INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

"The Promise of Excellence in Education rests on the Willingness of the Nation to support a comprehensive programme of Educational Research and Development to improve schools."

Lindley J. Stiles

1.1 HISTORICAL AND GENERAL BACKGROUND OF IRAN:

Historically Iranian civilization is now known to be at least ten thousand years old, one of the longest continuing civilizations of all. For much of this long history, the term Iran embraced a far larger area than is included within the boundaries of the country today, which is one reason why Iranian cultural influences have affected so many other cultures in East and West.

Iran's position between low-lying Mesopotamian region, the caucasian and the steppelands of Central Asia, has meant that the country has always been strategically, the land bridge between the Middle East and Asia, across which has streamed wave after wave of migrants and invaders - Aryans, Greeks, Arabs, Turks and Moguls. As
a result, Iran has undergone moments of great hardships and sufferings, but also a long period of glory.

Iran is a mountainous, high plateau country of about 48 million people with 1,648,180 square kilometers, (636,363 square miles) stretching from the Caspian sea and the Soviet Union in the north to the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman in the South and from Turkey and Iraq in the West to Afghanistan and Pakistan in the east, is the 16th longest country of the world. The length of the Iranian coastal lines along the Caspian sea from the River Astara to the Bay of Hossein Gholi is 657 kilometers and for the sea of Oman from the Bay of Gowater to Bandar Abbas to the mouth of Shat-ol-Arab, it occupies 1259 kilometers making a total of over 8731 kilometers. About 180,200 sq. kilometers (10.93%) of Iran is covered by forests, 55.5% of which pertain to the western oak forests. The forests of North bordering the Southern fringes of the Caspian sea, take up 19% of the land, the pistachio forests, scattered in the south and east, claim another 13.3%, the mountainous forest of Arab cover 6.6% and those of the warm country and kavir forests constitute 5.6% of all.

Iran has many water running rivers; most of which are short of adequate water and the only navigable one is the Karun River. The Iranian rivers along the four main basins of the Caspian Sea, the Persian Gulf, the Sea of
RELIEF MAP OF ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN

SCALE

Below Sea Level
0 - 200 m
200 - 1000
1000 - 2000
2000 - 4000
4000 +

Kilometres

100 0 100 200 300 400 500
Oman, the Urumieh Lake and the Continental discharge bodies. The length of some Iranian rivers is as below: Karun (890 Km), Sefidrud (765 Km), and Karkh (755 Km).

Iran has two seas, the Persian Gulf with an area of 240,000 square kilometers providing Iran with a maritime linkage, through the strait of Hormoz and Oman with the rest of the Globe, in South, and the Caspian sea the world's largest lake, with an area of 424,200 square kilometers which links the country with Europe via the water ways of the Soviet Union in north. Besides Iran has many lakes most of which are of the salt water type and the largest ones are Urumieh (4,868 square kilometers), Namak (1,806 square kilometers), Hamun Zazmurian (1,097 square kilometers) and Bakhtegak (750 sq. kilometers) The largest islands of Iran are situated mainly in the Persian Gulf and the strait of Hormoz the largest of which are as follows:-

Gheshm (1491 sq. kilometers),
Kish (89.7 sq. kilometers),
Lavan (76 sq. kilometers),
Lark (48.72 sq. kilometers),
and Hormoz (41.9 sq.kms).

Iran possesses a diverse climate. However, a comparison run on different regions will clearly demonstrate such divergences in climate. The climate along the Southern shores of Caspian Sea, is mild and temperate and the amount of rainfall is more than in other areas. The
average annual temperature is about 18° C. In western part of the country, the climate is of the mediterranean type whereas in its southern sector, it is influenced by semi-desertic conditions. In these regions, summer is characterised by extreme heat in the valleys and mild temperature on the heights, whereas in winter temperate climate is prevalent in the valley and severe cold in high altitudes. In the south, despite the humidity ever present all over, the temperature is usually high to such an extent that it reaches a maximum of 54° C in Khouzistan. The hinterland of the Iranian plateau enjoys a dry and desertic climate. In the lowlands of central, eastern and south eastern Iran, the desertic climate is the governing condition.

According to the census taken in 1976, the population then numbered 32 million, of which 15 million lived in urban areas. Some 44.5 percent of the total population is under the age of 15 and 52 percent is between the ages of 15 and 66 years. Between 1975 and 1980, the annual population growth rate was estimated to be 3 percent. The population of Iran in the solar Iranian year of 1360 (equivalent of 1981) was 38,785,000, making it the 21st most populated country in the world. In 1983, the census revealed a population of 41,068,000 the density of which was 24.9 persons per sq. kilometer. 51.8% of the population
resides in towns and cities, the most populated of these being Tehran containing 13.4% of the total. The age breakdown of the population demonstrates that 43.6% are below 14 years of age, 52% are between 15 and 59 and 4.4% of the population constitutes those above 60 years of age. The average age for the male population is 55.1 years and for the female it is 56.3 years. The birth rate figure per thousand is 41.2 and for the death rate per thousand it is 11.5. The rate of population growth is 3.2%. According to latest statistics of October 1986 the population is 48,089,597.

66% of the Iranian people are of the Parsi stock, 25% of Turkish, 5% Kurd, 4% Arab, 98% are Moslems, 0.7% Christians, 0.3% Jewish, 0.1% Zoroastrians and 0.1% of other faiths.

The official and literary language is Farsi (Persian). Although modern Persian is written in an Arabic script and has borrowed from the Arabic lexicon, it has retained its character and identity. It is usually estimated that Persian is spoken as a mother tongue by approximately one-half of the Iranian population, although it is only official language and the sole language in which education is imparted. Other than Farsi, different languages such as Turkish, Kurdish, Lori, Guilaki, Baluchi and Arabic are spoken in various parts of the country.
At present, Iran is divided into 24 Ostans (Provinces), 195 Shahrestan (Districts) and 498 Bakshs (Townships). The district which is sub-division of the province, consists of certain number of townships and also of Central Town or City and which usually bears the same name as the district itself.

Tehran, the capital, is by far the largest city. When it became the capital of Iran less than two centuries ago it was no more than a village and even 25 years ago the population was only about one million. Today, Tehran is having a population of 13 millions. Isfahan, Tabriz, Shiraz, Mashhad and Kerman are the major cities which are famous for their historical buildings and monuments, museums, religious places and beauties. Other important Iranian cities with populations of over 150,500 in 1979 were Ahwaz, Abadan, Bakhtaran, Ghom, Rasht, Hamedan, and Urumeih.

The Iranian monetary unit is "Rial" and composed of Dinar 100. Rials 10 equal Tooman one. In 1986, a U.S. Dollar equalled Rials 83. The Gross National product was over Rials 6,305 billion in the year 1980-81 and that the National Revenue was Rials 5,872 billion. The per capita income was about 150,500. The components of the Gross National product were: 16.3% agriculture, 16.5% industries and mines, 13.5% petroleum and 53% services. In the year
1980-81, Iran had a working force of 11,489,000 of which 24.4% were in agriculture, 18.4% in the industries, 10.4% in construction, 0.8% in mines and 25.0% in the service industry. The unemployed constituted 21%. The main Iranian Agricultural produce are: wheat, pistachio, summer crops, legume, grains, fruit, cotton, tobacco, dates, rice, olives, corn, tea, jute, poppy, citrus fruit, sugar-cane and sugar-beet cultivated in various parts of the country. The most important products of the Iranian industries passing through its primary and experimental phase are Sedan cards, public utility vehicles, radios, black and white and colour T.Vs, refrigerators, water coolers, kerosene heaters, gas heaters, cigarettes and matches, textile, paper mills, wood, ceramics, tiles etc. Iran's main exports besides oil are: hand-woven wool carpets and rugs, cotton hide and leather, mineral ores, caviar, various gums etc. Iran's main imports are: machineries electrical and mechanical appliances, iron and steel, spare parts, grains, chemical pharmaceutical products, paper, card board, meat, dairy products, eggs, cement etc. Although Iran is one of the world's largest oil exporting countries, the economy is predominantly agrarian.

1.2 **EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF IRAN:**

In 1957, the Ministry of Education declared the following overall goals for education:
a. Physical development - pupils should learn sport and hygiene. This concern dates back to very early doctrines.

b. Social development - pupils should learn to respect their family, community and freedom. They must also understand the social and economic life and strive to live and work in and for the community. The idea could already be observed at the beginning of Islam.

c. Intellectual development - pupils should learn to think, preferably through their own experience. This is a European ideal.

d. Moral development - pupils should understand the word of religion, culture, and civilization and by doing this should exercise self-control. This has always been one of the main aims of persian education.

e. Aesthetic development - pupils should love nature and strengthen their individuality by enjoying the arts.

The educational system of Iran consists of a one year kindergarten (pre-primary), five years primary School, three years middle or guidance School, and four years
secondary academic school as well as secondary vocational and technical. (The structure of the formal educational system is presented in Fig.No. 1.1).

Pre-school typically takes place in private institutions. The overall aim is to prepare children for school education. Activities include group games, narrating stories, singing, acting plays and handicrafts with simple tools such as paper cardboard and pen. In rural areas where local dialects are spoken emphasis is given to the learning of spoken and written Farsi (Persian), the medium of instruction in primary school.

Primary School begins at the age of six and lasts five years. In theory, if not always in practice, this leads to a guidance or orientation course lasting three years. Thus, there is general education of eight years, although all eight years are not compulsory. The three-year orientation course is when students are expected to decide upon their future occupations or academic pursuits.

