CHAPTER – II
THEORETICAL VIEWPOINT
ABOUT VARIABLES

With a view to know about the nature of various independent variables and dependent variable the relationship of these independent variables with the dependent variable of administrative behaviour, the Theoretical viewpoint about these variables under consideration have been presented in this chapter.

2.1 ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOUR

Getzel (in Halpin, 1958) described administration as a social process in which behaviour was conceived as a product, whereas, Hemphil (in Halpin, 1958) described administration as a process of solving mutual problems.

Griffiths (1959) developed the idea that decision-making is the central function of the administrator. Parson’s (in Halpin, 1958) interest enriched the study of formal organizations. It was Halpin (1958) who consolidated the earlier views to weave a strong theoretical groundwork of administrative theory on which he systematically built the empirical structures of administrative behaviour analysis.

Halpin (1966) first mentioned about administrator behaviour in his paradigm for research on administrator behaviour. According to him, the understanding of administrative behaviour is helpful to spot out missing elements in our research knowledge about administration and to achieve a closer integration of empirical findings and theoretical analysis. Since Halpin, several American, Canadian and Australian researchers explored and deepened the understanding about the behaviour of administrators in the areas of educational administration.
In describing administrator behaviour, a deliberate distinction is drawn between administrator behaviour as against administrative behaviour because our research interest centers upon the behaviour of the officially designated administrators of formal organization, who, by virtue of being the principals of schools, are the administrators and therefore, their acknowledged leaders (Halpin, 1966).

2.1.1 DOMAINS OF ADMINISTRATOR BEHAVIOUR

In U.S.A., the UCEA (University Council for Educational Administration) after much deliberations identified the following six domains of administrator behaviour providing a framework for the development of competency based programmes to prepare school administrators. They are:

**Domain 1:** Initiating and responding to change. Developing one's own framework for initiating and receiving proposals for change.

**Domain 2:** Decision-making.

**Domain 3:** Support for instruction and learning.

**Domain 4:** Human Relations and morale.

**Domain 5:** Evaluating school processes and products.

**Domain 6:** Responding to problem situations.

Using this framework of the six domains of administrator behaviour, Dederick (1973) prepared statements of behaviour, identifying and classifying the competencies of the school administrator so as to work out a course programme for the preparation of school administrators as follows.

**Domain 1**

Initiating and responding to change; developing one's own framework for initiating and receiving proposals for change.

1. Demonstrates personal commitment to the educational of all students in the school.
2. Supports the individual’s needs for personal development for positive self-identification, for pride in ethnic background and for respect of lifestyles of other cultural groups.

3. Respects the legitimacy of concern shown by parents and community regarding policies and operation of the schools.

4. Recognizes the interaction with the informal recognition within a school is essential to the functioning and administration of the school.

5. Recognizes the power of primary groups of the informal organization and interacts with them accordingly.

6. Demonstrates a suitable “open mind” able to review new ideas and information without threat or discount and to deal with them with relative objectivity.

7. Designs strategies for initiating and managing proposals at an action level.

8. Monitors and supports processes and outcomes.

**Domain 2. Decision – Maker**

1. Recognizes when a problem exists and is able to identify it correctly.

2. Clarifies problems through acquisition of relevant information.

3. Determines what is fact; what is opinion.

4. Assigns priorities to completion of problem solving tasks.

5. Seeks, identifies and evaluates alternate solution.

6. Understands types of decision which can be made, e.g., terminal interim, conditional and the likely consequences of making each type of decision.

7. Seeks more information when necessary to solve a problem.

8. Understands legal, economic socio-cultural and policy limitations on the decision-making process.

9. Distinguishes between decision that are and those that are direct responsibility in reference to both superior and subordinate personnel.
10. Establishes procedures for decision-making in which community representatives, faculty and students are active participants.
11. Involves those persons who will implement the results of a decision in the making of that decision.
12. Clarifies the commitments resulting from a decision to those who will carry it out and to those it will affect.

Domain 3. Support for Instruction and Learning

1) Distinguishes between fundamental and school instructional problems and symptoms of instructional problems.
2) Assures the continuing development of a curriculum design in each area of study.
3) Establishes and maintains unbiased school-wide commitment in the achievement of all students.
4) Develops a student-centered programme of instruction.
5) Shares with faculty, learning theories which are pertinent to classroom instruction.
6) Executes a plan for developing understandings in the community of the instructional programme in the school.
7) Develops a uniform system of evaluation of faculty performance which is clearly understood by those evaluated and those for whom evaluation reports are sent.
8) Assists teacher to gain insight into the learning styles of children.
9) Develops methods for helping teachers gain insights into their own teaching styles.
10) Executes a plan for examining classroom dynamics by teachers.
11) Assists teachers in encouraging divergent and convergent thinking in the classroom.
12) Utilizes faculty members with unique competencies in a manner designed to achieve "multiplier effects".

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13) Utilizes neighbourhood city-wide and state-wide resources in the execution of the instructional achievement.
14) Maintains relationship between current school programmes for students' later vocational achievement.
15) Promotes students’ growth in aesthetic sensitivity and in constructive use of leisure time.

**Domain 4. Human Relations and Morale**

1) Initiates structure: delineates the relationship between oneself and members of one's work group, establishes well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and methods of procedure.
2) Demonstrates consideration through behaviour, indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in relationship between oneself and members of one's staff.
3) Demonstrates a range of technique to involve the faculty in the effective formation of policy decisions which the faculty will have to implement.
4) Communicates promptly to teachers' information concerning problems of children in their classes.
5) Involves teachers in deliberations of guidance counselors, parents and principal concerning children in their classes.
6) Shows support for the abilities of the staff to teach and of the children to learn.
7) Communicates to parents' information concerning major change in the school policy, curriculum or teaching practice.

**Domain 5. Evaluating School Process and Products**

1) Constructs and implements evaluation design which systematically relates intentions, observations, standards and judgements.
2) Executes an evaluation plan, which stimulates rather than inhibits the personal and professional growth of individuals in
the school organization (students, faculty, parents and community members).

3) Relates evaluation to on-going decisions and actions of the organization and its environment.

**Domain 6. Responding to Problem Situation**

1) Demonstrates sensitivity to role identification of his co-workers.

2) Acts to reduce problems resulting from role conflict and ambiguity.

3) Recognizes the varying roles of individual within a working group and thereby facilitates group process.

4) Understands the dimensions of organizational climate and his role and functions in establishing or changing the climate in a school.

5) Recognizes that conflict can lead to beneficial change and therefore "manager" conflict towards positive resolution.

6) Plans and introduces ranges of structures, techniques and processes for effective conflict management, focusing on efforts to keep the energies of the group members directed towards goals consonant with those of the organization.

7) Makes use of change agents from outside the school to create a temporary social system within the school for the express purpose of facilitating change.

8) Delegates responsibility for problems to appropriate subordinate levels when problems can be treated effectively at those levels.

**2.1.2 Factors Affecting the Administrative Behaviour**

All administrators have a philosophy comprising a system of attitudes, approaches, percepts and values that guide the way they deal with organizational problems. Figure 2.1 describes the determinants of administrative behaviour. Inputs include the organization’s history, the cultural norms and the education and
experience of the administrator. The last three inputs determine an individual's value system. The four combined, determine administrative behaviour.

