Chapter – I

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INTRODUCTION

Values shape most of human activities. Values help the individuals in having interest in one or some of the professions. The professions that an individual select for himself, are guided by the values. The knowledge of values, provides major clues to a person's professional choice. Each profession lays more emphasis on a particular set of values, e.g. the profession of businessmen needs the persons having strong "economic" or utilitarian values,"the social workers" or profession, lay emphasis on high social values; the priests, require religious and humanitarian values; painter and artists, are characterised by high aesthetic value. (Lowell, 1969)

Values determine the intensity and continuity of a particular human behaviour. When we speak of attaching a high value on a particular idea or feeling, we mean that the idea of feeling exerts a considerable force investigating and directing our behaviour. A persons who values truth, will spend a deal of energy on the search for it. One who places great value on domination (power) will be highly motivated to dominate over all others coming into his contact. Conversely, if something is of trivial value it will have little energy attached to it. In general, we can say that values are the key choice that shape the type of life, the man builds for himself and kind of person he becomes and these reflect his basic values (Coleman, 1971/)

Milton Rokeach (1973) states: "A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence". Rokeach considers a value to be a type of belief centrally located within one's total belief system, about how one ought or ought not to behave, or about some end state of existence worth or not worth attaining. Values are thus abstract ideas, positive or negative, not tied to any specific attitude object or situation, representing a person's beliefs about ideas matels of conduct and ideal terminal goals-what Lovejoy calls generalized adjective and terminal values. An adult probably has tens or hundreds or thousands of beliefs, thousand of attitudes but only a dozen of values.

According to J.R., Fraenkel (1973), values represent what a person considers important in life and he defines values as: "The ideas as to what is good, beautiful, effective or just, and therefore worth having, worth doing or worth striving to attain. They serve as standards by which we determine if a particular thing (object, idea, policy, etc.) is good or bad, desirable or undesirable, worthy or unworthy or someplace in between these two extremes.

According to James P. Shaver and William Strong (1976), "Values are our standards and principles for judging worth. They are the criteria by which we judge
"things" (people, objects, ideas, actions and situations) to be good, worthwhile, desirable or on the other hand; bad, worthless, despicable; or of course, somewhere in between these two extremes, we may apply our values consciously or they may function unconsciously, as part of the influence of our frame of reference, without our being aware of the standard implied by our decisions.

Silver (1976), defined values as,”the internalized standards and criteria for guiding action, developing and maintaining attitudes and making moral judgements.”

J.R.Fraenkel (1977) considers that “A value is an idea,a concept,about what someone thinks is important in life. When a person values something, he or she deems it worthwhile-worth having worth doing, or worth trying to obtain. The study of values usually is divided into the areas of aesthetics and ethic. Aesthetics refers to the study and justification of what human being considers beautiful-what they enjoy. Ethics refers to the study and justification of conduct how people behave...... Like all ideas, values do not exist in the world of experience; They exist in people’s minds. They are standards of conduct, beauty, efficiency or worth that people endorse and that they try to live up to or maintain.”

R.L. Morril (1980) asserted that values, are standards of choice, which lead to satisfaction, fulfilment and meaning. Values serve as authorities in the name of which choices are made and action is taken. Values are not specific things, beliefs, actions or value judgements. Valuing unifies knowing and doing and is integral to both. Values are never fully actualised except as they orient choice and shape conduct. Values exist precisely as the standards in, of and for action. The term values may be defined as “the moral principles or accepted standards of a person or group”. (CED 1986)

N.K. Dutt (1986) defined value as “an endeavour which satisfies need system, psychological as well as physiological.” He argued that almost all human beings have the same physiological needs but they differ in their psychological needs, hence difference in their values and styles of life. Rokeach, (1988) defined a value is, “a single belief that guides action”.

Singh,(1992) opined that “Values are significant in one’s personality development. Values develop by direct learning through parents at home and the teachers at school and later on the person acquires the values of his society through the different media of communication. Values are significant in evaluating attitude toward objects and activities having social significance”.

Damodar Suar (1992) states that values are desirable ideals located centrally within one’s belief system. They are transferred from generation to generation through education, early life experience in family, schools and through socialization in organisations and institutions, values are also institutionalized partly in the form of legislation. Ultimately they constitute an attribute of the individual as well as of the collective culture. Thus values govern human behaviour.
Adhikari, (1994) asserted that values play an important role in shaping individual behaviour in social context. They are socially approved or disapproved desires or goal, conception or standards by which things are compared and approved or disapproved. Values are things in which people are interested, things they want and desire.

Angira, (1995) thinks that values are ideas about desirable states of affairs shared by members of a group or culture. Values are inculcated in childhood and are transferred at later stages. They guide our behaviour, act as actions and enable us to choose good or bad throughout life. We can understand a person through the knowledge of his values.

Pushpanadham, (1997) opined that values provide motivation, energy, drive, perseverance for one's action and ever self evaluation and correction.

CLASSIFICATION OF VALUES

Different Psychologists have classified values differently, Spranger (1928), the pioneer authority on values, was of the view that the personalities of men are best known through the study of their values. He gave six types of values, viz the theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious. In selecting these six types, spranger may be said to hold a some what flattering view of human nature.

Carl Rogers (1969), classified values into the following three categories: Operative values, conceived values and objective values. Operative values are employed when one makes a preferred choice of one kind of object over another. Conceived values are the preferences one who's for a symbolized object, ideal or goal. Perceived values involve the perception of values, that is, the realization or attempt to understand the worth or value. Objective values are what is objectively preferable, whether or not it is in fact sensed or conceived of as desirable.

The famous value orientations study of Kluckhohn and strodtbeck (1961) treats values as answers to certain fundamental questions about the nature of reality. Gordon's survey of interpersonal values (1960) and survey of personal values (1964) overlaps considerably with the concept of 'need' adapted by workers. These and a number of other studies are reviewed in Rokeach (1967), Kitwood (1974), Probably more than any other living Psychologist, has appreciated the centrality of values in understanding of human behaviour and tried to avoid the superficialities present in similar areas of social Psychology. His approach to values question is very direct and is based on a conception of values which appears to be more accurate than those of earlier workers.

Rokeach and Parker (1970) and subsequently Rokeach (1973) studied the importance of values at various income levels. Thirty six values were studied and divided into terminal and instrumental values. Both the instrumental and terminal
Values consist of a set of 18 values each. Serrano (1984) has reviewed the work of Social psychologist M. Rokeach and colleagues concerning the relationships among values, attitudes and behaviour. The nature and function of human value as developed by Rokeach (1973, 1979, 1980) have been summerised below.

Three dimensions of values can be distinguished as: the cognitive; the affective; and the behavioural.

