated most highly with ‘Esprit’ (0.59) and climate (Spearman’s Rank Coefficient 0.61). Another important finding of this study was that ‘disengagement’ was also strongly associated with this variable, the relationship being significantly negative (-0.42). On the basis of his research, Plaxton concluded that the sub-tests of the Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire provided reasonably valid measures of important aspects of the school principal’s leadership.

Halpin (1966) conducted a study related to validity of Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). He concluded that OCDQ was as valid for other
kinds of schools as it was for elementary schools. The OCDQ in its relationship with the characteristics of school staff demonstrated a large number of relationship, which were consistent with theory, but some were equivocal and none was found to be inconsistent. Furthermore, he concluded that the sub-tests of the OCDQ provided reasonably valid measures of important aspects of the school principals.

Paredes and Frazer (1992) in their studied on school climate in Austin Independent School District found that (i) school climate results have been stable over the last 4 years. (ii) Students and teachers have similar perceptions of school climate, but teachers are more positive than students. (iii) High schools with positive climates have higher rates of learning and lower dropout rates. (iv) Teachers’ expectations for student success and teachers’ instructional goals had the most significant impact on students’ achievement; and (v) school climate scores and socio-economic status both predict dropout rates, but school climate scores are the better predictors.

Crowder (1982) made a comparative study of the relationship between level of implementation of middle school characteristics and students’ perceptions of school climate. This study examined the relationship between the level of implementation of eleven selected middle school characteristics and students’ perceptions of school climate. The findings indicated that middle school characteristics are related to school climate factors. Examination of the specific areas of significant correlation revealed that opportunities for input were the most significantly related school climate factors to certain middle school characteristics. The climate factor ‘high morale’ was also a characteristic.
Valdez (1989) made an investigation on school climate as perceived by the professional faculty of bilingual and regular elementary schools in the North East independent school districts, San Antonio, Texas. The primary purpose of this study was to examine the school climate of the bilingual and regular elementary schools of the North East independent school district in San Antonio, Texas, as perceived by the professional faculties of said schools. The investigation led to the following conclusions: (i) in all the six elementary schools, the learning climate could be described as open. (ii) All the faculties perceived the leadership behaviours of their principals to be open. However, it was the perception in five of the six schools that the faculties of these schools have limited participation in the decision-making process. (iii) The freedman factor of the LCI was perceived to be open. However, it was felt that faculty members were not free to engage in the discussion of controversial topics. (iv) The perception of the faculties concerning evaluation could be described as closed. (v) The faculties consistently responded that they felt pressured to “teach to the test”. (vi) Responses to the LCI indicated that the faculties were satisfied with their teaching situations. The researcher made the following recommendations: (i) the district should examine other indicators of schools’ effectiveness in addition to the climate perceptions. (ii) The principals should increase faculty participation in the decision-making process. (iii) The district should examine the evaluation process to involve administrators, teachers and students.

Hattler (1991) studied “school climate factors” in four public high schools in Yamagata Prefecture, Japan. The problem of this study was to compare school climate, as measured by the general climate factors in four selected public high schools in Japan. The study found that school climate was different as perceived by students in the four schools.
Mendoza (1991) examined the catholic school culture and its relationship to the effectiveness of catholic school education. The purpose of this study was to ascertain the cultural factors believed to influence student academic achievement, aspiration and self-concept. The interviews, observations and surveys indicate that the catholic schools influence students positively due to a culture of values founded in the Catholic Church.

Moore (1991) conducted an investigation on the relationship between organisational climate and student academic achievement, student attendance and student needs. This study investigated organisational climate as perceived by students and its relationship with student academic achievement, student attendance and student needs in a large southern urban school district. The findings revealed that there was a significant composite relationship between organisational climate and student academic achievement, student attendance and student needs.

Price (1991) studied the effects of organisational climate on elementary school academic achievement in the Judson independent school district. An analysis of the data led the researcher to conclude that the relationship between organisational climate and the mean achievement scores was a high positive correlation and the mean achievement score of the more open schools was significantly higher than the less open school.

