CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of related literature is an important part of the scientific approach and is carried out in all areas of scientific research. The study of literature implies locating, recording and evaluating then relevant research. This gives the investigator and understanding of the previous work already done in the areas of interest.

2.1 Studies Related to Leadership Behaviour

2.1.1 Leadership Behaviour

The purpose of schools, and therefore the responsibilities of their leaders, has undergone continuous and dramatic change for more than a century. For much of history in this country, education was only available to an elite group of privileged families to educate their children to enable them to navigate their societal roles and duties successfully. However, industrialization of the early 20th century brought sweeping changes to the purposes of education. The revised view of schooling was as a vehicle to adequately prepare the masses to be capable workers and to acculturate the large immigrant population (Grande, 2012). Fullan (2007) reported that the call for large scale school reform increased exponentially with initiatives such as whole school reform (WSR) models championed as the answer to improving schools, and ultimately raising student achievement.

Critiques of the leader trait paradigm (Jenkins, 1947; Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948) prompted scholars to look beyond leader traits and consider how leaders’ behaviors predicted effectiveness. This led to research on initiation of structure and consideration (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Stogdill, 1963), and established the behavior paradigm of leadership research. The
influence of the leadership behavior paradigm can be seen across leadership theories, including Fiedler’s (1967) contingency model, Blake and Mouton’s (1964) managerial grid, and the work on transformational and transactional leadership (Avolio et al., 2003; Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

The lack of integration in leadership research is evident both within and across the trait and behavior paradigms, as research within each paradigm generally focuses on a single trait or behavioral perspective. For example, within the trait paradigm, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Engen (2003) provided meta-analytic estimates for gender and leadership effectiveness, whereas Judge et al. (2002, 2004) did the same for personality and intelligence, respectively. None of these studies controlled for or compared the effects of different traits, such as gender, personality, and intelligence concurrently. This lack of integration is problematic given that many of these studies found similar effect sizes across leader traits. For example, Judge et al. (2002) found absolute effect sizes ranging from .16 to .24 for personality and leadership effectiveness, whereas Judge et al. (2004) found an effect size of .21 for intelligence. However, because there was no integration across traits, it remains unclear as to whether these are independent effects.

Similarly, research within the leadership behavior paradigm often focuses on a single behavioral perspective. For example, Judge and Piccolo (2004) meta-analyzed the literature on transformational and transactional leadership, and Judge, Piccolo, and Ilies (2004) did the same for initiating structure and consideration. Neither of these studies integrated across leadership behaviors or considered whether the effects were independent. Yet, initiating structure and transactional leadership both focus on task-oriented leadership behaviors, whereas consideration
and transformational leadership both comprised relational-oriented leader behaviors (Bass & Bass, 2008; Fleishman, 1953). Given the conceptual similarity, it is not surprising that separate meta-analyses found similar effect sizes—for example, overall validities of .41 for consideration and .44 for transformational (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Judge et al., 2004). Thus, the two leadership behavior paradigms that have shaped leadership research for decades may not be independent, and even more importantly, it is unclear if one is a better predictor of leadership effectiveness.

Donaldson (2001) noted the subtle yet significant point that references to the term leadership did not appear in professional education literature until the 1970s and 1980s. Donaldson (2001) noted that the managerial approach of running schools was accepted until the scope of education broadened to include successfully educating all students. Donaldson chronicled the traditional roles of a school principal as the person who kept the school functioning efficiently, supported district and state goals, made everyday logistical decisions, and functioned as the liaison to the community so teachers were able to do their work. Donaldson (2001) further asserted that these roles and duties befell the school principal by default rather than design as the work of school leaders became unclear and all encompassing.

Accountability for student achievement, as measured through standardized state assessments against state learning standards, preempted all other priorities in schools in response to the attendant sanctions and penalties for failure to meet adequate levels of student proficiency. The imperatives of the many decades of failed school reform suddenly had real relevance and urgency, with responsibility falling directly to school leaders (Grande, 2012).
Leadership has been found to have a modest though significant effect on school achievement (Mortimore et al., 1988; Silins & Mulford, 2002) though it is still the second most influential variable affecting achievement after teaching (Leithwood et al., 2006). Leadership effects are largely exerted within the school and mainly indirectly through influencing the adults who affect the children (Leithwood et al., 1999).

In many countries, school leaders have served more as elected managers of their schools or been slowly promoted from within them. While this has served schools well in maintaining efficient coordination of operations during times of relative stability, it has hindered them in contexts of rapid change which call for administrators to behave more as leaders who are responsible for changing the practices, relationships and cultures of those who they represent (Bolivar & Moreno, 2006).

Marzano et al. (2005) conducted a Meta analysis of the research concerning educational leadership and its relationship to student achievement and successful schools. One conclusion from Marzano et al.’s research was that leadership had significant effects on student learning, second only to the effects of quality of curriculum and the quality of the teacher’s instruction. In order to learn, students need access to high-quality instruction and a well-designed curriculum.

Leithwood conducted numerous empirical studies related to the effects of leadership behaviors and positive school outcomes (Leithwood, 1990, 1994, 1995; Leithwood& Jantzi, 1996). These studies were conducted in toward a common goal or vision. Leaders establish a direction and vision, serve as role models, are effective communicators, provide convincing leadership, bring out the best in people, are proactive, and are able to make decisions in a time of crisis (Fullan, 2001). Educational institutions require a versatile leader who has multi-tasking
abilities to perform the necessary daily tasks, which includes providing the necessary resources to establish positive school climate and supports to teachers to improve student achievement and to exist in a positive school organizational climate.

### 2.1.2 Leadership Behavior and Organizational Climate

There is a plethora of literature that examines the relationship of principal leadership to school climate. Throughout this endeavor, the student researcher examined books, dissertations, theses, scholarly journals, newspaper articles and presentations. Much of this research spans across all levels of the leadership or focuses on the middle and high school levels. In contrast, little has been written regarding the specific influence of primary school principals on school climate. Moreover, even less has been documented about comparison of principals’ behavior at the government and private, primary and high schools and their influence on school climate and job performance of teachers.

Leithwood (2006) acknowledged the dynamic tension between principals’ roles in managing their schools to provide stability, while at the same time leading initiatives and changes required to facilitate and support improvements. To determine if school leadership matters in the course of school and student outcomes, Leithwood completed an extensive review of five types of research based evidence: case studies of effects on student learning, quantitative studies of across school effects on student achievement, large-scale studies about the impact of specific leadership practices, large-scale studies of effects on student engagement, and the impact on school improvement initiatives over time, including effects of changes in leadership. Following his extensive analysis of research based evidence, Leithwood reported, “there is not a single documented case of a school successfully turning around its student achievement
trajectory in the absence of talented leadership”, thus concluding that leadership has very significant affects on teachers performance, school and student outcomes.