A value system is an organized set of preferential stands that are used in making selections of objections and actions, resolving conflicts, invoking social sanctions, and coping with needs or claims for social and psychological defences of choices made or proposed. Values are components in the guidance of anticipatory and goal directed behaviour but they are also backward-looking in their frequent service to justify or explain past conduct.

The values which come to be constitutive of the structure of a societal system are the conceptions of the desirable type of society held by the members of the society of reference and applied to the particular society of which they are members and a value pattern then defines a direction of choice, and consequent commitment to action (Parson, 1968).

A values system is a hierarchical organization, a rank ordering of ideals or values in terms of importance (Rokeach, 1973). The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey scale of values (1960) enables one to measure the relative order of importance of six classes of values: theoretical, social, political, religious, aesthetic and economic.

Values and Opinion:
An opinion is defined as a verbal expression of some beliefs, attitude or value. Thurstone and Chavez (1929) defined opinion as "a verbal expression of attitude.... An opinion symbolizes an attitude.....opinion is used as the means for measuring attitudes, which underly beliefs, attitudes or values, the opinion reflected is a matter of inference.

Values and Faith:
Faith refers to one or more beliefs a person accepts as true, good or desirable, regardless of social consensus or objective evidence which are perceived as irrelevant. A delusion is a belief held on faith judged by an external observer to have no objective basis and which is in fact wrong.

Values and Sentiment:
The concept of sentiment has had a long history, has fallen into general disuse in the past decade or two. Asch (1952) however, talks of sentiments as if they are closer to what we call as values. In so far as operational definition and measurement are concerned, sentiments and attitude seem indistinguishable.

Values and social norms:
There are three ways in which values differ from social norms:
- A value may refer to mode of behaviour or end state of existence whereas a social norm refers only to a mode of behaviour.
• A value transcends specific situations in contrast, a social norm is a prescription or proscription to behave in a specific way in specific situations.
• A value is more personal and internal, whereas a norm is a consensual and external to the person.

**Values and Needs:** If some physiologists regard values and attitudes as more or less equivalent others regard values and needs as equivalent. Maslow, for instance, refers to self-actualization, both as a need and as a higher order value (1959, 1964). French and Kahn (1962) point out that in some respects the properties of a value and of a need are similar.

**Values and Traits:** The concept of trait carries with it a connotation of human characteristics that are highly fixed and not amenable to modifications by experimental or situational validation. About the only operations that one can easily perform on traits are to correlate them with other traits and factor-analyze them. A major advantage gained in thinking about a person as a system of values rather than a cluster of traits is that it becomes possible to conceive of his undergoing change as a result of changes in social conditions.

**Values and Interests:** To Ralph Barton Perry (1954) a value is any object of interest, and the two are therefore identical concepts, some writers have criticized the classical study of values (Allport, Vernon and Lindzey, 1960).

An interest is but one of the many manifestations of a value, and therefore, it has some of the attributes that a value has. But interest is a narrower concept than value. Interests in fact seem to resemble attitudes more than values, representing a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward certain objects (e.g. art, people, money).

**Values and Behaviour:** If it is indeed the case that values are standards that guide actions as well as attitudes, then knowing a person's values should enable us to predict how he will behave in various experimental and real life situations. Again, it is possible to specify in advance, not all the values that will predictably be related to a given behaviour but only the main ones. Thus religious values should best predict differences in religious behaviour, political values should best predict differences in political behaviour and so on.

If a certain value is found to predict a specific action, say, voting, for a particular candidate or cheating in a particular situation, we would have clear instance of a relation between a value and behaviour.

**JOB SATISFACTION**

Teaching is by far the largest of those occupations which lay claim to professional status. Status is the relative standing of an individual in the eyes of other members of society. It is determined by the degree of which an individual has authority, exercises influences and generates defence. Although an individual's status is determined in an important way by occupation, the status relevant qualities which teachers otherwise
posses can influence the occupational prestige of teaching in a reciprocal manner. Occupational prestige is the position of an occupation relative to other occupations. All members of society have a general notion of prestige. This determines the degree of defence, which they accord to individuals on the basis of their membership of an occupation. Like the personnel working in various departments, teachers of education departments should also get proper facilities with regard to their conditions of work service. But it was observed that the conditions of teachers serving in different institutions are far from satisfactory. Teachers have no freedom in educational matters. They have to satisfy the whims and idiosyncrasies of ignorant persons suffering from wrong notions and prejudices. Apart from this, the economic condition of teachers are also not satisfactory. They yield no respect in the society. This has made them pessimistic. There is no equality in the conditions of work and service. No regular avenues of promotions are available to them. This has an adverse effect on their efficiency and job satisfaction.

It would be interesting to note that man has been closely connected with work, but why he works remains a question for ever. It is a well known fact that the economic motive is not enough to explain this question, as we do find people who prefer less paying jobs. It is evident that a man tries during the course of his living to get the fulfilment of his desires and achievement in the various areas of his life activities.

One very serious problem seems to lie in the lack of a clear and widely accepted definition of just what is meant by the concept of job satisfaction. Ewen (1967) described job descriptive index (JDI) as, “An adjective checklist which measures satisfaction with five aspects of the job : the work itself, the supervisor, the co-workers pay and promotions. All JDI scale have reliabilities of 0.80 or higher.

Gruneberg (1976) said that job satisfaction is the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work. It expresses the amount of agreement between one’s expectatioins of the job and the rewards that the job providees. Since job satisfaction involves expectations, it relates to equity theory the the psychological contract, and motivation.

Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) reported that job satisfaction is part of life satisfaction. The nature of one’s environment of the job does affect one’s feeling on the job. Similarly, since a job is an important part of life, job satisfaction influences one's general life satisfaction.

Ernets and Daniel (1984) admitted that job satisfaction is a specific subset of attitudes held by organization members. It is the attitude one has towards his or her job. Stated another way it is one’s effective response to the job. Job satisfaction is a positive emotional state that occurs when a person’s job seems to fulfill important job values, provided these values are compatible with one’s needs.
Brooke, Russell and Price, (1988) stated that job satisfaction indicates an individual's general attitude towards the job. Hodson, (1991) pointed out that job satisfaction in the broadest sense simply refers to a person's general attitude towards the job or towards specific dimensions of the job.

Caldwell, (1991) noted that job satisfaction is an attitude that individuals maintain about their job. Their attitude is developed from their perceptions of their jobs.

Knoop, (1994) stated that an individual's judgement of what takes place at work would be expected to influence his or her satisfaction with the job. Allam, (1994) described that job satisfaction which can be defined as a positive emotional state, results from the personal analysis of one's work or work experience. It is an attitude that has the potential to affect performance, productivity motivation, interpersonal relationships and quality of life.

