INTRODUCTION

Education is conceived as a powerful agency, which is instrumental in bringing about the desired changes in the social and cultural life of a nation. Now education has become a fast assuming momentous dimension in the present era of great change exploding knowledge and technical transformation, since it is closely linked with the productivity of nation. Education is, in fact, a means for human resource development. Therefore, efforts are being made to provide quality education via improving the performance of schools which may depend on one of the factors viz internal climate or functioning of schools. It is, thus, the aim of the educationists or those incharge of these institutes to maintain such a climate in the educational institutions based on empirical findings which would lead to quality education.

The ancient wisdom and the experience of the present, both in East and West unanimously agree that teacher is the pivot of the educational system. No reform has ever succeeded against teacher or without their participation (Delor report, 1996). Teachers are the natural role models to the younger generation. But in today’s concept of education, a teacher is required to be more professionally equipped and result oriented and almost perfect in his subject matter.

According to Bishay (1996) teaching profession ranks high on the success list of a society and teachers are known as the nation builders since they always strengthen the foundation of education among children. It is only a teacher who can devotedly shoulder the onerous some task of nation building. A teacher is known as backbone of a healthy nation.
Not only the ancient time but even today also the teacher has been given key position and status next to parents in our society and deserves to be given full respect in the eyes of public of the country. In our Indian society preferably a teacher is known as ‘Guru’ who is even considered sometimes greater than a ‘God’ in our prestigious and religious dominated society. Therefore, the educators/teachers task is pivotal and most important in the eyes of fore-sighted countrymen.

A school is an organization which has four sub-systems viz, (a) technological, (b) economical, (c) organizational and (d) socio-psychological. Technological sub-system refers to the methods and process of teaching. Economical sub-system refers to the amount of funds and other resources which are at the disposal of principal and teachers to improve the technological aspect of school (teaching). Thus, the way in which this economical aspect is controlled or utilized is a concern of the economical sub-systems. Organizational sub-system which refers to the structure and hierarchical positions includes management, principal, teachers and other assistants. Socio-psychological aspect refers to the teachers’ motivation to work, morale, inter-personal relationship among teachers and other staff-members and pupils.

Thus, it seems that school climate may be one of the important factors in making the system of education more productive, functional and desirable. Further changes may be brought about by bringing about an improvement in any one of its sub-systems.

According to Halpin (1963) in some schools, principals, teachers and students all find pleasure in working with one another and discover that school can be a happy experience. In some schools teachers and students somehow tolerate school. They are not happy with it and suffer from a breeding discontent. Principal tries to hide his
incompetence and his lack of sense of direction behind a cloak of authority and yet he wears his cloak poorly, randomly vacillating his attitude between the obsequious and the officious. In some schools, there is neither joy nor despair but hollow ritual where teachers, principals and students alike are acting out parts within an attitude of indifference and without any sense of involvement with the institution and the group within which they are working and in some schools, school community is so restless that it cannot tolerate school in the form it exists and want to bring about all kinds of changes in its organizational functioning.

The organizational climate of the school yet today differs from school to school. As there are differences in the personality of individuals, so every individual school has its own personality which can be turned as its climate. The “Climate” of school is reflected in its administration, teacher’s work culture and student’s achievement. All the above factors together form the climate of school.

School’s organizational climate affects the role of participants in numerous ways such as their perceptions, motivation, morale, adjustment and learning. School climate refers to how a school should be organized and managed in order to be effective. It is therefore, necessary to assess the organizational climate of school from the teacher’s perception as he/she knows his/her school to be.

Inter-personal relations, to a large extent are determined by attitude people hold. Similar attitude tend to produce more co-operation and dissimilar attitude produce more friction among individuals.

Attitudes usually refer to the beliefs, feelings and action tendencies of an individual or a group of individuals towards objects, ideas and people. Quite often,
persons and objects or ideas become associated in the minds of individuals and as a result attitudes become multi-dimensional and complex.

For any person, attitudes are variously related to motives, values, personality and emotions. Individual has internal needs and external social pressures. In further relating these to other people he expresses his attitudes. They are related to the groups with which a person wants to identify and belong. Further, our economic and occupational position and aspirations also contribute to our attitudes. They determine in part our attitudes towards union and management and our belief that certain laws are good or bad.

Attitudes forms an important part of a person’s personality. They not only affect his own behavior towards the job he holds but also affect the people who come in contact with him viz principal his/her colleagues and pupils. Teacher’s attitude was also considered as an important factor to know how teachers thinks and feels about their profession. Thus, it was desirable to study their attitude because it not affects only their own behavior in class room but also of their students.

However, job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been found to be inversely related to tardiness, absenteeism and turnover. (Yousef, 2000). Moreover, they have also been linked or associated with increased work-doing performance, productivity and organizational effectiveness (Buitendach and de Witte, 2005). This is furthermore, postulated to have an influence on whether employees will have a propensity to remain with the same organization and to perform a job which is assigned to them at higher level. Therefore, keeping in view the relevance of education before eyes, the present investigation is especially designed to observe the “Influence of Organizational Climate, Teaching Attitude and Adjustment on Job Satisfaction of Teachers”.

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In the present research investigation organizational climate, teaching attitude and adjustment has been taken into good consideration as independent variables and job satisfaction as a dependent variable. Now, let us discuss each variable separately in the following manner.

1.1 Organizational Climate

1.1.1 Conceptual Framework of Organizational Climate :

The concept of organizational climate has a rich history in the field of social science research. The term “organizational climate” was coined in 1939 following a study of children’s school clubs by Kurt Lewin and his colleagues. According to Schneider et al. (1990) the earliest explicit reference to the concept of climate occurred in Lewin, Lippitt and White’s (1939) article on experimentally created “social climate” in boy’s group. These authors offered neither definition nor a measure of climate. Fleishman (1953) discussed leadership climate but left the concept of climate undefined. Argyris (1958) wrote a paper on climate in a bank but still used the term climate in question marks. McGregor (1960) conceptualized managerial climate as “the day to day behaviour of the immediate superior and other significant people in the managerial organization”. Litwin and Stringer (1966) first comprehensively conceptualized and operationalized climate as it is studied now. They presented a paper at a climate conference. Their paper presented a set of six climate dimensions. Two years later, Taguri and Litwin (1968) published a book of collected papers. This book explored the nature of the climate construct, its definition and empirical findings. Thus, even though the word climate appeared in (1939) the concept of climate as we know now was fully explicated until (1968) by Litwin, Stringer and Taguiri.
Most of the researchers from the field of organizational behaviour have defined climate as the cognitive environment as perceived by members of the organization. James et al. (1990) concurred that individuals have values that influence their cognition of organization. This cognition of organization yields climate perceptions. Schneider et al. (1990) defined climate as a shared perceptions of organizational policies and procedures, both formal and informal. According to Schneider et al. (1990) climate is a concept that is indicative of the organization’s goals and appropriate means to goal attainment. Thus, review of literature showed that organizational climate researchers are interested in organizational member’s perceptions of certain properties of their work environment and organization.