Secondary education lasts four years and is divided into two main tracks. The older and larger of these is the academic track, which is sub-divided into two main branches - Science and Humanities. The secondary technical and vocational line is less well-developed and comprises industrial and agricultural branches.
Fig. No. 1.1 The Educational System of the Islamic Republic of Iran.
Higher education can be divided into teacher-training colleges which may not require completion of secondary education as an entrance condition - and various colleges and universities. However, it should also be pointed out that a large number of university students studied abroad. In 1979, there were some 140,000 students studying abroad, of which 70,000 were in the United States and 30,000 in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Table 1.1 presents enrolments in 1975, 1977 and 1980 in Schools at different levels. In general education, the numbers mask urban-rural differences. In urban areas, about 95 percent of an age group was enrolled but in rural areas the equivalent figure was only 65 percent. In 1980-81, 62 percent of the total enrolment in Primary and Secondary education were boys and 38 percent were girls.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1.1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students Enrolled in 1975, 1977 and 1980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation Course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical &amp; Vocational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Teacher Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University &amp; Colleges</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Considerable importance has been given to non-formal educational in Iran, particularly to literacy work. From 1967 to 1972, Iran participated in the World Experimental Literacy Programme organised by UNESCO and the United National Development Programme (UNDP). This project was carried out in two regions - Isfahan in Central Iran and Dezful in the South - and stressed what was called "functional literacy". Originally, this term was interpreted to mean that instruction in reading and writing should be combined with vocational training. Hence, special courses were organized for automobile mechanics or growers of sugarbeet. Subsequently, a broader interpretation had to be employed as the majority of the participants proved to be women and self-employed farmers. The experience gained in these experiments was used in developing a national literacy programme which received professional support by the establishment of a National Centre for Adult Education and Training. Despite these efforts, the adult literacy rate has remained high: an estimated 35 percent of men and 72 percent of women. The status of literacy efforts following the Islamic Revolution is uncertain, although the Government has continued to stress the need to overcome the problem of illiteracy.

Following the World Conference of Ministers of Education, which was convened in Tehran in 1965, Iran played
an active role in the promotion of literacy at the international level. It was this fact which led to the establishment of the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods (IIALM) in Tehran in 1968. The IIALM served as an international documentation centre on literacy as well as working in the areas of literacy research and training.

1.2.1 ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY STRUCTURE AND OPERATION

The organization of the modern educational system in Iran was closely modelled on that of France. It was, therefore, highly centralised. The Ministry of Education through its central bureaucracy and regional representatives administers and finances the public educational system at primary and secondary levels. Efforts have, however, been made over the year - particularly in the 1970s to establish regional education councils and to develop their role and authority. These councils are composed of representatives of the people, regional education officials and teachers and School Principals. They have some authority in allocating funds and developing curricula - functions previously reserved to the ministry itself - and a considerable range of administrative duties: employment, appointment, transportation, and the like. The provisional Government of the Islamic Republic of Iran indicated its intention to expand the authority of these regional councils.
In 1969, a separate Ministry of Science and Higher Education was established and entrusted with authority over higher education and research institutes as well as with responsibility for overall educational research and planning. There is also a Central Council of Universities, composed of Chancellors of Universities and Institutes of higher education, which advises the Ministry.

1.2.2 FINANCE:

Education in Iran has been financed predominantly by the Government. Although private schools existed until the end of the 1970s, they, too were usually subsidized by Government subventions or by provision of teachers and staff. Following the escalation of oil prices and government revenues in the year after 1973, both unit costs and enrolments increased rapidly. For example, expenditures on primary education increased 34 percent from 1976 to 1977 and by 38 percent from 1977 to 1978, whereas secondary educational expenditures increased by 52 and 37 percent in the same periods. Nonetheless the educational system was still unable to provide education to all. The shortage of places was particularly acute at the secondary and higher levels.

During the Fifth Development Plan (1973-78), credits provided for education totalled the equivalent of
US $4.75 billion, compared with less than US $2 billion in the preceding five-year period. As a percentage of gross national product, this represented an increase from 3.4 to 5.4 percent. It was planned to spend 32 percent of this amount on primary education, 12 percent on the guidance cycle or orientation level, 19 percent on secondary education, 18 percent on higher education, and 1.5 percent on adult education. In all, it was estimated that 30 percent of educational expenses would be made in the rural areas of the country.

1.2.3 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND TEACHING METHODOLOGY:

Traditionally, curriculum development has been highly centralised in Iran. In the 1970s, however, efforts were made to broaden participation in the process of designating content and preparing instructional materials. Specialized Committees were established to review the recommendations of local Committees in the different regions and individual experts. Identification of the needs of primary education is undertaken by a co-ordinating Committee on the basis of the Specialized Committees. The Specialized Committees make suggestions about the course content and methods for each subject area at each class level. However, it is the Co-ordinating Committee which finally allocates the number of hours to be devoted to each subject area at each level. The results of the Specialized
Committees and Co-ordinating Committee are sent to the Higher Council of Education for final approval. The Council then gives the plans to authors to produce text books. Regional and Provincial Committees review the text book-authors' products and suggest revisions. At the University level it is the faculties which determine the course content.

Table 1.2 presents the number of teaching hours devoted to subjects in general education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Primary stage</th>
<th>Guidance stage</th>
<th>Total general education(8yrs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethics &amp; religious studies.</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persian language &amp; literature</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>2,112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>1,088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences &amp; Hygiene</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History, Geography &amp; Social Education</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art &amp; Handicrafts</td>
<td>704</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic Language</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational &amp; Technical orientation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Language</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Exercise &amp; Training</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Teaching Hours</td>
<td>4,480</td>
<td>3,264</td>
<td>7,744</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The reform of teaching methods, however, has had to confront an entrenched educational establishment and strongly held educational values which hold mystery — that is, memorization — of a finite body of knowledge as the goal and meaning of education.

1.2.4 EXAMINATION, PROMOTION AND CERTIFICATION:

Promotion from one grade to the next is based on the results of an end-of-year examination. In each subject, children's work is scored on a 0 to 20 scale. An average score across subjects of at least 10 is required for promotion. Those falling below 10 must repeat the year. This system holds for all primary and secondary education. A similar system is used in teacher-training colleges and sometimes at university level.

At the end of general school, a regional test is administered and a certificate of general education is awarded to the successful candidates. Admission to secondary school, however, requires certain levels of performance in specific subject areas. A secondary-school-leaving test is administered in each province and, again, a certificate is awarded to successful students. Admission to higher education is based on the result of an annual, nationwide test.
1.3 HISTORICAL AND GENERAL BACKGROUND OF KERMAN:

Kerman is situated in south-east of Iran, and is the Caramania of the ancient geographers, and the town probably existed as a settlement in SaSanian times. By the time of Marco Polo's visit in 1271 it had become an emporium for traders from the Persian Gulf, Khurasan, and Central Asia; and its own products, such as harnesses, armour and turquoise, jewellery, were well known.

During the nineteenth century the town was rebuilt on a new site slightly to the north-west of the old town. More than a century passed before the city could be said to have recovered. In 1956, the population was estimated as 62,157 which increased to 1,535,000 in 1984 and finally it was 1,639,031 in 1987. In the same year, the number of educated people was 721,727 which was 58.84% of literacy. Industry has expanded once more, and the town has been able to acquire and develop the features of a strong provincial capital. To-day Kerman is a town in transition. Its walls and gates were removed in the 1930s, but the ruins of the walls can still be traced among the old houses. As in many Persian towns this has evolved into a centre of modern administration with office of Government Departments, a Branch of the National Bank, and a large school and hospital - all in modern buildings. Most of the housing in Kerman is still of the old courtyard type, centring on a yard with
a pool and a small garden. A prominent feature of the Kerman skyline is the "Bad-gir" or wind tower. Like a chimney in reverse, they ventilate rooms below, which are often subterranean refuges against the heat of the summer. Outside the town large areas are given to the gardens, both for recreation and for producing fruit and vegetables, irrigated by "qanats" which are among the longest in Persia.

Industry in Kerman was until recently largely on a craft basis. Now, modernization of plant and further industrialisation are a feature. There is a significant number of modern establishments, mainly textile mills and brickworks. The most important activity, in the value of the product and the numbers employed, still remains carpet-weaving. Kerman carpets are world-famous for quality and design, and materials are still mostly local in origin. Work is done either in the home or in small workshops in the "bazar", with carpet "factories" being yet larger workshops where conditions are slightly more modern. Many in Kerman are engaged in administration and clerical work, which illustrates the importance of the town as a centre of Provincial Government.

Further basins of closed drainage occur singly or in series along the eastern flanks of the Zagros range, where this system abuts on the central plateau. Hollows are
enclosed between high, narrow ridges that trend mainly N.W.-S.E., and lie no more than thirty to forty miles apart. Consequently, the basins themselves are long and relatively narrow, and aligned for the most part in two groups. The first of these groups, extending generally south from Ardestan, Nain, and Yazd, almost as far as Kerman, has small but fairly numerous expanses both of Kavir and Sand.

Table 1.3

Number of Students, Schools and Classes for Kindergarten, Primary, Guidance Cycle and Secondary stage in the Kerman Province and Kerman City, during 1986-87.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>No. of Students</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No.of Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten (Kerman Province)</td>
<td>2350</td>
<td>2165</td>
<td>4515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten (Kerman City)</td>
<td>679</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>1306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary (Kerman Province)</td>
<td>55628</td>
<td>50659</td>
<td>106287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary (Kerman City)</td>
<td>19461</td>
<td>18059</td>
<td>37520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance Cycle (Kerman Province)</td>
<td>25837</td>
<td>22178</td>
<td>48015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance Cycle (Kerman City)</td>
<td>8428</td>
<td>8079</td>
<td>16507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary (Kerman Province)</td>
<td>16827</td>
<td>17588</td>
<td>34415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary (Kerman City)</td>
<td>4674</td>
<td>5843</td>
<td>10517</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Irregularities of relief produce drainage by an intricate complex of flowing but short streams without consistent direction. Despite their small size, some of the kavirs are still incompletely surveyed, but it can be said that most occur at an altitude of about 3000 ft, accordant, therefore, with the Great Kavir of the northern interior rather than with the water surfaces of the southern Lut.

A second cluster of salt basins lies farther south-west, beginning south-east of Isfahan, in the lowest part of the Isfahan plain. All the basins of this second group stand at a distinctly higher elevation than the rest, previously described. The lower Zayande Rud basin lies at 4,850 ft. above sea level, whilst the others are at altitudes of over 5,000 ft. The land area of Kerman State is some 192,978 sq. kilometers (74,509 sq. miles) and Kerman City 48,797 sq. kilometers.

1.4 ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE:

The emphasis on the informal organization has directed the attention of many scholars towards the feelings or sentiments of members of an organization. Studies of morale have been numerous. Researchers have investigated the feelings of togetherness and group cohesiveness, the personal feelings of the group members towards each other and towards the organization. From these studies the concept of organizational climate has evolved. Climate is
attitudinal and is also defined as the qualitative aspect of the interpersonal relationships within the organization. It depends upon the perception by an individual of his own work and his status, of other members, and of the organization. These perceptions are determined largely by individual's participation in the organization, the cumulative behaviour that defines the working relationships of individuals.