**Theories of Job Satisfaction**

**Rationale of job satisfaction : Motivator-hygenes Theory:** The rationale of the concept of motivators and hygienes (factors), based upon a theory of motivation proposed by Maslow (1943) underlies three basic assumptions:

- man's basic needs can be represented diagrammatically as two parallel arrows pointing in opposite directions—one arrow depicting his animal-Adam nature and the other representing his human Abraham nature.
- factors involved in producing job satisfaction are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction and the satisfiers are effective in motivating an individual to superior performance and efforts, but dissatisfiers are not (Herzberg, 1966). With in this context, Herzberg et al, (1959) argues that job satisfaction is basically a function of having the higher order needs satisfied. Since jobs are hard to get, not fulfilling these needs would not lead to job dissatisfaction but rather to job-neutrality. Many studies (Myers, 1964; Schwartz et al, 1968, Chastin, 1977; Abreu, 1980) confirm the motivator hygiene theory of Herzberg et al (1959), thus concluding that an appropriate relationship exists between satisfaction-dissatisfaction and intrinsic-extrinsic factors.

**Expectancy Valence Theory:** The development of equity theory can be traced to several prominent theorists working somewhat independently within the same general parameters. These variations on the theme are variously termed as the "cognitive dissonance" theory (Festinger, 1957; Heider, 1958), the distributive justice or exchange theory (Homans, 1961; Jacques, 1961; Patchen, 1961 and the "equity" or inequity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965; Weick and Nesset, 1968). While each of these models differs in some respects from the others, the general thrust of all of them is towards one basic unit of analysis that a major determinant of job satisfaction is the degree of equity or inequity that an individual perceives in a work situations. The degree of
equity is defined in terms of a ratio of an individual's input (such as effort) to outcomes (such as pay).

**Need-hierarchy theory**: A theoretical analysis by Locke (1970) states that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are properly conceived as outcomes of action. The effect of performance on satisfaction is viewed as a function of the degree to which it leads to the attainments of the individual's dominant job values. Dissatisfaction with one's past performance generates the desire to change one's performance, whereas satisfaction with one's performance produces the desire to repeat or maintain one's previous performance level.

Human beings are motivated towards personal growth, the fulfillment of which leads to the highest level of satisfaction. However, the needs may not always occur in an hierarchical order because of a lack of clear distinction between the various levels (Luthans; 1973, Maler; 1973; Hodgetts; 1975). According to Hayners et al. (1975) the weakness of this theory is that the concept of prepotency becomes less obvious when one moves up the hierarchy.

Katzell (1980) conceptualizes job satisfaction as "an employee's own evaluation of his or her job in terms of supervision, co-worker, pay, promotions and the work itself. This evaluation is actually a comparison between the employee's expectations about these job related factors and his or her actual experiences on the job".

The important distinction between the equity theory and the other theories of job satisfaction (need hierarchy theory, motivator-hygiene theory) is that the latter focus on the identification of specific factors in the individual or his environment which determine behaviour, whereas the former (as the expectancy-valence theory) concentrates on as understanding of the process by which behaviour is energized and sustained. Another major distinction that differentiates the equity theory from the other theories is that most of motivated behaviour is based on the perceived situations and not necessarily on the actual set of circumstances. Where Maslow saw behaviour largely in terms of personality need variables, Herzberg saw it largely in objective job content and in context factors. The equity theory generally argues that it is the perceived equity of the situations that stimulates behaviour and satisfaction.

The expectancy/valence theory goes under several names, including "expectancy theory" "instrumentality", "path goal theory" and a "valence-instrumently expectancy theory".

Here the term "expectancy valence theory" is used as being more descriptive of two major variables of the formulation. It can be considered as a process theory since it attempts to identify relationships among variable in a dynamic state as they affect individual behaviour.
Most of the theoretical and empirical work by expectancy/valence theorists has focussed on the motivation to work. Motivational force to perform or attempt is a multiplicative function of the expectancies or beliefs that individuals have concerning future outcomes. Vroom (1964) defines "expectancy" as "action outcome association". It is a statement of the extent to which an individual believes that a certain action will result in a particular outcome. Vroom (1964) has defined job satisfaction as a valence of outcomes or an anticipation of need satisfaction and is measured by the total amount of outcome valence available to an employee.

The theoretical formulations cited above make it abundantly clear that job satisfaction is a complex phenomenon derived from the weighing up of positive and negative feelings towards various aspects of the job of an individual. Its determinants, too, are complex and are inclusive of interaction of several "the job" and "off the job" variables.

**ADJUSTMENT**

The concept of adjustment was originally a biological one mentioned in Darwin's theory of evolution (1859) as adaptation. There it referred to the biological structures and processes that facilitates the survival of the species. The biological concept of adaption has been adopted by the psychologists and christened as "adjustment". From strictly the psychological point of view, adjustment covers needs gratification, skill in dealing with frustration, conflicts and peace of mind. It means learning how to get along successfully with other people and how to meet the demands of life.

In the literature pertaining to theoretical models and research findings of adjustment; there appears to be a lack of unanimity about its definition. Rogers (1942) pointed to growth tendencies within an individual which lead him to seek mastery or control over himself and his environment in order to realise his highest potential, and to produce the most harmonious relationship possible between himself and his environment. Later, he defined "the well adjusted individual as the one able to accept all perceptions, including those about self, into his personality organisation (Rogers 1947).

According to Gates (1950), adjustment is a continuous process by which a person varies his behaviour to produce a more harmonious relationship between himself and his environment. Thus adjustment shows the extent to which an individual's personality functions efficiently in a world of other people. Lehner and Kube (1955) and Coleman (1956) opined that adjustment is a continuous process by which a living organism maintains the balance between his need and the circumstances. The psychological meaning of the adjustment process has been considered to consist of the efforts of an organism to overcome frustration in achieving the satisfaction of a need (Symonds, 1956). The instinctual development and the treatment he receives from his environment combine in a primary process of adjustment in an infant, a
secondary process of adjustment goes on from about the fifth year of life till its end (Holmos, 1957).

Schneiders (1960) defined adjustment as "......a process, involving both mental and behavioural responses, by which an individual strives to cope successfully with inner needs, tensions, frustration and conflicts and affect a degree of harmony between inner demands and those imposed on him by the objective world in which he lives".

Shaffer (1961) defined adjustment as "the process by which living organism maintains a balance between its need and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs". Shaffer's definition lays stress on needs and their satisfaction. One feels adjustment to the extent one's needs are gratified or in the way of being gratified. The individual tries to bring changes in his circumstances in order to overcome the difficulties in the realisation of his needs. Sometimes, he reduces the quantum of his need so that he may feel satisfied within the limited resources of needs and, in this way, he tries to keep a balance between his needs and the capacity of realising these needs. As long as the balance is maintained, he remains adjusted. The very moment it is disturbed, he drifts towards mal-adjustment.