Ekambaram (1980) made a study of an experiment in creating an effective school climate. The major objectives of the study were: (i) to change the teachers’ verbal behaviour by proper training and regular feedback program, (ii) to study the effectiveness of the input in bringing about changes in respect of organisational climate, leadership behaviour and teachers’ morale, (iii) to study the effects of sustained changed behaviour
on students’ performance, and (iv) to study the effects of changed teachers’ behaviour on variables such as pupils’ academic motivation, classroom trust, adjustment, dependency, independency, initiative, activity level, classroom integration level and classroom climate. The major findings of the investigation were: (i) as a result of teacher behaviour training and regular feedback, the teachers changed their behaviour in the experimental group; (ii) pupils’ academic motivation level was significant at 0.01 level in the experimental group; (iii) the classroom climate components such as productivity, legitimacy, authenticity and total classroom climate showed significant mean gain scores with respect to experimental groups; and (iv) the increase was more in experimental group one than in experimental group two, which was the result of regular feedback giving to them during the experimental period.

Natarajan (2001) has done a study on organisational climate and teacher morale. The findings showed significant difference on all dimensions of teacher morale over six types of organisational climate. Conducive climate and high morale among teachers would lead to good esprit and intimacy and consequently to the equality out put. The teacher morale was found to be high in the open climate and declines continuously and teachers low in the closed climate. In the open climate the authenticity emerged from all teachers. They satisfied both the social needs and job accomplishment needs. The esprit was very high. In the closed climate, the authenticity emerged only from the headmaster. The teachers neither satisfied their social needs nor job accomplishment need. There was low esprit among them. It was apathy on the part of all members of the school. The investigator indicated that it was natural that the teachers working in schools of open type
of climate had high morale and those who are working in schools having closed type of climate had low morale.

Shah (1987) made a study of the impact of school climate on students and their teachers in Aligarh district. The objectives of the study were: (i) to find out if there were various types of school climate in different schools; (ii) to find out the impact of different types of school climates on the teacher’s personality and his performance; (iii) to find out the impact of school climate on the adjustment of students; (iv) to find out the impact of different types of school climate on the self-concept of students; and (v) to find out the impact of different types of school climate on academic achievement of students. The study yielded the following findings: (i) each institution possessed a specific school climate, which had no influence on the teachers’ personality. (ii) The students’ perception of their teachers was not similar in all the schools. All male and female teachers (urban and rural) had more or less similar personality with slight differences. Among the urban population, the sex differences in students’ perception were prominent in the paternal type of school climate. Among the rural population, the differences in students’ perception in controlled, paternal and closed climates were significant. (iii) Adjustment made positive contribution to achievement; differences in adjustment were significant between the urban males and females. The differences of the means of adjustment between the rural males and females were not significant. (iv) In different school climates, the differences in adjustment were significant (autonomous climate). The results were just the opposite in the case of controlled, paternal and closed climate. (v) Adjustment was an important contribution to achievement. (vi) The school climate did not affect the adjustment. (vii) The school climate had an impact on achievement of
the students in schools with different climates in the rural and urban. (viii) Achievement of girls was better in both rural and urban areas; and it was the highest in closed climate, next in paternal and autonomous climates, and the lowest in the familiar climate. (ix) Achievement was significantly related to intelligence. (x) The differences between the self-concept of males and females were significant and the self-concept of the urban females was quite high. Differences were significant in the case of the four populations; and (xi) there was no impact of the school climate on the self-concept of the students.

Rastogi (1981) made an investigation on school climate, psychological health and classroom functioning of students in relation to their satisfaction-dissatisfaction with school. The aims of the investigation were: (i) to study the students’ satisfaction-dissatisfaction with school in different organisational climates; (ii) to study the school climate, psychological health of students and their classroom functioning in relation to their satisfaction-dissatisfaction with school; and (iii) to compare highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied students on psychological health variables and their classroom functioning, both urban and rural separately and as a whole. The findings of the investigation were: (i) the total climate differentiated satisfaction – dissatisfaction of the students with their schools. The students were more satisfied in open range climate schools (open and autonomous) and comparatively less satisfied in closed range climate schools (paternal and closed); (ii) the organisational climate of the schools did not seem to be related to satisfaction-dissatisfaction of the students; (iii) self-concept and psychological needs had significant relationship with the students’ satisfaction-dissatisfaction with the school; (iv) curvilinear relationship existed between psychological health, classroom functioning, socio-economic status and intelligence of
the students and their satisfaction-dissatisfaction with the school; (v) self-concept and EPPS needs were the chief contributors to the variance in satisfaction-dissatisfaction of the students with their school; (vi) intelligence and socio-economic status did not intervene in the relationship of different variables included in the study with satisfaction-dissatisfaction of the students with their school, expect for anxiety; (vii) both extrinsic and intrinsic factors linked with satisfaction-dissatisfaction of the students; (viii) factorial pattern for the highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied students were different where high dissatisfied was associated with unconducive school conditions only; (ix) psychological health profiles were significantly different for the highly satisfied and the highly dissatisfied students, especially their need profiles and self-concept; (x) need profiles for the urban highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied students were significantly different on many of the psychological needs, while those for the rural ones were almost homogenous; and (xi) the urban students were less satisfied than the rural students.