No administrator functions within a vacuum; one is influenced heavily by the current milieu-values, beliefs and attitudes prevalent in society, as well as the culture unique to the organization. A fact often overlooked, however, is that the present has been determined by the past. The previous success and failures that the organization has encountered, dominate administrative philosophies espoused by prior administrators and precedents set by earlier administrative decisions are a few of the historical factors that influence the behaviour of current administrator.

Those who have the responsibility for deciding the direction an organization will take and hold the authority to move it towards its goals, are the single most important ingredient in determining the organization's success or failure. Whether in business, education, government, medicine or religion, the quality of an organization administrator determines its success.

Successful administrators anticipate change, vigourously exploit opportunities, correct poor performance, and lead the organization towards its goals. Administrators have the greatest opportunities to turn straw to gold or the reverse (Robins, 1978).

Figure 2.1
Determinants of Administrative Behaviour

![Diagram showing the determinants of administrative behaviour: Administrative Behaviour, Organization History, Cultural Norms, Education, Experience]
2.1.3 Components of Administrative – Behaviour Scale

An administrator is one who endeavours to attain non-quantifiable goals regardless of the ultimate effect of their attainment for the success of the organization. This requires not only the administrators to be effective – that is in achieving the goal or goals that are established – but additionally that they be efficient, that is, in relating output to input. They must seek a given output with less input than is now being utilized, or for a given input, strive for a greater output. Administrators then are concerned with the attainment of goals allocation of scarce resources, which makes them efficient. Administrators are those who work through people, allocating scarce resources to achieve goals. If any one of these criteria is missing there is no need for administration.

In order to achieve the desired ends within the available scarce resources, an administrator should plane the activities before hand, organize the available resources, take proper decisions for its effective utilization and should communicate the decision to the individuals concerned.

When an administrator plans, organizes, communicates and takes decisions in order to achieve the goals of school, these specific behaviours of planning, organizing, communicating and decision-making become his administrative behaviour.

The following are the four evolved components which constitute the behaviour of an administrator:

1. Planning
2. Organization
3. Communication
4. Decision-making

2.1.3.1 Planning

It means working out a detailed outline of the activities to be undertaken for the achievement of the goal, of the methods to be employed and of participating individuals and accessories. Without
drawing up such an outline, no activity can be concluded successfully. If such preparatory work is not done, there is probability of straying away from the goal. Educational planning is thus a dynamic process in which not only the present is taken care of but an eye is also kept on the future. Other full consideration has to be given to the needs, potentials of the individuals, society and the association or institution involved.

Planning involves the preparation of targets and preparing the ways to achieve these targets. An effective administrative planning will result in the economy of time, materials and energy.

Thus, planning is deciding in advance what is to be done. This assumes that related decisions are made regarding who is to do it, how it is to be done, where it is to be done and that underlying all of these is an understanding of why it is to be done. Planning is a complex and inter-related set of decisions, aimed at solving the problems of the enterprise or improving the performance of the enterprise. It is the choosing of that set of action alternatives that seem most likely to further the interest of the enterprise. It takes primacy over all other managerial activities, such as organizing, staffing, directing, policy making and control, because, none of these function of managerial personnel. While some forms of planning take place at all levels of the organization, formulation of the important plans is a prerogative usually reserved to top executives.

**Steps in Planning**

Most of this planning work is characterized by certain basic steps, which are enumerated as follows by (in Sharma, 1978):

1. Clarify the problem
2. Obtain complete information about the activities involved.
3. Analyze and classify the information.
4. Establish planning premises and constraints.
5. Determine alternate plans.
6. Choose proposed plan.
7. Arrange detailed sequence and timing for the proposed plan.
8. Provide progress check-up to proposed plan.

**Advantages of Planning**

**Dejon (1978)** has listed the following advantages of planning:

1. Makes for purposeful and orderly activities.
2. Points out need for future change.
3. Answers 'what if' questions.
4. Provides a basis for control.
5. Compels visualization of entirety.
6. Encourage achievement.
7. Increases and balances utilization of facilities.
8. Assists manager in gaining status.

The goal attainment in schools is closely linked to effective leader behaviour has important implications for school heads, to give greater attention to immediate and long range planning that will encompass the entire range of activities which will lead to achievement of school ends. For planning is done, building a dedicated staff, competent to direct the education of children and youth, fostering climate wherein each member of staff will release his creative energies and stimulating each staff member to contribute his skills to human betterment.

**2.1.3.2 Organization**

Structure of responsibilities and authorities is called organization. Through the formal structure, the various work activities are defined, classified, arranged and co-ordinated, which an organization has performed to achieve the objectives of an enterprise. It has to do with the persons who are to perform these activities and the physical factors involved; the offices, plants, equipment and facilities of all kinds. It has to do with locations. It concerns with the relationships between the individuals involved with respect to the delegation of responsibilities and authorities. It determines who answers to whom and the implementation of the control function.
establishes the framework within which the people work and the chain of command which binds them all together. It is the medium through which efforts of many persons are combined, co-ordinated and directed towards the achievement of objectives of the institution.

‘An organization is the pattern of ways in which large number of people, too many to have intimate face to face contact with others and engaged in a complexity of tasks, relate themselves to each other in the conscious systematic establishment and accomplishment of mutually agreed purposes’.

Thus:
1. Organization is ‘pattern of ways’.
2. Large number of people-in-organization does not have face to face contacts.
3. People-in-organizations are involved in complex tasks.
4. People-in-organizations develop network of inter-relationships.
5. Organizations and people involved in organization consciously select, systematically choose, establish and co-operatively pursue and accomplish mutually acceptable and agreeable goals and purposes.

Thus, ‘Organization is considered to be a purposeful social unit – it consists of a number of people who perform differentiated tasks while filling differentiated roles, offices or whose positions and actions are co-ordinated, so that, their individual output are integrated’. Organization considered in strictly limited sense may mean men or people, assigned roles, duties or jobs, work relationships, interaction processes for the achievement of organizational purposes, consciously devised with cooperate effort of people involved in the organization.

White (1958) says that ‘from one point of view, organization is a formal declared pattern of relationship, established in government by law and by top management’. He further says that an organization is the ‘set of work relationships that grow out of the mutual interactions of persons working together over long periods of time’.

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White suggests three weaknesses of the above definition. Firstly, it defines formal and neglects informal organization; secondly, it suggests a static situation not dynamic, and thirdly, it gives in sufficient weight to role of individual.

According to Millet (1968), ‘An organization is a large scale organized on formal structure of agencies established to perform the administrative tasks of Government’.

An organization is a ‘system of structural inter-personal relations. The individuals are differentiated in terms of authority status and role with the result, that personal interaction is prescribed’. Prethus (1958) regards organization in terms of structural relation and inter-personal behaviour.

An organization, its growth and developments is explained by Starbuck (1971) in these words: ‘one characteristic which distinguishes organizations from other collections of people is a commitment to achieving member’s goals by means of an explicit and stable structure of task allocations, roles and responsibilities’.

The organization cannot be conceived without the individual’s assigned roles and patterned behaviour of those involved in organizational activity to achieve the goals. Organization is also considered in terms of parts, their inter-dependence and inter-relatedness. Miller et.al. (1958) Says that ‘organization is structural differentiation of an organic whole having interdependent parts. Organization means systematic arrangement of parts’.

