CHAPTER-II

THEORETICAL VIEWS

JOB SATISFACTION

Job Satisfaction is a complex interrelationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interaction, incentive and rewards, while Satisfaction is a word which is difficult to define. According to Webster's Encyclopedia Dictionary it is "the act of Satisfying or state of being satisfied, contentment in possession and enjoyment and to satisfy is to grant fully the wants wishes or desires." So job Satisfaction is nothing but the state of an organism obtained through the work situation or work position while performing various tasks and while serving institution.

According to Bullock's (1952) opinion, job Satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee towards his job. These attitudes to specific factors, such as wages, conditions of work, advancement opportunities, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment by employers and other fringe benefits.

Morse (1953) presented an interesting hypothesis, according to which Satisfaction is increased directly by the amount individual's tensions are reduced and decreased directly by amount of increased tension. Kuhlen (1963) finds that the job Satisfaction is proportionate to degree that the elements of job satisfy the particular needs which the person feels most strongly. According to Gorton (1976) employee's Satisfaction and morale are attitudinal variable which reflect positive or negative feeling about particular persons or situation.

According to Davis (1984), "Job Satisfaction is the favorableness or unfavorableness with which employees view their work. It expresses the amount of
agreement between one's own expectations of the job and rewards that the job provides." Panda, Maheswar (2002) finds that job Satisfaction is an attitudinal reaction to job as it represents the feeling of the individual about happy or unhappy he or she is with various aspects of job.

The most notable early conceptualization of job Satisfaction was that of Hoppock (1935) according to him, "Job Satisfaction is any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say - I am Satisfied with my job ". In this definition, the underlying assumption is that it is possible for a worker to balance Satisfactions against specific dissatisfaction and, thus arrive a composite satisfaction with job as while.

Job satisfaction has also been conceptualized in terms of need fulfillment because a particular kind of work provides ample opportunities to an individual to satisfy his physiological, social and psychological needs. Schoffer (1953) explains that over all satisfaction will vary directly with extent to which those needs of an individual than can be satisfied in a job are actually satisfied. The stronger the need, the more closely job satisfaction depends on its fulfillments. Smith (1955) suggests that job satisfaction is the "employee's judgments of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs. Guion (1958) also explains job satisfaction as the extent to which the individual perceives satisfaction as stemming from his total job satisfaction. The healthy individual desires to mature, develop and use his native abilities to the extent that he realizes fully his human potential (Hall and Nougaim, 1968). Human beings are motivated towards personal growth, the fulfillment of which leads to the highest level of satisfaction. However, the needs may not always occur in an hierarchical order because of a lack of a clear distinction between the various levels (Luthans, 1973; Maier 1973; Hodgetts, 1975). According to Haynes et. al. (1975) the weakness of this theory is that the concept of prepotency becomes less obvious when one moves up the hierarchy.
The rationale of the concept of motivators and hygiene's (factor) based upon a theory of motivation proposed by Maslov (1943) underlies three basic assumptions: (a) man's basic needs can be represented diagrammatically as two parallel arrows pointing in the opposite directions - one arrow depicting his animal - Adam nature and the other representing his human - Abraham nature. (b) factors in providing job satisfaction are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction and (c) the satisfiers are effective in motivating an individual to superior performance and effects, but dissatisfiers are not (Herzberg, 1966). Within this context, Herzberg et al. (1959) argue that job satisfaction is basically a function of having the higher order needs satisfied. Since jobs are hard to get, not fulfilling these needs would not lead to job dissatisfaction but rather to job - neutrality. Many studies (Myers, 1964; Schwartz et al., 1968; Chasting 1977; Abreu, 1980) confirms the motivator - hygiene theory of Herzberg et.al. 1959, thus concluding that an appropriate relationship exists between satisfaction-dissatisfaction and intrinsic - extrinsic factors.