Gupta and Kapoor (1985) made a study on school innovations in relation to institutional climate. The objectives of the study were: (i) to explore relationship between the innovativeness of the school, the perceived needs of the pupils and the perceived press of the institution; (ii) to study the relationship between the enrolment and the size of school, and the innovativeness of the school; (iii) to explore the relationship between the innovativeness of the school and teacher – taught ratio; and (iv) to study the relationship between the institutional climate and the communication patterns of teachers. The major findings were (i) schools with high perceived needs of pupils and high perceived press were significantly more innovative; (ii) schools with big enrolment were significantly innovative, as compared to the schools with small enrolment; (iii) schools where the
teacher – taught ratio was low and significantly more innovative than those where the teacher – taught ratio was high; and (iv) communication patterns varied with significant institutional climate.

Anand (1992) conducted an investigation on organisational climate in schools. The study included 410 students of four schools. The following were the findings: (i) there was a close positive relationship between the roles played by the students, teachers, principal, administration and services available in the school to develop its desirable organisational climate. (ii) The principal of a school was expected to play a pivotal role in the generation of a conductive and congenial teaching-learning situation in the school. (iii) The quality of education depends upon the quality of prevailing organisational climates in schools.

Jani (1993) in a study on organisational climate of a few selected secondary schools under different managements of Ulhasnagar and its neighbourhood, indicating that schools of different media showed considerable differences in the dimension of organisational climates. More percentage of English and Sindhi medium schools had shown open climate. There existed positive relationship between type of organisational climate and co-curricular activities. Investigator also concluded that variations of climate were observed in schools where only girls were studying.

Arani (2003) in his comparative study on secondary school teachers’ job satisfaction in relation to their value orientation and school organisational climate in Iran and India indicated that there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction of teachers and school climate in both the countries. The study revealed that there were significant relationships among all sub-factors of teachers’ job satisfaction and six
dimensions of school organisational climate in both the countries – Iran and India. Also results indicated that school organisational climate had more effect on Indian teachers’ job satisfaction than their counterparts in Iran. It has been shown also that there were significant relationships among some sub-factors of job satisfaction and their values and school organisational climate. Only ‘social values’ among all the values and three school organisational climate, namely, ‘disengagement’, ‘esprit’, and ‘alienation’ have influence on teachers’ job satisfaction in both the countries.

Natarajan (2001) in a study on school organisational climate and job satisfaction of teachers indicated that the organisational climate differed from school to school. The job satisfaction of teachers differed significantly in relation to the type of school climate. An open school climate was helpful for a very high level of job satisfaction among postgraduate teachers of higher secondary schools.

Mathur and Khurana (1996) conducted a study on teachers’ perception of school climate and self-actualisation, implied that the teachers who were self-actualising perceived less disengagement and hindrance on the dimensions of teachers’ behaviour and less aloofness in principals’ behaviour. High self-actualising teachers’ perception of less intimacy indicated that their social needs were not being fulfilled. However, this is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment. In general, the self-actualising teachers perceived the organisational climate of their schools as more open than closed. The results revealed also that it was likely that the relationship between self-actualisation and school climate may differ in various types of schools.

Studies referred above have indicated that school climate is related with many variables. Results have indicated that school environment warrants our immediate
attention. Thus, since background variables seem to impact variables like school organisational climate, any possible links between these variables and school organisational climate are very important and should be examined. Another purpose of this study was to investigate whether any differences exist in the measures of schools climate when Iranian teachers are compared with Indian teachers.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND JOB VALUES

Richard Prince (as cited in Sandhya, 1999) in his doctoral study on individual values and administrative effectiveness in school situation constructed a questionnaire on the basis of the formulation of traditional emergent values and found that the teachers have more emergent values than the principals. This lends credence to the premise that the institutional head and the teachers play a significant role in value development. He found a great difference in pupil-teacher values in the low teacher effectiveness group than in the high teacher effectiveness group meaning student ‘A’ whose values were similar to his teachers described his teachers more favourably than did student ‘B’ whose values were dissimilar to his teacher.