It has been determined that principals play a major role in creating a school climate that determined that improves the productivity of both teachers and students (Ubben & Hughes, 1992). If the principal of a public school has the ability to influence the climate of that school (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998) then, one can conclude that the behavior of the headmaster can also play a role in shaping the school climate within an independent school.

Barr (2006), examined the relationship of principal’s leadership styles and positive school climate in secondary schools. Research studies strongly support the fact that the leadership of the school principal impacts directly on the climate of the school and, in turn, on student achievement. The purpose of the study is to identify the leadership styles of secondary school principals in Central Texas and surrounding areas to determine if a specific leadership style promotes a positive school climate. The organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ-RS) and the leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) were administered to teachers and principals as well as demographic data were collected. The research questions explored teacher’s perceptions of the principal leadership style and school climate. Analysis determined if there is a relationship between principals’ view of their leadership as compared to teachers’; major themes of leadership style among the principals; and key themes of teachers’ behavior. Descriptive statistics summarized the data characteristics of the dependent variable (school climate) and the independent variable (principal leadership style). Inferential statistics was utilized to test for statistical significance. The results of the analysis of the study indicate principals and teachers have similar perceptions of their leadership style. This study also found
that having a positive leadership style will not only lead to a more positive school climate, but it may also lead to more positive teacher behaviors. Letcher (2006), Leadership styles have been a topic of study for many years. In the school arena, school climate has caused much discussion among educational leaders. Data was gathered in 5 small rural junior/senior Pennsylvania high schools with a student population under 500. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLS) and the Organizational Climate Questionnaire for Secondary Schools (OCDQ-RS) were the two instruments used. The MLQ rates the teachers’ perception of the type of leadership style the principal uses. The OCDQ-RS rates the teachers’ perception of the climate in the school. A comparison was done between the teachers’ perception of the principals’ leadership style and the teachers’ of the school climate.

The findings suggested that a leader does not fall into one defined leadership category. Leaders often show characteristics of more than one leadership style. Three of the schools surveyed showed some correlation between the teacher’s perception of the principals’ leadership style and the teachers’ perception of school climate. In all of the school, there was a strong cohesiveness among the members of the faculty. The small size of the district and faculty may be in direct correlation with the positive feelings the faculty have toward one another. This descriptive study used quantifiable data in the form of questionnaires to gather information needed to examine the relationship between head masters’ leadership practices and teachers’ perceptions of organizational climate in the independent school setting. In addition, the leadership practices Inventory Observer Form (Kouzes & Posner, 2003) was used to gather information regarding the leadership practices of the headmaster. Finally, the Organizational Climate Index (Hoy et. al, 2003), was used to gather teacher perceptions of organizational climate. The findings of this study confirmed a correlation between these two variables.
Additionally, there was no significant difference in the way teacher’s perceived organizational climate in the independent school setting according to their background characteristics.

Pomroy (2005), the goal of this study was to explore the links between principal-teacher communication and school climate the perspectives of teachers and principals. A comparative case study methodology was employed/ three Maine principals and 22 teachers their small elementary schools were interviewed using structured interview protocols and open-ended follow-up questions. Teachers were asked about their principals’ communication and its impact on their professional practice. Principals were asked to describe their own communication patterns. Both groups were asked questions concerning three indicators of positive school climate: team identity, the principal’s vision, and participatory decision making. These findings support the proposition that principals’ patterns and styles of communications shape teachers’ conception of the professional climate.

Kelly, Thornton and Daugherty (2005) recently established that “teachers” perceptions of their principal’s leadership effectiveness are related to school climate. Research conducted by Stone (2003) using the leadership perceptions inventory found significant relationship among all five leadership practices and the school culture as perceived by teachers in public school. However, no difference was found in the leadership proactive of the principal based upon school level (e, g elementary, middle or high school). Therefore examining teachers perception headmaster’s leadership practices can lead to abutter understanding how these individuals contribute to the school climate in Independent school and impact their ability to be effective.

A school’s climate can be measured by assessing the collective perception held by members existing in the organization. Researchers have established that background variables
can influence a teacher’s perception of his or her surroundings. One variable that has been studied is the gender of the teacher. Taylor and Tashakkori (1995) indicated that females and especially females with more teaching experience, reported having higher job satisfaction. Wilson, Pentecost, and Bialy (2001) found that male’s perception of school climate were negative than those of female. Booth and Picket (1999) examined principal’s supervisory behaviors but found no difference in teachers’ perception according to gender. Teaching experience can also affect one’s perception of school climate. In examining the characteristics of a good school climate, Sutherland (1994) found that teachers with less experience felt led connected to their school because they had limited understanding of their work environment. Other studies found that years of experience did not have an effect on a teacher’s perception of school climate (Bulach et al., 1999; Wilson, Pentecost, & Baily, 2001). These same studies examined whether level of education impacts attitude towards one’s surrounding. The climate indicate that no difference in teacher’s perception of their supervisory climate (Bulach er al.), when broken down by level of education.

The linkages between leadership, school organizational climate and teacher job performance have been established through years of research in the schools setting. This study examined the leadership behaviors of headmasters/principals who have the power, authority, and position to influence the climate that exist within primary and high schools. With the complex and dynamic environment of primary and high schools, it is essential that leaders assess their role in efficacy of their teachers in these settings, by examining teacher perceptions of headmasters/principals leadership behavior and their impact on school climate, those in the government and private school settings can develop a letter understanding of the role leaders play in the success and longevity of those type of schools. Donaldson et al (2009) emphasized the need for
principals to balance between productivity and relationships. Donaldson and team state that the bold action needed to improve the school’s performance often puts staff relationships at risk. Thus, a principal’s interpersonal skills are paramount. Unfortunately, the development of such attributes is often left out of the education and professional development of administrators (Donaldson et al., 2009). Donaldson and Company (2009) support a humanistic approach to school leadership – one in which the principal’s focus is on people and developing relationships. They emphasize the following about principals: “Their success at mobilizing faculty and staff to do their best work depends on their abilities to grow and maintain honest, supportive relationships with and within that group of important adults” (Donaldson et al., 2009).

Shaw (2009) conducted a study at the elementary and middle school levels to determine if certain leadership behaviors contributed to a positive school climate and if a relation existed between these two factors as perceived by the teachers. Shaw stresses the value of a principal having a clear understanding of the personal dynamics that exist in the building. He asserts: “Understanding school culture will give principals a framework to understand complex relationships as well as to understand difficult problems that may occur in their schools” (Shaw, 2009). Overall, the study indicated that a weak relationship exists between the style of the principal and school climate, but middle school climate was affected more than elementary climate by their principals’ leadership practices.