Literature showed that definition of organizational climate varies. Climate has been defined in various ways by authors as they perceived subjective effects of the formal system, the informal style of managers and other important environmental factors that impact on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people who work in a particular organization. Litwin and Stringer (1968) defined organizational climate as a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior. Benjamin Schneider (1975) defined organizational climate as a mutually agreed internal (or moral) environmental description of an organization’s practices and procedures. However, Pritchard and Karasick (1993) viewed climate differently, looking it as a result of behavior of organizational members.

Organizational climate is a relatively enduring quality of an organization’s internal environment distinguishing it from other organizations (a) which results from the
behaviour and policies of members of organizations, especially top management, (b) which is perceived by members of the organization, (c) which served as a basis for interpreting the situation and (d) acts as a source of pressure for directing activity. Every educational organization has a climate that distinguishes it from other schools and influences behaviour and feelings of teachers and students for that school (Sergiovanni and Starraf, 1988).

Ashforth (1994) argued that climate is a joint property of both the organization and the individual. This means that climate is the result of interaction between organizational characteristics and its member’s behaviour. Fink et al. (1995) defined organizational climate as a set of attitudes and beliefs relating to the organization that is shared and collectively held by organizational members as a whole. William et al. (1996) defined organizational climate as “the favourableness or unfavourableness of the environment for people in the organization”. James et al. (1990) defined climate for individuals in the organization as the extent to which the organization provides for the well-being of its members.

Most researchers adopted the classic and more widely referenced definition of organizational climate provided by Taguiri (1968). Taguiri’s definition of organizational climate posits that : Climate is the relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that (a) is experienced by its members, (b) influences their behaviour and (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the organization.

Organizational climate however, proves to be hard to define. There are two especially intractable and related difficulties i.e, how to define climate and how to
measure it effectively on different levels of analysis. Furthermore, there are several approaches to the concept of climate of which two in particular have received substantial patronage: the cognitive schema approach and the shared perception approach.

The first approach regards the concept of climate as an individual perception and cognitive representation of the work environment. From this perspective climate assessments should be conducted at an individual level. The second approach emphasizes the importance of shared perceptions as underpinning the notion of climate (Anderson, and West, 1998; Mathisen and Einarsen 2004). It is important to realize that from these two approaches, there is no “best” approach and they actually have a great deal of overlap. Organizational Climate (sometimes known as Corporate Climate) is the process of quantifying the “culture” of an organization. Researchers like Hart, Griffin, Wearing and Cooper (1996) have pursued the shared perception model of organizational climate. Their model identifies the variables which moderate an organization’s ability to mobilize its workforce in order to achieve business goals and maximize performance.

Discovering how the organization is a psychologically meaningful environment for individual, organization members has led to the concept of organizational climate. This term is used loosely and in a variety of ways by different psychologists.

Forhand and Glimmer (1964) defined ‘organizational climate’ as “those stimuli constraints on freedom, rewards and punishments that affect worker attitudes and performance”. For many, it is basically ‘anything in the working environment that affects worker satisfaction and productivity’.

The concept of ‘organizational climate’ however, becomes more useful when as defined by likert and his colleagues, it is more limited to conditions inside the
organization but is outside the immediate face-to-face working group. In this sense, ‘organizational climate’ involves such matters as extent of upward receptivity, lateral communications, interdepartmental decision-making, control and co-ordination. Campbell (1970) also offered a definition of ‘organizational climate’ and usefully described its four major dimensions as:

1. Individual autonomy
2. Degree of structure imposed on the position
3. Reward orientation, and
4. Consideration, warmth and support.

Dunnete (1975) defined ‘organizational climate’ in terms of objective and subjective measures as some climate dimensions also seem to be structural measures. Schneider and Synder (1975) defined ‘organizational climate’ as “a summary perception which people have of an organization”. It is basically impression of what the organization is. According to Korman (1977) the climate of an organization may, for example be the extent to which it is seen by either those who are inside or outside the organization as ego, supportive, hierarchical, ambiguous, conflict prone and routinized to cite just a few of the descriptive terms often used. Now days, increasing recognition is being given to the name of ‘organizational climate’. Every organization has characteristic aura under which it functions which is at times evident to a discriminating but transient visitor to the organization. The ‘organizational climate’ can be manifested in diverse ways in the general behaviour of the workers and state of discipline at the workplace, the interest the workers take in their work, the frequency of task-irrelevant activities among them, their sense of personal freedom, etc. Perhaps the most important single factor in the
determination of ‘organizational climate’ is the nature of leadership under which the worker functions. It is the function of the leader to organize or integrate his men into a highly motivated and cohesive work group so that everyone identifies himself with the group and the group goal and takes pride in belonging to it. If the group is split up into fractions fighting with each other, if its members are indifferent to the interest of the organization and its work and do not hesitate to change their jobs for minor material benefits, then the primary responsibility for this state of affairs is with the leaders of organization and the higher the leader is in the organization the greater is his responsibility for the proper functioning of the organization. Although, there can be no doubt that ‘organizational climate’ description, measurement and control are rather difficult. The first attempt to experimentally set up a particular ‘social climate’ in a work group was made by Kurt Lewin and his associates and reported in (1939). Another classic study on different types of leader behaviour and ‘organizational climate’ has been reported by Rolph White and Ronald Lippilt (1954). They had set up four groups of five 10 year old boys as their subjects. On the whole, the atmosphere created by democratic leadership was superior and more desirable than the authoritarian climate. All except one boy of the two groups that had experience of all three types of leadership preferred the democratic order however, no clear cut preference existed between the authoritarian and the laissez-faire types.