Katzell (1980) conceptualizes job satisfaction as "an employee's own evaluation of his or her job in terms of supervision, co-workers, pay, promotions and the work itself. This evolutions is actually a comparison between the employee's expectations about these job related factors and his or her actual experience on the job." A theoretical analysis by Locke (1970) states that, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are properly conceived as outcomes of action. The effect of performance on satisfactions is viewed as a function of the degree to which it leads to the attainment of the individuals' dominant job values. Dissatisfaction with one's past performance generates the desire to change one's performance, whereas as satisfaction with one's performance produces the desire to repeat or maintain one's previous performance level.

Blum and Naylor (1968) considered job satisfaction as something that result from several attitudes possessed by a worker (in the context of work, supervision, pay, promotional opportunities, etc.) towards his job. Smith (1963)
considers job satisfaction as function of the perceived characteristics of a job in relation to an individual's frame of reference. Gilmer (1966) explains, job satisfaction as "the result of various attitudes the person holds towards his job, towards related factors and towards life in general." And this viewpoint was taken into consideration by Gupta and Srivastava while developing their Teacher's Job Satisfaction scale. Schultz (1973) also refers to job satisfaction as "a set of attitudes that employees have out of their jobs." Godiyal and Srivastava (1995), "Job satisfaction is an attitudinal reaction to the job. It represents the feeling of the employee about how happy or unhappy he or she is with various aspects of job."

Job satisfaction is also a function of an individual's level of aspiration and a worker with a high level of aspiration is likely to be less happy, whereas another with a moderate level of aspiration can drive more happiness from the same job and, thus dissatisfaction with the job increases with the gap between aspirations and its attainment increases.

According to Dictionary of education by Taneja, RP, job satisfaction refers to the extent to which a person is pleased or is displeased or frustrated by inadequate working conditions and tedious job content.

Explaining job satisfaction in terms of discrepancy scores, Morse (1953) and Ross and Zander (1957) defined job satisfaction as a function of the difference between the amount of some outcome provided by a work role and the strength of a related desire or motive. Porter (1961) explains job satisfaction as the difference between responses to a "how much is there now?" item, when responses to these items are asked for in the context of job facets or needs. The difference between these two types of items is computed and the differences are summed across the job facets to yield a measure of job satisfaction.

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

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

The expectancy/valence theory goes under several names, including "expectancy theory," "instrumentality", "path-goal theory" and "valence-instrumentality" "expectancy theory". Here as being more descriptive of two major variables of the formulation. It can be considered a process theory as it attempts to identify relationships among variables in a dynamic state as they affect individual behaviour. In the expectancy/valence theory, like in equity theory, it is the relationship among inputs that is the basic focal point rather than the inputs themselves.

Most of the theoretical and empirical work by expectancy/valence theorists has focused on the motivation to work. Motivational force to perform or attempt is a multiplicative function of the expectancies or beliefs that individuals have
concerning future outcomes. Vroom (1964) defines "expectancy" as "action outcome association." It is a statement of the extent to which an individual believes that a certain action will result in particular outcome. Vroom (1964) has defined job satisfaction as a valence of outcomes or an anticipation of need satisfaction and is measured by the total amount of outcome valence available to an employee.

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

Values

Values impart signification to life. They are principles which guide man's desire, feeling and promote basic human interest of healthy, vigorous and joyful life, help intellectual and finally spiritual fulfillment.

According to Mahatma Gandhi (quoted in the report of University Education Commission 1948), "I hold that the truth, that are common to all religions can and should be taught to all children". Dr. Radha Krishnan. "Education is not limited to the impacting of information or the training of skills. It has to give the education a proper sense of values."

Values are the pillars of life. They are part of education. Values differ from place to place, culture to culture and from time to time. There is little agreement among the philosophers, as to how the term value is to be defined. A value has been called an "emotion" or "sentiment of approval or disapproval", the satisfaction of a human want or desire. Others think of a value as quality of objects or situations that have worth—that is, as an objective quality of things, such as "the quality of things that evokes an appreciative response."

According to Edger S. Brightman (1958) "in the most elementary sense, values means whatever is actually liked, prized, esteemed, desired, approved or
enjoyed by any one at any time. It is the actual experience of enjoying a desired object or activity.” According to M. T. Ram, "A value is what is desired or sought. Values may be operationally conceived as those guiding principles of life which are conducive to one's physical and mental health as well as to social welfare and adjustment and which are in the time with one's culture."