Stratton (2010) conducted a study to examine the relationship between new secondary school principals’ leadership practices and school climate. The results of this study determined that a positive relationship exists between the leadership styles of new secondary school principals and school climate. It was also determined that various leadership styles of new
secondary principals and select school climate dimensions can contribute to a positive school climate when practiced, while the same factors can result in a negative school climate when absent. Finally, the data proved that new secondary school principals share several leadership styles and they tend to influence school climate rather than conform to the existing one. These results were supported by Sancar (2013) Stratton (2010) and Canales (2008) studies.

The results of a study by Scallion (2010) showed that Principals have a conceptual (often constructivist) understanding of school climate that is consistent with the dominant research. School leaders develop intentional and tactical plans to adjust school climate. There is a strain on school climates as a result of standardized assessment and No Child Left Behind. The profession of school principal has grown exponentially as a result of recent education reform and is a source of great stress. There is a vast untapped resource in the practices and knowledge of principals that will be valuable to future school leaders. Successful practices to influence school climate from this study include: assess climate as a community and develop a vision with all stakeholders, focus on the site-specific needs of the students, train principals on school climate during their preparation for the profession, focus on small successes towards larger goals, hire with great care.

Rhoden (2012) tested the relationships among secondary school principals’ leadership behaviors, school climate, and student achievement. After controlling for gender, years at current school, and years in the district, partial positive correlations were found between leadership and school climate and student achievement. Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, Encouraging the Heart, and Challenging the Process leadership variables were partially correlated to the climate variables of Order, Leadership (Instructional), and Expectation. Thus,
principals who consistently exhibited the leadership behaviors that were positive predictors of school climate and student achievement and possess the knowledge, skills, and judgment to make the improvements needed may make significant contributions to orderly and positive learning environments.

2.1.3 Leadership Behavior and Job Performance

Teachers’ job performance is the way in which a teacher behaves in the process of teaching and it is known to be related to teachers’ effectiveness (Selamat, Samsu & Kamalu, 2013). The performance of teachers ultimately affects the student’s achievement, as proven in the studies conducted by Hattie (2003) and Fenster (2006). Hallinger and Heck (1998) found that a school leader’s leadership style is the main factor that greatly influences school effectiveness and should be underscored. Furthermore, in the studies conducted by Milanowski (2004) and Hattie (2003), it extends the claim of the thirty percent attribution of teacher performance to student achievement by claiming that good teachers increase student achievement and that scores from a rigorous teacher evaluation system can be substantially related to student achievement. Heck, Larsen, and Marcoulides (1990) agree that principals have an indirect affect on learning. In managing the work structure of the school, principals do not affect the academic achievement of individual students in the same manner that teachers do, that is, through direct classroom instruction. Principals may, however, impact teaching and classroom practices through such school decisions as formulating school goals, setting and communicating high achievement expectations, organizing classrooms for instruction, allocating necessary resources, supervising teachers, performance, monitoring student progress, and promoting a positive, orderly environment for learning.
Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) concluded transformational leaders drive higher performance by giving people the opportunity to make meaning for them. Educator’s perceptions of their leader’s style of leadership has been studied as it affects the educator’ job satisfaction. Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) studied leadership styles and job satisfaction and found that a positive relationship between job satisfaction and leadership styles produced higher job performance. Julian (2005) studied the leadership traits of CEOs and job performance. They found some traits have a relationship to their effectiveness. Kim (1986) found that teachers reported that consideration seemed to be more related to their job performance than to of initiation of structure. Kim (1986) also found that teacher reported degree of initiation of structure of their principal was not significantly correlated with teacher satisfaction. Mason-Bush (2003) concluded that teachers' motivation and performance in schools were affected by the principal's leadership style.

Adeyemi (2010) investigated principals’ leadership styles and teachers’ job performance in senior secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. It was found that the democratic leadership style was the most commonly used leadership style among principals of senior secondary schools in the State. Teachers’ job performance was also found to be at a moderate level in the schools. Teachers’ job performance was found to be better in schools having principals using autocratic leadership style than in schools having principals using democratic or Laissez-faire leadership styles. Principals’ can encourage effective performance of their teachers by identifying their needs and trying to satisfying or meeting them. Supporting this argument, Owoeye (1999) asserted that variables of job performance such as effective teaching, lesson note preparation, effective use of scheme of work, effective supervision, monitoring of students’ work and disciplinary ability are virtues which teachers should uphold effectively in the school system. In
this regard, the teachers’ performance could be measured through annual report of his/her activities in terms of performance in teaching, lesson preparation, lesson presentation, mastery of subject matter, competence, teachers’ commitment to job and extra-curricular activities. Other areas of assessment include effective leadership, effective supervision, effective monitoring of students’ work, motivation, class control and disciplinary ability of the teachers.

Duze (2012) investigated the leadership styles of principals and the effect on job performance of teachers and supportive staff in senior secondary schools in Delta State of Nigeria. Results showed that autocratic leadership style was the most commonly used among principals of senior secondary schools in Delta State, followed by laissez-faire, and lastly democratic. Job performance was found to be low for both categories of staff in the three leadership variables. Interestingly, supportive staff indicated highest level of job performance under laissez-faire principals and lowest under autocratic principals. For teachers job performance was highest under democratic and lowest under autocratic principals. Also, job performance of staff was found to be more significantly related to democratic leadership style than either autocratic or laissez-faire leadership style.

The finding of this study indicating significantly highest relationship between democratic leadership style and staff job performance implies that principals who adopt democratic leadership style could greatly improve job performance among workers. This finding agrees with the findings made by earlier researchers (Ijaiya, 2000; Olaniyan, 1997; Townsend, 1994; Akinyemi, 1993; Okunola, 1990; Smylie & Jack, 1990; Weindling, 1990). The finding indicating better job performance among teachers in democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles than in autocratic is an indication that autocratic leadership style does not greatly enhance teachers’ job
performance in secondary schools in Delta State. This finding does not agree with those of Oluwatoyin (2003), Olaniyan (1997) and Akinyemi (1993). AlFahad, AlHajri and Alqahtani (2013) claimed school principals’ leadership styles play a major role in teachers’ performance. They examined the relationship between school principals' leadership styles, whether transformational or transactional, on teachers' achievement motivation. The results revealed that a transformational leadership style was prevalent among principals, and teachers’ achievement motivation was positive. There was a positive correlation between the principals’ transformational leadership style and the teachers’ achievement motivation.

Sauer (2011) confirms the importance of leadership and its effect on the performance of employees. Sauer's study explained the importance of leadership behavior and how the leader's performance style will affect the organization. Danish et al. (2011) discussed the effect of leadership and a manager's style, showing that these had a significant effect on the administration and its effectiveness. School leaders inspire trust in those they are leading, encouraging them to think critically and seek new ways to approach their jobs. Leaders motivate by making followers more aware of the importance of task outcomes (Obiwuru Timothy et al, 2011). As a result, there is an increase in their levels of performance and commitment to the goals of their organization in a positive way (Resick et al, 2009).