The human approach to the study and analysis of organization is given by Thompson (1961). He says that organization is a ‘particular kind of ordering of human behaviour’.

The school being a formal organization wherein the head of the school in order to have control over the administration of school, allots the subjects to be taught to the teachers based on their qualifications and experience, stimulates activity to gain commitment to goals. He is also required to keep in mind the psychological factors that underlie the motivation and hygiene seekers and act in a
manner that achieve the best possible result for school improvement. His supervision should be permissive and praise and rewards should be given to youngsters (teachers and students) in the recognition of good work for efficient school working and for the success of the school system.

2.1.3.3 Communication

Decisions may be made and communicated so that organizational actions which follow may be in harmony with each other. The network of communication, thus play a key role in the accomplishment of organizational actions.

Communication involves an exchange of ideas, facts or opinions by two or more people. Haimann (1962) defines communications as the “process of imparting ideas and making oneself understood by others”. The foregoing statement implies that communication is a joint activity. It is an activity, which equally involves all those engaged in the ‘exchange’ process.

In an organizational setting, the importance of communication is a three-sided affair; firstly, communications are important so that action may be effectively initiated. Many a programme of action fails, or is only partially accomplished, because the required action guidelines are not effectively communicated. Secondly, communications are important to achieve co-ordinated effort on the part of those who are concerned with the accomplishment of work. People must be effectively communicated with, so that, it is fully and mutually understood what is expected form each. Thirdly, communications are; important in order to receive feedback on performance as action proceeds. Effective feedback is necessary for the administrators to keep abreast of the reactions to their communications. All three are necessary aspects of effective communication. It may be safe, therefore, that effective communication involves an ‘exchange’ for purposes of action, initiation, co-ordination and feedback. Only if all these three are
accomplished, may it be said that effective action communication has taken place.

Skills in communication, accordingly, are an obvious requirement on the part of those who aspire to managerial work, for, on them depends how effectively action communications are accomplished. The degree of success in planning and implementation is directly related to the skills in communication on the part of those involved in administration.

**Communication System**

Communication may be viewed as the transmission of decision parameters between various individuals and work units for the performance of work in an organization.

Such communications may be transmitted through formal as well as informal channels. The formal channels through which organizational communications flow are referred to, here, as communication systems.

The establishment of an organization, by definition, means division of work to make possible work specialization. But, what has been taken apart must also be brought together. This is what necessitates the establishment of communication system.

Hence information systems are needed in order to achieve coordination of effort throughout the organization. They are needed in order to ensure that the numerous decisions which are made in an organization with respect to the administration of action are in harmony with each other and activity to facilitate the accomplishment of intended objectives.

**Communicating Methods**

Communications between people are carried on in a variety of ways. Verbal communication is, perhaps, the most pervasive form. Written communication and audio-visual communication are also becoming an important apparatus in the modern world, particularly
in organizational settings. However, those are not the only methods. A twinkle of an eye or a flick of a finger is equally important methods of communication between people in a face to face relationship. Such physical communication may often be more successful than one of the other methods.

**Barriers to Communication**

The following may be broadly classified as types of barriers to communication:

1. Mechanical barriers
2. Physical barriers
3. Linguistic barriers
4. Environmental barriers
5. Psychological barriers.

Administrator is concerned with facilitating the free flow of information up, down and laterally within the school. The head of the school receives upward communication from higher educational authorities and he keeps them informed about the developments of the schools and he should allow for horizontal communication, so that, information is shared among the teachers, office staff and students in the school in the horizontal plane. The head should facilitate the free flow of downward communication that is, teachers and students be given freedom to give their suggestions to problems the school is facing etc. They must be encouraged to present their ideas without any fear of the principal.

**2.1.3.4 Decision Making**

The functioning of an organization is only as dynamic as the dynamism of the process of decision making that prevails in it. The execution of the various functions; which make up the administrative process is also only as dynamic as the dynamism with which many decisions which are necessary for undertaking these function, are made.
The term means many things to many people. However, all agree that it is of pivotal importance in the administration of human affairs as needed, it is in the art of living itself.

It has been linked upon as the logical selection of one alternative from among two or more, with the hope of maximizing returns. Does this mean that if there is only one alternative to begin with, its selection does not simply is a decision? Certainly not. A decision might be made not to make a decision.

It may be said, therefore, that a decision are future oriented and hopefully consequential, that is to say they are intended to attempt some futuristic, modification of circumstances. They are judgements that are made in order to attempt to influence a course of action.

There are certain aspects of the process of decision-making that are pertinent for the effective functioning of organizations. Among these are:

i. The speed with which the decision process can move forward.
ii. The degree of relationality that can be brought to bear on the decision process
iii. The degree of acceptance that the very decision process may induce on the part of those who are affected by it.

For increasing the efficiency of the organizational system is crucial that the decision process be so structured that decisions can be rendered speedily with a high degree of rationality and a high degree of acceptance. It is important to achieve a maximum degree of optimization among the above aspects in order to have an efficiently functioning organization. It is, therefore, important to structure the formal organizational decision processes in such a manner that a degree of such optimization can be achieved. This is necessary if an effective decision process is to result which in turn, will make possible effective functioning of the organizational system and the administrative process.
The educational administrator must assume heavy responsibilities in the decision-making process. These responsibilities are inescapable. This is not to say that the thinkers believe that the conceptualization of administration can be restricted to leadership in the decision-making process. This would also be too much of an over-simplification of an extremely complex function.

Decision-making process was defined as including a decision—a judgment made relative, a state of affairs that influences the course of action that follows and, the act necessary to put the decision-into effect. Within organizations, most decision are based on one or more previous decision (i.e., they are sequential). Two types of organizations were viewed as affecting decisions the formal and the informal. The form of the formal organization is seen as a function of the decision-making process. If decisions are made on a centralized basis, then the formal organization will be 'tall' (organization), if the decisions are made on a decentralized basis, then a 'flat' organization is built. Informal organizations (dynamic structure representing special interests and subject to continual revision), serve to alter the decision-making process of the formal organization. Perception can be examined only in relation to specific persons dealing with specific situation in a transaction. Perception enters the transaction in that each person involved enters from his or her own unique position. Thus in each situation, different individuals will see it differently and each will perceive what is seen to be real. Perception defined the limits of communication, which the process by which co-operation and co-ordination in organization occur. Co-operation and co-ordinations are necessary if decisions are to be made and effected. Power is defined in terms of decisions made. Thus the power of an individual in an organization is a function of control over the decision-making process.

Within the context of the present discussion, three major propositions relating to decision-making may be offered.
1. “The structure of an organization is determined by the nature of its decision-making process. The issue of organizational structure such as ‘span of control’ can be resolved if viewed as the outgrowth of a particular type of decision-making process”.

2. “if the administrator confines his behaviour to making decision on the decision making process rather than making terminal decision of the organization, his behaviour will be more acceptable to his subordinates”.

3. “if the administrator perceives himself as the controller of decision-making process, rather than the maker of the organization’s decision, the decisions will be more effective”.