The popular 'Getzels - Guba" model (1958) describes the interconnection between the organizational dimensions and personal dimensions, which has proved to be a useful frame-work. This model pictures the school as a social - psychological system i.e., principals and teachers working in a school constitute socially and psychologically interacting units and through their interaction school acquires a land of distinct personality or a distinct atmosphere.

Getzels (1960) gave the dimensions of the school social system and remarked that for shaping the institutional role, the development of the climate within the social system and the very personality of the participants, all dynamically interact with one another.

Cornell (1955) defined organizational climate as "a delicate blending of interpretations by persons in the
organization of their jobs and roles in relationship to
others and their interpretations of the roles of others in
the organization. Cornell concluded that no two schools
have the same climate and that organizational climate has
important effects on the performance of the school.

Argyris (1958) defined organizational climate as
the "homeostatic state of an organization composed of
elements representing many different levels of
investigations.

Lonsdale (1964) defined organizational climate as
a "global index of the task achievement and the need
satisfaction integration. In general usage, the term has a
psycho-social flavour which reflects more concern with the
task achievement dimension but the meaning that gives
relatively equal attention will be preferred."

The organizational climate, therefore, means
interpersonal relationship with the group (staff-personnel)
and between the group and its leader (the head of the
institution). The constituents (Principal and personnel) of
the institution are comparable to the working parts of the
machine which in turn corresponds to its organization.
1.4.1 THE CONCEPT OF CLIMATE:

Of the various studies of organizational climate, the most promising was conducted by Halpin and Croft (1966). Halpin explained his concept of School climate by this illustration.

Anyone who visits more than a few schools notes quickly how schools differ from each other in their 'feel'. In one school the teachers and the principal are zestful and exude confidence in what they are doing. They find pleasure in working with each other, this pleasure is transmitted to the students, who thus are given at least a fighting chance to discover that school can be a happy experience. In a second school the brooding discontent of the teachers is palpable, the principal tries to hide his incompetence and his lack of a sense of direction behind a cloak of authority, and yet he wears his cloak poorly because the attitude he displays to others vacillates randomly between the obsequious and the officious. And the psychological sickness of such a faculty spills over on the students, who in their own frustration, feed back to the teachers a mood of despair. A third School is marked by neither joy nor despair, but by hollow ritual. Here one gets the feeling of watching an elaborate charade in which teachers, principal, and students alike are acting out parts. The acting is smooth, even glib, but it appears to have little meaning for the participants, in a strange way the show just doesn't seem to be 'for real'. And so, too, as one moves to other schools, one finds that each appears to have a "personality" of its own. It is this "personality" that we describe here as the "organizational climate" of the school. Analogously, the personality is to be individual what organization climate is to the organization (Halpin, 1966, p.131).
From the above quotation it is quite obvious that each and every individual observes that a unique climate, atmosphere or personality is felt whenever one spends even a short time with the members of particular organization. This phenomenon can be perceived by them in school, in hospital, in factories and in every type of structure. The feeling is defined and described in various terms by the theorists concerned with explanations of phenomenon associated with complex organization. These theorists tend to explain this particular phenomenon in terms of interaction of role participants at the various hierarchical levels of the organization housed in a particular building as the organizational climate.

Sinclair (1970) used the term 'educational environment' as synonymous to 'organizational climate'. As early as 1955, Cornell in discussing school administration spoke of organizational climate. He defined organizational climate as "a delicate blending of interpretations (or perceptions as social psychologists would call it) by persons in the organization of their jobs or roles in relationship to others and their interpretations to the roles of others in the organization" (Cornell, 1955, p.222).

Argyris (1958) defined organizational climate as the "homeostatic" state of an organization composed of elements representing many different levels of analysis" (Argyris, 1958, p.516).
It is very much clear that the very concept of organizational climate has been discussed differently by various authors. According to Gibb (1960), when the new observer comes into a group for the first time, he is able to sense a feeling about the group which we might call a climate. According to Lonsdale "organizational climate might be defined as the global assessment of the interaction between the task-achievement dimension and the needs-satisfaction dimension within the organization, or, in other words, of the extent of the task-needs integration" (Lonsdale, 1964, p.165).

In Sullivan's (1947) view, organizational climate refers to the cathetic patterns giving identity to subgroups and interpersonal relations in a living organization. Halpin (1966) defined climate as the "personality" of an organization. School climate was the "personality" of a school described in terms of the social interactions between the teachers and the principal and among members of the teaching staff.

Organizational climate may be defined in terms of interaction that takes place between organizational members (i.e., superiors and subordinates) as they fulfil the prescribed roles while satisfying their individual needs.

The organizational climate of an Institution means
the interpersonal relationship within the group and between the group and its leader (i.e., staff personnel and the head of the institution) respectively. It is the social milieu, the human behaviour or social atmosphere that pervades all activities in the institution. The constituents (i.e., the principal and personnel) of an institution are comparable to the working parts of a machine which in turn corresponds to its organization. In the process of discharging duties, there is interaction between superordinate-subordinate hierarchy, that is the organization. What strikes the public or the visitors to an institution is its personality or image which is the sum total of its traditions, tone, human behaviour etc. Organizational climate is influenced by two factors: i) interpersonal relationship within the institution; and ii) external agency administering it.

1.4.2 ASPECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE:

From various studies on organizations it is obvious that research studies of organizations first began with considerations of behaviour in industrial and other business organizations and later on were extended to study the school as an organization. One of the concepts studied in research on organizational behaviour has been climate. Research in the field of organizational climate has helped a lot in mapping out the domain of organizational climate of any institution or organization. Factoring of 64 likert
type items devised to measure organizational climate has yielded dimensions - factors. Halpin and Croft identified eight dimensions (subtests).

Because of the use of factor analysis procedure the subtests are technically called 'factors' and the entire set of eight factors is referred to as the 'Factor Structure'. Halpin and Croft (1966) divided the eight dimensions (subtests) into two groups. The first four of the eight subtests pertain to the behaviour of the principal and the remaining four subtests pertain to the behaviour of the teacher.

**Characteristics of Teachers' Behaviour**

1. Disengagement
2. Hindrance
3. Esprit
4. Intimacy

**Characteristics of Principal's Behaviour**

5. Aloofness
6. Production Emphasis
7. Thrust
8. Consideration (Halpin, 1966)
1. "Disengagement" refers to the teachers' tendency to be "not with it". This dimension describes a group which is "going through the motions", a group that is "not in gear" with respect to the task at hand. It corresponds to the more general concept of anomie as first described by Durkheim. In short, this subtest focusses upon the teachers' behaviour in a task-oriented situation.

2. "Hindrance" refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements the teachers view as unnecessary busywork. The teachers perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.

3. "Esprit" refers to 'morale'. The teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied, and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their job.

4. "Intimacy" refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social-needs satisfaction, which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.
5. "Aloofness" refers to behaviour by the principal, characterized as formal and impersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behaviour, in brief, is universalistic rather than particularistic; nomothetic rather than idiosyncratic. To maintain this style, he keeps himself at least "emotionally" at a distance from his staff.

6. "Production emphasis" refers to behaviour by the principal, characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive, and plays the role of a "straw boss". His communication tends to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

7. "Thrust" refers to behaviour by the principal, characterized by his evident effort in trying to "move the organization". "Thrust behaviour is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example he personally sets. Because he does not ask the teachers to give of themselves
any more than he willingly gives to himself, his behaviour, although starkly task-oriented, nonetheless is viewed favourably by the teachers.

8. "Consideration" refers to behaviour by the principal, characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers "humanly" to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms.

The above mentioned eight dimensions of the organizational climate are the internal factor structure aspect of climates. The particular names which are given to these dimensions are different from those which are commonly used in day-to-day language. To quote Halpin (1966, p.143):

In particular, the common sense, in itself will not suffice as a way of telling us what variables should be used when we seek to map the domain of organizational climate. Common sense alone cannot tell us how many or how few categories we should for any given purpose - draw directly from the language of everyday life.

This cannot be peculiar to climate studies; even studies on human personality have used terms which are not directly drawn from the language of common sense. All these terms have been operationally defined later on in order to bring out the concept each of them carries. Halpin (1966, p.139) being aware of this fact has stated that:
..for each of the concepts that we introduce is defined literally by the complete set of operations that we have used to measure it. This is the operational definition of each concept. Yet each concept contains a further meaning which we later infuse into it on the basis of linkages that we make between the stark empirical findings and our theoretical knowledge, about the nature of organizations and human personality.

Halpin and Croft's 64 items are also made use of by Sharma (1973) in his study of organizational climate of secondary schools of Rajasthan. But being confronted by differences in educational setting, functional conditions and relationships and constraints, Sharma had to modify some of these items. Sharma made a study of 1915 respondents of 95 schools and factor analysed the above items accordingly. The conclusion he offers is that in the Indian context, there are some variations in the subtest level factors of the climate. Sharma stated:

In cases of four factors, namely, 'Disengagement', 'Esprit', 'Intimacy', and 'Production Emphasis', the factor structure is found to be identical (with that of Halpin and Croft). But in the case of OCDQ that comprised the four factors ('Hindrance', 'Alienation', 'Thrust', and 'Consideration'), or such subtests in the original study by Halpin and Croft did not in the present study, show the same pattern (Sharma, 1973, p.193).
Sharma's further probe led to new nomenclature for the remaining four original factors of the OCDQ viz. 'Alienation' for Halpin and Croft's, 'Aloofness,' 'Psychophysical Hindrance', for 'Hindrance', 'Controls' for 'Consideration', and 'Human Thrust' for 'Thrust'.

Sharma's exercise at factor analysis at item levels mark an advance, for educational conditions, for Halpin and Croft's conceptualization.

The conceptualization of climate at the subtest level advanced further when in 1975 the Department of Educational administration, M.S. University, Baroda used three sets of items for identifying factors at the item level. The sets of data consisted of responses from:

i) Secondary school teachers of Thailand on climate items;

ii) Secondary school teachers of Gujarat State on climate items which are modified to suit Gujarat conditions; and

iii) M.S. University teachers responses on climate items, suited to campus educational conditions.

We find that in all, in the three sets of items, individual items are grouped together around 12 factors. The solution of these 12 factors has three sets, each containing four factors. This is certainly an advance in climate concept at item constellation level. The 12 factors along with their group structure are presented below:
I \textbf{Group Characteristics:}
1. Disengagement
2. Hindrance
3. Intimacy
4. Esprit

II \textbf{Leader Behaviour:}
5. Aloofness
6. Production Emphasis
7. Thrust
8. Consideration

III \textbf{Institutional Behaviour:}
9. Organizational climate
10. Communication
11. Human Relations
12. Decentralized Democratization Freedom

Sharma (1978) has done conceptualization at the subtest level. His famous test known as School Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) was prepared in 1978. In his test, he made use of the same eight dimensions which he used in his previous research work in 1973. Sharma has further divided these eight dimensions into two groups. They are: Group Behaviour Characteristics.
and Leader Behaviour Characteristics.