A study for Isaac et al. (2001) mentioned that the level of performance of the employees increases in a motivating environment, inspiring individuals to achieve levels of performance beyond their expectations. Therefore, leaders must take action to satisfy employees and increase their motivation. After having their motivations improved, employees will work harder and feel responsible for achieving targets and goals (Almansour, 2012).
2.2 Studies Related to Job Performance

2.2.1 Job performance

Performance could be described in various ways. It could be an act of accomplishing or executing a given task (Okunola, 1990). It could also be described as the ability to combine skillfully the right behavior towards the achievement of organizational goals and objectives (Olaniyan, 1999). Teachers’ job performance could be described as the duties performed by a teacher at a particular period in the school system in achieving organizational goals (Obilade, 1999). It could also be described as the ability of teachers to combine relevant inputs for the enhancement of teaching and learning processes (Akinyemi, 1993; Okeniyi, 1995). However, Peretemode (1996) argued that job performance is determined by the worker’s level of participation in the day to day running of the organization. It is noted that employees behave differently under different situations.

Owoeye (1999) asserted that variables of job performance such as effective teaching, lesson note preparation, effective use of scheme of work, effective supervision, monitoring of students’ work and disciplinary ability are virtues which teachers should uphold effectively in the school system. The finding conform with the study of Eric (2000) which revealed that in order to accomplish the desired goals of learning, teachers first need to assess the performance of their students so that they know exactly where their students already know and what they don’t. In domain 5 or community linkages, the respondents got total mean of 3.17 that interpreted as proficient. The findings indicated that the respondents established learning environment that responds to the aspirations of the community.
Job performance was evaluated by the use of teacher’s self-evaluation. March and Overall (1979) found that teacher’s self-evaluation were valid and reliable and positively correlated to student evaluations. Roberts and Sampson (2011) found that higher levels of structure and consideration of principals were productive of superior job performance among teachers. Noran, Yaakub and Elias (1999) studied job motivation and job performance of recipients for excellent service from one of the institutions of higher learning. The objectives of their studies were to determine job motivation and job performance of the recipients and also to compare job motivation according to gender and work category. The results showed that the overall job motivation was moderate, while job performance was high.

Hanif (2004) conducted a study to identify levels and sources of teacher stress, teachers’ job performance and self-efficacy of women school teachers. The study also explored the relationship between teacher stress, job performance and teacher self-efficacy. Another main objective of research was to find out the moderator role of self-efficacy in teacher stress and job performance relationship. The significant negative correlation was found between teacher stress and job performance and teacher stress and teacher efficacy. The moderated multiple regression analysis revealed that high self-efficacy could play a moderator role in the relationship of teacher stress and job performance. The findings also showed that there were significant differences between government and private school teachers on levels of teacher stress, job performance and teacher efficacy. Government school teachers showed high levels of stress, poor job performance and low self efficacy as compared to private school teachers. The correlation was also found between teacher stress, job performance, self-efficacy and some job related and demographic variables i.e., marital status, family system, number of students, monthly income, age and job experience of teachers. The findings indicated that these variables contribute significantly in
teacher stress, job performance and self efficacy of women school teachers. Shaari, Yaakub and Hashim (2002) conducted a study on job motivation and performance of secondary school teachers. The findings prove that, job motivation of the majority of the respondents was high. This again suggests that these recipients possess the desired characteristics in a working organization. These findings seem to support Sederberg, Charles and Clark (1990) that job motivation will produce a teacher with high vitality. Individuals who have highly achievement motivation tend to be very conscientious in his/her work and very responsible. Sunderman, Tracey, Kim, and Orfield (2004), have been highly critical of No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), stating that teacher performance is solely evaluated on test scores according to federal guidelines, with nothing else counting as a measure of teacher success, making it a poor method for delivering education and assessing teacher performance. Various aspects of employee’s job performance are directly correlated with positive work values, high levels of employee motivation, and lower rates of absenteeism, turnover and burnout (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Chiu, 2000; Tharenou, 1993).

Effective leadership can translate into teacher job performance, commitment to educational goals from all involved, goal attainment, and group growth (Walsh et al., 1992). Shieh et al. (2001) noted that leaders must understand the social environment of the school and must realize the needs of their employees. To meet these needs, the transactional leadership style is able to set rewards for good performance that in turn provides constructive feedback to the employee (Bass, 1999). According to Goldman (2002), democratic organizations typically have the following six characteristics: policies are determined by a group of organizations, technical and job performance measures are discussed so they are understood by all, leaders provide advice to members in regards to implementing tasks, members are free to choose with whom
they work, the group determines the distribution of tasks, and leaders try to be objective in giving praise and criticism. Guthrie and Reed (1991) found that the ability of the leader to establish an organizational vision, to motivate and inspire others to embrace this vision, and go on to achieve these goals is possible if solid relationships are formed. Usop, Askandar, Kadtong and Usop (2013) attempted to find out the relationship of work performance and job satisfaction among teachers. The findings concluded that the teachers were contented with their job satisfaction facets such as school policies, supervision, pay, interpersonal relations, opportunities for promotion and growth, working conditions, work itself, achievement, recognition, and responsibility. This implies that a teacher’s satisfied with their job is also a productive one. Furthermore, if the teachers contented with their job, they will develop and maintain high level of performance. Teaching learning process make more efficient and effective that could produce high competitive learners.

2.2.2 Job performance and Organizational Climate

One factor that might influence teacher’s job performance is organizational climate. Principals can encourage effective performance of their teachers by identifying their needs and try to meet them (Adeyemi, 2010). Both principals’ behavior and teachers’ behavior are part of organizational climate which influence the teacher’s job performance. The increased importance in teacher’s job performance has made it extremely important to identify the factors that influence teacher’s job performance. In recent years, effects of organizational climate on teacher’s performance have become topic of concerns for researchers and education officers.

Adeyemi (2008) investigated the relationship between organizational climate and teachers’ job performance in primary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. The findings revealed that
most of the schools run an open climate type of organization. The level of organizational climate in the schools was however, very low. The level of the teachers’ job performance was equally low. A significant relationship was found between organizational climate and teachers’ job performance. Based on the findings, it was suggested that principals should create a favorable climate to enhance better job performance among teachers. They should intensify more regular supervision of teachers and be more sensitive to their needs to enhance a conducive and enriching school climate. Government too, should provide all the necessary facilities and resources in schools. This is also supported by Rooney (2003) who stated that the principal’s ability to meet the needs and wants of teachers will lead to high job performance.

Raza and Arid’s (2010) examined the impact of organizational climate on performance of college teachers in Punjabi. The results of their study revealed principals perceived that esprit behavior of teachers and production emphasis behavior of principals were correlated to teachers’ job performance. However, most of the principals perceived that their leadership behavior such as consideration and aloofness were negatively correlated to teachers’ job performance while intimacy behavior of teachers is slightly correlated to teachers’ job performance and disengagement behavior of teachers negatively correlated to teachers’ job performance.