According to Parker, "Values belong wholly to the inner world, to world of mind. The satisfaction of desire is the real value; the thing that serves is only an instrument ------ A values is always an experience, never a thing or an object. Things may be valuable, but they are not values. We project value into external world attributing it to things that serve desire."

Those who present arguments for the subjective interpretation of values stress the fact that values-judgments as to goodness and beauty - have varied from individual to individual, from group to group, and from one age to another. Parker (1957) defined values as, "either a joy giving activity or passivity or else as the assuagement of desire."

Various modern realists have formulated positions on the status of values. For E.G. Spaulding, values are "subsistent"(entities not in space or time but held to be real) rather than "existents"(entities in space and time). As subsistent they are independent of human desire and preference; they are in our world to be discovered. Such values as truth, goodness and beauty are not subject to the misfortune of this slowly evolving natural process of discovery.

According to Z.A. Setranjiwala (1973), "In general values may be classified in to three on the basis of its nature namely biological values, intrinsic and instrumental value. Biological values lead to the philosophy of naturalism, intrinsic values lead to the idealism and instrumental values lead to pragmatism." Maclver in his book 'The web of Government (1947)' has used the term 'myth' where the term value is used. According to him myths are value-impregnated beliefs and notions that men hold, that they live by or live for. He says that society...
is held together by a myth-system and all social relations are myth-born and myth-
sustained.

Ricardo laid stress on the economic value of rent, regarding the condition of land. He stated that the land which is more fertile has more value and vise versa. While John Stuart Mill turned to the cost of production theory of value, asserting that normal prices tended to be proportional to the cost of production.

According to Allport (1950) "Any thing that yields a satisfaction or provides a means for such satisfaction is designated as a value". Values have been described by Murphy Murphy Comb as maintenance of self, towards the attainment of goal. According to KlucKhohn (19520, " A value is not just a preference which is felt or considered to be justified morally or by reasoning or by aesthetic judgments. usually by two or there of these."

A value has three pronged structure which covers all the possible aspects/dimensions of human personality

Cognitive aspect (thought)-A values is an idea abstract in nature. More is the idea clear, strong will be the value. There fore it is to be assumed that a value is related to mental activity and cognitive development about an idea, thought or an object.

Affective aspect (Emotional/Feeling)-A value possesses a strong emotional bond with idea, thought or mental object. Happy association is the secret of a value. Feelings, sentiments and attitudes are involved in one’s value structure.

Conative / Psychomotor aspect (Action/Behaviour) – A value results into an action or behaviour. This aspect is the final stage or culmination of a value.

According to Perry (1954), "A Thing, anything has value or is valuable in the original and generic sense when it is object of an interest, any interest or what ever is object of interest ipso facto valuable." Where as Smelser describe them as the desirable end states which act as a guide to human endeavor or the most general statements of legitimate ends which guides socio action. According to Encyclopedia Britannica- In every day speech the word value is used in several
different context, e.g. moral values, aesthetic values etc. and various shades of meaning. One thing these uses have in common is reference to some standard of worth.

According to dictionary of education by Taneja, R.P. Values refer to beliefs about what is desirable or undesirable. These reflect the culture of a society and if the individual accepts a value it may become a goal.

Thurstone averred that values could be measured by means of psychometric methods with the help of a suitable nonphysical metric several attempts made to measure values. The efforts of Allport-Vernon (1931), Precker (1952) Gordon (1956), Charles Morris (1957), Rosenberg (1957), W. Dennis (1961) and super (1961) are note worthy. In India most of the researchers have adopted Allport-Vernon-Lindzey. 'The study of values' Notable are Ojha (1984), Ahluwalia (1981), Verma (1986) other tests on values are developed by Upadhyay (1978), Aggarwal (1986), Katiyar (1982) as reported by Bhargava (1985), The "Personal Values Questionnaire" of Sherry and Verma used in present study, is developed to assess human values in the indigenous cultural milieu.