Studies on organizations have led to the distinction of four organizational climate i.e. bureaucratic, autocratic, idiocratic and democratic. Companies with ‘bureaucratic climate’ insist on strict obedience to company rules and regulations. Employees can feel secure so long as they confirm to these. The preoccupation and chief goal of the leaders
here are to maintain the particular system of organization as it is. In autocratic organizations obedience to the superior is emphasised. Its leaders desire to express themselves as fully as possible in their jobs. They want maximum autonomy for themselves and accept strict obedience to the personal orders on the parts of their subordinates. The atmosphere is idiocratic, manipulative and psychological. The focus is on the individual worker and on his personal ambition. In the ‘democratic organization’, informal group customs, codes and conventions are important and the leader derives his authority from these and from the group as a whole. Most ongoing organizations show characteristics of all these different climates in different spheres of their activities.

1.1.2 Theories of Organizational Climate:

As regard to the theory of ‘organizational climate’ various theories have been proposed to understand ‘climate’ in organizations. All the theories have been proposed to understand ‘climate’ in true sense and further all organizational theories has been categorized into following categories as below mentioned:

1. Theories of individual behaviour

2. Management theory and

3. Organization theory

Each of these theories is discussed below in detail:

Theories of Individual Behaviour:

Many psychologists who have addressed themselves to the study of individual behaviour in organizations have classified environmental factors in pluralistic terms. Vroom (1964) in the conclusion of his comprehensive analysis of ‘work and motivation’ stated the following two propositions:
Proposition-1 The valence of an outcome to a person is monotonically increasing function of the algebraic of the product of the valence of all other outcomes and his conceptions of its instrumentality for the attainment of these outcomes.

Proposition-2 The force on a person to perform an act is monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes and the strength of his expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes. ‘Vroom’s model’ acknowledges the importance of situational variables but does not provide a format by which such variables can be mapped and measured most other theories of individual behaviour also fail to provide a systematic and useful linkage between ‘climate’ and behavioural concept.

Management Theory:

Organizational psychologists interested in the management process have developed various terms to describe the indirect and subtle effects of management practices on the attitudes and behaviour of subordinates. Several of these terms attempts to define the phenomenon identified as ‘organizational climate’. In the human side old enterprise, M.C. Gregor (1960) developed what he called the ‘managerial climate’ defined in terms of the manifestations of the assumptions of the management. Blake and Mouton (1960) in “the Managerial Grid” used the term ‘organizational culture’ stating that “when a manager sees his responsibility as that of managing culture rather than just managing people to get work out of them the basic unit of development is no longer the individual considered separately and alone”. However, they stop short of explaining what ‘organizational culture’ implies for the people and most important if it is the manager’s responsibility to arrive at a total organizational perspective, how can he carry out his
responsibility without a linking concept that allows to relate individual and organizational elements?

**Organizational Theory:**

Organizational theories interested in descriptive explanations of human behaviour in organizations have dealt indirectly with notions of organizational environments ‘Classical organization theories’ as represented in the writings of Fayol (1949). Koontz and O’Donnel (1955) and other render such concepts unnecessary. The cognitive or economic behaviour theories of organization such as those proposed by March and Simon (1959) and Cyert and March (1963) viewed ‘organizations as systems for making decisions and deal tangentially with climate’.

The main group of organizational theories has concentrated on the objective framework of organization, the structural dimensions which have widely used to characterize the situational influences on motivated behavior such as:

1. Focus of formal authority,
2. Time span of responsibility,
3. Specificity of goals,
4. Number of levels of hierarchy,
5. Standardization of procedures,
6. Quality of formal rules,
7. Span of control and
8. Rule specialization.

The model proposed above and those proposed by Likert (1961) and Woodward (1958) are related to Homan’s (1950) analysis of behaviour in groups. In these, the
environment is viewed as having three parts i.e. a physical environment, a cultural environment and technological environment. The mutual interaction of these three parts specifies certain activities and interactions for the people involved in the system. These activities and interactions arouse sentiments among people. The environmentally determined activities, interactions and sentiments make up the external system. But increasing interactions arouse new sentiments and new activities not necessarily specified by the external system. New norms and frame of reference create internal system. The external and internal systems are mutually dependent on one another. ‘Motivation’ variables are not given adequate attention in those models implying their drawback.

The concept and theory of climate development took place as a result of some original studies done in this field. The first explicit studies of ‘psychological climate’ were initiated by Kurt Lewin in the 1930’s. In describing the essential dynamics that linked human behaviour to generalized environmental stimuli, needs, social relations as well as more general characteristics of the field as the atmosphere (e.g. the friendly, tense or hostile atmosphere) or the amount of freedom. Psychological atmosphere are empirical realities and are scientifically describable facts.

Lewin, Lippit and White (1939) studied climate in an experiment involving the behavioral effects of three different leader-induced atmospheres. The three leadership roles were authoritarian, democratic and laissaz-faire. The adult role was found to be a strong determiner of the pattern of social interaction. In other words, the ‘climate’ proved more powerful than previously ‘acquired’ behaviour tendencies.

In Lewin’s theory of motivation, the concept of ‘atmosphere’ was an essential functional link between the person and the environment. Under the other ‘Climate’ type
theories, the most promising theory is the ‘interpersonal organization theory’, proposed by Kahn and his associates (1964). They stated it is the key assumption of his approach that “the behaviour of any organization performer is the product of motivational forces that derive in large part from the behaviour of members of his role set because they constantly bring influence with the role expectations they hold for him.” There is not necessarily an incompatibility between the use of the ‘climate framework’ and the ‘role set theory’. Rather, both serve as useful explanatory concepts.