Raza and Arid (2010) also revealed that the majority of the college teachers viewed consideration behavior of principals and intimacy behavior of teachers fairly correlate to their job performance while most of them perceived that thrust behavior of principals and esprit behavior of teachers is highly correlated to their job performance. Besides, the majority of teachers expressed that production emphasis behavior of principals and hindrance behavior of teachers moderately correlated with teachers’ job performance. Additionally, the majority of
teachers perceived disengagement behavior of teachers slightly correlated with teachers’ job performance while aloofness behavior of principals negatively correlated with teachers’ job performance. The results of study by Selamat, Samsu and Kamalu (2013) showed that organizational climate was a significant factor that could affect teachers’ job performance. In terms of organizational climate dimensions, one aspect of principal’s leadership behavior and teachers’ behavior: thrust and hindrance were found to be critical factors in enhancing teachers’ job performance.

The majority of the research conducted in the field of organizational climate has been carried out in corporate organizations (Karaska, 2008) and the performance of an organization was found by Luthans, Norman, Anolio, and Avey (2008) to positively correlate with the organizational climate and the performance of the organization. A school that exhibits an open climate through both teacher and principal behaviors increases the school’s effectiveness through enhanced staff performance, morale, and student achievement levels (Dorathi, 2011).

Zhang and Liu (2010) conducted research into the effects organizational climate has on organizational variables. This research included 419 managers and staff members. An organizational climate scale was used to determine the effectiveness of the organizational and was then looked from the realm of both individual and organizational characteristics of organizational climate. Among the results of this study, organizational climate was found to have a significant effect on the retention, performance, satisfaction, stress, and commitment of the managers and their employees. The organizational climate affected the organization as a whole, as well as the individual workers. Ediger (2010), Douglas (2010), Young (2009) and Grizzard (2007) research supported these results. Luthans et al. (2008) also found that a positive
relationship exists between the performance of the organization, the effectiveness of the organization, and the organizational climate. A study of 10 secondary schools in Lagos, State of Nigeria was conducted by Adeogun and Olisaemeka (2011) to determine the relationship between school climate and student achievement, as well as teacher productivity for sustainable development. Each school had randomly selected participants from each of the following groups: one principal, seven teachers, and seven students. Adeogun and Olisaemeka concluded that school climate can directly influence academic performance and teacher productivity. They also found that this significant relationship between school climate, performance, and productivity is evidence of the need for ensuring a positive school climate in order to assure sustainable development.

A positive organizational school climate automatically contributes to staff performance in schools. In addition, this climate promotes increased morale while improving the students’ achievement level (Dorathi, 2011). Dorathi used climate and school effectiveness scales in a survey of 240 teachers. These teachers were from both private and public schools. Dorathi’s findings link school climate to student achievement and attributes organizational school climate as one of the most significant ingredients contributing to a successful instructional program. A statistically significant, positive correlation between organizational climate and service orientation was found. Without a climate that creates a well-functioning and harmonious school, it becomes difficult to hit a high academic achievement level (Dorathi, 2011).

It has been shown from studies that when the principal is committed to duty and hardworking members of the staff get both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated, and they tend to enjoy their work (Erden et al., 2009). A high trust in a principal positively influences the
organizational school climate; all employees direct their energy to the achievement and accomplishment of the organizational goals. Both the students and the teachers enjoy the processes of learning and teaching respectively. On the other hand, when principals are less enthusiastic about their work, the school climate is negatively affected and the performance of both the students and the teachers is debilitated. The effectiveness of an organization and the organizational school climate perceptions of teachers are directly affected by the principal (Erden et al., 2009).

Mayo’s (2001) study suggests that standards, values belief and emergent interactions in the work place are very significant because they clarify the nature and function and effect of the informal organizational performance. That is, the ways of doing things and what the organization holds important affect the behavior of people working in the organization, and consequently productivity.

Moorhead and Griffin (2001) distinguish between school climate and school culture. In their view, much of the study on climate is based on psychology while the study of culture is in anthropology and sociology. Usually, school climate points to the current situations in a school and the connection between staff and pupils behavior and performances. Thus, climate is usually more easily manipulated by the head teacher to have direct impact on the behavior on the staff and consequently the pupils. Wallin’s (2003) findings confirm that pupil inclusion in school leadership improves pupils’ grades and school climate. According to him, the opportunity made available to pupils to choose class content and class load and the learning opportunities motivate them to work hard to improve their performance. As result, pupil-teacher relationship is strengthened and school morale enhanced.
Peterson and Deal (2002) viewed climate as complex webs of traditions and rituals that have been built up over time as teachers, students, parents, and administrators work together and deal with crises and accomplishments. These cultural patterns are highly enduring, have a powerful impact on performance, and shape the way people think, act, and feel. Adeogun and Blessing (2011) ascertain the relationship between school climate and student achievements’ and teachers’ productivity for sustainable development. The findings showed that there is a significant relationship between school climate, performance and productivity. It is strongly recommended that stakeholders of education in the third world nations should take the bulls by the horns by ensuring that good and friendly school climate is put in place, so as to guarantee a sustainable development. In a study, Nusser and Haller (as cited in Greenberg, 2004) found that the three groups (principals, teachers and students) tended to agree on the dimensions of the school climate. This confirms that despite of the difference in the intensity or weight of ratings of school climate, the three categories of persons, on the average, still concur on the extent of school climate’s influence on performance and productivity.

2.3 Studies Related to Gender

2.3.1 Gender and Leadership Behavior

In recent years many social scientists, management consultants, and other writers have addressed the topic of gender and leadership style. Men and women operate in the work environment in somewhat different ways based upon genetic/biological differences, cultivation, communication styles and to some extent, the characteristics of the particular career field chosen. In today’s world, the leadership culture seems to favor women’s leadership styles and the unique capabilities women contribute to the work environment. Both men and women leaders can and
should develop their non-preferences to become more balanced as leaders. This development requires conscious effort and work. Quantitative reviews of researches have established the presence rather than the absence of overall sex differences (Eagly, 1987; Hall, 1984). These differences, although typically not large, tend to be comparable in magnitude to most other findings reported in social psychological research. On the average, sex appears to be a variable that has neither especially impactful nor especially weak effect on social behavior and that produces findings consistent with laypeople's ideas about how the sexes differ (Eagly, 1987).

The quality of the relationships between managers and employees affects the employee performance and leadership effectiveness (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005).