Kim Hyo Sum (quoted in Sandhya, 1999) studied the relationship existing between developmental value orientation of school personnel and organisational climate of a school. It was an attempt to determine the impact of the school principals value orientation and teacher groups value orientation of the organisational climate of the school. The study established that principals in schools with ‘open’ climate had relatively high development oriented values and principals in ‘closed’ climate schools had non-development-oriented values.
Diwan (1993) in a study on leadership behaviour and value patterns among school principals of secondary schools of West District of Delhi indicated that: (i) the principals behaved in accordance with the demands of situation. (ii) Value patterns possessed by school principals depended upon their liking and disliking of certain things. In the organisational context, they held beliefs specific to the importance they placed. (iii) The value patterns possessed by school principals and the leadership behaviour differed with the nature of institution. (iv) The principals of government schools for boys and girls separately showed possession of all the three dimensions of value patterns including personal, functional, and relationship. They showed a similar kind of behaviour but principals of girls’ schools showed excelling performance in carrying out tasks through group involvement in decisions concerning school and maintaining better rapport than the principals of government boys’ schools. (v) All principals exhibited leadership behaviour in accordance with the value patterns they held. (vi) The behaviour of principals in making decisions in consonance with the beliefs they held played a dominant role in making the school principals acceptable to the group members. Once accepted by them, they enjoyed recognition making the members behave in a certain way by the force of values. The researcher indicated that this definitely renders the principal to be a successful leader.

Kumar (as cited in Secretary, NCERT, 2002) conducted a study in order to find out the relationship between principals’ work values, attitudes, self-concept, and their administrative effectiveness, separately as well as the combined effect of the three on administrative effectiveness of the principals. A sample of 45 principals was selected from all under-graduate and post-graduate colleges affiliated to Meerut University.
Findings revealed that work values of the principals were significantly related to administrative effectiveness. Power-based work value and job, freedom-based work value were found to be relevant aspects of effective administration. The principal’s attitude towards teachers, students, and ministerial staff was found to be contribution factor in their administrative functioning. Self-concept was not significantly related to administrative effectiveness. The principal’s work values, attitudes, and self-concept combined together were found to be related significantly with their administrative effectiveness.

Chen and Addi (1992) studied principals’ gender and work orientations of male and female teachers. Findings of a three-way analysis of covariance suggested that principals’ gender has significantly greater effect on teachers’ attitude than does teachers’ own gender; differences in the present school climate and leadership styles also depend more on the principals’ gender than on that of the teachers. Both male and female teachers experience of working under female principals differs from that of working under male principals; under male principals, all teachers have more seniority and higher professional rank than under female principals. Under female principals, all teachers, both male and female, with or without an administrative position, expressed more positive attitudes toward their work place than under male principals.

Labo (quoted in Sandhya, 1999) in a study of values manifested in principals with reference to institutional efficiency has made a detailed study of the key role of the institution and values nurtured by the principals. The results of the study showed that: (i) principals whose value system manifested a coreness achieve relatively higher degree of efficiency; (ii) a principal needs more than philosophy to be effective; (iii) to educate
his pupil and lead his staff, the principal must come across more as a person than as an administrator; (iv) when principal’s values manifest a coreness, the pupils’ observation show a greater congruence with the principals’ self assessment; (v) values need a nurturing atmosphere; and (vi) effective principals establish priorities, clarify values, and communicate them successfully. This is an important study as it establishes institutional efficiency as a key factor not merely in setting up high standards of education, but as a determinant of school culture, which sets the place for value education.

Darely and Hagenah (as cited in Sanghi, 1999) concluded that for the large majority of workers interest in work in primarily in terms of the subsistence income it provides, with other major human satisfaction being derived from sources extrinsic to work itself. Clark (1965) suggested that work even for lower level workers, has satisfaction in addition to the survival value of the wages it provides.

2.5 STUDIES RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AND SCHOOL CLIMATE

There are several researches regarding leadership effectiveness in relation to different variables. But the investigator concentrated on leadership effectiveness and behaviour with one independent variable i.e., school climate.