According to Dejon (1978), following are the steps in the decision making process:

(i) The Awareness of Need

The awareness of need, on the part of someone, for making a decision is actually the first step in the decision-making process. Often, a needed decision fails to be made because of failure of this first step. The realization that some kind of action is called for lack of awareness is quite likely to occur when the need for a decision is not urgent. But, it often happens that, although things are going very well at the moment these are latent problems, or times are subtly changing or, conditions are building up slowly, which will some day in the future come to a head. In such circumstances it might be that only one individual or a very few senior management people, being of keen perception will realize the need for early action. As long as the sun is shining, most people would ignore the tiny black cloud on the far horizon. Only the very experienced navigator might realize that the little could might build up into a thunder head.

(ii) The Stage of Confusion

Faced with a critical decision of large magnitude and having no precedent to follow, the decision-maker might at first feel overwhelmed with confusion. It is as though he is being forced to find
his way to a goal in pitch dark avenue with nothing to give him a sense of direction. This can be an acutely painful stage in the decision-making process. Without facts, with no conscious experience in his past that he can recollect with, his intuition failing to guide him because, he sees no pattern of recognition in the impotent and unarmed. At this stage, the decision might very well try man's soul or prove his mettle for, this stage carries with it, a certain amount of mental anguish, and if the confusion is not soon resolved, the mental pain and suffering can develop into physical manifestation: ulcers, high blood pressure, insomnia, and all the psychosomatic illness stem from an over burden of responsibility.

(iii) Gathering Information

In this stage the decision-maker seeks 'enlightenment'. He gathers facts and he looks for advice, counsel and guidance wherever he can. Never having experienced a parallel situation himself, he will seek out people who have been confronted with such a problem teachers gain the benefit of their experience. His associates within the organization and others in the industry might once have faced this dilemma and may suggest possible solutions. This might be a time to call in, professional counselors who have knowledge in depth on the subject matter. As the fact collecting guidance and counseling accumulate a body of relevant knowledge, the fog begins to thin and the information already begins to point the decision maker in the right direction.

Also involved at this stage is the screening of information. Each item must be evaluated, it's relatively weighed, its validity judged. Irrelevant data and trivia will be discarded, and what remain must be sorted and classified into meaningful categories. Whatever data all retained as being useful, must be distilled into a fund that has manageable proportions. This very process of selection, classifications and distillation is already setting in motion, a
crystallization, which will lead the decision-maker toward at least one, and probably several, possible solutions.

(iv) The Incubation Period

In making a decision of far-reaching consequences, the decision-maker is not likely to act in a hurry. He is more apt to take some time to ponder his decision, assuming that the situation in not of pressing urgency.

In this stage of incubation, the individual might deliberately avail himself of the time and conducive setting in which to consciously reflect upon his decision by going on a fishing trip alone, or by walking along a solitary seashore, where he can get away from the hurly, burly of administrative demands and look at the matter with a detached view point or he might simply let the matter run through his mind at random unconsciously, without deliberately addressing himself to a forced conclusion. During this incubation period, whether he muses consciously or unconsciously, the plaster is beginning to set and the ultimate decision is beginning to take shape, it takes sufficient time to make decisions by the individual.

(v) Making the Decision

Finally, in due time, the decision maker will feel that he is fully ready to finalize determination. Then comes the act of synthesis and perhaps creativity in which the decider will render his judgment. This in strictly theoretical terms concludes the decision-making process. The die has been cast.

(vi) Communication the Decision

A decision is a mental section which takes place in the mind of an individual, unless the decision is such that the decider can carry it out himself, alone, the decision will have no effect unless it is communicated to those who are to implement the decision. This means that effective communications must be brought into action.
Skill in communication is an essential talent for a good decision-maker.

(vii) Implementing the Decision

Beyond communicating the decision it is also essential that the decision be properly implemented all the way to its conclusions. This means observing the decision as it becomes operative, modifying it when necessary, coaching the people who are carrying it out generally perfecting it once it is in action; most decision must be communicated to others for implementation before they become effective. Therefore communication is essentially a mental image from the mind of one individual to that of others.

Decisions of substances are primarily concerned with the aims, purposes, contents emphasis, and tendencies of the educational programme. What school buildings should be constructed and how should they be equipped? Should the community provide a kindergarten? What should be the qualifications of teachers, administrators and other staff members? What should be the content and organization of the curriculum? These and many thousands of similar decisions of substances must be made in the continuing work of the public schools. On the other hand, decisions of procedure are concerned with the modes of operation which will bring about prior basic decisions of substance. Although it may be an over simplification to say that decisions of substance are concerned with ends, where as decisions of procedures are concerned essentially with means the statements would not be too far wrong, for, the question should the superintendent delegate authority to others, is a question of operation, as indeed are such questions as, whether to employ democratic methods of assume an authoritarian attitude in regard to the decision making process.

The head of the school plays an important role in the administrative sector of the school. He is supposed to be the person who manipulates and organizes programmes for the academic as well as the administrative aspects of the school. One of the important
functions of the head is to take the decision regarding several aspects of the school.

2.2 JOB STRESS

Stress is a complex term with many meaning. Physiologists describe stress as a total body reaction to any situation or agent which tends to destroy the homeostatic balance. Stress is caused by any threat to organism. Disease, trauma, heat, cold, thirst, fatigue, emotional excitement can all be the causes of stress. Stress is a series of complex responses of the central nervous system (brain and spinal cord), internal nervous system and internal glands of man's body to any unusual stimulation or situation. It is the reaction to physical and emotional wear and tear on the body.

A stress is the manifestation of one's disturbed state of mind, so its cure lies in providing equilibrium or relaxation of the mind. A certain amount of stress is in fact, essential to push ahead in life. The training of mind should be such that it trains the individual to meet the challenges of stress throughout the day in a productive and useful way by modifying his reactions to these situations in a positive way and not by flight. Stress occurs when abilities of the person are incongruent with the demands of environment or where clear obstacles exist in fulfilling strong needs or values.

In all types of jobs, there is an interplay between the demands that the job makes on the employee requires of the job. The lack of accommodation between the demands of employee and those of his organizations is the cause of job stress.

If the demands overweight coping abilities, a state of imbalance develops. The body is burdened with a weight beyond its tolerance capacity. The body is able to bear with a temporary imbalance and bounce back. However, if the situation persists, wear and tear occurs on the body as signs of excessive stress, resulting in exhaustion or development of stress related illness. The human body is equipped with indicators of stress. An important sign of stress is an increase in
the heart rate to enable blood to flow to the muscles to prepare them for action. A number of chemicals associated with stress are released to free energy reserves in case they are needed. In short, the body mobilizes its resources for either, “a fight or a flight” lying a top each kidney. The organs concerned with this response are the adrenal glands lying a top each kidney. Stress is not just what happens to us but how one reacts to what happens to us and this reaction is controlled by our mind and emotions. So deal with any situation under modern days is to be under stress. Positive stress keeps us on our toes and enhances our performance. Positive stress coupled with relaxation is a good method to enhance performance. It is a dynamic force that distinguishes between the active business of living and passive existence.

Stress becomes negative force when it hampers our ability to work efficiently and relax. Stress is not just a mental or emotional state. It is an important risk factor in causation and progression of heart diseases. Scientific studies have shown that stress increases blood pressure and cholesterol levels. It increases the permeability of arterial walls of cholesterol i.e. arteries absorb more cholesterol. It also decreases good cholesterol (HDL). Chronic stress also leads to increased blood clotting, increases in smoking, drinking and food intake and an increase in irritability and irregular beating of the heart. It is when we lose the ability to return to baseline to relax that stress becomes chronic.