Now, moving towards an ‘Integrated theory’ if the concept of ‘organizational climate’ is to demonstrate real value in understanding an explanation of behaviour in an organization then it must be integrated with the kinds of theories of organizational behaviour that they evolve and are in current use. These theories, as discussed tend to emphasize such factors as management practices, decision making processes, technology, formal organizational and social structure viewed as arising from the interaction of technology, organizational structure and individual needs. These factors are largely objective features of an organizational system. Relatively little attention is given to the members perception and subjective responses to the organizational environment. Thus, it has been difficult for these theories to utilize motivational concepts many of such are based on subjective elements. Litwin and Stringer (1968) have illustrated schematically an ‘integrated model’ of ‘organizational behaviour’. In this model, the concept of ‘organizational climate’ is used as an intervening variable, mediating between organizational system factors and motivational tendencies. The perceptions and subjective responses which comprise the organizational perceptions and subjective
responses which comprise the ‘organizational climate’ are presented in the following model:

**Fig 1.1 : Integrated Model of Organizational Behaviour**

The diagram reflects an attempt to outline an ‘input-output system model’. The organization system features are seen as generating an ‘organizational climate’ which in turn arouses (or suppress) particular motivational tendencies. The patterns of motivated
behaviour that result are seem as determining a variety of consequences for the organization including productivity, satisfactions, retention (or turnover), adaptability and reputation. The importance of interaction and feedback cycle is noted schematically.

As analysis of an organization’s climate would inevitably lead to the tracing of its roots into the contextual source the socio-cultural values and systematic features of the surrounding milieu, the body of knowledge regarding work and work forms, technological advancements and the resultant trends and issues in the realm of work. According to Sinha (1990) ‘Organizational Climate’ can be soft or synergetic and these may be conceptualized as the extremes on a continuum of how work is viewed and valued and what and how organizational (e.g. socio-cultural etc) factors affect these viewing and valuating process. Basically, in a ‘soft work climate’ work is displaced from its central place in the organization by non-work activities and interests such as, socio-personal interests and obligations. Employees do not tend to work hard, do not feel positive for work, do not derive satisfaction from their jobs and do not locate work at the centre of their life space. They are not clear about their roles. In nut shell, social and personal considerations are allowed to undermine the importance of work. The opposite, however is true in a ‘Synergetic work Climate’.

1.1.3 Components of Organizational Climate :

There are six components of organizational climate as they are cited below :

**Service climate** : Advocated strongly by Benjamin Schneider (1975), this is perhaps the most well known of the particular climates, operationalized in the popular SERVQUAL measure developed by Valarie Zeithaml et al. (1990). SERVQUAL, which is usually administered to retail sales customers, measures five dimensions (1) Tangibles, (2)
reliability, (3) responsiveness, (4) assurance and (5) empathy. Service climate is often cited as the archetypal example of climate insofar as it is a representation of the shared subjective experiences of organizational stakeholders that have direct effects on organizational functioning and effectiveness.

**Safety climate**: Coined in 1980 by Israeli psychologist Dov Zohar. It can be defined as a special kind of climate where organizational members share agreed perceptions of employee personal safety and well-being within the organization’s environment.

**Ethical climate**: Bart Victor and John Cullen (1988) were the originators of the idea of ethical climate. They jointly developed it’s (the Ethical Climate Questionnaire or ECQ) which continues today to be standard for measurement. Although, closely related to the general culture concept, ethical culture includes elements of Lawrence Kohlberg’s concepts of moral reason development and Julian Rotter’s (1966) idea of internal-external locus of control.

**Innovation climate**: This concept was introduced by Neil Anderson and Michael West (1998) specifically in relation to assessment of climate in work teams and is operationalized in the Team climate Inventory (TCI). Innovation climate refers to a “proximal climate” that develops as a result of close personal relationships and commitments in work teams.

**Climate of silence**: Elizabeth Wolf Morrison and Francis Milliken (2000) introduced this climate where employees withhold information about problems in the organization. This behavior is seen to be a result of “powerful forces” that prevent employees from speaking out.
Climate of fear: Based on Joseph de Rivers’s notion of emotional climate as a phenomenon that can be “palpably sensed” climate of fear has been operationalized by Gavin Nicholson and Neal Ashkanasy (2003) in a 13-item scale that includes items such as, “I feel fearful or anxious when I am at work.”

Schools are social institutions (Getzels and Guba, 1970). Within school organizations there are students, teachers, administrators and many kinds of service personnel. Members of each of these groups occupy distinctive positions and are expected to behave in certain ways. The role expectations of these groups and norms ascribed to them are different from each other. Clearly, the relationships among many kinds of people in schools are varied and complex. If those relationships are understood and generally accepted then only school organization can function effectively (Campbell, Corbally and Nystrand, 1983).

Schools are hierarchical organizations. The board of education is usually placed at the top of the hierarchy, followed by the superintendent, the principals and the teachers. In terms of the responsibility, students are responsible to teachers, principals are responsible to the superintendent and the superintendent responsible to the board of education. Structurally, there is a series of superior-subordinate relationships within schools. Functionally, this hierarchy of relationships (principal to teacher, teacher to student and so on) is the basis for allocating and integration of roles, personnel and facilities to achieve school goals. Operationally, educational organizations are people intensive thus, the process in schools takes-place from person-to-person interaction (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1988).
However, those who spend time in schools quickly discovers how one’s school can feel different from other schools. School climate is a general term that refers to the feel, atmosphere, tone and ideology of school. Just as individuals have personalities, so to do school climate may be the personality of a school.

Conceptualization of school organizational climate was first reviewed from wider perspective of organizational climate in general since schools are regarded as formal organizations characterized by its goals, rules, hierarchy of authority, reward systems, forms of compliance and co-ordination activities. School climate has been defined as the “feel” of a school (Halpin and Croft, 1963) as its “collective personality” (Norton, 1984). Climate is the human environment within which the teachers of a school do their work. Like the air in a room, climate surrounds and affects everything that happens in an organization (Freiberg, 1983). As one moves from school to school, it is possible to note that one school feels different from another. This is primarily the result of school climate.

As for schools, climate is a necessary link between organizational structure and teacher attitude and behaviour. It was found that formal characteristics of schools had an important influence on the way in which teachers’ perceived climate (George and Bishop, 1971). Clearly, climate represents a composite of the mediating variables that intervene between the structure of an organization and the style and other characteristics of leaders and teacher performance and satisfaction (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1988).

1.1.4 Types of Organizational Climate:

There are six types of climates which are being briefly discussed below:

(i) Open climate: It refers to an environment in which teachers obtain social needs satisfaction as well as job satisfaction and enjoy a sense of accomplishment in their job.
They perceive their principal as highly considerate and democratic in behaviour and hence the group members as well as the Principal feel ‘all of a piece’. So the group enjoys a high degree of integration and authenticity of behaviour (Sharma, 1973).