Attitude towards Teaching

Attitude is readiness to react towards or against some situation, person or thing in a particular manner. The attitudes, ideas, feelings and interests of a child are influenced by the organization of his family, thinking of parents and customs of the society. Personality of parents, their education and their behavior towards the children is the basis of development of attitudes. There are two types of attitudes-optimistic and pessimistic. An optimistic person is one who has positive attitude, positive outlook towards life and positive goals; whereas a pessimistic person is one who has negative attitude, a negative outlook towards life and has no definite goals. The conceptual definition of attitude has been given in many ways by different authors. The term attitude was first used to denote "the sum-total of a man's inclination and feelings, prejudice or bias, preconceived notions, ideas,
fears, threats convictions about any specific topic” (Thurston and Chave, 1929). Later, when motivational affective characters of attitude were emphasized, Thurston (1931) defined attitude as, "The affect for or against a psychological object." Attitude was defined by Allport (1954) as, "a mental and neutral state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations, with which it is related." The affective quality of attitude was also emphasized by Krech and Crutchfield (1948). They defined attitude as an "enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspects of individual's world". The attitudes are viewed by Fishbein and Aizen (1972) as disposing the individual to think, feel and act in certain ways and are inferred from these three sources. It is evident, therefore, that attitudes consists of cognitive, affective and behavioral components. However the affective component remains the central aspect of attitude. According to Sorenson (1977), "An attitude is a particular feeling about something. It, therefore, involves a tendency to behave in a certain way in situations which involve that some thing, whether person, idea or object. It is partially rational and partially rational and partially emotional and is acquired, not inherent, in an individual.

Most contemporary educational psychological research on attitude change has failed to focus on the integrative, dialectical and socio-political aspect of the change process. The educational taxonomies for classifying educational objectives divided educational experience and learning into three domains - cognitive, affective and psycho motor -reflecting the traditional divisions of educational and psychological research and placing attitudes in the affective domain (Bloom et al., 1956; Krathohl, 1964).

There are four major psychological theories or models of attitude change: Freudian psychology and psychoanalysis, a congruity model, a balance model and a dissonance model.
Freud (1953) described the internal conflict which ranges within the individual, particularly between the id, the libido and the super ego. Psychoanalysis seemed to the primarily concerned with generating some sort of balance between the aggressiveness and sexuality of the id and the guilt of the superego. But neither Freudian psychological theory nor psychoanalysis as therapy explains very well the many cases in which patients become fairly well reconciled to what has happened to them as children and change their interpersonal styles but still find themselves in considerable conflict with infantilisms which survive as social norms.

The congruent model was developed by Osgood, Suci and Tennenbaum in 1957. It is used to explain the nature and degree of attitude change we undergo when we experience attitude which are inconsistent with our own. We try to reduce the dissociation by making the inconsistent attitudes more congruent. The congruency model predicts that the size of the change is inversely proportional to the degree of polarization.

The balance model deals with the relationship of attitudes (Abelson and Rosenberg, 1958). Imbalance and there by the opportunity for change, occurs when one of these attitudes changes. Rosenberg et.al. (1960) suggest an additional alternative, which does not really restore balance but at least dissociates belief and friendship so that both survive. The technique is called compartmentalization -you stop thinking about the attitudinal imbalance you have fallen into (New comb et.al. 1965).

The dissonance model was developed by Leon Festinger (1957). Cognitive Dissonance is Festinger's term describing the individual's state of tension-obviously a state of disharmony, disequilibrium and inconsistency. To find inner peace, the individual must transform dissonance or inconsistency to consistency or consonance.

Defining attitude operationally, Himmelfard and Eagly (1974) refer to "any reports of what people think or feel or of the ways in which they tend to act". The
operational definition means the use of some kind of tools for obtaining responses from the subjects. The most commonly used instrument in the studies on attitudes is some kind of questionnaire or scale. These questionnaires or scales assess attitudes through self-reports of opinions, beliefs, feelings, behavior or intended actions. Statements are generally scaled to excess favourability or unfavourability towards the object and these dimensions formed the corner stone of Thurston's attitude scaling procedures. Ahluwalia's Teacher Attitude Inventory (revised 1998) is also such an inventory, which has been used in the present study measure the attitude of teachers towards teaching.