Lazarus (1966) stated that stress encompasses a whole spectrum of factors (stimulus, response, cognitive appraisal of threat, coping styles, psychological defenses and the social milieu).

Mcgrath (1976) has defined stress as the anticipation ability to perceived demand accompanied by anticipation of negative consequences for inadequate responses. According to him, four events must be considered in studying stress:
1) The physical and social environment that places some demand on the individual.
2) The individual’s perception of the demand and the decision about how to respond it.
3) The organism’s actual response to the perceived demand.
4) The consequences resulting from the responses.

For Selye (1956), stress is the body’s reaction and can be positive as well as negative; for most others, it is the physical and mental factors that cause the body to react and it is generally considered to be negative.

**Pressure:** The mental negative factors.

**Tension:** The body’s negative reactions; emotional for nervous tension, muscular for muscle tension and physiological for visceral tension.

In our opinion, pressure and tension are incorrectly used as biologic terms; therefore, we shall not consider them further. Although it would be more correct to use the terms stress and strain as they are used in physics, “strain” has other meanings and its use here would only complicate matters. Hence we will use the term “stressor as Selye does – for the causative factors and “stress” or the “stress response” for the body’s reactions”.

Now let us look at the stress concept, as it is known in the following equations:

\[
\text{STRESSORS + INDIVIDUAL “MAKEUP” = STRESS}
\]

**Stressors, Individual “Makeup” and the Stress Response**

There are three kinds of stressors; physical, social and psychological. The “makeup” of the individual is determined by hereditary and environmental factors. Stress (or the “stress response”) results from the interaction between the stressor and the individual, modified by the person’s state at the time. Therefore, to
expect that stress takes only one form is unreasonable. We consider that there are three types of stress.

**The Stress Response**

If the stress response is necessary for the day-to-day adaptability of man to his environment and results in the maintenance of an internal steady state (homeostasis), it is designated neustress (prefix neu = neutral). For example, one produces neustress in order to breathe, walk and perform the bodily functions.

If the stress response is unfavourable and potentially disease producing, it is labeled distress (prefix dis = bad or negative). For example, constant worry in a susceptible individual can lead to ulcers.

If the stress response is favourable and results in improvement in physical and/or mental functioning, it is called eustress (prefix eu = good or healthy, as in the word eugenics). For example, vigorous exercise can improve the functioning of the heart and lungs and could result in a decreased chance of getting a heart attack (Selye, 1974, 1976, coined the term “eustress”, but he only used it for positive mental responses).

The details of this discussion are illustrated in Figures below:

![Stress Path Diagram](Fig. The stress path)
STRESSORS

As mentioned, there are three kinds of stressors: physical, social and psychological, to be considered here in that order.

Physical Stressors

Physical stressors are external factors, including chemicals, pollutants, drugs, foods, infectious microbes, shock therapy, radiation (e.g. light, X-rays, laser beams), noise, temperature (hot, cold), humidity, exercise and trauma. The resistances of the individual will modify the stress response, but if the agents are sufficiently intense and enduring, then distress will result in any person. For example, atomic radiation plays no favourites and if dose is strong enough, then third degree burns, leukemia and finally death can result. Physical stressors are often related to a person’s occupation and with certain jobs the stressors are intense. Consider the high noise exposure of pneumatic drill operators, dentists, airline personnel, riflemen, artillerymen and rock musicians.
**Social Stressors**

Social stressors are externally induced and result from the interaction of the individual with his environment. Many social stressors are unavoidable and traumatic. They include occurrences such as the death of a loved one, forced relocation of one’s home, loss of a job, retirement, divorce and financial reversal. Apparently, pleasant events such as engagement announcements, marriage ceremonies and financial windfalls can also be social stressors. The unforeseen social stressors are the most difficult to cope with. Even the most stable individual will react with distress to an event such as death of a spouse.

**Psychological Stressors**

Psychological stressors, because of their recurrent nature, are often the damaging kind. They may be brought on by physicals or social stressors or they may be self-induced. The psychological stressors are intense emotions and include frustration, guilt, worry, anger, resentment, hate, love, disgust, jealousy, happiness, sadness, grief, self-pity, fear, anxiety and inferiority feelings. The more one harbors these feelings or emotions, the greater and more cumulative is the resultant distress. Two particularly severe and repetitive psychological stressors are frustration and anxiety.

Stress is the process of adjusting to or dealing with circumstances that disrupt or threaten to disrupt a person’s physical or psychological functioning ([Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Selye, 1976]).

The term stress can be defined in various ways. Stress may be an internal state which can be caused by physical demands on the body such as disease, exercise, extremes of temperature, professional hazards and so on by environmental and social situations which are evaluated as potentially harmful, uncontrollable or exceeding our resources for coping ([Matthews et. al., 1986])
According to Webster's New World Dictionary (1973), “stress is the mental or physical tension caused by some urgency or pressure”.

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984) – stress is the feeling you have, you interpret or appraise a situation as being threatening or challenging and when your personal resources are strained or outstripped by your dealing with the situation.

A physical stress factor could be injury, surgery or even a simple cold. These factors place additional nutritional demands on the body. Chemical stresses can come in the form of environmental toxins, prescription drugs, alcohol, tobacco and caffeine. These substances are known to deplete the body of vital nutrients.

Emotional factors are highly personal. Not all people experience stress in the same way. A type of events or situation may be stressful for one individual, while passing by another individual virtually unnoticed. Prolonged fear, anxiety, anger and tension may all stimulate hormonal responses which when released; alter the metabolic reaction of the body. This increases the nutritional needs of the body for vitamins and minerals.

Studies have indicated that during periods of moderate to extreme stress, more zinc, magnesium and calcium are lost in the urine. Blood levels of vitamins A and C, as well as zinc and iron are altered by stress. Under stress, the body also requires more water-soluble vitamins: thiamine (B1), riboflavin (B2), niacin, pyridoxine (B6) and pantothenic acid.

Stress has been defined as “the inability to cope with a perceived or real (or imagined) spiritual well-being which results in a series of physiological responses and adaptations (Seaward, 1997).

Stress the overused word has found a firm place in our new age vocabulary just as fast food, junk bonds or software package have. So, debased by misuse, it generate only negatively in most people’s mind. But it is a positive force aiding our continued survival
by providing a dynamics that distinguishes between the active business of living and passive existence. But to those on the fast track whose inability to cope is at crises point, it is a four letter word “pain”.

Stressful circumstances are encountered every day, at every stage of human development. From the trauma of birth itself, right through adolescence, the young meets unavoidable sources of stress.

A person's health, vigor, work capacity happiness, achievement reasoning ability, whole personality contentment and whole personality reflect in as dependent on the degree of stress. A little stress in early life-acting as a time-bomb may induced physical breaks in later life.