(ii) **Autonomous climate**: It refers to an environment in which the teachers enjoy a friendly relationship and a high degree of group morale. They satisfy their social needs to a great extent and enjoy a degree of job accomplishment. Absence of active leadership mixed with average controls on the part of the Principal is perceived as an element of psycho-physical hindrance (Sharma, 1973).

(iii) **Familiar Climate**: It is characterized by the conspicuously friendly behaviour of both the principal and the teachers. The teachers have established personal friendship among themselves and socially, at least everyone is a part of a large happy family. Social needs satisfaction is extremely high. The principal exercises leadership in an indirect manner and tries to keep production satisfactory. His behaviour is job oriented but does not hinder the social needs satisfaction on the part of the teacher (Sharma, 1973).

(iv) **Controlled Climate**: It refers to an environment which can be characterized as highly task-oriented at the cost of social needs satisfaction of the members (teachers). Leadership acts stem from only one side and in a dictatorial manner. Group involvement is never encouraged. The human aspect of the individual is neglected and communication is always one sided. Teachers get little job satisfaction out of task accomplishment (Sharma, 1973).

(v) **Parental Climate**: It refers to a situation in which there is very little scope for the members to satisfy their social needs and derive job satisfaction. The teacher has to work in the way the Principal wants but at the same time the Principal as a paternal guardian of
the school teacher does not ignore the individual interest and hence his behaviour is perceived as highly considerate (Sharma, 1973).

(vi) **Closed Climate**: It is characterized by a high degree of apathy on the part of all members of the organization. The organization is not moving. This climate lacks authenticity of behaviour. The Principal constraints the emergence of leadership acts from the group. The group members secure neither social needs satisfaction nor job satisfaction stemming from task-accomplishment.

**1.1.5 Organizational Climate and Culture**:

Climate and culture are both important aspects of the overall context, environment or situation. Culture tends to be shared by all or most members of some social group. It is something that older members usually try to pass on to younger members. It shapes behavior, structures and perceptions of the world. Cultures are often studied and understood at a national level, such as the American or French culture. Culture includes deeply held values, beliefs, assumptions, symbols, heroes, heroines and rituals. Culture can be examined at an organizational level as well. The main distinction between organizational and national culture is that people can choose to join a place of work but are usually born into a national culture.

**1.1.6 School Culture and School Climate**:

**School Culture**:

The term school culture and school climate describe the environment that affects the behaviour of teachers and students in a school. School culture is the shared beliefs and attitudes that characterize the district-wide organization and establish boundaries for its constituents units. It also reflects the shared ideas, assumptions, values and beliefs that
give an organization its identity and standard for expected behaviours. School culture is based on past experience which provides a template for future action based on “how we do things in this organization.” A school culture is also reflected in an organization's atmosphere, myths and moral code.

**Components of School Culture**: However, there are some important components of a school culture which influences the learning capacity and learning atmosphere of school learners such as:

1. **Artifacts and symbols**: the way its buildings are decorated and maintained.
2. **Values**: the manner in which administrators, principals and staff function and interact with each other.
3. **Assumptions**: the beliefs that are taken for granted about human nature.
4. **Common beliefs and values that key individuals communicate and enforce.**
5. **Heroes and heroines whose actions and accomplishments embody these values.**
6. **Rituals and ceremonies that reinforce these values.**
7. **Stories that reflect what the organization stands for.**

**1.1.7 School Climate**:

School climate reflects the physical and psychological aspects of the school that are more susceptible to change and that provide the preconditions necessary for teaching and learning to take place.

School climate, in focus of this brief is evident in the feelings and attitudes about a school expressed by students, teachers, staff and parents. It is the way students and staff “feel” about being at school each day. School climate is a significant element in improving academic performance and making some new forms in the behaviour of
students. School climate characterizes the organization at the school building and classroom level. It refers to the “feel” of a school and can vary from school to school within the same district.

**1.1.8 Components of School Climate:**

Although there is no consistent agreement in the literature on the components of school climate or their importance, most writers emphasize caring as a core element. However, some place safety foremost defining school climate as “an orderly environment in which the school family feels valued and able to pursue the school’s mission free from concerns about disruption and safety”. Several aspects of a school’s physical and social environment comprise its climate. One organization identified the following eight areas:

1. Appearance and physical plant
2. Faculty relations
3. Student interactions
4. Leadership/decision making
5. Disciplined environment
6. Learning environment
7. Attitude and culture
8. School-community relations

**1.1.9 Aspects of School Climate:**

There are few important aspects of a school climate such as:

1. A physical environment that is welcoming and conducive to learning
2. A social environment that promotes communication and interaction
3. An affective environment that promotes a sense of belonging and self-esteem
4. An academic environment that promotes learning and self-fulfillment.

1.1.10 Similarities and Difference Between School Culture and Climate:

Since there is a big controversy in the academic literature over the similarities and differences between organizational climate and organizational culture therefore, it is necessary to make a clear cut distinction between the two in the following manner:

Organizational cultures are generally deep and stable. Climate, on the other hand is often defined as the recurring patterns of behaviour, attitudes and feelings that characterize life in the organization (Isaksen and Ekvall, 2007).

Climate and culture are similar concepts (Reichers and Schneider, 1990) culture differs in that it refers to the deeper, unconsciously held assumptions that help to guide organizational members (Schein, 1985). Glick (1985) distinguishes between climate and culture based on their method of analysis. He also concludes that climate can be measured using quantitative techniques, whereas culture tends to be idiographic and is usually measured using qualitative methods. Schein (1985) considers climate to be a surface of culture and research on culture appears to be addressing common phenomena (Denison, 1996). Thus, organizational culture and climate are related.

Culture leads and influences the type of climate. Previous research revealed that types of organizational climate affects the employee’s satisfaction. A positive type of climate enhances employee’s job satisfaction whereas a negative type of climate leads to lower expectations and dissatisfaction.