Educational leaders may influence the behaviour of others by creating work environments that enhance the personal growth of its members. Leaders may support efforts to encourage creativity, team building, and involvement in problem solving by all members of the organisation. This is the social-psychological environment of the organisation rather than the physical environment. This is the domain of organisational climate.
Some researchers postulate that leader effectiveness is contextually dependent (Griffith, 1999). Leadership theories (as cited in Griffith, 1999) such as Fiedler’s contingency leadership, Hollander’s transactional leadership, House’s path-goal leadership, and Bass’ transformational leadership “understand effective leadership as dependent on the appropriate match between leader behaviours and the nature of the organisational context and the environment in which the organisation operates” (Griffith, 1999).

Attri (2001) in a study on schools climate found that teachers working under trained principal were found highly energetic and enthusiastic i.e., esprit is high in these schools. The investigator found that there was high thrust and consideration of the part of the principal’s behaviour-pattern. It is interpreted that administrative personality of principals does have an impact on teachers that stimulate teachers to work sincerely for the benefit of the school. Principals without administrative background are not able to create an open climate in their school because they are not aware of human relation skills necessary for developing human relations in an institution. He indicated that hindrance was high because non-teaching work was mismanaged, overburdened teachers were not able to concentrate on teaching work leading, thereby, to low quality of academic achievement. They maintained no discipline and work culture in these schools was altogether missing.

Sharma (1973), and Sharma and Parham (1973) studied relationship between school climate and initiating in structure behaviour and ‘consideration behaviour’ of school headmaster respectively. Sharma (1972) studied school climate in relationship with leadership behaviour of the headmaster. Sharma (1975) also studied relationship of
school climate with school effectiveness, principal effectiveness and teacher satisfaction along with other variables. In all them, he found a significant relationship. Sharma (1974) found also headmaster’s effectiveness as significant predictor of school climate.

Mahashabde (1990) in a study on relationship between effectiveness of principals of polytechnics in Maharashtra State and institutional climate and some other variables found that the majority of principals have flexibility in varying their styles according to the situation. The relationship between leadership effectiveness and teachers’ morale was significant; that between leadership effectiveness and institutional climate was not significant; that between leadership effectiveness and job-satisfaction of teachers was not significant. Also no relationship was found between leadership effectiveness and students’ academic achievement.

Fattah (2000) conducted a study on relationship between the style of leadership and organisational climate with productivity of services rendered by principals at educational centre (secondary schools in the city of Tehran). The findings indicated that: (i) there was a relationship between the productivity of principals’ services at educational centres and leadership style; (ii) there was a relationship between the productivity of principals’ services at educational centres and organisational climate; and (iii) the recommended model verified six of the nine dimensions of organisational climate that were effective in increasing the productivity of principals’ services at educational centres, namely, identity, friendship, reward, conflict, support and risk-taking.

Walter (1989) examined relationship among school climate, leadership style and group interaction as perceived by teachers, selected parents and selected students in a medium-size Mississippi Delta school district. Parent dissatisfaction with the behaviour
of a junior high school principal provoked this study. Findings indicate that students were more satisfied with the school climate than parents and both students and parents were much more satisfied with it than were teachers. Teachers were very dissatisfied with the school climate as well as the principal’s leader behaviour.

Jenkins (1982) made a study on the relationship between school climate and personalities of elementary school principals. The purpose of the study was to determine if a relationship existed between the variables of elementary school principals’ personalities and the variables of their schools’ climates. Although no previous study found any significant relationship between personalities of school administrators and the climates of their schools, much has been written about the importance of the leader in the interactions and functions of an organisation. The four sets of variables found in the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Personality Inventory and their relationship to the seven variables found in the school climate profile were examined. No statistically significant relationships were found to exist in any of the twenty-eight tests.

Pillai (1966) made an investigation into the organisational and administrative factors, which affect the achievement of pupils in secondary schools. The major objective of the investigation was to find out how adequately schools were equipped for instruction and how far the proper atmosphere and incentives were provided for securing achievement. The findings were as follows: the space that was scarce in every school for the increasing number of pupils being admitted; temporary sheds were erected in a large number of schools; only a few schools had properly equipped laboratories; and in some schools no separate library room was provided.
Sharma (1975) made an investigation into school climate and the role of school administrator. His study yielded four new dimensions: (i) psychophysical hindrance, (ii) alienation, (iii) controls, and (iv) humanised thrust. The four common dimensions identified by Halpin and Crofts (1963) and others (i) disengagement, (ii) esprit, (iii) intimacy, and (iv) production emphasis.