I Group Behaviour Characteristics:
1. Disengagement
2. Alienation
3. Esprit
4. Intimacy

II Leader Behaviour Characteristics:
5. Psycho-physical Hindrance
6. Controls
7. Production Emphasis
8. Humanised Thrust (Sharma, 1978)

I. Group Characteristics:

1. Disengagement: It refers to the teachers tendency not to be in gear with respect to the task at hand. There is no feeling of any sense of identification with the goals, purposes, methods regarding the policy of the institutions. Teachers do not feel that they are part of the institution and they grow a sense of disinterestedness, detachment towards the school. They are least bothered about the academic or any other activities of the school. They don't care about the success or failure of the school
and are not ready for shouldering any responsibility. They do not show any interest in taking credit for achievements or blame for failure of any institution.

2. **Alienation:** It refers to the behaviour patterns within the group (faculty), including the leader (i.e., the principal), which are characterized as highly formal and impersonal. This dimension describes the degree to which the principal goes by book and wants to be guided by prescribed rules rather than dealing with teachers in an informal face to face situation. The principal keeps himself emotionally at a distance from teachers.

3. **Esprit:** It refers to teachers' morale. The teachers have the feeling that their social needs are being satisfied and also have the feeling that they enjoy a sense of accomplishment in their job.

4. **Intimacy:** It refers to the teachers' well adjusted and happy life among themselves. This dimension describes social need satisfaction which is not associated with the task
teachers are called upon to perform in school and not linked with task accomplishment.

II. Leader Behaviour:

5. Psycho-Physical Hindrance: It refers to the teachers' feelings that the principal loads them too much with clerical sort of work, routine duties which hinders rather than facilitates their main business of teaching. Teachers consider these types of routine duties as unnecessary. There is lack of communication between the leader and the staff. Teachers perceive the principal as a dictator in his behaviour with them.

6. Controls: They describe the degree to which the principal's behaviour can be characterized as bureaucratic and impersonal in nature. His behaviour is task-oriented but at the same time he tries to raise the degree of effectiveness and efficiency by helping the group work towards the common goal and by providing them adequate operational guidance and services.

7. Production Emphasis: Halpin and Croft has made use of this term for measuring and evaluating and
the organizational climate. Any principal who manifests such a behaviour is viewed as task-oriented. This dimension refers to the principal's behaviour characterised by closed supervision of the staff with the motive of more and more achievement or production of work. He is highly directive and not sensitive to feedback from the staff. He emphasizes more on work, duties and outcomes than anything else. He wants to see that his school is one of the best and that he should be regarded as efficient. He leaves little time for the staff to rest. His behaviour is authoritarian and directive. To Halpin (1966, p.151), "He is highly directive and plays the role of a 'straw boss'.

8. Humanised Thrust: It refers to the principal's behaviour characterized by serious and appropriate effort to run the school smoothly. Humanistic thrust behaviour is not by close supervision but by the principal's attempts to motivate the teachers through the example he sets personally. The principal's behaviour through task-oriented is at the same time characterized by an inclination to
treat the teachers humanly. He tries to do something extra for them in human term. The principal never asks the teachers to give themselves any more than they willingly give of themselves. His character through being task-oriented is viewed favourably by the teachers.

Since the publication of Halpin and Croft's original report in 1963 many researchers and investigators had made use of the OCDQ and its eight subtests. According to Halpin (1967), the OCDQ is used in not less than 1100 schools in United States and Canada. In addition to this researchers in Korea, Pakistan and Australia have also made use of this tool (OCDQ).

From the above statement it is obvious that Halpin and Croft's study is an authentic source of organizational climate and has been used in many countries by different researchers. Therefore, the investigator in the present study also follows the same eight subtests identified by Halpin and Croft.

1.4.3 GENERAL FACTORS (MORE COMMON CONCEPT CONSTELLATION)

Since the main focus of the present study is to identify and classify climate of schools, the investigator felt the need of pursuing the discussion on conceptual
framework of climate and to notice whether the tapping of enough common behaviour is permitted which can describe the conceptual operation behaviour in terms of a few more general factors (i.e. fewer than the number of subtests).

In order to arrive at general factors, researchers generally adopt the factorial solution technique. In studies by Halpin (1963); Sharma (1973); Jaigopal and Nagarajan (1974); Samrong (1976); and Gandhi (1977) factor analysis was done at the subtests level. All of them obtained general factors which threw significant light on constellations relating to organizational climate as a common basis. A brief review of the results of the above mentioned researchers work in factorial rotational solution on the subtest level is given below:

1.4.4 HALPIN'S TWO FACTOR ROTATIONAL SOLUTION:

Halpin in his study first attempted two-factor varimax solution for the eight OCDQ subtests on the total sample of 1151 respondents. In his two factor varimax rotational solution he found two factors. In one of them the dimensions of 'Intimacy' and 'Consideration' were loaded highly and in the other the dimensions of 'Disengagement' and 'Aloofness' were loaded highly. The former he named Factor I as 'Social Needs' and the later Factor II as 'Social Control'. 'Intimacy' and 'Consideration' described the social needs oriented behaviour whereas 'Disengagement'
and 'Aloofness' both depicted behaviour which was task-oriented and related to social control. According to Halpin (1966, p.159) "......most of the social behaviour which occurs in an organization can be classified either as oriented to social needs, or as associated with social control."

Halpin in his two factor varimax rotational solution for the eight OCDQ subtests found that all the eight subtests at least to some degree either saturated with social control or social need behaviour or both of them. Though the two factor solution is helpful in understanding the factor structure of climate and makes good sense in terms of organizational theory yet Halpin's finding showed that the two factor solution accounted for only 50 percent of the common variance. This low percentage of common variance made Halpin to work on the three factor varimax rotational solution based on his previous sample of 1151 respondents.

1.4.5 HALPIN'S THREE FACTOR VARIMAX ROTATIONAL SOLUTION:

Halpin believed that the three factor solution provided the best description of the factors tapped by the OCDQ as compared to the two factor solution. In his three-factor varimax rotational solution he found three factors. On first of which the dimensions of 'Intimacy' and
'Consideration' were loaded highly, and he named Factor I as Social Needs. Because it seemed to measure the individual Social Needs. On the second the dimensions 'Esprit' and 'Thrust' yielded high positive loading and the dimensions of 'Disengagement' and 'Hindrance' yielded high negative loadings. He called Factor II as 'Esprit'. It was found that Factor II measured the behaviour of the group and not the individual behaviour. And on the third, the dimensions of 'Aloofness' and 'Production Emphasis' secured the highest loading. Halpin called Factor III as Social Control. These two dimensions measured the principal's behaviour. From his three factor rotational solution, Halpin identified three general factors of organizational climate - Social Needs, Esprit and Social Control. Halpin (1966, p.162) stated that "Schutz has identified in the FIRO tests three factors of interpersonal needs which seem to parallel the three factors which we have identified in the OCDQ. They are Affection, Inclusion and Control."

Halpin in comparing his factors with those of Schutz (1958), states that the Social Needs correspond to Schutz's Affection, and the Social Control is similar to Schutz's Control - factor, although, there is difference between the OCDQ Factor of 'Esprit' and Schutz's Factor of Inclusion. The former reflects the interaction between the group and the leader whereas the latter describes a measure
of interaction within the group (Halpin, 1966). Halpin believed that the three factor solution can provide an effective way of explaining the composition of the eight subtests which define the organizational climate profiles.

Though Sharma (1973), too, has done factor analysis at the eight subtests level, he, unlike Halpin, in his factor analysis used a four solution rotated with varimax procedures. The factor loadings were computed. Sharma's four general factors were:

i) Job Satisfaction
ii) Esprit
iii) Social Needs, and
iv) Organizational Control

In his factor analysis he found that the dimensions 'Production Emphasis' loaded highly but negatively in Factor I, 'Esprit' and 'Intimacy' on Factor II, 'Psycho-Physical Hindrance' (positively) and 'Humanized Thrust' (negatively) on Factor III, and 'Disengagement' (negatively), 'Alienation' (positively) and 'Controls' (negatively) on Factor IV.

Sharma's nomenclature for Halpin's 'Social Control' is 'Organizational Structure'. In addition he identified a factor which he calls job satisfaction which is not found in Halpin's factorial structure.
Sharma observes:

A high score on production emphasis indicated job oriented behaviour, though, not necessarily negative in character. Because job satisfaction emanates from accomplishment of a task, at times it may not bring about social satisfaction to the individual (Sharma, 1978, p. 218).

Jaigopal and Nagarajan (1974) in their study made use of orthogonal factor matrix. This is based on a small sample of 61 secondary school teachers selected from eighteen schools of two Tamil Nadu Districts. Their analysis led to 20 factors which accounted for 80 per cent of total variance. The first 9 factors showed high values greater than 2 and accounted for about 12 percent of the total while 38 per cent of the total variance was accounted by the 11 remaining factors. The high loadings on these factors led to the following variables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I) Indicates association with the individual teacher's perception of other teachers within the institutional setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II) Few variables indicative of leadership dimension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III) Indicates the interpersonal atmosphere existing within the institution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV) Indicates authoritarianism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V) Indicates intimacy and control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI) Indicates leadership involvement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VII) Indicates supportive nature of the members of the faculty.

VIII) Indicates teachers' involvement.

IX Indicates business like principal behaviour.

The remaining factors are left out of listing because they were not clearly defined.

Samrong Pengnu (1976) of M.S. University, Baroda, made use of the 12 factor structure developed at the department for measuring and evaluating the organizational climate. His data was based on a sample of 1000 teachers belonging to 60 secondary schools of the Central Zone of Thailand. Making use of the original principal component Factor Matrix Method, he identified five general factors covering 77.97 percent of the total variance. Though he did not name his factors, he could have done so on the basis of higher loadings of dimensions i.e., Factor I in which there were high loadings on dimensions 'Thrust' and 'Consideration' could be called leader behaviour. Factor II could be termed Social Needs as it was loaded high on 'Intimacy' and 'Social Relations'. Factors III could be termed 'Administrative Behaviour', as it had high positive loading on 'Communication' and negative on 'Freedom Democratization' and 'Disengagement'. Factor IV with its high loading on 'Esprit' could be termed 'Esprit' and Factor
Making use of the same data (i.e., 1000 respondents from Thailand Secondary Schools) Samrong Pengnu also computed factorial solution of 12 climate dimensions - 10 moral dimensions and 2 leader behaviour dimensions. Working out a varimax rotated factor solution, he found eight varimax factors each had dominant loadings of one or two of the total 24 dimensions. The following table provides us with the intra factorial structure in the context of all the dimensions of the climate, morale and leader behaviour.