Teacher Effectiveness

Teacher effectiveness refers to the results a teacher gets or the amount of progress the pupils make towards some specific goal of education.

Teacher effectiveness simply could not be defined in terms of any particular trait or methods. In 1959, the American Association of school Administrators failed in its attempt to find out some guidelines, which might help them to make particular decisions about a high quality of teaching necessary in changing on their jobs.

Bowers (1961), Gupta (1976), Arora (1978), Mutha (1980), Bhagoliwal (1982), McGarvey (1983) have been somewhat more successful in discriminating between effective and ineffective teachers by shifting their attention to the general traits or methods used by teachers. They have been able to find fairly stable distinctions in such general terms as "good teacher are considerate." or "child centered". But this has failed to provide us with the definite distinction.

According to Mitzel's (1982) Encyclopaedia of Educational Research - "The term teacher effectiveness refers to the results a teacher gets or to the amount of progress the pupils make towards some specified goal of education" Fulcher (1974), "The effectiveness of a teacher (source) is indexed by how effectively he communicates with his students (receivers)."
Despite complexities in arriving at universally accepted definition, some researchers have made attempts to define and measure it. Born (1952) explained teacher effectiveness as a relationship between teachers, pupils and other persons concerned with the educational understanding.

Remmers (1952) defined effectiveness as "the degree to which an agent produces effects". Three categories of effect in terms of objects affected were identified for teachers:

(a) The pupil
(b) School operations, and
(c) The school community.

Flander and Simer (1969) defined teacher effectiveness as an area of research which is concerned with relationship between the characteristic of teacher, teaching acts and their effect on the educational outcomes of classroom teaching. Effects on pupils have long been accepted as relevant criterion dimensions of teacher effectiveness. Pupil growth, change, gain, development, learning and the like have often been considered as the ultimate criterion of teacher effectiveness. According to Smith (1971), "When we speak of a teacher's skill, we are referring to how well he or she performs the act of teaching.

According to Nair (1973), "Teacher effectiveness denotes the ability of teacher to teach a particular lesson to his pupils." Anand (1983) conducted a research on teacher effectiveness in schools and concluded that effectiveness may be understood as one's hold on the circumstances as well as on himself, befitting the best of his total adjustment. According to Scriven (1987), "Teachers are meritorious to the extent that they exert the maximum possible influence towards beneficial learning on the part of their students, subject to three conditions:-

(1) The teaching process used is ethical,
(2) The curriculum coverage and the teaching process are consistent with what has been promised, and
The teaching process and its forcible effects are consistent with the appropriate institutional and professional goals and obligations.

The term teacher effectiveness is closely associated and generally confused with the terms like, 'pupil learning experiences', 'teacher performance' and 'teacher competence'. 'Pupil learning experiences' refer to the pattern of behavior of pupils while teaching is going on. Though it has a great deal to do with how effective the teacher is, but it is not teacher effectiveness.

'Teacher performance' differs from teacher effectiveness. It refers to the behavior of a teacher while teaching in a class. Teacher performance resembles teacher effectiveness in that it, too, is a product of the interaction between certain teacher characteristics and the teaching situations. Teacher performance is often used as a basis from which teacher effectiveness can be inferred.

'Teacher competence' refers to the set of knowledge, abilities, and beliefs a teacher possesses and brings to the teaching situation. Teacher competence differs from teacher performance and teacher effectiveness in that it is a stable characteristic of the teacher that does not change appreciably when the teacher moves from one situation to another. It resembles teacher performance in that it has also been proposed as a basis from which teacher effectiveness can be inferred. Teacher competence is conceived of as a matter of repertoire. The knowledge, skills, and beliefs in a teacher's repertoire will be referred to as "competencies" that the teacher possesses. A competency is defined in the terms of what the teacher knows, believes, or can get pupils to do.