Teachers' perceptions of their school leaders influence student achievement in their schools. The extent of this influence is examined in a study by Hardman (2011). This quantitative study examined teachers' perceptions of the leadership style of their principals as transformational, transactional or passive-avoidant in improving and non-improving schools in relation to student achievement. Leadership behaviors, as perceived by the teachers, were measured using the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire. Student achievement was measured with the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test results for each school using three years of results. The study found that teachers in improving and non-improving schools had minimal differences in how they perceived their principals' leadership styles. All three leadership styles were statistically significant predictors of student achievement. Transactional leadership had a negative relationship while transformational and passive-avoidant leadership style had a positive relationship with student achievement. Teacher demographics of gender, age, years as a teacher, years at current school, and level of school (elementary, middle, high) were examined in relation to perceived leadership style and school status. Multiple regression analysis found that only years
at current school that was significant in how they perceived their principal's transformational or passive avoidant leadership style. No demographic variables were significant for transactional style or school status. Chow (2005) ascertains how female and male managers describe their perceived leadership qualities in an Asian context. The results provide valuable insights into the function of leadership behavior in a Chinese community. Irrespective of the sex of the person making the direct report, perceived attributes in rating managers showed no substantial differences. Females projected a more favorable image of leaders than their male counterparts.

Karakose (2008) investigated the perceptions of primary school teachers on principal cultural leadership behaviors, and examine the opinions of the participating teachers according to their various occupational characteristics. The results of the study show that there was a statistically significant difference in the teachers' perceptions of principals' cultural leadership behaviors according to the subjects they taught, years of experience, and gender. But Brailsford (2001) indicates that in his study teacher's gender was not statistically significant in the influence of teacher perceptions on middle school principal's leadership behavior. Eldred (2010) also indicates that there are no differences in gender, age range, race/ethnicity, education level, and years of teaching experience on the teachers' perception of their principal's leadership style and job satisfaction. Data gathered by Nixon (2006) provided evidence that women and men teachers reported being more satisfied with female principals than with male principals. Costellow (2011) in his study found that teachers’ mean ratings of leadership behaviors and teachers’ mean ratings of leadership traits showing significant differences, based on gender.
2.3.2 Gender and Organizational Climate

The organizational climate can be perceived as a factor in the center of circle including culture, ecology, individuals, organizing and social system which surround the organization and as an institution effected by them (Taymaz, 2003). The climate surrounding organization shows the good intentions of organization members and their level of loyalty to the organization.

Brown (2001) in his study determined the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction. It was found that there was a significant relationship between organizational climate and teacher job satisfaction. There were significant correlations found between the characteristics of job satisfaction and the characteristics of organizational climate. He further ascertained that, no significant relationship was observed of the variables of gender, years of teaching experience, educational level and ethnicity with climate and job satisfaction. The study revealed that open climate and higher job satisfaction are positively with each other related.

Sodhi (2010) studied teacher effectiveness among secondary school teachers of Punjab in relation to their school organizational climate, gender, location, teaching experience and stream (science, social science and languages). He found that there is no significant difference in teacher effectiveness of secondary school teachers across gender, location, stream and teaching experience groups. The findings of Gul (2008) showed that “gender” and “academic title” were not important in the perception of organizational climate. Torres, Seghieri and Nuti (2012) examined the organizational climate from gender differences among healthcare professionals and managers in healthcare organizations in Tuscany (Italy). Their starting point was to know how men and women perceived their work environment and how different climate dimensions affect their behavior. Moreover, the findings showed that there are “gender” differences in the
perception of organizational climate between Teaching Hospitals and Local Health Authorities. Oztekin and Isci (2013) indicated that there was no significant difference between school principals’ efficacy and teachers’ gender, professional seniority, length of service in the current school, field of experience. On the contrary, school climate differentiated in terms of gender in sincerity dimension. It was found that female teachers’ perceptions were more positive in view of sincerity dimension than those of male teachers. However there was no significant difference between school climate and teachers’ professional seniority, length of service in the current school, field of experience.

Ndanuko (2012) ascertains there is a significant relationship between school organizational climate and gender of a head teacher. From all schools headed by a male, 61.1% had organizational climate that approached an open climate. Of all the schools headed by a female, 90.9% had organizational climate that approached an open climate. Huang (2001) investigated high school teachers' perceptions of school environments and to determine whether gender was a differentiating factor. The results revealed that most of these teachers had favorable perceptions. They rated job satisfaction and principal leadership highly but ethnic equity relatively low. Female teachers scored higher than male teachers on job satisfaction, collegiality, teacher-student relations, ethnic equity, teacher influence, and student discipline. No significant difference was found in teachers' perceptions of principal leadership.

The perception of teachers on the effectiveness of organizational communication in their schools is high and it differs between teachers in primary and junior high schools as a function of gender, age, marital status, seniority, and rank (Gunbayi, 2007).
2.3.3 Gender and Job Performance

There are multiple views in human resource management and organizational behavior concerning gender differences in measures of job performance. Some researchers suggest that males generally are evaluated higher than females across a variety of situations that include job performance measurement. At the same time, the presence of specific status cues in expectation states theory (EST; similar to the concept of individuating information) suggests that measures of job performance will be more similar than different for males and females. Previous analyses are unclear in their results for the measurement of the construct of job performance because they have included, and/or focused on, additional constructs (e.g., hiring suitability, leadership performance aggregated with leadership satisfaction) or have used student samples in lab experiments (Roth, Purvis & Bobko, 2010). One of the most often researched areas related to gender in education is the issue of sex differences, i.e. comparing male and female characteristics and performance. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) attempted to summarize the general arguments and findings in their ground-breaking book *The Psychology of Sex Differences* which reviewed 1400 research studies on sex differences. They concluded that whilst some patterns persist, for example, female superiority in verbal skills and male superiority in mathematical skills, it is difficult to untangle the influence of stereotyping on individuals’ perceptions of and behavior towards, events and objects, and also to separate out if, and to what extent, innate or learned behaviors underpin the development of behavioral or cognitive sex differences. An overview in the mid 1990s of the literature on sex differences research found similar patterns to Maccoby and Jacklin (Gipps & Murphy, 1994).
It was noted that though much research is sound, ‘there remain studies whose quality is questionable’ (Gipps & Murphy, 1994). Gipps and Murphy argued that the value of this research thus lies not so much in identifying and working with sex differences, but in understanding responses from people when confronted by test situations. Powney et al., (2003) reported results from a 12-month study of teachers’ career progression. This study explored the views of teachers, head teachers, LEA representatives and others about the ways in which age, disability, ethnicity, gender and to a limited extent sexual orientation impact on teachers’ careers. The issues raised in this report showed that there are structures that respondents and informants believe advantage or disadvantage different teachers at various stages in their careers. Managers and governors maintain that job-related criteria are used for appointments and that no individual is excluded from consideration on the grounds of age, disability, ethnicity, gender or sexual orientation. Staffs do not always agree. The findings of the study showed that Teachers’ motives for entering teaching are diverse and appear to be more related to personal circumstances and ambition than age, disability, ethnicity, gender or sexual orientation. Some female teachers, both white and minority ethnic interviewees and members of minority interest groups, perceive advantage in being a male applicant. Only a few male interviewees recognized that their gender could have played some part in their careers.