**Table 1.4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Varimax Factor</th>
<th>Dimension Dominant Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I)</td>
<td>Consideration and Rapport between teachers and principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II)</td>
<td>Intimacy and Human Relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III)</td>
<td>Community Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV)</td>
<td>Satisfaction with teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V)</td>
<td>Teacher Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI)</td>
<td>Esprit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII)</td>
<td>Production Emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII)</td>
<td>Teacher Load</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the above table we can see that Leader Behaviour, Social Needs, Esprit and Control emerge as general factors here also.

Gandhi (1977) conducted an investigation under the title "A study of organizational climate as a function of personality of school personnel and pupil control ideology".

His study advances further the study of general factors of climate. Gandhi identified four general factors which cover a variance of 71.59 percent. These alongwith their percentages are:

1. Administrative orientation covers 36.99 percent variance.
2. Psychological needs cover 13.70 percent variance.
3. Task fulfilment covers 11.90 percent variance, and
4. Morale or Esprit covers 9.00 percent variance.

Table 1.5 shows the eleven rotated factor solutions of twelve dimensions of climate, sixteen personality factors, Pupil Control Ideology and dogmatism secured dominant loadings on the following dimensions:
The review of factor analysis studies of eight subtests and twelve subtests of the Climate Description Questionnaire leads, principally, to general factors of climate viz., (1) Administrative Orientation; (ii) Social Needs, (iii) Esprit, and (iv) Organizational or Social

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Varimax Factor</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Dominant Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Intimacy and Esprit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Personality Factor: Self sufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Thrust and Consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Personality Factor: Dominant and Sophisticated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Production Emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Personality Factor: Tough and Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Personality Factor: Silent and Convention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Personality Factor: Experimentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dogmatism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

48
Control. These are the four main constellations of dimensions of Organizational Climate.

1.4.6. CLIMATE PROTOTYPIC DIFFERENTIAL CLUSTER

Halpin and Croft adopted the three factor solution for testing the responses of 1151 respondents, on the 64 items of their research instrument (OCDQ). They wanted to categorize similar profiles to see whether the school profiles constellated into differentiable cluster. Their first task was to categorize similar profiles into groups. They made use of factor loadings to help them to achieve this end. They succeeded in delineating six sets of prototypic school profiles. In Halpins' view, these prototypes can be viewed as description of six different organizational climates in order, from open to closed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Open</th>
<th>Autonomous</th>
<th>Controlled</th>
<th>Familiar</th>
<th>Paternal</th>
<th>Closed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Halpin says that as one can regard minds as 'open' or 'closed' so can be organizational climate. He states that, "To use Lewin's terms we can describe the open climate as marked by 'functional flexibility' and the closed climate as distinguished by 'functional rigidity'" (Halpin, 1966. p.170). An attempt has been made below to
explain each of the six types of organizational climate in detail.

1.4.6.1 **OPEN CLIMATE:**

It refers to a situation in which the teachers enjoy extremely high Esprit. There is a strong feeling of confidence in the principal. The teachers work well together with little bickering and complaining. Teachers are not burdened with routine duties and the principal's policies help them to work easily. Teachers enjoy friendly relations with each other and can use their initiative. Their job satisfaction is high and they are proud of their school. Principal's behaviour is an integration between his own personality and the role he is required to play as a leader. The principal is a hard working man, helpful but at the same time critical when necessary. He is not aloof, inflexible or impersonal. He is capable of interpreting his own rules with suitable flexibility. He does not do all the work himself and shares that with his teachers. There is no need of emphasising production because the principal is capable of providing a climate within which teachers can work well.

1.4.6.2 **AUTONOMOUS CLIMATE:**

The most outstanding feature of this organizational climate is that the principal provides opportunity for teachers to work together and they
(teachers) work well together, much as in the open climate. There exists higher social need satisfaction than task achievement. The principal is, however, aloof and operates in a business-like but rather impersonal way. Teachers work well together and accomplish the tasks of the institution. In this type of climate the morale of the teachers is high but not as high as in open climate. The principal likes to establish procedures and regulations but does not check upon them at all closely. He does not try to push the teachers to work harder. He works hard himself and is regarded with respect. The teachers do not have to go to the principal for paper work time and again. The principal remains aloof from the teachers. He does not force them to produce, rather whatever is done by teachers he appreciates.

1.4.6.3 THE CONTROLLED CLIMATE:

The important characteristic of the climate is the principal's pressure for achievement, with the result that he and everyone else works hard but there is little community feeling amongst the teachers, even though the morale remains high. The principal is dominating and directive. There is a lot of paper work and teachers have little time to establish friendly relations with each other and the general feeling is of impersonality. The principal allows little flexibility and insists that everything be done his way. He is also somewhat aloof and prefers to
issue instructions rather than talk things through. He does not seek to satisfy the teachers' social needs. He delegates few responsibilities and initiates leadership acts rather than allow them to come from the group.

1.4.6.4 THE FAMILIAR CLIMATE:

The main feature of this climate is that the principal is on particularly good terms with the teachers and the whole atmosphere is relaxed and warm. The principal exerts no pressure or force to get things done. His aim is to create an opportunity for a feeling that everyone is part of a happy family and does not want to direct or control others. The principal suggests things instead of issuing instructions and is very much reluctant to criticize. Teachers like him as a person who is interested in their welfare but are inclined to discount him as a leader.

1.4.6.5 THE PATERNAL CLIMATE:

This climate is characterized by the principal's ineffectiveness who is not capable of controlling the teachers as well as to satisfy their social needs. The principal tries both to be friendly with teachers and to control them but the teachers are not prepared to accept him or his efforts. In this type of climate the teachers do not work well together and they are split into factions. The principal is the very opposite of aloof and he is everywhere...
trying to do everything and wants to be sure that everything is done his way. He has neither the prestige nor the confidence of his teachers so that a minimum actually gets done. His main interest in life is the school and his duties within it. He is considerate but his consideration will be a form of seductive over solicitousness rather than a genuine concern for the social needs of others. And he uses this consideration behaviour to satisfy his down social needs.

1.4.6.6 THE CLOSED CLIMATE:

This climate is pretty well the opposite of the open climate and it marks a situation where the teachers obtain little satisfaction either in task achievement or in social needs. The teachers are disgruntled and do not cooperate well. They go through the motions but achieve a minimum. The principal is extremely aloof and distant, given to arbitrary decisions and much issuing of useless rules. His works are hollow because he possesses little thrust and does not motivate the teachers by setting a good personal example. He expects everyone else to work and to take initiative which in practice he resents. He does not provide adequate leadership for the teachers. So therefore, the general atmosphere is of dissatisfaction. The principal is not effective in directing teachers' activities. The only thing that appears to keep teachers in school is the
satisfaction they get from their friendly relations with other teachers. To quote Halpin (1966, p.181), "This climate characterizes an organization for which the best prescription is radical surgery."

1.5 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR:

The role of the principal as leader has been a subject of considerable debate and research in education. Many kinds of programmes are designed to improve principals' leadership capacity and skills.

Educational research on school organization and administration has recently been dominated by the concept of "principal as leader". Studies of "school effectiveness" have utilized this concept (Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, Wisenbacher, Edmonds, Rutter, Maugham, Mortimer, Onston, and Smith, 1979; Phi Delta Kappa, 1980). Initial studies of school effectiveness identified the "principal as instructional leader" as one of several critical factors in effective schools.

Recent research on high schools has also focussed on the "principal as leader" (Grant, Coleman, Hoffer, and Kilgore, 1982; Boyer, and Lightfoot, 1983; Sizer, 1984). These studies have been characterized as contributing to a "high school reform movement" (D'Amico, 1982). These studies have found that the role of the principal as a
leader is critical in creating school conditions that lead to a higher student academic performance—conditions such as setting high standards and goals, planning and coordinating with staff, having an orientation toward innovation, frequent monitoring of staff and student performance, and involving parents and the community.

Also leadership behaviour is an important determinant of school climate. We can increase our understanding of leadership phenomena if we abandon the notion of leadership as a trait, and concentrate instead upon an analysis of "the behaviour of leaders." In education, we often confuse leadership with sheer bigness. But this use of the term applies equally to either things or people and fails to take into account the central psychological characteristic of leader behaviour. The behaviour of the leader and the behaviour of group members are inextricably interwoven and the behaviour of both is determined to a great degree by formal requirements imposed by the institution of which the group is a part. For example, a teacher is formally designated leader of the children in his class. How he behaves as a leader is influenced by the behaviour of the children. Moreover, his behaviour is conditioned by the policies and regulations of the particular school system in which he is employed.

The research on leader behaviour shows that
Introduction & Background

Effectiveness in respect to one criterion of leadership is not necessarily correlated with effectiveness in regard to the other criteria. For example, the behaviour of a leader who is effective in maintaining high morale and good human relations within the group is not necessarily effective in accomplishing high production and goal achievement.

Researchers have shown that the trait approach to leadership, as it has been used in most studies reported in the literature, has yielded negligible, and often contradicting results. They have summarized that (a) there are either no general leadership traits or if they do exist, they are not to be described in any of our familiar psychological or common sense terms (b) in a specific situation, leaders to have traits which set them apart from followers, but what traits set what leaders apart from what followers will vary from situation to situation.

In short, the behaviour of leaders varies widely from one leadership situation to another. In this connection, Hemphill (1957), in an elaborate and careful study has demonstrated empirically that variance in leader behaviour is significantly associated with situational variance. Hemphill has analysed in detail the relation between the leader's behaviour and the size of the group and has concluded that as compared with small groups, large
groups make more and different demands upon the leader. In general, the leader in a large group tends to be impersonal and is inclined to enforce rules and regulations firmly and impartially. In smaller groups, the leader plays a more personal role. He is more willing to make exceptions to rules and to treat such group member as an individual.