Adjustment or healthy personality is manifested by the individual who has been able to gratify his needs through accepted behaviour such that his own personality is no longer a problem to him (Jourard 1963). The well adjusted person can, with in the limitations of his own personality, react, effectively to different situations and resolve conflicts, frustrations and problems without the use of symptomatic behaviour (Schneiders, 1965). He is, therefore relatively free of such disabling symptoms as, chronic anxiety, scruples obsessions, indecision or psychosomatic disturbances. He creates a world of interpersonal relations and satisfactions that contributes to the continuous growth of personality since adjustment in itself is neither good nor bad. It can be defined most simply as a process involving both mental and behaviour responses, by which an individual strives to cope with inner needs, tensions, frustrations and conflicts and to bring harmony between these inner demands and those imposed upon him by the world in which he lives. Taken in this sense, the majority of responses fit into the concept of adjustment.

A scientific study of adjustment is concerned with those human responses, mental as well as behavioural, by which people attempt to cope with different situations and problems of everyday life, the conflicts and frustration that arise with the stresses, and strains that are encountered as one goes about one's daily tasks. An individual's adjustment is adequate, wholesome or helpful to the extent that he has established a harmonious relationship between himself and the conditions, situations and persons who comprise his physical and social environment. Among the criteria that encompass the important components of adjustment behaviour are the possessions of a
wholesome outlook on life, a realistic perceptions of life, emotional and social maturity, and a good balance between the inner and outer forces that activate human behaviour (Crow, 1967).

Human adjustment is a never ending process (Ruch, 1970). In the constant process of attempting to meet both inner needs and environmental demands, no one can escape a certain amount of tension and stress which may lead to frustration.

Encyclopedia Britannica (1974) describes adjustment as the process of behaviour by which men and animals as well, maintain an equilibrium between their needs and the demands and obstacles of their environment. In this simplest form, a sequence of adjustment begins when some need is felt and ends when that need is satisfied. In general the adjustment process involves a motive of needs in the form of a strong persistent stimulus the thwarting or nonfulfilment of this need, varied activity, or trial and error behaviour, leading eventually to some response that removes the initiating stimulus and completes the adjustment. The psychological criterion of the solving of an adjustment is the elimination or reduction of the stimulation that was the source of the activity. In the total behaviour of the human beings adjustments rarely occurs in isolated, but many have to be made simultaneously. Satisfactory adjustment, therefore, requires unified and integrated behaviour, in which all motives are reasonably satisfied with due regard to their functioning as an interrelated system.

In Eysenck's Encyclopedia of psychology (1975) has been adjustment defined as a state in which the needs of the individual on one hand and claims of society on the other hand are fully satisfied. Lazarus (1976) states that adjustment consists of the psychological processes by means of which the individual manages to cope with various demands or pressures. Bhatia and Purohit (1983) consider that adjustment is directly connected with needs and problems of life and refers to the behaviour pattern through which those needs are satisfied or problems are solved habitually.

According to Singh (1983) adjustment is a precarious and ever changing balance between the needs and desires of the individuals on the one hand and the demands of the environments or society on the other. Adjustment is a process by which atwinge organism maintains a balance between needs and circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs. In our complex society, human needs with which adjustment is directly related are also complex. As a result no person is wholly adjusted. Cent percent adjustment is a psychological myth. Everyman tries to adjust according to the best of his ability and intelligence.

Adjustment has been considered as an index of intergration, a harmonious behaviour of the individual by which other individual of society, say, a particular person is well adjusted (Pathak, 1990). Rao (1990) suggested that one needs to make some sort of adjustment with the problem, that is, rectification of earlier ways of feeling with it, for maximum satisfaction. According to Patil (1992) adjustment is one of the
most important parts of the human life; the process of adjustment starts from the birth of the child and it continues through life. So adjustment is the relationship between an individual and his environment.

According to Srivastava (1996) adjustment is a harmonious relationship with the environment in which most individual needs are satisfied in socially acceptable ways, and resulting in forms of behaviour which may range from passive conformity to vigorous action. Adjustment is an important state of the person, which influences the relationships with others. The adjusted person is said to be mentally sound, who seems to be happy in every walk of life. On the other hand, the maladjusted person is disturbed with marked failures in life and unsatisfactory relations with others.

Values and Adjustment: By definition, adjustment is concerned with values, one cannot think of adjustment without being sensitive to the good or the bad or to the right and the wrong. Adjustment is that which brings to a person and to his social group the good and protects him from the bad. However, adjustment is not necessarily identical with moral values, and an individual adjustment cannot be judged simply in terms of his acceptance of and allegiance to moral values. On the other hand, it is possible that exceptionally well-adjusted persons might be considered undesirable.

Areas of Adjustment: Adjustment is an active process that occurs as the individual lives in his family situation, advances educationally, pursues vocational outlets, and engages in social relationships. Thus the areas of adjustment embrace all these realms of human experience and interaction. Hence we speak of home adjustment, social adjustment, school adjustment, vocational adjustment, emotional adjustment, health adjustment and so on. Positive life adjustment applies especially to the ways in which an individual attempts to satisfy his needs, wants and interests in relation to those with whom he confers.

Different areas of adjustment
- $P_1$: Adjustment with academic and general environment of the Institution
- $P_2$: Socio-Psycho-Physical Adjustment
- $P_3$: Professional relationship adjustment
- $P_4$: Personal life adjustment
- $P_5$: Financial adjustment and job satisfaction

For the purpose of present investigation the five factors or areas of teacher adjustment have temporarily been merged into three areas only because:
- Socio-Psycho-Physical adjustment, professional relationship adjustment and personal life adjustment areas are very closely related. Therefore these three areas ($P_2 + P_3 + P_4$) were merged into one area. So that adjustment will be studied on three dimensions in the present study viz. $P_1$, ($P_2 + P_3 + P_4$) and $P_5$. 


REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES
VALUES

Singh (1974), Patel (1979) found that values of teacher differed according to their subject and that values do not depend on age, sex and residence. Singh (1975) studied attitudes, values and achievement motivation of the medical students. The study revealed that theoretical and social values were found to be the most dominant and religious values the least dominant among medical students. Kaul (1977) concluded that economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious values did not differentiate the females significantly on the continuum of high and low acceptance. Kumar (1981) found that urban male teachers were moral than rural male teachers.

Swansor (1981) found that dominant value preference does not aid the teacher in planning instruction in basic ecology. Jain (1982) showed that the theoretical and aesthetic values of old and young teachers were not significantly different. Young teachers had more favourable attitude towards profession and educational process than the older teachers.

Tiwana (1982) concluded that creative writers were found to be theoretical, aesthetic and social in their association and lower on political, religious and economic values.