Stress involves a relationship between people and their environment, more specifically between stressors and stress reactions. Stressors are events and situations to which people must react. Stress reactions are the physical, psychological and behavioural responses such as nausea, nervousness and fatigued people display in the face of stressors. Mediating factors, such as the circumstances in which stressors occur and each person’s characteristics, make people more or less sensitive to stressors and to stress responses. Thus stress is not a specific event, a person’s reactions to those events and interactions between the person and the situation are all important components of stress. The interactions are stress mediators; they moderate or intensify the impact of stressful situation. Even very pleasant events can be stressors. For example, the increased salary and status associated with promotion may be desirable, but the upgrade also requires findings ways of handling new responsibilities and increased pressures. Still the events and situations most likely to be associated with stress are unpleasant ones those involving frustration, pressure, boredom, traumas, conflict or change (Rowlison and Felner, 1988).
Frustrations is the feeling you have when your attempt to reach some goals is blocked. You may not be able to reach a goal because of personal limitations, such as making dumb mistakes on an examination or a goal might slip beyond your grasp because of social or environmental limitations, such as your boss changing your work schedule. No matter what may be the cause, how you respond and when you respond, but frustration affects your stress level.

Situations leading to pressure on the mind of the individual require a person to do too much in too short a time. For example, if you are trying to fix thanksgiving dinner for twenty people on a day's notice, or you are struggling to finish the last two questions on an essay test in ten minutes, you are under pressure. Many traffic controllers, physicians, nurses and police officers, administrators, teachers and students face constant or long lasting pressure when they have to make many difficult decisions under heavy time pressure. Likewise, the adolescence is a period which is full of pressure, stress, strain, storm and strife because it is a diversifying stage.

Boredom, or under stimulation, is the opposite of pressure, but it, too can be a stressor, especially if it continues for a long time. The agony of solitary confinement in prison the tedium of a remote military post or learning a subject which is not interesting are probably the most extreme examples.

Conflict is almost always stressful. The most obvious examples are disputes in which friends, family members, or co-workers fight with, insult or otherwise get nasty with each other. Internal conflicts can be equally, if not more, distressing than those with other people.

In today's society more than enough stress comes from organizations which pressurizes administrators, teachers and athletes to become winners. Administrators increase their own stress level by setting high goals and making unrealistic demands on themselves. Principals often begin their careers so enthusiastically that they devote all their time to the profession. They feel that they
have less than normal social life because they spend their free time at work or alone. The people most susceptible to stress are extremely dedicated, over achievers who are perfectionists and excessively goal oriented. Many hours are spent planning, working on strategies, preparing the necessary administrative paper work which put them on stress. Often the conditions of facilities or equipments are poor and the budget may be very below necessary amounts.

The principals are expected to perform well despite all adversities and same is true with athletes. Trainee and trainer are frequently under the scrutiny of the public. It will be win-loss record that ultimately determines success in the public's eye.

Their adequate supervision is mandatory. Administrator also works hard to develop the student to his fullest academic and athletic potential. The demands may cause stress. The administrator becomes tired of the continual pressures and feels he is unappreciated. Team's success is often beyond the control of administrator but his competence is questioned if he is unsuccessful. He can become the scapegoat for parents, community members, students and management.

The moderate amount of stress can be a great motivating factor, stress can also protect us to avoid hazardous situation. Under different environmental conditions, the human organism marshals inner forces (brain, heart, muscular system) to meet the crisis producing a positive condition to overcome damage, accident or injury to organism. But if the crisis becomes too frequent and too intense to call the inner factors too frequently, then the stress becomes 'Debilitating' leaving the body unable to cope with such situations.
2.3 JOB SATISFACTION

The term job-satisfaction is the combination of two words: Job and Satisfaction. Job necessarily means a piece of work, labour undertaken at a stated price, or paid for by the hour or day and turned to private advantage or in other words we can say, a job refers to collection of tasks, duties and responsibilities which as a whole is regarded as the established assignment to individual employee.

According to Encyclopedia of Psychology (1972), job can be distinguished from work and occupation. Job is a task, an occupational activity performed by individual in return for a monetary reward. In other words job is a inter-relationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards. The general definition of the term ‘job’ as also given in the Collins English Dictionary (1980) is a piece of work. The Oxford English Dictionary (1981) defined job as “a small definite piece of work done in a way of one’s specific occupation”. The operational definition of the job implies that it is a piece of work or activity performed for the payment received in lieu of it. In involves a contractual agreement between employer and employee and denotes not only the specific responsibilities assigned to the employee but also the totality of his responsibilities towards the firm or authorities that have employed him.

According to Webster (1976) ‘Satisfaction’ means the fulfillment of a need or desire. Some authorities defined it as a feeling of pleasantness or contentment, while others described that it is a complex of feelings, emotions and sensations. New Webster Encyclopedia Dictionary of English Language (1981) defined satisfaction as the act of satisfying or state of being satisfied; contentment in possession and enjoyment and to grant fully the wants, wishes or desires of; and to supply to the full extent with what is wished for.
Job-Satisfaction refers to an individual's subjective experience on his work situation, his response and feelings towards different facets of his work role. Job-Satisfaction is not a unitary concept but a composite of many factors or dimensions. The term ‘Job-Satisfaction’ has been defined as all those factors which make a person like his job and go about it willingly. Inspite of the fact that much research has been done on Job-Satisfaction, it is doubtful if any ten experts would agree on a specific definition of the term.

The credit of bringing the term Job-Satisfaction into light goes to Hoppock (1935). He defined Job-Satisfaction as ‘any combination of psychological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say, I am satisfied with my job’.

Smith (1955) defined Job-Satisfaction as employee’s judgment of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs. Blum (1956) defined “Job-Satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee in relation to his job”.

Vroom (1964) defined Job-Satisfaction as a positive orientation of an individual towards the work role which he is presently occupying. This can be easily paraphrased as “an individual’s liking more aspects of his work than he dislikes”. It refers to an employee’s general attitude towards his job which is the result of many specific job factors, individual’s characteristics and group relationships.

Srivastava (1974), in the opinion of Job-Satisfaction is the attitude people hold towards their job. The positive attitude towards job connotes satisfaction. With it, the negative attitude towards it shows dissatisfaction with it.

Job-Satisfaction is a popular concept in an individual and organizational psychology. The reasons for its popularity have been well documented in Locke’s (1976) Chapter in Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. At various times the concept has been a dependent variable, an independent variable, a co-variable.
Locke (1976) defined Job-Satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job-experience”.

Davis (1977) defined Job-Satisfaction as the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work. He contended that Job-Satisfaction results when there is a fit between characteristics and the wants of employees and that it expresses the amount of congruence between one’s expectation of the job and the rewards that the job provides.

Singh (1979) said that Job-Satisfaction is the resultant effect of a number of factors including the quality of working life.

According to Longman’s Dictionary of Psychology and Psychiatry (1984), Job-Satisfaction is the attitude of a worker towards his job, sometimes expressed as hedonic response of liking or disliking the work itself, the rewards (pay, promotions, recognition) or the contest (working conditions, benefits).

Keeping in view the above cited definitions and views suggested by various investigators, it can be opined that Job-Satisfaction is not a unitary thing or entity but a composition of many factors including personal judgement of a worker, how he thinks about his job. It can be concluded that Job-Satisfaction is governed to a large extent by perceptions and expectations. Men work to satisfy their needs and aspire or expect their work life to fulfill these needs. For perfect Job-Satisfaction, there should exist a one to one relationship between the perception of how well the job life fulfils various needs of expectations or aspirations of an individual and the extent to which these needs are actually fulfilled by the individual.