There are at least five types of major influences affecting the kind of leadership given in the school:

1. Legal factors as an influence on leadership.
2. Socio-economic conditions and local educational concepts as influences on leadership.
3. The nature of a given school as an influence on leadership.
5. The Principal's personality and training influence leadership.

No single optimum combination of factors can be said to be present in the modern school, but the Principal needs to be aware of them and should know that leadership means taking positive action to combat negative influences and giving direction to change behaviour in a positive way.

1.5.1 DISTINCTION BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND ADMINISTRATION:

Many persons use the terms leadership and administration as synonyms, but theoretically each embodies a different concept. Leadership comes from the Anglo Saxon
word Laedan, meaning to go, and is defined as guiding, conducting, preceding, or being foremost among. Administration comes from the Latin word Administrare, meaning to serve, and is defined as managing or directing the execution, application, or conduct of some activity.

Leadership has a broader meaning than administration in that many persons are leaders but not administrators. In contrast, it is generally assumed that good administrators are leaders. Leadership, broadly defined, is usually volunteer; one leads because he or she believes in an idea, cause, or activity and chooses to invest time, energy, and self in it. Administration, on the other hand, is typically a salaried position with set goals to be achieved.

Two definitions of administration clarify the role. Frost and Marshall (1981) define administration as follows:

Administration consists of the leadership and guidance of individuals, the procuring and manipulation of resources, and the coordinating of many diverse efforts so effective progress can be made towards the achievement of goals and purposes of an organization.

This definition, like the next, indicates that the goals and purposes are established; an administrator is employed to facilitate goal achievement not to set or
prioritize goals. Tead Orway (1951), author of the classic, The Art of Administration, writes.

Administration is the comprehensive effort to direct, guide, and integrate associated human strivings which are focussed towards some specific ends or aims. For immediate......purposes, administration is conceived as the necessary activities of those individuals (executives) in an organization who are charged with ordering, forwarding, and facilitating the associated efforts of a group of individuals brought together to realise certain defined purposes.

Leadership, in contrast to administration, often involves goal setting and goal changing. A person committed to an idea, cause or activity like equity, for instance, models behaviours that others follow. Leadership implies being the first to speak out or act. It also embodies willingness to take the consequences for one's initiative in that the first to champion a cause often does so at personal, social and financial sacrifice. Leadership is a gift bestowed by one's followers. It usually stems from respect, admiration, and appreciation. Ideally it cannot be bought by persuasion, authority or power. In summary, leadership in educational circles can be defined as, (a) being the first to recognize a need, identify a cause, dream a dream, evolve an idea, or innovate a plan of action; (b) demonstrating an enduring commitment to one or more causes, ideas, or dream; and (c) speaking, writing, teaching, and
Several authors have pointed out that the concept of principal as leader, or instructional leader, has recently gained renewed importance in the literature on principals (Greenfield, 1982; Rutherford, Hord, and Huling, 1983; and De Bevoise, 1984). But two questions should be considered: How is this concept of the principal related to other definitions of the role of the principal, and to what extent does the concept of "principal as leader" accurately describe the current role and behaviour of school principals, particularly in schools with high academic performance of students?

1.5.2. CHANGE IN ROLE DEFINITION:

The emphasis on "principal as leader" may have added a new dimension to the traditional distinction between the dual roles of "principal as educator" and "principal as administrator". Early American schools had "principal teachers" who were elected, but the position evolved toward greater attention to administrative matters (Boyer, 1983). A major review of the research on the "school as a formal organization" written in 1965 described the central problem of the principal as balancing the inherent conflict between attention to teachers (role as educator) and attention to the central office (role as administrator) (Bidwell, 1965). In reviewing twenty years of research on the principal,
Glasman (1984) concluded that the various roles could best be grouped into two categories: educator and administrator.

Research in the 1980s on leadership by principals has generally crosscut the educator-administrator distinction. For example, a recent study of instructional leadership behaviour by principals employed a 30-items questionnaire that contained five scales: staff development, teacher supervision and evaluation, instructional facilitation, resource acquisition and building maintenance, and student problem resolution (Daresh and Liu, 1985). These five scales included both the "educator" and "administrator" roles categorized by Glasman (1984). The concept of principal leadership may be subsuming earlier distinctions in the roles of the principals. The shift of concepts and terminology may be analogous to the eight "themes" of Peters and Waterman (1982) for explaining the activities and behaviour of successful business executives, which tend to merge traditional organization leadership and management concepts.

Another possible effect of the increased use of the principal-as-leader concept is greater emphasis on the principal as a key factor in the educational effectiveness of the school. At the same time, there has been increased
attention on the school as the levels at which significant and lasting educational improvement takes place, as opposed to that of the district or classroom. Sergiovanni (1984) maintains that the principal's key function in effective schools is establishing goal consensus among staff and developing an institutional identity, and he cites classic studies on organizational leadership that support this view (e.g. Barnard, 1938; Selznick, 1957; Bennis, 1984). Murphy et al. (1985) view the effective principal as having an instrumental role in "coupling the school through supervision of the core curriculum, and thus decreasing the typically "loosely coupled" organization of schools (Weick, 1976).

Analyses of leadership in public schools have until recently focused on the superintendent or the school board (Bidwell, 1965; Corwin, 1974). The school district, in these models, was viewed as "the organization" with schools being the equivalent of "branches" or "divisions" of the organization and principal being the "middle managers". Both the school-effectiveness and the high school studies place responsibilities for sustained effect of innovations in educational quality at the school level; the district level is viewed as important for support of school-level reform efforts (Purkey & Smith, 1982; Goodlad, 1983; Boyer, 1983; Sizer, 1984). Against the perspective of other recent
models, the concept of the principal as the source of educational leadership, and of the school as the relevant level of organization for change, may signify an important shift.

In sum, the development and expansion of the concept of principal as leader may describe a new set of expectations for school principals. Previous models for behaviour of principal that tended to focus on the roles of the principal as educator or administrator now appear to be less relevant. The current definition of a principal appears to require leadership behaviour as both educator and administrator, including responsibility for the basic school curriculum. The concept of principal as leader also implies a redefinition of the relationship between the school and the school district.

1.5.3 CURRENT STATUS OF LEADERSHIP BY PRINCIPALS:

Many school districts have introduced programs to increase school effectiveness, including greater instructional leadership by principals. The development of leadership skills by principals has become a major thrust of district staff development. If this is a high priority in improving public education, what is known about current leadership by principals and does leadership development address current conditions?
Research on the role of principals as instructional leaders has been inconclusive. Although some studies show that instructional leadership by principals has positive effects on the academic success of a school, other studies have found similar patterns of leadership activities and behaviour by principals in both effective and ineffective schools (where effectiveness is measured by student achievement test scores) (Phi Delta Kappa, 1980; State of New York, 1975; Wellisch, 1978).

The effects of principal leadership, however, may be influenced by other factors. For example, some studies have found that the principals of effective schools have different leadership styles (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1982; Dwyer, Lee, Rowan, & Bossert, 1983; Hall, Rutherford, Hord, & Huling, 1984). Principal leadership of effective schools also has been found to differ according to the school context and organization (Dwyer et al., 1983; Ralph & Fennessey, 1983; Sizer, 1984).

Leadership of secondary schools is likely to differ significantly from leadership of elementary schools (Brookover, 1981; Neufield, Farrar, & Miles, 1983). Firestone and Herriott (1982) maintain that direct instructional leadership by principals is more applicable to the elementary school because it has a more bureaucratic, rational model of organization than does the secondary
school, which better fits the "loosely coupled" model described by Weick (1976). For example, in the secondary school any expansion of the principal's role as instructional leader may be opposed by department heads and teachers as an infringement upon their professional domain.

The organization of the school district may also affect the role of the principal as leader. In his study of high schools, Boyer (1983) found that leadership by principals and school autonomy characterized some effective schools, but he observed that there is now a strong trend toward centralization of decision making and greater requirements of school reporting and accountability, which tends to decrease opportunities for leadership by principals. But another view is that the principal often takes on tasks and roles that are not otherwise defined for teachers or district administrators.

Leadership by principals may be an important and influential concept for improving schools. But there is relatively little data available on the role of principals and the characteristics of their leadership, particularly in high schools.

1.5.4. LEADERSHIP STYLES:

Another quite different approach to the study of leadership has been the attempt to identify various styles
of leadership. In this approach, the emphasis has been not on the kind of person the leader is, nor on the situational factors affecting leadership, but on the different leadership "styles". We might define leadership style as the characteristic manner of acting exhibited by a leader. Several different classification schemes have been developed in connection with this concept.

One of the earliest taxonomies of leadership style was related to the three sources of authority as developed by Max Weber. According to this view, the three styles of leadership are traditional, charismatic, and rational. In our opinion, the notion of traditional, charismatic and rational authority is a useful idea but we are not at all sure that it is helpful to view leadership styles in these terms. There are leaders whose style tends to resemble that of each of the stereotypic models. But the behaviour of any leader is actually more likely to be a mixture of two or more styles.

Research on authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership was based on the assumption that there are styles of leadership, that can be described by these terms. In the laboratory situation, persons can be assigned a role to play and, if sufficiently adept, can present a relatively pure example of each of these
leadership styles. We suggest that it would be much more difficult in a real, on-going school situation to find leaders actually following the text-book definitions of each of these styles. We do not doubt, however, that many elementary school principals and other leaders tend to follow one or another of these styles more than they do the others. For that reason, the research findings about authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire leadership should be of interest to principals.

Closely related to the idea of authoritarian, laissez-faire, and democratic leadership styles is the concept of directive, non-directive, and joint determination styles. The latter terms mean approximately the same thing as the former, but tend to be somewhat more effectively neutral than such value-laden terms as "democratic" and "authoritarian". The National Training Laboratories have developed an exercise that can be used in demonstrating each of these leadership styles and in collecting data about its effects.

Nomothetic, Idiographic and Transactional styles of leader behaviour can be identified following the Getzels theory of administration as a social process. The nomothetic style emphasizes the institution and the role. The idiographic style stresses the individual and the personality. The transactional style gives attention both
to the role and the personality, placing greater stress upon one or the other according to the situation.

Other classifications of leaders and leadership style have been developed, such as Task-oriented, Technique-oriented and people-oriented, and "Builders and Consolidators." These labels have contributed very little of real value to our knowledge about administration or leadership. Of all of the classifications of leadership we have seen, only the Getzels scheme makes sufficient provision for adapting leadership behaviour to the requirements of the particular situation. In other words, by including the transactional style of leadership, Getzels has avoided the stereotype pitfall that seems to us to be a serious weakness in all the other classifications of leadership styles.