Sarique (1984) concluded that teachers, educational viewpoints were found to be related to their political, aesthetic and economic values. Progressive teachers were found to be more theoretical and social values oriented than traditional teachers.

Zuberi (1984) concluded that teachers high on theoretical values were found to dominate their classes with talk and rarely asked questions, those high on economic values exhibited facilitative behaviours, asked narrow questions and praised their pupils. Those high on aesthetic values used controlling behaviour and also allowed pupil talk. Mehta (1985) found that theoretical, aesthetic and political values changed negatively.

Judia (1986) conducted a study on a sample of staff level nurses from acute care hospitals which provided data for this study and it was found that the sample group demonstrated significant correlations between job satisfaction scores and the interpersonal characteristic values of conformity and independence with independence being negatively correlated.

Paul (1986) found that urban adolescents were more affectionately disposed to others, with sincerity and tolerance; female adolescents were more aesthetic, conscious of being punctual and regular, more striving for love, sympathy, tolerance, peace.

Prasit (1986) conducted a study on a sample of 140 secondary social studies teachers of Mahasarakham province and found that these teachers tended to be
generally liberal in relation to social issues and to reflect very liberal position in relations to economic issues and a social value factor.

Francis, (1986) investigated on a sample of 984 Oregon community college instructors and found statistically significant differences in each set of dependent variables; (with the exception of instrumental values) for teaching experience and college location and terminal values for college location of 396 correlations between the Ohio Work Values Inventory (OWVI) scales and the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) values, 162 were significant at the .05 level (41%). The signs of the correlations indicated a logical relation between the two instruments.

Ann (1987) investigated the correlational relationship between specific personal value orientation of principals administering in the comparison groups and found that differences in values scalings of the principals in the three groups were not found to be statistically different.

Hunt (1987) compared the value system of public school principals and middle managers by using the Rokeach value survey and found that with a few exceptions; the value system of principals and managers were found to be similar and overlapping. Jack (1987) investigated the work values of 353 faculty members at church related colleges and found statistically significant difference between the work value means score of faculty members when they were categorized according to type of institution, teaching discipline age, rank, degree and sex.

Hager (1988) examined the relationship between organizational values as manifestation of corporate culture and employee job satisfaction and it was found that present members would both share the culture to a greater extent and be better satisfied with the job than were for mere members during their company affiliation. The specific values of Herbalife would be correlated beyond chance with specific dimensions of job satisfaction.

Lee (1988) conducted a study on a sample of twenty percent of public and private secondary schools in West Virginia and found no significant relationships between the following factors and value orientations of teachers and principals: age, marital status, educational experience, teaching area, professional education, parents education, parents occupation years of residency or sex. Myron (1988) investigated the personal values and job satisfaction on sample of 300 subjects and reported that people and their needs and motivations were uniquely different.

Wiryohandoyo (1988) conducted a study and concluded that student teachers toward social values and teaching professionalism varied by institutionally related strategy.

Coffin (1989) conducted a study on a sample of 422 Connecticut public school teachers and concluded that teacher's personal goal and mode values and the social
values, international harmony and equality, did not relate to specific demographic and personal characteristics.

Mae (1990) investigated the work values and degree of job satisfaction on a sample of 72 subjects and findings indicated that the potential minority leaders included in this study differed from norm groups on selected work values and individuals participating in the minority leadership development project were less satisfied with their current jobs.

Suellyn (1992) conducted a study on two groups of teachers contained 95 teachers with 10 or more absences and 98 teachers with no more than one absent for the same time period and found that the variables of age, experience, marital status, class size, family income, social satisfaction, job satisfaction did not show a relationship to work attendance (all variables p>.05) and variables of sex, pay, security and personal values did show a relationship to work attendance (all variables p<.05).

Barnes (1993) revealed that over ninety percent of the survey respondents agreed that the eight values were essential to their institution for each of the three groups analyzed. A taxonomy of essential values for the twelve liberal arts colleges was developed which included the eight original values plus academic freedom.

Rashmi (1993) conducted a study on a sample of 20 senior secondary school principals of west district of Delhi and 5 teachers from each of the schools and major findings were that value patterns possessed by school principals depended upon their liking and disliking of certain things. The principals' satisfaction depended upon how well his values found expression in his daily life style.

Steela (1993) investigated that whether one thinks, as Simon (1989) points out, that basic values in organizations are formed from propositions that reflect values of key leaders and used Allport study of values on a sample of South Texas Junior College and included key leaders, President, Dean, division chairs, department chairs and key staff a total of 26 people) and found that no key leader group showed a high relation between their stated values and those of the organization. Follow up question did show some relation between key leader values and subordinate values.

Leonard's (1993) study reported that the value based argument regarding differences among sectors of the economy are largely unfound and that the differences that do exist should be explained at other levels of culture, i.e., language rituals, legends or myths. There may be differences in attitudes and even behaviour, the values that are associated with each sector are not significantly different.

Archana, (1995) investigated the value change in secondary school students using Rokeach's Value Survey (Form D) on a sample of 80 students of 5 different schools of Lucknow city and found that the boys and girls differed significantly on their post-test performance for two target values namely, self-respect and a sense of accomplishment. Further, these differences were in favour of girls.
K.P. (1995) investigated the value clarification of secondary school students and found that there was no significant difference between the moral judgement, value clarification, self-confidence and self concept of students belonging to different levels of S.E.S. and sex. Moral judgement, value clarification, self confidence and self concept were found to be independent of birth order.

Dharmendra (1995) examined value patterns among college youth of Rohilkhand region on a sample of 400 students belonging to three streams (Arts, Science and Commerce) and found that social values were found highest among arts stream, theoretical values among science stream and commerce stream and aesthetic values the lowest in all the three stream. On economic values, the commerce and science students differed significantly.

Robert (1995) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and mission values and found that job satisfaction was significantly related to academic degree, job classification and length of employment. Religious affiliation was significantly related to job satisfaction. The mission values congruence composite measure was significantly related to five of the seven demographic variables.

Joanne (1996) conducted a qualitative study on teaching behaviour and teacher values and suggested two problematic areas: A lack of multicultural reading material within the courses and evaluating methods that were not aesthetic or inclusive of different learning style orientations.

I-heng (1996) conducted a study and found that there were a wide range of values found to be positively related to general and specific aspects of job satisfaction among the Chinese professionals. In male group only a few values were found to be positive and statistically significant in relation to general and specific job satisfaction.

Lynn (1997) conducted a study and developed a rationale that prior research into the constructs of moral reasoning and human values (conceptualized in 1973 by Rokeach) as being instrumental (states of being) or terminal (end states of existence) has produced significant but inconsistent results. He found no relationship to the degree of importance assigned to individual Rockeach’s Value Survey terminal or instrumental values statements.