Gupta (1978) made an investigation on leadership behaviour of secondary school headmasters in relation to their personality and the climate of their schools. The major objectives of the study were: (i) to identify and to classify the organisational climate of the secondary schools of Rajasthan; (ii) to study the leadership behaviour dimensions of the headmasters of secondary schools in Rajasthan having different types of school climate; (iii) to study the personality factors of the headmasters of schools having different types of school climate; and (iv) to examine the dimensions of leadership behaviour and the factors of personality of secondary school headmasters, which may be used as predictors of the school climate. The major findings of the study were: (i) headmasters of different types of school climate were found differ significantly on eight dimensions of Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) viz. demand – reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainly, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role-assumption, consideration, production – emphasis and superior-orientation; (ii) tolerance of uncertainly mean score was reported highest for headmasters of ‘paternal’ climate type and lowest for the ‘closed’ climate type; (iii) headmasters of ‘open’ climate type scored highest ‘integration’ mean score, whereas the same was lowest in the case of ‘closed’ climate type of schools; (iv) there was significantly positive relationship between school climate and all the different dimensions of LBDQ; and
(v) the following predictor variables for predicting the school climate were located:
(a) consideration (leadership behaviour dimension), (b) predictive accuracy (leadership
behaviour dimension), (c) expedient vs. conscientious (personality factor), (d) tough-
minded vs. tender-minded (personality factor), (e) practical vs. imaginative (personality
factor) and (f) group-dependent vs. self-sufficient (personality factor).

Coopert (1969) studied the relationship between the leader behaviour of
elementary school principals and organisational climate of the school in Thailand. He
found that the leader behaviour of elementary school principals exhibited bivariate
correlation to the organisational climate of their schools especially the observed
behaviour of elementary school principals.

Bukhair (1978) studied relationship between school climate and leadership
behaviour of elementary and secondary school principals. There was no statistically
significant relationship between school climate and leadership behaviour. The hypothesis
that the higher the leadership skills of the principal better the climate was also not
verified. The individual factors of school climate were analysed for significance. The
seven factors of climate identified by James Tunney and James Jenkins from the CPK
Ltd. school climate profiles were found independently of the leadership ability of the
principal.

Craig (1979) studied the effect of organisational climate and leadership behaviour
on teacher job satisfaction in selected schools. The study was designed to investigate
possible relationships of organisational climate, leader behaviour and job satisfaction.
The population for this study was 271 teachers from 21 schools of two Suburban school
districts in Dallas metropolis area. The instruments used were the OCDQ, LBDQ and
MSQ. Some of the findings were: teachers in the open climate had higher mean scores for teacher job satisfaction than did the teachers identified in schools of closed climate; teachers in the closed climate identified ability, social service and morale values as important aspects of job satisfaction; teachers in the open climate identified creativity, morale and social service as important aspects of job satisfaction.

Robinson (1980) studied influences of leader personalities and compatibility of leader follower personalities on the leadership effectiveness of male public secondary school principals in Louisiana. Forty male secondary school principals employed in public schools in Louisiana during the 1979-1980 year were randomly selected as the invited sample of the study. Six faculty members under the direct supervision of each principal were randomly selected in order to gather data related to the sample. The Gordon personal profile and Gordon personal inventory were the instruments used to collect data for the independent variables of personality characteristics of the leader and compatibility of leader follower personalities. The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire Form XII was used to collect data from the dependent variable of leadership effectiveness. Three components of leadership effectiveness were measured: overall, group-oriented and task-oriented. Among the primary conclusions of this study were the following: (i) male secondary school principals who exhibit characteristics of ascendency, original thinking and vigour demonstrate more effective leadership behaviour than male secondary school principals who do not exhibit such characteristics, (ii) the single most accurate predictor variable of leadership effectiveness of a male secondary school principal is his vigour, and (iii) a male secondary school principal's
responsibility, emotional stability, sociability, cautiousness or personal relations’ skills do not significantly affect leadership effectiveness.

Leonard (1981) studied organisational climate of elementary schools and leadership styles of their principals. Data were collected from 118 teachers and six principals from eleven elementary schools. The Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire was used to determine openness of organisational climate of each school. The style of leadership survey was used to determine leadership styles and teachers’ perception of principal’s leadership style. It was found that difference between self-reported and teacher perceived leadership styles existed. Also, it was found that little agreement existed between principal’s self-reported leadership styles and organisational climate of each school. It was also found from this study that differences between self-reported and teacher perceived leadership styles existed. Also it was found that little agreement existed between principal’s self-reported leadership styles and organisational climate, but that agreement did not exist between teachers’ perception of principal’s leadership and organisational climate.