Among the most significant contributions to theory and research on leadership have been the investigation by the Personnel Research Board at Ohio State University. The Ohio State Leadership studies concentrated on the behaviour of the leader and attempted to identify the dimensions of leader behaviour. From nearly two thousand items describing leader behaviour, the Ohio State investigators selected 150. They postulated nine dimensions of leader behaviour: initiation, membership, representation, integration, organization, domination, communication, recognition and production.
There are ten cardinal points that go together to build up the modern concept of leadership, whether in education or in other field:

1. All normal individuals and groups exhibit leadership behaviour to some degree.

2. Effective leadership is the product of the interaction which takes place among individuals in a group, it does not arise merely from the status or position of some individual.

3. The quality of interaction of persons in a group, the impact of effective leadership may be distinguished by such action terms as initiative, originality, communication, empathy, understanding, cohesiveness, morale, and productivity.

4. Leader action is seen in the activity on the part of an individual or a group that tends to clarify thinking, create better understanding and cause group action.

5. Behaviour that causes a person to be a leader in one situation may not work equally well in others.

6. Status assignments may either enhance or reduce the effectiveness of leader behaviour status, if used as power, may destroy the effectiveness of leader behaviour.

7. Institutional changes are the results of changes taking place in the individuals who constitute the community of the institution.

8. Leadership leads to an ordering of events according to importance. This should be as a result of placing a higher priority on the critical than the routine decisions.

9. Sometimes the leader sets certain norms for the group and group also have certain critical norms which they want that their leader must exemplify.

10. The effectiveness of leader behaviour is to be viewed in terms of mutuality of goals, productivity, in the achievement of these goals and maintenance of group solidarity.
The new concept of leadership does not thus result merely on status or seniority but on ability, skills, knowledge and attitudes of an individual or the group and draws its sustenance from human relations.

1.6 SELF CONCEPT:

In recent years, an idea that has received importance is modern psychology, but whose significance has not been fully recognised and appreciated until very recently is that of the self concept. At one time, this was not considered a problem worth investigating. All our efforts to reach out to others are attempts to get outside our skin and establish relationship with others. Each human being is involved in a never-ending process of becoming the self that others identify. A person's behaviour in any situation depends upon the way he perceives the situation, his self being the part of that perceived situation. Gale (1969) states that man "creates his world" from the experience around him. Becoming a self is inherently a social product; only by self man can achieve his distinctly human attributes.

Hume (1940) was of the view that self was a complete illusion. He considered "self" to be different from reality. As a result, for a very long while, psychologists did not admit self to psychology. During
recent decades, however, it has received great emphasis. Originally purposed by Lecky (1945) this concept is of tremendous implication in the area of education, more so in personal aspects such as motivation, purposes, goals and adjustments, which are pillars upon which success of an individual in the School and outside the School, primarily rests.

Murphy (1947) said that a large part of behaviour that constitutes personality is self-oriented behaviour. Glanz and Walston (1958) opine that what a person does or how he behaves is determined by his self-concept. Self concept gives meaning to behaviour. Stains (1971) expresses that the aspects of the self are of supreme importance for behaviour since many of the individual's actions are ordered by his constant efforts to maintain and enhance these various aspects (the cognised, the other, the ideal self) of the self picture.

The study of self concept is essential not only because it is a product of complex social milieu and one must find one's self in social setting, but also because it is one of the very important aspects of our personality, which can't be ignored. The self is the mid point of personality and provides it with unity, equilibrium and stability.
The innovation of the term 'self' can be traced as early as in our ancient vedic literature and also as early as the discussion of human personality found place in the literature. But it gained impetus in 1937 with Allport.

In most native sense self can be generally understood as a person's ideas, feelings and attitudes about one's self i.e., how one perceives one's self.

Murphy's (1947) self is used in two contrasting senses, as a 'thing acting' and as a 'thing acted upon'. The self is a thing perceived... whereas for Allport (1961) self as something which we are immediately aware of. We think of it as warm central private region of our life. It is some kind of core of our being.

Smith's (1961) idea of the self is a person as perceived, felt and thought of by himself. As he can perceive other objects and persons, so he can perceive himself, but just as his perceptions of others are never accurate, so his perceptions of himself are never entirely complete or accurate.

Sartain et al. (1958) defined 'self' (as opposed to self-picture) as all, the beliefs, ideas, attitudes, and feelings, whether conscious or unconscious, which an individual has concerning himself.
Jourard (1963) adds that the self concept comprises of all the beliefs the individual holds concerning what kind of person he is i.e., conclusions concerning his model or typical reaction patterns to typical life situation.

La Benne and Greene (1969) say that self concept is a person's total appraisal of his appearance, background and origins, abilities and resources, attitudes and feelings which culminate as a directing force in behaviour.

James (1950) says a man's self is the sum total of all that he can call his, not only his body, and psychic powers, but his clothes and his house, his wife and children, his ancestors and friends, his reputation and works, his lands and horses, and yacht and bank account.

Sarbin (1952) looks upon self as a cognitive structure which consists of one's ideas about various aspects of his being, conception of his body of his sense organs and musculature and of his social behaviour.

Thus 'self' is the sum total of a person's ideas about who and what he is, what he appears to be, what he thinks of himself to be and what others judge him to be. The 'self' is the person's essence of his existence that is
known to him. It includes the entire structure of his being.

The self concept includes three components:—perceptual: a way in which the person sees himself, idea of the impression he makes on others; conceptual: a person's idea of his own peculiarly distinctive characteristics, abilities and limitations; and attitudinal: own feeling of identity in environment, attitudes regarding present and future and degree of self-esteem.

1.6.1 DIFFERENT VIEWS ON SELF CONCEPT:

Freud (1954) gave the ego a central place in his theory and structured the total personality around three major system, the id, the ego and the super ego. For him, the ego is a functional agent or executive of the personality which makes rational choices and controls actions in the healthy person. It may be regarded as the product of one's biological endowment, the ego as the result of interaction with objective reality in the higher mental processes and the super ego as the product of socialization and the vehicle of cultural tradition. The term in Freudian psychology, that is closest to self concept, is the construct of the ego.

For the Adlerians, ego psychology or self concept is the life style. They believe that all of a child's
behaviour is a result of this life style, which is based upon an evaluation of self and society. The creative self as thought by Adler is the yeast that acts upon the facts of the world and transforms these facts into a personality that is subjective, dynamic, unified, personal and uniquely stylized. The creative self gives meaning to life, it creates the goal as well as the means to the goal.

Jung's (1958) approach to the self included the personal unconsciousness, which contains forgotten and repressed material. The 'conscious' is the external awareness level concerned with problems of everyday living, whereas 'persona' is a type of mask hiding the deeper personality characteristics from personality, whereas the personal unconsciousness is considered to be impulsive and socially unacceptable.

According to Sullivan's (1953) "interpersonal theory", the individual appears quite different, both to himself and to others, depending on the particular personalities with whom he is interacting at the moment. He emphasized the child's way of perceiving the world and adapting to it. He believed that the infant learned to make differentiations based upon anxiety, and that these differentiations later become self-concept. For Sullivan,
the self concept develops from the reflected appraisal of significant others in child's life.

Snygg and Combs (1959) believe that all behaviour, without exception, is completely determined by and pertinent to the phenomenal field of the total organism. They used the term 'perceived self' and 'phenomenal self'. For them the phenomenal self is the individual's own unique organization of ways of regarding self, it is the Gestalt of his concepts of self.

Kelley (as reported by Gale, 1969) sees self as unique to each individual, that consists of an organization of accumulated experience over a whole life time within a becoming, but never arriving, world. He sees the fully functioning self as ever "aspiring-becoming" with certain distinctive characteristics facilitated by selective perception of the individual who chooses that upon which the self feeds.

Maslow's (1954) theory of motivated behaviour is based upon human needs, with a hierarchy, ranging from physiological needs to self-actualization. Maslow believes that every person has an essential inner core, the self, that is intrinsic, given and 'natural' and consists of many biological and psychological factors.

Rogers (1961) sees self as the organized,
consistent, conceptual. Gestalt composed of the perception, of the characteristics of the 'I' or 'Me' to others and various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions. Thus the self takes on various subjective attributes in the process of being and becoming in the form of "I am" (his nature), "I can" (his capacities), "I should or should not" (his values), and "I want to be" (his aspirations). When the individual perceives himself as behaving in a manner consistent with his own picture of himself, he is congruent self who generally experiences feelings of adequacy, security, and worth.

Self is considered as perceived and conceived object; also both as an object and process; and the individual is seen to behave according to how he perceives the situation and himself at the time of action.

As Gale (1969) puts it, the self is essentially a learned social product arising out of the experiences with people, parents, siblings, relatives, peers, and the general community within the settings of socio-cultural milieu. Besides self-awareness does not happen all at once, but is a dynamic ongoing developmental process that begins during infancy and early childhood and continues until death. Gale views self as multifacet self, viz., the motivated self,
emotional and feeling self, socio-cultural and attitudinal self, physical and psychosexual self, intellectual self and the learning self.

1.6.2 ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF SELF CONCEPT:

Self concept is not hereditary, rather it develops in a person as a result of his interactions with the environment. It is a life long process and develops continuously in a social setting. As a child grows and develops, he learns more and more about himself. It is not taught to him by others, but a child acquires it as a by-product of learning experiences. Gale (1969) states that man 'creates his world' from experiences around him. The development of self is a social product. According to him, self awareness does not happen all at once, but it is dynamic on going developmental process that begins during infancy and early childhood and continues until death.

Glanz and Walston (1958) are of the opinion that many of the objectives that a child bears, become a significant part of his earliest conception of his self-image. Sherif (1968) points out that the earliest manifestation of selfhood starts with the bodily states like hunger or sleep, then facilitations and resistance, acceptance and punishment by parents etc., are all responsible for formulation of self-system.
Nash (1970) reported that it is difficult to say, just when the child becomes aware of himself. But one thing is certain that other familiar persons like parents are recognised before self awareness begins.

Watson and Lindgren (1973) suggest that through learning the opinions, attitudes and expectations that others have for him, the child learns about himself.

Thus building of self concept is a slow process, which grows out of the reaction of parents and others to the child's early behaviour. Self concept of an individual undergoes changes during the course of his life. It is a dynamic and not a static characteristic of an individual. Bugental (1955) observed that self concept of an individual is bound to be affected by the success with which he adjusts himself to the problems of adult life. An individual's self concept undergoes a change by the challenge offered by the circumstances of life and the way people respond to him.