Just as society has a ‘Social Culture’ a workplace has an ‘Organizational Climate’. Organizational climate is quite complex and there are controversies surrounding the ‘characteristics of organizational culture’ and varying degrees of research
support. For example, there is a controversy in the academic literature over the similarities and differences between ‘Organizational Culture’ and ‘Organizational Climate’. However, there is empirical support for some of the characteristics, such as the important role that physical layout plays in ‘Organizational Culture’. Organizational Culture (i.e. a set of shared norms and values that guide organizational participant’s behaviour) has a number of characteristics like observed behavioral regulations, norms, dominant values, philosophy, rules, and ‘organizational climate’. Organizational Climate is basically an overall “feeling” that is conveyed by the physical layout, the way participants interact, and the way members of the organization conduct themselves with customers or other outsiders. Thus, it can be said that ‘Organizational Climate’ is a part and one of the major characteristics of “Organizational Culture”.

Thus, keeping in view the significance of organizational climate and culture in an organizational setting, particularly in a school, the present variable has been especially taken into consideration as an independent variable.

1.2 Teaching Attitude

1.2.1 Conceptual Framework of Teaching Attitude:

The term attitude is derived from Latin word ‘aptus’ and is defined within the framework of social psychology as a subjective or mental preparation for action. It defines outward and visible postures and human beliefs. Attitudes determine what each individual will see, hear, think and do. Attitude are rooted in experience and do not become automatic routine conduct.

The concept of attitude was first introduced by Thomas Znanicchi (1918) in their monumental study of people in transition between two cultures. Thomas Znanicchi
(1918) regard attitude as internalized counterpart of an external object representing the individual’s subjective tendencies to act towards an object.

People’s attitude and values have significant impact on their behavior in both within the organizational and other social context. It influences the perception of objects and people, exposure to comprehension of information, choice of friends and co-workers etc. Thus, for managing the people effectively in the organization, management must understand the attitude and values of employees systematically.

Attitude means the individual’s prevailing tendency to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, group of people, institutions and events etc. Attitudes can be positive or negative. Social psychologists distinguish and study three components of the responses: a) cognitive component which is the knowledge about an object, whether accurate or not b) affective component which is the feeling towards the object and c) behavioural component which is the action taken towards the object.

It is necessary to be precise in defining attitudes because the variety of published definitions and descriptions is almost endless. Likewise other concept, the term attitudes may also be defined in two ways i.e. conceptual and operational.

The conceptual definition of attitude has been given in so many ways by different psychologists. The term attitude was first used to denote “the total-sum of a man’s inclinations, feelings, prejudices, bais, preconceived notations, feelings, ideas, fears, threats and convictions about any specific topic” (Thurstone and Chave, 1929). Thurstone (1931) defined attitude as “the affect for or against a psychological object”. Attitude was defined by Allport (1954) as “a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to
all objects and situations with which it is related”. Himmelfarb and Eagly (1974) defined attitude as an “enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual’s world.

In operational definition the term “attitude” often is used in a generic sense to refer to any reports of what people think or feel or the ways in which they intend to act”. (Himmelfarb and Eagly, 1974). The operational definition means use of some kind of tools for obtaining responses from the subjects.

The term attitude has been defined differently by different thinkers in the area of education and psychology. John Dewey (1922) defined attitude as “a special case of predisposition, the disposition waiting it were to spring through an open room”. Chave (1928) defined “attitude as a complex feelings, desires, tears, convictions prejudices or other tendencies that have given a readiness to act a person because of varied experiences”. According to a well known Gestalt Psychologists Kohler (1929) attitude can be viewed that “a change of attitude involves a definite psychological stress exerted upon a sensory field by processes originating in other parts of the nervous system”. According to Bogordus (1931) “an attitude is a tendency to act toward or against something in the environment which becomes thereby a positive and negative values”. Droba (1933) viewed that “an attitude is a mental disposition of the human individual to act for or against a definite object”. Moran (1934) defined “attitudes are literally mental postures guides for conducts to which each new experience is referred before a response is made”. Anastasi (1957) defined “attitude as tendency to react in a certain way towards a designed class of stimuli”. Katz and Stodland (1959) defined attitude as “an individual’s tendency or predisposition to evaluate an object or the symbol of that object
in a certain way”. Whittakar (1970) defined that “an attitude is a predisposition or readiness to respond in a predetermined manner to relevant stimuli”. Traverse (1973) viewed that “an attitude is a readiness to respond in such a way that behaviour is given in a certain direction”. Sorenson (1977) defined attitude as “a particular feeling about something”. Therefore, it involves a tendency to behave in a certain way in situations which involve person, idea or object. It is particularly rationale and partially emotional and is acquired, not inherent in an individual. According to Zimbardo and Lieppe (1991), “attitudes are formed by direct experience as well as implicit learning and may reflect personality”. Brock and Shavitt (1994) defined “attitudes are functional enough as much as they simplify complex subjects, express fundamental values and beliefs and mediate or guide behavior”. Wood (2000) defined “attitudes are typically conceptualized as having three related components such as: cognitive (i.e. the idea or assumptions upon which the attitude is based), affective (i.e., feelings about the issue) and behavioural (i.e. a predisposition toward an action that corresponds with the assumption or belief)”.

According to Cook (2002) teachers’ attitude are important variable in classroom applications because of the relationship between attitude and action. Teacher attitudes are often translated into specific classroom and instructional practices which in turn affect student behavioural and learning outcomes. Reinke and Moseley (2002) viewed that “teacher’s attitude is an important variable in classroom application of new ideas and novel approaches to instruction. According to Eren (2004) attitudes can be defined as being related to a side of the individual’s inner world, processes of enthusiasm and recognition that appear in connection with particular value judgments and beliefs. Baysal and Tekarslan (2004) stated that each attitude has cognitive, behavioural and emotional
components. The cognitive component shows the knowledge an individual has about a particular attitude, the emotional component shows the like-dislike degree of the individual towards the attitude and the behavioural component indicates the tendency of the individual to act in a certain direction which has evolved under the influence of the former two components. In this sense, attitude is expressing an emotional, socio-psychological and personal concept.

1.2.2 Theories of Attitude Formation:

A large number of theories have been proposed to explain attitude formation and change. These theories are organized into major groupings according to the nature of the psychological processes postulated to underlie formation and change of attitudes. These theories may broadly be classified into three categories such as: cognitive consistency theories, functional theories, and social judgment theories.

Cognitive Consistency Theories:

Attitudes do not exist in isolation, indeed, a complex structure results which appears to have at its heart a consistent tendency to maintain balance and resist change from influences of various types. These theories are concerned with inconsistencies that arise between related beliefs, bits of knowledge and evaluations about an object or an issue. Though various consistency theories differ in several respects including the form of inconsistency about which they are concerned. All of them have in common the idea that the psychological tension created by this unpleasant state leads to attempts at reducing the inconsistency. There are four important theories under this group.