Burke (1982) studied leadership styles of school principals as predictors of organisational climate and teachers’ job satisfaction. The sample consisted of eighteen principals drawn from a population of sixty elementary and secondary principals in the school district. The independent variable leadership style of the principal was determined by Fielder’s least preferred co-worker scale. In order to test the two dependent variables of climate and satisfaction, ten teachers were chosen at random from each of the eighteen buildings. These teachers were administered Halpin and Croft’s Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire and Smith, Kendall, and Hulin’s Job Descriptive Index. The
following were the conclusions: The study could not support a relationship between style and climate, leadership and satisfaction. However, the leadership styles among the eighteen sample principals were differentiated; most of the schools’ climates were perceived by the teachers as more closed than the open; most of the teachers were generally satisfied with their work, their supervisors and their co-workers; teachers were less satisfied with their pay; and the openness of the building climate was directly correlated with high satisfaction scores.

Dhanasobhon (1982) studied styles of secondary school principals as perceived by selected principals and teachers in Bangkok, Thailand. The Demographic Data Questionnaire and the LEAD instruments were used to collect the data for this investigation. The instruments were distributed to thirty-four secondary school principals and 340 secondary school teachers. The following were the conclusions: (i) the principals were perceived more frequently by themselves and their teachers as utilising leadership style; (ii) there was agreement among the perceptions of principals and teachers about leader effectiveness of secondary school principals; (iii) only one principal perceived himself as ineffective, but none of the teachers considered his principal ineffective; and (iv) sex, educational background and the number of years served in the current profession had no effect on the perceptions of the leadership styles of secondary school principals.

Hunter (1983) studied the relationship between administrative effectiveness and style on teacher morale in selected urban secondary schools in the greater Washington area. Sample group included 108 administrators (principals and vice-principals) and all teachers from public secondary schools. Two instruments, Leadership Ability Evaluation and Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire were used. The following were the conclusions:
(i) none of the leadership or demographic variables was related to morale; and
(ii) 67.5 per cent of the principals were rated as ineffective leaders and 50 per cent of the
teachers had low morale.

Edvin (1983) studied the relationship between leadership of the principals and
organisational climate of secondary schools of the Imo State of Nigeria. Two
questionnaires – the OCDQ and the LEAD – were distributed to 478 teachers, the
demographic questionnaire was developed and distributed to fifty principals. The
following were the results: (i) the dimensions of OCDQ of this study fall between
Halpin’s ‘open’ and ‘closed’; (ii) ‘intimacy’ was found to be best characteristic of the
teachers and ‘thrust’ the best of the principals; and (iii) the principal’s age, experience,
educational background and size of the school affected improvement of organisational
climate.

Sledge (1986) conducted an investigation on the views of principals and
classroom teachers towards selected principals of educational leadership and their
relationship to school climate within the Muscogee County School District, Columbus,
Nigeria. The views of 25 principals and 163 classroom teachers of the Muscogee County
School District towards principals of educational leadership and their perceptions of
school climate were investigated to determine what relationship, if any existed among
selected variables. It was concluded that significant differences existed between the views
of principals and classroom teachers in regard to educational leadership of principals
within the type of schools studied and the school system overall. A difference also
existed in perceptions of educational climate by principals and teachers in all cases.
Principals perceived a climate somewhere between controlled and autonomous on the
open side of the climate scale. On the other hand, a majority of teachers perceived that educational climate of the schools surveyed was closed.

Olson (1988) conducted a retrospective study of the relationship between organisational climate and leadership in a new community college. The study was conducted at Northeast Texas Community College (NTCC). The instrument used was the Roueche-Baker College Climate: Commitment to Excellence Survey (CES), a 26-item questionnaire based on concepts developed by Likert (1967). It was administered twice at an interval of seven months. The consistent scores on the instrument showed an extremely positive and stable organisational climate. The 26 questions of the questionnaire were divided into six climate variables: leadership, motivation, communication, decision-making, rewards and job satisfaction. The organisational climate variables were compared to the variables in the leadership portion of the study and a positive relationship was found. While no direct causal relationship could be claimed to exist, the results of the personal interviews, coupled with direct observations and extremely positive organisational climate scores tend to support current research described in the literature which contends that positive leader behaviours were closely related to positive organisational climate.