JOB SATISFACTION

Lavingia (1974) conducted a study to find out relationship between job efficiency and job satisfaction on a sample of 1600 teachers from primary and secondary schools of the state of Gujarat. The study revealed that young and unmarried teachers were more satisfied than the middle aged and married teachers and female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers.

By taking a sample of 521 high secondary school teachers of Delhi, Singh (1974) found that female teachers were more satisfied than the male teachers. Anand’s (1977) studies also reported the same findings.
Reddy and Ramakrishnath (1981) found that teachers working in private colleges are more satisfied with their jobs than those who are in government colleges.

Winkler (1983) in his attempt to measure the perception of job satisfaction of University faculty members in their present position found that male teachers are more satisfied as compared to female faculty members with their present job.

Birmingham (1984) concluded that teachers over 55 years of age and under 25 were the most satisfied and also females were more satisfied than males.

According to Niles (1985) race and sex has little influence upon subjects, expectations perceptions and job satisfaction. By taking a sample of 300 primary and 300 secondary school teachers working in Lucknow, Dixit (1986) found that female teachers were more satisfied than the male teachers. The same result was reported by Samad (1986) who conducted his study on 175 teachers selected randomly from 18 government school of Chandigarh.

Srivastava's (1986) study was conducted on a sample of 100 educational experts and 987 primary teachers of Faizabad division and it was found that as compared to male teachers, female teachers were significantly higher in job satisfaction.

Yaowapa's (1987) study was conducted on a sample of 235 teachers from four colleges in the North of Thailand and it was found that sex and age were significantly associated with job satisfaction/dissatisfaction. Men were more satisfied than women.

By taking a sample of 547 administrators Whyte (1987) found that there was a significant difference between men and women administrator in overall job satisfaction. Women were significantly less satisfied than men administrators.

Marlene (1988) conducted a study on a sample of 770 certified public school principals and found that a significant and positive relationship exists between the job characteristics (task significance, autonomy and job feedback) and job satisfaction. Gender moderated only the relationship between job feedback and job satisfaction.

Maria (1988) investigated the teacher job satisfaction in relation to the education system based on certain theories of concept. In this study the following aspects are viewed as being important: recruitment, selection, training of the teachers, appointment of the teacher to a vacancy staff development, in service training, reward systems supporting services, school climate, evaluation of the teacher task fulfilment and the teachers personnel contribution with regard to his job satisfaction.

By taking a sample of 513 usable forms Arthus (1989) found that status effects indicated the most satisfied faculty on all campuses were the full moon part time category, with the least satisfied being the other moon part time group. No significant differences were found between the full time and part time faculties.

Sundararajan and Rajasekar (1989) conducted a study on a sample of 278 teachers and found that the women teachers working in polytechnics have better job satisfaction than the men teachers working in them. Same finding was reported by Sangha (1989) and Kaile and Jaidka (1990).
Walk (1989) conducted a study on a sample of 439 faculty represents and found that job satisfaction did not differ significantly by age, gender, ethnicity or marital status.

Charles E. (1990) conducted a study to compare mean salaries of the twenty schools from 1983-84 to 1988-89 and found that higher mean salaries at unionized school for all six years, but the advantage is significant (.05 level) in only one of the six years. Relative to job satisfaction levels results reveal significantly higher levels for non-unionized faculty in three of the six dimensions convenience, administrative, and recognition/support.

A study conducted by Laurence (1990) revealed that with regard to gender, there was no significant differences in overall job satisfaction. Men and women shared self actualization as the primary predictor of job satisfaction.

Mae (1990) conducted a study on a sample which was drawn from the applicant pool of the Texas A & M minority leadership development project. There were 72 subjects included and found that individuals participation in the MLDP were less satisfied with their current jobs.

By conducting their investigation on a sample of 350 higher secondary school teachers of Madras city, Sundararajan and Vivekanandan (1990) also did not find any significant difference between the men and women teachers in respect of their job satisfaction.

Chen (1991) conducted a study on a sample of 200 industrial arts teachers and found that among eight factors relating to job satisfaction, the colleagues factor was satisfied by most industrial arts teachers. Most industrial arts teachers were dissatisfied with regard to working condition factor.

Lynn (1991) conducted a study on a sample of 120 Nebraska Public High School principals and revealed that high school principals found the most satisfaction with the variety of their job, the chance to do things for other people, the ability to keep busy and the way their jobs provided steady employment.

By taking a sample of 348 special education teachers Maureen (1991) found that significant differences were identified on three factors: pay colleagues and working conditions within the educational setting.

By taking a sample of 155 teachers of the Annamalai University, Sundararajan and Minnalkodi (1991) found that there was no significant differences between men and women teachers in respect of their job satisfaction.

Sharma (1991) conducted a study on a sample of 100 teachers from 10 high and higher secondary schools of Ferozepur and found female teachers to be more satisfied with their profession than their male counterparts and job satisfaction among the male teachers, on the whole was pretty low.
Bruce W. (1992) conducted a study on a sample of 171 male and 108 females and findings revealed that males are more satisfied, and females are less satisfied. Gender differences related to job satisfaction in this district do exist.

A study of the elementary and middle school principals was conducted in Los Angeles by Lopez (1992) to determine the factor that contributes to job satisfaction. It was found that both job content and job context factors were significantly related to job satisfaction. The age and gender of principals did not yield any significant differences in reported job satisfaction.

Moore (1992) conducted a study on a sample of 144 teachers and concluded that the dissatisfiers that were identified were recognition, work itself and responsibility. Teachers reported that work itself, responsibility and recognition were affected most often by the good event.

By taking a sample of 305 full time faculty members in four community colleges' in rural North East Texas, Clay (1993) found that the rural community college faculty members in this study were satisfied in general with their work.

Clifford (1993) conducted a study on a sample of 197 teachers from 50 public school systems in Ohio and found no differences between male and females teachers' level of general satisfaction. Generally, public school teachers in Ohio are satisfied with their job.

Gatzke (1993) conducted a study based on the schools and staffing survey, an extant data base from national sample, provided the data for the path analysis procedures used in this study. The path analysis results suggested that the administrative climate (i.e. leadership, teacher participation in decision-making, teacher autonomy) had the greatest effect on perceptions of job satisfaction for both general and special education teachers.

Patrice E. (1993) conducted a study on a sample of 81 school principals and 579 school teachers and found that relationship oriented female principals generated higher teachers job satisfaction with pay than did relationship oriented male principals. Female principals generated lower teacher job satisfaction with pay than did male principals.

Biswa and De (1994) conducted a study on a sample of 200 secondary school teachers selected from West and South districts of Tripura and found female teachers to be more satisfied than male teachers.