2.3.1 Theories of Job-Satisfaction:

Different views about nature of Job-Satisfaction have led to much controversy, which has come out in the form of different theories of Job-Satisfaction. These theories tend to explain different
facets of Job-Satisfaction and endeavour to explore this phenomenon from different angles. Some of these are:

1. **Need Hierarchy Theory (Maslow, 1954):**

Maslow (1954) proposed that people are continuously in motivational state, as one's desire becomes satisfied another rises to take its place. He postulated a hierarchy of human needs – physical needs, safety (security) needs, social (affiliation) needs, esteem (recognition) and self actualization.

This shows how the satisfaction of the higher needs is based on the satisfaction of the lower needs and how the number of persons who have experienced the fulfillment of the higher needs gradually tapers off.

2. **Behaviouristic Theory (Skinner, 1954):**

He has proved that cause of behaviour is outside the person and is in the environment. Behaviour of an individual is modified through operant conditioning. It is encouraged through positive reinforcement and discouraged through negative reinforcement.

3. **Dual Factor Theory (Herzberg, 1959):**

Hertzberg believed that the basic needs are guaranteed by our society. It is only the fulfillment of higher needs which leads to satisfaction in job. This consideration led him to propose his two-factor theory. This theory is generally described as Motivation-Hygiene theory. According to Hertzberg and his associates (1959):

(a) Job-Satisfaction is a function of challenging, stimulating work activities or work content. These are called work motivators (or job content factors). These are also called job satisfiers.

(b) Job-Satisfaction is a function of environment, supervision, co-workers and general job context. These are called hygienic factors. These are also called dissatisfiers.

Whenever the employees are asked to recount some previous job events which for them were usually satisfying or
dissatisfying they tend to mention job content as satisfying or context as dissatisfying.

4. **Equity Theory (Adam, 1963):**

   This theory is essentially a social comparison theory in which an individual evaluates his inputs into V/s outputs derived from a given situation relative to those of another, where this ‘other’ may be a person, a group, an organization or the individual himself relative to his experiences.

5. **Discrepancy (Locke, 1976):**

   Theory of Job Satisfaction has argued for a discrepancy approach to thinking about satisfaction, discrepancies may be actual or perceived. This theory suggested techniques for measuring Job-Satisfaction. Vroom (1964) said that Job-Satisfaction is a direct negative function of the discrepancy between a person’s needs and the extent to which the environment provides satisfaction to those needs. The greater the total discrepancy counting all needs the lesser the satisfaction and lesser the discrepancy the greater the satisfaction.

6. **Performance Theory (Donald, 1970):**

   In this theory employee’s satisfaction is connected with job-performance: satisfaction leads to performance and performance to satisfaction and performance-satisfaction relationship in moderated by many variables linked with man and his job.

7. **Need Gratification Theory (Wolf, 1970):**

   As per Wolf (1970) job motivation will be stronger when an individual perceives an opportunity to gratify an active need through job related behaviour. The hypothesis under lying Wolf theory include the following:

   (i) Persons whose lower needs (as postulated by Maslow, 1954) are yet ungratified; derive both their satisfaction and
dissatisfaction of their lower level needs (primarily job content factors).

(ii) Persons whose lower level needs are conditionally gratified receive both their satisfaction and dissatisfaction from the degree of gratification of their higher level needs (primarily job content factors) and the dissatisfaction can also come when continued gratification of their lower level needs is disrupted or threatened.

(iii) Persons whose level needs are unconditionally gratified obtain both their satisfaction and dissatisfaction from the degree of gratification of their higher level needs.

(iv) Dissatisfaction results from the frustration of an active need and from interruption or threatened interruption of previously gratified (lower level needs).

2.4 ATTITUDE TOWARDS PROFESSION

The quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement of secondary education has raised problems of selection of right type of administrators, who have a healthy professional attitude and desirable qualities.

For the quality education, better achievement of school goals, the attitudes held by the heads is very important. How a head performs his duties is dependent, to a great extent, on his attitudes, values and beliefs.

Attitudes towards profession by the head not only affects his behaviour in the school, but also the behaviour of his colleagues and students. Moreover, effective and productive learning on the part of the pupils can be achieved by employing heads with desirable attitudes. Attitudes denote the inner feelings of a person. In other words, attitudes are personal dispositions which impel individual to react to some object or situations. Thurstone (1946) defined an attitude as 'the degree of positive or negative affect associated with
some psychological object'. By psychological object, Thurstone meant
any symbol, phrase, slogan, person, institution.

Attitudes are important keys in understanding the long range
organization of behaviour. The prominent role of attitudes in
determining our thought, memory and learning processes has been
recognized by various psychologists. Goods (1973) said that, attitude
is “readiness to react towards or against some situations, person or
thing or resentment to a particular degree of intensity”.

Attitude is a specific mental state of the individual towards
something according to which the behaviour towards it is moulded.
Allport (1935) had defined an attitude as a “mental and neural state
of readiness organized through experience, exerting a directive or
dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects with
which it is related”. This definition reveals the following facts
concerning attitudes –
(a) Attitude is the mental or neural state of readiness.
(b) Attitude influences the reactions of the individual.
(c) Attitude changes the reactions of the individual.

Young (1951) had defined attitude as a learned and more or
less generalized and affective tendency or predisposition to response
in a rather persistent and characteristic manner, usually positively
or negatively (for or against) in reference to some situations, idea,
value, material object or class of such object or class of such objects
or person or group of persons. This definition of attitude improves
the definition by Allport in this respect that it introduces the
following two elements:
(a) Attitude is generally negative or positive.
(b) Attitude is a learned or acquired affective tendency.

Attitudes result from personal desires and group stimulation.
They actually are a part of individual’s own personality. According to
Crow and Crow (1991), “Attitudes are personal and relate to feelings
of a person”. Attitudes are uniquely organized in each person. As
Sherif and Cantril (1947) had put it, “most attitudes have the characteristics of being part of me”. Attitudes can be copied from others and they need not be on the basis of personal experiences. For example a child often accepts the attitudes of his family towards various things. Children are great imitators of attitudes.

An attitude is a complex affair which cannot be wholly described by any single definition. Thurstone and Chave (1959) believes that attitude is a complex of man’s inclinations, feelings, bias, ideas, fears, threats etc. opinion is verbal expression of attitude. Some attitudes are so deeply ingrained as to appear permanent, while others are merely transitory and may change overnight.

Like other aspects of personality, attitudes are acquired and not innate. No one is born with any attitude, they are learned in a culture in course of individual’s development. Sheriff and Cantril (1947) defines attitude as “A habitual way of looking at an object, a person or an idea. Attitudes are learned often unconsciously and are always tinged with emotion of fear, love or hate. Some of our attitudes come from straight thinking, from direct experience, but the majority is born of prejudice and merely reflect the attitude of over parents, teachers and friends”. So individual attitudes are developing moment by moment.

Attitudes operate in specific behaviour pattern and are associated closely with emotional reactions. According to Woodworth, an attitude is “a set or disposition (readiness, inclination, tendency) to act towards an object according to its characteristics so far as we are acquainted with them”. He suggests that when an attitude is inactive it may be called a disposition and when an attitude consists of strong feeling it may be called a sentiment. Dutt (1974) had also pointed out that attitudes are not purely cognitive in nature but cognitoemotive in nature, i.e. they have tow components, viz.,
cognitive and emotional towards psychological objects – complex or simple. Attitudes are about generalized objects.