Akiri and Ugborugbo (2008) study examined the influence of gender on the productivity of secondary school teachers in Delta State; Nigeria. From the results of the study, it was conclude that gender has some influence on the productivity of secondary school teachers. The influences of gender on the productivity of teachers in this study are: Location affects female teachers’ productivity more than male teachers. Female teachers are significantly less productive in rural locations than male teachers. Male teachers are most productive in the first five years of
service while female teachers are most productive between six and fifteen years of service after acquiring some experience on the job. Male teachers perform best when they are younger up to thirty (30) years while female teachers perform best in middle age between thirty one and fifty (31-50) years. Male and female teachers are similarly influenced by higher educational attainment. Higher educational attainment reduces the productivity of male and female teachers alike. On the influence of gender, Dee (2005) found that gender interactions between teachers and students have significant effects on students’ achievement. However, the studies of Holmlund and Sund (2005) and Tymms (2005) found that teachers’ gender has no effect on students’ outcome. Consequently, there is no consensus in the literature on the influence of gender on teachers’ productivity.

2.4 Studies Related to Type of School

2.4.1 Leadership and Type of School

Several researchers have noted, one of the most important contributions of situational leadership is its attention to the situational nature of leadership. Sharma (1982) studied leadership behavior of the Headmasters of the JHS was not significant on the basis of area (Rural and Urban) and management (Government, Private Aided and Private Unaided). The leadership behavior of the Headmasters of the JHS was significant on the basis of sex. Prandini, Carlo (2008) Research indicates that school leadership and organizational management play a significant role in the effective operation of successful schools. The intent and focus of this study was to identify the leadership practices and organizational components that are common to large, academically successful high schools. Blase and Blase’s (1998) research of 800 principals in
United States elementary, middle and high schools suggests that effective instructional leadership behavior comprises three aspects:

- Talking with teachers
- Promoting teachers’ professional growth
- Fostering teacher reflection

The study by Ballinger and Douglas (2007) found that there is significant relationship between Indiana elementary school principals’ knowledge and implementation of Situational Awareness, Flexibility, Discipline, Evaluation, and Outreach. Across all five domains there was a moderate to strong relationship between knowledge of the leadership principles and their implementation. Surapuramath (2010) studied on leadership behavior of heads of secondary school and academic achievement of the students in mathematics. The sample included 100 heads and 100 students selected by using random sampling technique, out of which 60 were male and 40 were female heads from secondary schools and 60 were boys and 40 were girls. The results reveals that the aided schools heads leadership behavior better than government schools heads leadership behavior and the unaided school heads leadership behavior is better than government schools heads leadership behavior. Female leaders’ behavior was better than male leader’s behavior.

Kai Ming (2009) examined the principal's leadership behaviors of private secondary schools in Hong Kong with respect to the effect of a principal's leadership behaviors on students' enrollment as perceived by teachers and senior teachers. The effective leadership behaviors of private secondary school principals were studied from different perspectives of teaching staffs such as (a) principals; (b) senior teachers; and (c) teachers in Hong Kong. This study was a cross
case analysis in a multiple-case study, the results were summed up from the number of frequency-count recording. After analyzing the data, it is shown that the teachers and senior teachers perceived that the key practices of Encouraging the Heart and Inspiring a Shared Vision may also influence the students' enrollment. These findings are also supported by Peyer's (1995) and Marley's (2003) studies conducted on high school students entering the college or university, where modeling the way, encouraging the heart and inspiring the shared vision (with the exception of the leadership practice of "enabling others to act") were found to be explicit behaviors practiced by principals. Peyer (1995) found no significant difference in demographic information of the principals.

Kauts and chichi (2010) intended to find out the impact of school size on leadership behavior and organizational climate. They ascertained: (i) Government school teachers are more burdened by administrative hassles which hinder their teaching work, (ii) Size of the school does not make any impact on the 'consideration 'behavior of the principals, (iii) Private school principals take more initiatives to improve their own profile. These results indicates that how different aspects and dimensions of school climate can effect teachers performance and school achievements. Victor (2009) examined leadership qualities among private school principals in Singapore. Findings from the study indicate that effective principals are able to establish trust, create structures that promote principal-teachers communication and maintain a high level of moral values. Financial goal rank top above all other goals set by the private school principals. The emphasis on maximizing financial gain is a cause of concern as many school principals have lost their intellectual integrity as well as their academic values in their pursuit of financial gains.
Day, Harris and Hadfield (2001) studied 12 schools in England and Wales which focused on heads who were deemed effective by the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED). They conclude that good leaders are informed by and communicate clear sets of personal and educational values which represent their moral purposes for the school. The leaders possess the following qualities: respect for others, fairness and equality, caring for the well being and whole development of students and staff, integrity and honesty.

Principals should be able to work with others to implant the vision into the structures and processes of the school. They should be able to communicate the vision to the staff of what their schools should become (Alexander, Rose & Woodhead, 1992). Many private school principals believe that the growing knowledge about effective education is not well reflected in government policy. The educational outcomes of many of the reforms over the last five years have been disappointing because the reforms have not taken into account the problems faced by private schools. Some school principals contend that recent government policies have deliberately adopted regressive policies that support increased equality between the larger and the smaller private institutions, and also between the government-funded and private institutions. Many educators see politics as antithetical to education and may wish that political pressures might diminish so that they can get on with their work (Levin & Riffel, 1997). This distrust of politics is also one of the motivators to use markets as vehicles to solve educational problems (Plank & Boyd, 1994). This is exactly the case of Singapore private education sector where many schools are subjected to the various competitive forces in the market. Private school principals, however, realized that there is no chance whatsoever of politics disappearing from education. The end has been very much in the opposite direction. More regulations are expected to be introduced in the near future to regulate private schools. Educational leadership is evolving to meet with the
changes to the educational environment brought on by increasing external pressures from various quarters. Private schools due to their smaller student numbers have better opportunities to offer holistic learning to their students. Holistic learning is an approach to learning that is all inclusive in terms of subject areas and the allocation of sufficient time for learning. It encompasses not only subjects that are measurable but also a more spiritual and ethical depth of learning (Victor, 2009).