Caroly (1994) conducted a study on a sample of 638 principals from California, Florida, Nevada, Utah, Colorado and Texas and found that overall sixty seven percent of the principals reported themselves as a very satisfied. The findings indicated no statistically significant differences (.05 levels) in the satisfaction of principals in the time settings.
By taking a sample of 612 teachers from three private schools Jareed (1994) found that teachers in selected private school in Bangkok, Thailand showed high intrinsic satisfaction and there were statistically significant relationships between job satisfaction and demographic characteristics of the teachers.

A study was conducted by Peter (1994) on a sample 200 teachers and found that with minor variations, teachers irrespective of their gender, age or length of teaching experience, were satisfied with teaching itself, supervision and their co-workers. Female teachers were more satisfied with teaching itself and their co-worker. Teachers born in 1960 or later were more satisfied with their co-workers. Teachers with 6 or less years of teaching experience were more satisfied with teaching itself.

Sudhira (1994) conducted a study on a sample of physical education teachers of 20 districts of Madhya Pradesh and found that the physical education teachers working in private schools had significantly higher job dissatisfaction as compared to teachers working in semi government and government schools.

By taking a sample of two full time faculty members, Suwat (1994) found that the intrinsic and general job satisfaction Univariate means for the public university faculty members were significantly greater than the corresponding means for the private university faculty members.

Prelow (1995) conducted a study on a sample of 336 home economics teachers in Ohio and found that work and family life and job training teaching are similar on level of satisfaction with teaching home economics and satisfaction with principals. Nevertheless they are significantly different on satisfaction with teaching and satisfaction with school and co-worker. Job training teachers had higher means than work and family life teachers.

Rober L, (1995) found that job satisfaction was significantly related to academic degree, job classification and length of employment. Religious affiliation was significantly related to job satisfaction.

Lee (1995) investigated the impact of interdisciplinary teaming on the job satisfaction on a sample of 290 riverside country middle school interdisciplinary teams of teachers and 169 riverside country middle school teachers in departmentalized settings and found that although differences were not significant at the .05 level of confidence, teachers of middle school interdisciplinary teams were more satisfied. No significant differences were found between the two groups of teachers in the areas of satisfaction with co-workers.

Ausekar (1996) conducted a study on a sample of 40 teachers, 20 from government school and 20 from private schools, and it was found that not only thirteen percent of school teachers were greatly satisfied. 70 percent of the teachers were satisfied and 17 percent of the teachers were moderately satisfied.
By taking a sample of 179 current school board members and 269 former school board members, Faye L. (1996) concluded that achievement, responsibility, recognition and interpersonal relations with subordinates were perceived as the factors creating the greater job satisfaction to school board.

Ann (1997) conducted a study on a sample of 500 multinational corporations and found significantly positive relationship between country experience and the proportion of expatriates in that subsidiaries.

By taking a sample of 107 new teachers in a large urban school district in Southern California, Gretchen (1997) found conducted a study on job satisfaction factors and retention of minority versus non minority teachers and found significant differences between minority and non-minority teachers in two sub factors of job satisfaction. Minority teachers were significantly more satisfied than non minority teachers.

Karon L. (1997) conducted a study on the concept of teachers job satisfaction through the theory of work adjustment (Dewis and Lofquist, 1984) and found that the general satisfaction level among teachers were low. Longevity did not prove statistically significant relation with any of the twenty individuals facets except security.

By taking a sample of 1685 teachers, Furtune (1997) that there were significant differences among school levels on all seven position charcteristics and all seven organizational climate factors among the level of schools. Salary was the factor with the lowest level of satisfaction, and relationship with peers was the factor with the highest level of satisfaction.

Gaonkar, V (1998) conducted a study on a sample of 210 university teachers in Dharwad and found that higher job satisfaction as well as life satisfaction among the middle aged adult group. It was also observed that job satisfaction is influenced by life satisfaction.

ADJUSTMENT

Sinha and Aggarwal (1971) found that job satisfaction and general adjustment among the white collar worker were significantly related with each other. They also found that home, social and emotional adjustment were also significantly associated with job satisfaction.

Pandey (1973) and Gupta (1977) found significant positive relationship between home adjustment and job satisfaction and also between health adjustment and job satisfaction.

Goyal (1980) conducted a study on a sample of teacher educators and found the relationship between attitude, job satisfaction, adjustment and professional interests of teacher educators in different categories. He concluded that job satisfaction was associated significantly at 0.01 level with occupational adjustment ($r=0.376$). (Adjustment and job satisfaction are positively related has also been
unequivocal finding of Hoppock (1935), Heron (1952a, 1955, Herzberg et al. (1957), Medhi and Sinha (1971) and Anand (1977). Results obtained by Crandall (1980) indicate that sex, age and stress may be important moderates of the relation of social interest to adjustment. Verma and Upadhyay (1981) found out that higher degrees of adjustment were associated with better school achievement. Sultana et al. (1981) found significant differences in all areas of adjustment. It was found that behaviour problems and problems of adjustment were more common among the urban population.

Sharma (1981) in a comparative study of extroversion, neuroticism, achievement motivation and adjustment found that males scored higher on emotional adjustment than females. Malhotra (1981) found males to be better adjusted than females in his study on personality, self-perception and adjustment of university statements.

Sanghi (1992) conducted a study on a sample of 98 engineers from private sector and 86 from public sector from six large organisations of Rajasthan and found that a positive significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and personal adjustment for the public sector.

Philip (1992) conducted a study on a sample of 82 banking employees in the south eastern region of the country and found that employees who were subjected to merger events were more sensitive to supervision than those in the non-merged group. This could mean that other work aspects were more important in work adjustment than pay.

By taking a sample of 868 students both male and females, Balbir Kaur, R. (1993) found that the boys and girls were found to differ on self sentiment motive, assertive motive, total motives and were also found to differ on adjustment. The adjustment and narcissism motive were found to be positively and significantly related.

Felicity (1993) conducted a study on a sample of 170 undergraduate students and found that adjustment, as measured by the evaluation with the city, could be predicted by the evaluation of the experience with the people.

Prasadh (1993) conducted a study on a sample comprised of students of Andhra Pradesh residential school and APSW residential school of Visakhapatnam and found that there was no significant relationship between adjustment and social integrationation. There was a significant and positive relationship between adjustment and achievement of students of AP residential schools.

By taking a sample of 330 teachers covering both males and females, R.S. (1993) found that there was a significant difference between male and female teachers in their adjustment in favour of male teachers. The rural and urban teachers did not differ significantly on their adjustment.

Vasanthal R. (1993) conducted a study on a sample of 300 students and found that there was a significant positive correlation between adjustment and achievement. As regards parental occupational status, it was found that children of those parents
on different occupation did not differ among themselves on their adjustment and their achievement.