The development of self concept is particularly affected by the role of "significant others" in the life of a child. These significant others include teachers, counsellors, friends, parents and peers. Important for teachers is the fact that concepts are not unalterably fixed, but rather are modified by life experiences, self
concept is not static and might change from situation to situation. So, self should be seen as a developmental form. Also important for teachers is another fact pertaining to the type of students concept of self, whether positive or negative which affects academic achievements.

1.6.3. DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF SELF CONCEPT:

Lundholm (1940) makes a distinction between a subjective self and an objective self. Subjective self consists of those symbols in terms of which other people describe the person. Subjective self is "what I think of myself" and the objective self is "what others think of me".

For Sartain et al (1958).....the self picture is....more or less conscious aspects of the self. But the self also has unconscious but very real aspects. There are some occasions when we do not recognize very favourably facts about ourselves, simply because they seem impossible to us.

Conscious aspects of the self are those which the individual is aware of. Smith (1961) talks of the Ideal, the Perceived, and Real Selves. Strang Ruth (1957) refers to four dimensions of the self - The Basic Self concept i.e., perceived self, the transitory perception of self, the social self and the Ideal Self. Rogers (1959) talks of 'Ideal self' in simple words, 'self' is what one is, while
'Ideal Self' is what one likes to be. It is "the self concept which the individual would most like to possess, upon which he places the highest value for himself". In this connection, it may be stated that if the image of ideal self differs grossly from a student's real behaviour and values, it might harm his academic career and further be an obstacle in his personal growth.

James (1950) gives the constituents of the self as the material self, the social self, the spiritual self and the pure ego. The material self consists of his material possessions, the social self of how he is regarded by his fellows? and the spiritual self of his psychological faculties and dispositions. Pure ego he defined as the stream of thought which constitutes one's sense of personal identity.

Sarbin (1952) looks upon self as a cognitive structure which consists of one's ideas about various aspects of his being. One may have conceptions of his body (the Somatic self), of his sense organs and musculature (the receptor-effector self) and of his social behaviour (the social self).

In short, self concept is a life long process that grows and develops continuously in social setting. An individual is not born with a self concept nor does it
inherit it, but he forms one as a result of his experiences and capacities. It is a result of incidental learning. Self concept is an acquired image of the individual.

1.7 THE ROLE AND CHALLENGES OF THE PRINCIPALSHIP:

Although the school principal has many roles, none can equal that of being the educational leader of his school. He must never forget this, regardless of the myriad duties which depend upon him. Besides, the story of the development of the school principalship is reminiscent of the Horatio Alger Volumes. The evaluation of the position since the early part of this century has been more than gratifying. It has become a vital force operating in the mainstream of public education. And the decades ahead seem even more promising.

The only reason for the existence of schools is to educate children. It is for the purpose of providing the faculty, the materials, and the environment to meet this goal. The principal's prime responsibility is to see that teachers teach - as effectively as possible - and that children learn as much as their ability permits. All the responsibilities e.g. custodial services, transportation services, nursing services, secretarial and office work, the cafeteria programme, maintenance and operation of the school plant, or the administration of materials and supplies of
instruction has only one purpose: the furtherance of a better educational programme.

As the administration of elementary and secondary education experienced professional amplification, the attending responsibilities and opportunities likewise expanded. The school principalship is considered the career goal by the majority of those now serving as principals. To an individual aspiring to such a goal, the position provides exceptional opportunities for service, personal satisfaction, and professional stimulation as well as reasonable remuneration. Few other educational posts provide equal scope of performance of the administrative leadership and supervising tasks. The challenges associated with the position command the attention of the most competent.

The elementary and secondary principalship provides a type of experience and affords visibility which cannot be discounted in opening avenues to other educational positions. Opportunities in supervision, central office administrative, governmental agencies, and higher education are available to the successful principal. Current trends in societal and educational change may well lead to a much greater range of opportunity in the years ahead.

In addition to this, the problems of the world
FIG. 1.2: A WAY OF LOOKING AT THE SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

A. Decision Making
B. Programming
C. Communicating
D. Controlling
E. Reappraising

THE ENHANCEMENT OF LEARNING
today and their impact and demands on the educational programme have changed the role of the principal:

"His duties have increased not only in their number but in their scope. He is expected to assume the traditional duties such as planning the overall organization, arranging schedules, supervising staff, improving performance and setting up of the budget. Moreover, he is asked to give personal leadership and inspiration, involve the staff in establishing goals and procedures, organize in-service education programs and develop good staff morale. The changing nature and extension of responsibilities of the elementary school administrator make it increasingly important that these responsibilities be carefully delineated and that value judgements be made of their relative significance to the purpose of administration."

1.8 EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM:

Education is the pivot around which the progress of any nation revolves. With the increasing developments in Science and Technology, the educational institutions have earned a unique place in the life of an individual. A good and efficient policy of education furnishes better citizens who in turn become the wheels of prosperity of their motherland. A proper well planned system of primary and secondary
education brings forth good and intelligent boys and girls who are well aware of the profession they have to adopt or the choice of the subject for their higher education. This further necessitates the presence of efficient teachers and principals. The latter become the able guides for their young students. Lack of leadership behaviour and self concept in principals and teachers will be detrimental to the health of any educational institution.

Leadership behaviour is a determining factor for the efficiency of teachers and principals. The behaviour of the leader and that of the group are inextricably interwoven and behaviour of both are determined to a great degree by formal requirements imposed by the institution of which the group is a part.

Self concept is the totality of attitudes, judgements and values of an individual relating to his behaviour abilities and qualities. Self concept embraces awareness of these variables and their evaluation. This means what an individual thinks about himself. It is the conception of his own intelligence, abilities, academic status, behaviour temperamental qualities, mental health, emotional tendencies and socio-economic status. These two factors work hand in hand for the growth of organizational climate of schools.
Corpus (1971) studied the relationship of principal's leader behaviour to teacher's behaviour and the relationship of leader behaviour to organizational climate in secondary schools. It was concluded that 'Initiating Structure', 'Consideration' and 'Thrust' (in ascending order) were functionally related to 'Esprit' in a positive direction. Principals tended to perceive their behaviour on 'Consideration' more favourably that did their staff.

Peters (1974) studied some aspects of leader style, adaptability and effectiveness among Western Massachusetts principals. The study attempted to assess the relationship between perceived leader style, dominant or adaptable, and perceived leader effectiveness. It was concluded that there was a close relationship demonstrated between the staff and self on Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire dimension scores.

Maniudakis (1974) made a comparative study of teachers' perception of principal's leadership style and teacher performance between Greek and American schools. A strong relationship between teacher perception of principal's leadership style and teach job performance was found in schools of both Greece and America.

Khera (1977) studied the organizational climate and educational climate of Sainik Schools and found that
production emphasis which is a variable concerning the principal's behaviour means that he supervises the work and wants the job to be done without considering the views of the staff. The variable was not uniform in all the Schools.

Singh (1985) conducted a study of school climate, leadership behaviour and moral development of the heads of elementary and secondary schools. He concluded that the two types of schools do not differ in leadership behaviour. In both the dimensions, i.e., 'Initiating Structure' and 'Consideration' the principals of both the types of schools are alike. 12% elementary and 18% secondary schools are high on 'Thrust' showing that in these few schools the principal sets the example by working himself.

Douraghi-Zadeh (1987) studies self-concepts and role-concepts in the career orientation of Iranian College Women. The findings indicated that there were significant differences in Iranian College Women's ratings of self versus ideal and self versus career on the adjective checklist, with self being rated lower. There were no significant differences in Iranian College Women's rating of self versus homemaker, ideal versus career, ideal versus homemaker and career versus homemaker on the adjective checklist.

Swain (1987) studied the styles of learning and
self concept and predictors of over and under-achieving college students of Pune University. It was concluded that there was significant difference between under and over-achievers with regard to styles of learnings including study habit, self concept and intelligence.

The above studies and other studies have been conducted on the organizational climate in relation to different variables like style of leadership, administrative action patterns of the principals, moral development and teacher performance etc. However, there is scarce literature related with the impact of leadership behaviour and self concept both taken together over the organizational climate of the educational institutions. The investigator conducted this study concerned with these variables taking into consideration the principals of the administration of primary and secondary schools of Kerman City (Iran). This particular place, being the native place of the investigator, was chosen because he (the investigator) was well acquainted with the Heads/Principals of many schools and he was familiar with their educational system as well.

1.9 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

The proposed study may be precisely stated as a "A study of organizational climate in relation to the Leadership Behaviour and Self Concept of Principals in the Primary and Secondary Schools of Kerman City (Iran)".
1.10 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

The following objectives have been formulated for the present study:

I. To find out the organizational climate of the Primary and Secondary Schools of Kerman City.

II. To study the impact of leadership behaviour on the organizational climate of Primary and Secondary Schools of Kerman City.

III. To work out the influence of self concept of the Principals on the organizational climate.

IV. To find out the interaction effect of leadership behaviour and self concept on the organizational climate of the schools.

V. To find out intercorrelations among the variables of organizational climate, leadership behaviour and self concept.

1.11 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

On the basis of available and related studies the following hypotheses have been formulated:

I. There will be significant differences in the organizational climate of the schools, with high and low leadership qualities of the principals.

II. The differences in the organizational climate of the schools, with high and low self concept of the principals, will be significant.
III. The interaction between levels of leadership behaviour and self concept of the principals will yield significant results in respect of the organizational climate of the schools.

IV. The intercorrelations among the variables under the study will be positive and significant.

1.12 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

In the field of research, delimitation occupies a prominent position. Without it the investigator neither can be clear nor can attack the problem directly. It is the boundary beyond which the study is not concerned, and helps in research and draws the attention of the investigator towards the specific points of the problem under consideration. Keeping delimitations of the study in mind, the conclusions drawn from it are necessarily limited by the nature of the sample, the timing of the survey and the tools used.

The study has been delimited with respect to the following points:

I. It has been restricted to day-time primary and secondary schools of Kerman City. Evening schools have not been included.

II. Regarding the subjects, the study has been confined to a sample size of 150 principals of primary and secondary schools.

III. The nature of the tools was in the form of three questionnaires only for the three different variables.
After discussing the introductory frame-work of the study in hand, it becomes imperative to have a review of the earlier studies pertaining to the relationship of the variables in hand. In Chapter II, an attempt has been made to study such relationships.