Balance Theory: The basic model of balance theory has been provided by F. Heider (1968). This theory is concerned with consistency in the judgement of people and/or
issues that are linked with other person and impersonal entity. Two generic types of relationships are considered to exist between the elements such as: linking or sentiment relations and unit relations. The linking relations encompass all forms of sentiment of effect, while unit relationships express the fact that two elements are perceived as belonging together. Both linking and unit relations can be positive and negative. In a three element system, balance exists if all three relations are positive or if two relations are negative and one is positive. Imbalance exists if all three relations are negative or if two relations are positive and one is negative. People tend to perceive others and objects linked to them so that the system is balanced. A perceiver likes a source who favours a certain position on an issue. The balancing process induces the perceiver to favour that position too. The balanced states are stable and imbalanced states are unstable. When imbalanced states occur, the psychological tension created motivates the person to restore balance cognitively by changing the relation. Thus, a person’s attitudes towards an object depend on his attitudes towards a source which is linked with the object.

The basic model of Heider has been criticized on some grounds. For example, this theory neither considers the degree of linking or unit relationship nor the relevance to the perceiver of the elements and relations. Consequently, there are no degrees of balance or imbalance and it is not possible to make quantitative predictions about the degree of attitude change.

In the case of balance model, Abelson has suggested four methods in which a person can resolve imbalance in cognitive structure like denial, bolstering, differentiation and transcendence. These processes occur in hierarchy so that a person’s attempts to resolve imbalance in the ordering are discussed. The ordering is based on the
assumption that the person will attempt the least effortful resolution first. This theory helps in understanding the role of persuasive communication and interpersonal attractiveness in changing the attitudes.

**Congruity Theory**: Osgood and Tennebaum (1955) have proposed the congruity theory of attitudes which is similar to the balance theory. The focus of this theory is on changes in the evaluation of a source and a concept that are linked by an associative or dissociative assertion. Congruity exists when the source and concept that are positively associated have exactly the same evaluations and when the source and concept that are negatively associated have exactly the opposite evaluations attached to them. Congruity is a stable state and incongruity is unstable which leads to attitude change and this theory states how much attitudes towards the source and towards the concept change is related to incongruity.

**Affective Cognitive Consistency Theory**: This theory was propounded by Rosenberg in 1960. It is concerned with the consistency between a person’s overall attitude or effect towards an object or issue and his beliefs about its relationship to his more general value. Rosenberg has related attitudes to one aspect of cognitive structure means end relationship between the object or issue and the achievement of desired and undesired value of goals. This theory is also called structural because it is concerned mainly with what happens within the individual when their attitude changes. It proposes that the relationship between affective and cognitive components of the attitude change when an attitude is altered.

This theory postulates that a person’s effect towards or evaluation of the attitude on an object tends to be consistent with his cognitive structural component. When there
is an inconsistency beyond a certain level of tolerance, the individual is motivated to reduce the inconsistency and thereby to change one or both components to make them consistent. The theory thus, suggests that changes in the affective component produce changes in the cognitive component in order to bring about consistency between the two. This theory also suggests that persuasive communication conveys information about how the attitude object or issue furthers the attainment of certain desirable ends or conveys persuasive material that results into a re-evaluation of the goals themselves.

**Cognitive Dissonance Theory**: The cognitive dissonance theory was propounded by Festinger (1957) and has played an important impact on the attitudinal change. This theory may appear similar to the affective-cognitive theory. The difference between the two is that this theory tends to tie in the third component of the attitudes (behavioural tendency) with cognitions about the attitude object. Rather than dealing with only one belief, this theory deals with relationship a person’s ideas have with one other. It states that there are three types of relationships between all cognitions such as: dissonance, consonance and irrelevance. Cognitions are dissonant whenever they are incompatible or if they are opposed to one’s experience about the relationship of events. Cognitions are consonant when one follows from the other on the basis of logic or experience. Cognitions are totally irrelevant when two events are not interrelated. The presence of dissonance gives rise to pressures to reduce or eliminate the dissonance and avoid the further increase of dissonance. Dissonance varies in magnitude. The total amount of dissonance is a function of the proportion of relevant elements that are dissonant with one another relative to the total number of consonant and dissonant elements, each weighted by the importance of the elements for the person. Higher the degree of
dissonance higher would be the attempt to reduce it. Dissonance is reduced through three methods like changing a behavioural cognitive element, changing an environmental element and adding a new cognitive element.

This model can be applied to several situations affecting behaviour of persons. In each behaviour, the person experiences the dissonance when he engages in behaviour contrary to his attitudes. Since magnitude of dissonance is a function of the relative number and importance of elements the amount of justification a person has for engaging in the attitude discrepant behaviour is an important determinant of the amount of dissonance he experiences. Justification adds consonant element to the otherwise dissonant situation.

**Functional Theory**

This theory considers how attitudes and efforts are related to the motivational structure of the individual. This theory focuses on the meaning of the influence situation in terms of both the kind of motive that is aroused and the individual’s method of coping and achieving his goals.

The most prominent person who visualized functional theory was Katz and he suggested four functions of attitudes such as: utilitarian or instrumental function, ego defensive, value orientation and knowledge. It can be seen that there is some similarity in parts of this theory to cognitive dissonance theory. When an attitude serves an adjustive function, one of the two conditions must prevail before it (a) the attitude and the activities related to it and (b) the individual’s level of aspiration. Shifts in the satisfaction which come from behaviours bring changes in attitudes. When new behaviours are inconsistent with attitudes bring satisfaction. These attitudes then must be adjusted. However, Katz’s
functional theory has not stimulated much research except for the work on changing ego-defensive attitudes.

H.C Kelman (1958) has given another view about the functional approach of attitudes. His theory is directed towards the types of social relationships that occur in social influence situations. Kelman has distinguished three processes of attitude formation and change i.e. compliance, identification and internalization. These processes derive functional meaning primarily from their emphasis on the motivational significance of the individual’s relationship to the influencing agent or from the differing types of social integration that they represent. Compliance occurs when an attitude is formed or changed in order to gain a favourable reaction from other person or group. Identification occurs when a person forms or changes his attitudes because this adoption helps him to establish or maintain a positive self-defining relationship with the influencing agent. Internalization involves adopting an attitude because it is congruent with one’s overall value system. This approach makes an important contribution towards an understanding of the conditions that influence the maintenance and stability of attitude change.