According to Gates (1967), “An attitude is primarily an inner state rather than an overt experience”.

Krech and Crutchfield (1948) defined an attitude as, “an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive process with respect to some aspect of the individual’s world”.

Ferguson (1959) tries to differentiate the concept ‘interest’, from the term ‘attitude’. According to him, the concept interest covers such things as are likes and dislikes, our preferences and aversion. In contrast the concept ‘attitude’ covers our beliefs. We believe that something is right or that something is wrong. We favour the object in preference to that. We accept this position and reject that position. This believing or disbelieving, this favouring or not favouring, this accepting or rejecting constitutes the expression of attitude. To illustrate….. “Our interest in bananas and our attitude towards bananas are two independent concepts; we can believe that bananas are good for children (attitude) but still not like them (interest)…. An interest is an expression of feelings, whereas the attitude is an expression of belief”.

Kuppuswamy (1993) have made analysis of attitudes and reveals that they have four dimensions – direction, intensity, extension and duration. The direction of an attitude is either positive or negative, i.e. for or against some object or value. This is the aspect of the attitude which is usually measured. The intensity of a positive or negative attitude is the degree to which it motivates the person’s behaviour towards the activity component. People who are strongly in favour or strongly opposed to a certain object naturally have more intensive attitude than those closer to the centre of the continuum. The extension of an attitude is the degree to which it is generalized or the number of cases it covers. The duration of an attitude is a length of time it endures.
Attitudes can exert a potent influence on an individual. They act as cause as well as results of behaviour. They represent the way one feels or thinks, acts or talks in a situation.

In simple words we can sum up:

a) Attitudes underlie many of the significant and dramatic instances of man's behaviour.
b) Attitudes, when fully developed function as internal frame of reference.
c) Attitudes work as state of readiness for motive arousal.
d) Attitudes serve as fabric for the philosophy of life.
e) Attitudes give continuity to human personality. Human existence is not conceivable without them.
f) Attitudes give meaning to one's daily perception and activities.

**Ausekar (1995)** points out that positive attitude promote growth, negative attitudes hinder growth, critical attitude help in taking wise decisions and tolerant attitudes help in adjusting to new situations. Positive attitude are essential if one wants to gain from study of science. Negative attitudes are more influential than positive ones.

So we can say that attitudes provide us with a personal outlook on the world through our feelings, biases, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats and convictions.

### 2.4.1 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDES

1. **Maturation**

While the formation of attitudes is unquestionably conditioned by experience, the effect of environmental stimuli is conditioned by prior organic growth. This applies not only to the growth of the nervous system but also to the growth of the entire body. The crippled and undersized boy of sixteen years is unlikely to form the same attitudes as those formed by another boy of sixteen who is...
large, well proportioned and strong for his age. Age and sex are important factors in determining just what attitude responses will be made to a given environmental situation.

On the intellectual side, attitudes are conditioned by the growth of intelligence. Development of attitude will depend on memory, understanding and reasoning. The young child has only a very limited capacity for understanding the world about him and he is consequently incapable of forming attitudes about remote or complex or abstract things or problems.

At about a mental age of twelve years the child begins to understand abstract terms such as pity and justice and his capacity for both inductive and deductive reasoning shows a marked and continuous increase during adolescence.

At the age of four or five years, three characteristics especially deserve mention. These are curiosity contra suggestibility and independence. The child at the age is likely to express his curiosity by asking an endless series of questions. He is trying to understand the concrete world around him and he consequently bombards his elders with questions as to what things are, where they come from and how they operate.

At about the age of ten or twelve years, there is an increase in self-confidence which is associated with a tendency to criticize older people, both parents and teachers.

2. Physical Factors

Clinical psychologists have generally recognized that physical health and vitality are important factors in determining adjustment; and frequently it has been found that malnutrition or disease or accidents have interfered so seriously with normal development that serious behaviour disturbances have followed.
Low vitality is an important factor in producing poor social adjustment will inevitably have an important effect on the formulation of attitudes in many different directions. Such children are much more likely to have anti-social attitudes and are less subject to group influences in the formation of other attitudes.

Malnutrition and disease are to a considerable extent responsible for these cases of low vitality.

3. Home Influences

It is generally accepted that attitudes are determined largely by the social environment and that home influences are especially important. In a study of intra-family similarities in attitudes, Newcomb and Svehla compared parents and children on Thurstone’s scales for measuring attitudes towards the church, toward war and toward communism. Correlation between the parents was highest, those between parents and children were next and those between siblings were lowest. The fact that the correlations between siblings are lowest suggests, to some extent at least, the importance of outside social influences.

4. The Social Environment

Through social contacts, as well as through the home, the individual acquires a large proportion of his attitudes, stereotypes and prejudices.

A church group, or a social club, or a college community may come to have a particular kind of emotional and intellectual atmosphere, with the result that individual who accepts membership in the group also tends to appropriate the characteristic attitude of the group. These group influences are very strong in case of some attitudes, and, in case the schools attempt to develop attitude that are opposed to such group-supported attitudes, the results are not likely to be encouraged.
5. School Environment

The form of the school environment seems to be an important factor in determining attitudes. There may be more tensions and more evidence of egocentric feelings in a group under autocratic control, whereas there may be more co-operative endeavour, more expression of objective attitudes and of praise and friendliness, and more constructiveness in a group with democratic control.

2.4.2 Characteristics of Attitudes

The first characteristic of an attitude is that it is anchored be reference to a particular object or set of object to a person or persons, to a situation or situations, to a symbol or symbols. Thus an individual has an attitude towards political, economical or other events, he has an attitude towards himself. It makes no sense to say that a person has 'positive attitude', but it does make a lot of sense when we say that we have a positive attitude towards college education.

Direction:

A positive or unfavourable attitude implies that behaviour is direct towards bringing the holder of the attitude into a closer and prolonged experience with the object of his attitude.

Motivational and Evaluative Properties:

The fact that attitudes give a direction to our behaviour implies that, by definition, they include an evaluative component, that is, the object which calls forth a positive attitude is looked upon as having value, and the one towards which there is a negative attitude has negative value.

Attitudes are Learned:

Attitudes are acquired or learned as a result of our direct or indirect experience with objects. Directs experience seems to be the most important factor in the formation of the attitudes. Indirect
experience may also lead to the formation of positive as well as negative attitudes. Many attitudes are actually functions of the indirect experiences communicated to us by others, particularly by those who are important to us; persons like our parents, friends and teachers.

Stability:
Attitudes are relatively stable, that is, they are neither so changing as to be unpredictable from moment to moment, nor are they fixed or rigid.

Attitude Clustering:
Another important characteristic of an attitude is that only a few attitudes can be thought of as existing by themselves, in complete isolation. Most of them are clustered with other attitudes.

Centracity:
The clustering of attitudes around some key attitude has been established by many investigations. Generally, those attitudes which are held strongly form the centre of a cluster of attitudes. This is known as the centrality of attitudes. The central attitude forms a sort of attitudes are organized.

Salience:
Another characteristic related to the centrality of attitudes is known as 'salience' or the importance assigned by an individual to certain attitudes in relations to his other attitudes.