Manju (1994) conducted a study on a sample of 1000 school going adolescent girls and found that there was a significant effect of sense of humour on the total adjustment. Emotional adjustment, social adjustment, and total adjustment were significantly related to sense of humour.

By taking a sample of 400 students, covering 200 from science and 200 from arts group of +2 level, Parkash, (1994) found that students belonging to rich school environment were significantly better adjusted than those coming from poor school environment. The +2 science students had significantly better school adjustment, higher educational aspirations and lesser economic value than their arts counterparts.

A study was conducted by Faith (1995) and found that 33 adjustment problems presented on the survey were identified as perceived problems. 29 items were identified as major problems by some respondents. Four variables were found to be statistically significant and related to low number of adjustment problems.

Leela (1995) conducted a study on a sample of 25 school and colleges, which were selected using stratified random sampling technique and found that the parent present students were different significantly from the parent absent students on their personality adjustment, while they did not differ on the study habits, except on comprehension and concentration dimensions of study habits. There was no significant differences between the two group of their academic achievement.

Ann (1997) conducted a study on a sample of 500 multinational corporations and found that cross cultural adjustment had significant positive relationship between country experience and the proportion of expatriates that subsidias.

G. Baratha (1997) conducted a study and found that the girls were better adjusted in home environment than the boys. Educationally the high achievers had better adjustment in home environment than the educationally backward student.

Karen Z. (1997) conducted a study on the theory of work adjustment (Dawis and Lofquist 1984). This research project examined the concept of teachers job satisfaction through the theory of work adjustment and found that the general satisfaction legal among teachers was low.

EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM

During last few decades, the status of the teachers had deteriorated much. The reasons of this are not difficult to find. Determination of their service conditions, the isolation in which teachers work, phenomenal expansion of the educational system, lowering of standards of teachers training, a general impression that a very large number of teachers donot perform their duty properly, changes in the value system in society etc. have played a pivot role in affecting the attitudes and values of teachers as well.
It has long been established through research that values of teachers directly affect the attitudes and values of students. Teachers are the shapers of coming up generations. It is said that values are “not taught but caught” and children catch the values from the environment in which they breathe whether home or school. Hence study of values of teachers is all the more necessary since these values are to be transmitted to hundreds of students. The present study has therefore been undertaken to study values of school and college teachers in relation to job satisfaction and adjustment.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The problem has thus been states as follows:

“A Study of Values of School and College Teachers in relation to their Job Satisfaction and Adjustment”.

**DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

- Values of School and College teachers were compared in relation to some selected variables only.
- Among school and college teachers, only lecturers were included in the study, viz: school lecturers and college lecturers.
- To study was restricted to lecturers of privately managed recognised senior secondary schools and colleges of the Punjab. Lecturers of government senior secondary schools and college and universities were not included in this study.

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The study was conducted to attain the following objectives:

- To study and compare value preference patterns of school and college teachers.
- To study and compare value preference patterns of school and college teachers in relation to gender.
- To study relationship between job satisfaction and adjustment scores for different categories of teachers.
- To study value preference patterns of school and college male and female teachers at different adjustment levels in different areas of adjustment.
- To study the value preference patterns of college male teachers at different levels in the three dimensions of job satisfaction.
- To study the value preference patterns of high middle and low adjustment groups of college male teachers in the three areas of adjustment.
- To study significance of difference in value preference patterns of different groups of teachers.
HYPOTHESES

H_0 1: There is no correspondence in value preference patterns of school and college teachers.

H_0 2: There is no correspondence between value preference patterns of school and college male and female teachers.

H_0 3: Job satisfaction is independent of adjustment in jobs for school and college, male and female teachers.

H_0 4: There is no correspondence in value systems of school and college, male and female teachers for academic, professional and financial areas of adjustment.

H_0 4.1: There is no correspondence between value system (instrumental) of school and college male teachers for high, middle and low academic adjustment.

H_0 4.2: There is no correspondence between value systems (terminal) of school and college male teachers for high, middle and low academic adjustment.

H_0 4.3: There is no correspondence between value systems (instrumental) of school and college female teachers for high, middle and low academic adjustment.

H_0 4.4: There is no correspondence between value systems (terminal) of school and college female teachers for high, middle and low academic adjustment.

H_0 4.5: There is no correspondence between value systems (instrumental) of school and college male teachers for high, middle and low professional adjustment.

H_0 4.6: There is no correspondence between value systems (terminal) of school and college male teachers for high, middle and low professional adjustment.

H_0 4.7: There is no correspondence between value systems (instrumental) of school and college female teachers for high, middle and low professional adjustment.

H_0 4.8: There is no correspondence between value systems (terminal) of school and college female teachers for high, middle and low professional adjustment.

H_0 4.9: There is no correspondence between value systems (instrumental) of school and college male teachers for high, middle and low financial adjustment.

H_0 4.10: Value preference patterns (terminal) of school and college male teachers of high, middle and low financial adjustment are not different.

H_0 4.11: Value preference patterns (instrumental) of school and college female teachers of high, middle and low financial adjustment are not different.
\( H_0 \, 4.12: \) Value preference patterns (terminal) of school and college female teachers of high, middle and low financial adjustment are not different.

\( H_0 \, 5: \) There is no correspondence between value preference patterns of college male teachers with High, middle and Low levels of job satisfaction on personal, social and institutional dimensions of job satisfaction.

\( H_0 \, 5.1: \) Value preference patterns (Instrumental) of college male teachers with high, middle and low job satisfaction for personal dimensions of job satisfaction are not different.

\( H_0 \, 5.2: \) Value preference patterns (Instrumental) of college male teachers with high, middle and low job satisfaction for social dimensions of job satisfaction are not different.

\( H_0 \, 5.3: \) Value preference patterns (Instrumental) of high, middle and low job satisfaction groups of college male teachers do not correspond for institutional dimensions of job satisfaction.

\( H_0 \, 5.4: \) There is no correspondence between value systems (terminal) of high, middle and low job satisfaction groups of college male teachers for personal dimensions of job satisfaction.

\( H_0 \, 5.5: \) There is no correspondence between value systems (terminal) of high, middle and low job satisfaction groups of college male teachers for social dimensions of job satisfaction.

\( H_0 \, 5.6: \) There is no correspondence between value systems (terminal) of high, middle and low job satisfaction groups of college male teachers for institutional dimensions of job satisfaction.

\( H_0 \, 6: \) There is no correspondence in value preference patterns of college male teachers with high, middle and low adjustment and at different dimensions of adjustment.

\( H_0 \, 7: \) The value preference patterns (instrumental and terminal) of high, middle and low sub groups of teachers for academic, professional and financial adjustment are not different.