Nazari (1991) conducted a study on organisational climate in relation to the leadership behaviour and self-concept of principals in primary and secondary schools of Kerman City, Iran. The findings of the study were as follows: (i) leadership behaviour of principals affected the organisational climate of schools significantly. The organisational climate of the schools was influenced highly by the principals having high leadership qualities than by those having low leadership qualities, (ii) the two levels of self-concept
viz. high group and low group differed significantly with respect to scores of organisational climate. Principals belonging to high self-concept group exhibited a strong effect on the organisational climate of the school than those principals falling in low self-concept group, (iii) there was a positive and significant correlation between the organisational climate and leadership behaviour as well as between organisational climate and self-concept, and (iv) leadership behaviour did not interact with the self-concept of principals to cause any significant impact upon the organisational climate of the schools.

Dhillon (1991) studied the relationship among leadership behaviour and organisational climate in Punjab, Haryana and Delhi. The sample comprised 143 administrators and faculty members in physical education institutions. The findings indicated that significant difference of leadership behaviour and organisational climate existed between the administrators of urban and rural backgrounds. No significant differences existed on organisational climate among the 13 institutions of physical education and the teaching and non-teaching departments.

Jayajothi (1992) conducted an investigation on organisational climate and leadership behaviour of principals in relation to teacher morale in Central Schools. The sample consisted of 308 post-graduate teachers teaching Classes VI to XII, selected by random sampling from 20 schools in the Madras region. Some major findings were (i) the Central Schools differed in their climate, (ii) experience and age did not discriminate the perception of school climate, teacher morale and leadership behaviour, (iii) the ‘open’ climate related best to the perception of leadership behaviour of principals by the teachers, and the ‘autonomous’ climate had the least relationship, (iv) female teachers had a better perception about the leadership and teacher morale, (v) sex was not a
discriminator of perception of school climate, and (vi) leadership behaviour differed with climate.

Right (1988) conducted an investigation on teachers’ perceptions of organisational climate and the ratings of Wyoming elementary school principals on selected leadership behaviours. The major findings of the investigation were: (i) there were significant differences between the organisational climate scores of sample schools, (ii) schools with less than 200 students received the lowest scores in school climate regardless of the ratings of principals on identified leadership behaviours, (iii) principals who were rated higher by their teachers in “supports teachers”, received higher scores on school climate as determined by the general openness score of the OCDQ, and (iv) female administrators received higher school climate scores than their male counterparts when general openness scores were used as the dependent variable in leadership behaviours of “supports teachers” and “provides orderly atmosphere”. Female administrators also received consistently higher scores than males when OCDQ sub-test scores for characteristics of the principal were used as the dependent variable on the ratings for “providing orderly atmosphere”.

Goodarzi (1996) conducted a study on relationship between organisational climate and principals’ behaviour effectiveness in government and private elementary schools of Babol, Iran. The findings indicated that: (i) there was a significant difference in principals’ behaviour effectiveness in schools with open and closed climates; (ii) there was no significant difference in behaviour effectiveness of principals in government and private schools; (iii) there was no significant difference between organisational climate of
girls’ and boys’ schools; and (iv) there was no relationship between educational qualifications of the principals and their behaviour effectiveness.

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter examined leadership effectiveness, job-values, school (organisational) climate and the relationship of leadership effectiveness and job-values and school climate based on the related literature. Discussion included an examination of leadership and effectiveness. In many instances, leaders tend to be led by the organisation to support existing practices developed by their schools. Newer models suggest that the leader should analyse the organisation and then develop effective action strategies toward the development of a more effective organisation. A shift in focus from the individual to social systems and organisational theory may provide interesting research on relationships between leadership effectiveness, job-values and organisational climate.

Research literature has recognised leadership as an essential element in determining organisational climate and productivity. By the same token, literature on organisational climate has been recognised as playing a significant role in determining leadership effectiveness. Review of related literature showed also that values (work values and job values) are influence on leadership effectiveness and behaviour of the heads.

Studies referred above have also indicated that school climate is related with many variables especially leadership effectiveness. Some studies revealed that school climate was not related to leadership effectiveness and behaviour and also to some other variables e.g. sex and school type. Results have indicated that school environment
warrants our immediate attention. Thus, since background variables seem to impact variables like educational leadership effectiveness, any possible links between these variables and educational leadership effectiveness are very important and should be examined. Another purpose of this study was to investigate whether any differences exist in the measures of leadership effectiveness when Iranian principals are compared with Indian principals.