2.4.2 Organizational Climate and Type of School

Every educational organization has a climate that distinguishes it from other schools and influences behavior and feelings of teachers and students for that school (Sergiovanni & Starraf, 1988). A satisfactory adjustment is essential in the job of a teacher. The teacher must know how to be free from maladjustment like aggression, pressures and their personal problems (Zahoor, 2012). Zahoor (2012) determined the difference between teachers of private and government schools on organizational climate and adjustment. The sample included 300 teachers, 150 each from private and government schools have been randomly selected from Aligarh, Uttar Pradesh. Analyses have been made using t-test which revealed significant difference between the two groups of respondents on Organizational Climate, Adjustment and their respective dimensions. The results clearly pointed out that teachers of government schools are found to be more disengaged in their work than their counterparts. It shows that teachers of government schools have a greater tendency to be not in so much in gear of the task at hand as private schools are. They are more “not in it” than teachers of private schools. It seems that the climate of government schools is though loaded with human factors, but is not as task-oriented as the climate of private school is.
The result revealed on alienation dimension means that the behavior patterns among the group including the leader (the principal) are characterized equally as formal and impersonal in both type of school. On controls dimension significant difference was found between teachers of private and government school. Here teachers of private schools feel more controls of principals than the teachers of government schools. Although principals of private schools might be providing all the facilities and secretarial services to teachers but they might more emphasize on work than on personal relations. Therefore, the teachers of private school might feel more controlled over by their principals.

On production emphasis there was also a significant difference between private school and government school. Here private school teachers again had scored higher as compared to government school teachers. As discussed earlier that this behavior of principal of private schools are characterized by close supervision of the staff. He plays more the role of a “boss” than a colleague and companion. It is generally seen that principals of private schools have more control on other teachers as teachers have to be on mercy and sometimes whims of principals for everything. Finally, it can be concluded that private school teachers perceive their school climate better than government school teachers as they scored higher on all the dimensions except disengagement. Their principals also seem to help them to improve the climate of their school. If any school is having good climate then it’s obvious that teachers will also have good adjustment. Thus, adjustment works as an auxiliary factor in positive attitude, effective teaching and job satisfaction of teachers. Shailly (2012) ascertained the relationship between leadership styles of principals with organizational climate of Private Schools and Government Schools in New Delhi. On comparing the mean scores of Government and Private Schools as per perception of the respective school teachers), no significant difference was found between the leadership
styles of the principals in these two schools. Again while the two dimensions of the leadership styles of the principals i.e. initiation and consideration were compared, no significant difference emerged between the Government and Private school principals. Majority of Government schools 33.33 percent have Autonomous Climates followed 25 percent schools which have Familiar Climate, 16.67 percent Open Climate, Closed Climate, Paternal type climate was exhibited by equal number of school (8.33 percent). Private schools exhibit slightly a different picture of climate profile where majority (33.33 percent) of the school have Autonomous climate while minimum number (8.33 percent) of the schools show closed climate and Familiar Open and Paternal and Controlled climate type of climate was found in (16.67 percent) school each. As a whole school climate profile did not show any significant difference in two categories of schools. Government special schools have high organizational climate as compared to private special schools (Jan, Tarfarosh & Malik, 2012). As well as the organizational climate and service orientation are relatively better in private schools as compared to government schools (Dorathi, 2012).

Majority of the public and private college principals opined that open climate was very highly positive correlated to teacher performance but paternal and closed climates were negatively correlated to teacher performance. As compared to public college principals, private college principal like closed climate in their institutions. Majority of the public and private college teachers disliked closed climate. Teachers of both systems liked the thrust behavior of their heads and disliked aloofness behavior of their heads. Majority of public and private college students held that their teachers did not explain subject matter with daily life examples. Teachers did not use effective teaching aid. Teachers did not try to assess student’s level of understanding. Teachers of both systems did not respect opposing viewpoints of students (Raza, 2010).
Ndanuko and Mathini (2012) claimed Majority (61.3 %) of the schools approaching an open climate had pupils' exhibiting high pupils' academic performance. In schools approaching a closed climate majority (88.9 %) had pupils exhibiting low academic performance. In majority (78.6%) of the schools with a head teacher exhibiting low thrust the pupils exhibited low academic performance. - There was a significant relationship between teacher’s experience of espirit and pupils' academic performance. - Majority (71.4%) of the schools with teachers experiencing high espirit had pupils' exhibiting high academic performance. In majority (73.6%) of the schools with teachers experiencing low espirit the pupils exhibited low academic performance. Of all schools headed by a male (61.1%) had organizational climate that approached an open climate. Of all the schools headed by a female (90.9%) had organizational climate that approached an open climate.

2.4.3 Job Performance and Type of School

Reported differences between public and private schools in the area of academic achievement (Coleman, Hoffer, & Kilgore, 1982; Hoffer, Greeley, & Coleman, 1985; Coleman & Hoffer, 1987) have resulted in efforts to evaluate differences in the school environments that might be associated with the increased school effectiveness observed in private schools. Inayatullah and Jehangir (2013) examined the effect of motivation on job performance in public and private schools of Peshawar city in the Province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. The findings of this study revealed that there is a positive relationship between teacher’s motivation and job performance. On the bases of gender, the motivation in female teachers was high as compared to male teachers in schools and similarly the performance of female teachers was better than male teachers. It was also found that there were significant differences in motivation and performance.
among public and private schools. Private school teachers are highly motivated than public school teachers. It is also concluded that the performance of private school teachers are better than public school teachers.

Adeyemi (2010) investigated principals’ leadership styles and teachers’ job performance in senior secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. Teachers’ job performance was found to be better in schools having principals using autocratic leadership style than in schools having principals using democratic or Laissez-faire leadership styles. Bassey et.al., (2011) determined the effect of school type and the job performance of secondary schools teachers in Cross River State of Nigeria. They indicated that teachers in private schools were superior to their counterparts in public schools in teaching, as well as formative and summative evaluation. Teachers in the two types of schools were about the same in classroom management, students discipline and supervision of co-curricular activities.

There are very rare studied related to the effect of type of school on job performance of teachers. In this regard, researcher was interested to investigate this effect among two levels of school (primary and high school) in private and government school in India.

2.5 SUMMARY

The review of related literature has enabled to find widely accepted definitions of key terms and the variables used in the study. As it is clear from the comprehensive literature review which was mentioned in this part, just a few researchers worked on the comparative aspect of the study, while the present study is going to shed some light on the comparison between the two levels namely Primary and High School at two categories (Government and Private).
The large amount of literature on Leadership Behavior, Organizational Climate and Job Performance shows a continuing interest and a need for understanding these three constructs. In the review of the literature, extant studies address many important issues at the high school level, but remain inadequate to address primary school regarding leader behaviour, organizational climate and job performance. And also, as regards the job performance and its appraisal is very important in school achievement, very rare studies related to job performance of teachers has done.

The investigator in this chapter has tried to present some important and related review in studies and literature briefly. Few attempts have been made to explore the differences between job performance and other two variables. Thus, through this study the investigator wants to determine the differences of job performance, perceived leadership behaviour and organizational climate of primary and high school teachers regarding to gender and type of school management (government and private).