**Social Judgement Theory**: The social judgement theory was basically formulated by Sheriff and Hoveland in 1961. This theory attempts to explain how existing attitudes produce distortions of attitudinally related objects and how these judgments mediate attitude change. Accordingly, a person’s own stand on an issue that is initial attitude on the issue provides a point of reference against which he evaluates other opinions. These views can be considered in terms of attitudinal continuum and can be considered as comprising latitudes. The latitudes of acceptance which is the range of opinions the individual find acceptable encompasses the opinion that best characterizes his own stand.
The attitude of rejection which is the range of opinions the individual finds objectionable, encompasses the opinion he finds most objectionable. The attitude of non-commitment is the range of opinion that the person find neither acceptable nor unacceptable.

1.2.3 Factors in Attitude Formation:

The attitudes are learned behaviour. Though there are different approaches as how learning works and is acquired by individuals. Generally it is held that an individual learns things from the environment in which they interact. Thus, for attitude formation, all those factors must be taken into account from which people learn. The factors which influence attitude formation are family, reference groups and social classes.

**Family**: In the case of attitude formation family is playing very significant role whether it may be a nuclear or joint family all together. A newly born child learns behavior firstly from his mother and subsequently from other members of the family through the process of their personal and social interactions. In the entire process of socialization, he/she learns and forms different kinds of attitudes. Gradually, when the child grows up, he comes in contact with others in the family but does not make significant contact with persons outside his family. Thus, family of a child is playing highly significant role in his/her brought up as a whole.

**Reference Groups**: A reference group is any interacting aggregation of people that influences an individual’s attitudes or behaviours. This group may include family or other types of groupings either primary or secondary groups. Reference groups serve important inputs to an individual’s learning of his attitudes and awareness of alternative behaviours and life style. This happens through the process of socialization. Thus, by and large
behavior of an individual is influenced by those forces to whom he/she interacts in their daily life.

**Social Classes**: Social class is another important determinant which influences formation of attitude of an individual greatly. Different social class has to play different roles in transforming cultural and behavioural pattern of an individual. A social class highlights the expectations of society for groups of people and for families within the groups. In this way family transmits/imbibe various cultural expectations to the individual/a child to him or herself. Regardless, social classes also restrict behavior among individuals of different social classes, especially to their close relationships with people of similar classes which tend to restrict attitude formation in similar patterns of other members. In this manner attitude formation and value orientation play an important role in connection with motivation for research and its assessment in the long way.

**Personality Factors**: personality factors play an important role in attitude formation. However, many personality characteristics themselves are determined by group and social factors. Personality differences between individuals are very important concomitant of the discussion of attitudes. Various studies show that there was a coherent pattern of ethnocentric attitudes including anti-semitism among persons having authoritarian personality. Mc Closky (1958) has found a relationship between personality correlates of conservatism and liberalism. A number of research studies conducted in the past have also shown positive relationship between personality variables and particular attitudes. Since personality itself is influenced by various group and social factors as well as heredity factors in understanding attitude formation, these factors, particularly former ones must be analyzed and taken into good consideration in time to come in future.
1.2.4 Attitudinal Change:

The attitudinal change, appropriate to organizational requirement is more important because attitudes affect behavior and only a certain behavior is desirable from organizational point of view. Organizations adopt a number of techniques for changing attitudes of their members so that their behavior corresponds to the organizational requirement. The attitude change techniques can be more effective if three basic factors are considered adequately:

1. The characteristics of attitudes,
2. The personality of attitude holder and
3. The group affiliation of the attitude holder.

These factors have been derived from two sources such as: theory of attitude formation and the factors affecting attitude formation.

1.2.5 Characteristics of Attitudes: Theories of attitude clearly indicates following important attitude characteristics such as: (a) extremeness of the attitude, (b) multiplexity, (c) consistency, (d) interconnectedness, (e) consonance of the attitude cluster of which the focal attitude is a part, (f) the number and strength of the needs which are served by the attitude and (g) centrality of related values. Taking these characteristics of attitudes there may be two types of attitude change such as congruent and incongruent. The congruent change involves an increase in the strength of an existing attitude, either to make a positive attitude even more favourable or to make a negative attitude more strongly. An incongruent change is one in which the direction of change is opposite to the originally held attitude. Comparatively congruent change is easier as compared incongruent in case when the attitude system is interconnected with supporting attitudes.
Another characteristic involved in changeability of attitude is individual’s simplicity. The number of facts involved in the cognition and the number of facts of which it is related make the attitude simple or complex one. The degree of interconnectedness determines the changeability of attitudes. Usually, attitudes which are strongly supported by other attitudes are more resistant to change. Similarly, depending on how many social wants support them and the strength of these wants, the attitudes may be more or less changeable. Attitudes which reflect the core or principal component of an individual’s personality would most likely be very resistant to change.

**Personality of Attitudes Holder**: The personality factors of attitude holder are also important in attitude change in the sense that some persons are more persuable as compared to others. This is so because of personality differences. Such differences change the nature of attitudes because attitudes are subjective qualities. Persuasibility is the tendency of a person to accept a persuasive communication. It commonly refers to a response to a direct influence attempt. Several personality factors suggest different types of persuability. First is level of self-esteem of the person. The more inadequate a person feels and the more social inhibition he has, the more likely he is to be persuasible. Related to the personality factors, there is a style of thinking referred to as close minded or dogmatism. Dogmatism is a form of authoritarianism where is admiration of those in authority and hatred for those opposed to authority. It is a relatively closed system in which the beliefs and disbeliefs are isolated from one another. It tends to be organized around some central authority theme which must be protected at all costs. In dogmatism there is high degree of rejection of opposing beliefs, a relatively low level of
interconnection among beliefs systems and complex cognitions about positively valued objects as against cognitions about negatively valued objects.

In such cases attitude change is often resisted. However, personality factors should not be overemphasized in attitude change because the change makes more sense in the context of total attempt situation.

**Group Affiliation**: Individuals often express their attitudes in terms of group. This is more so in the case of less extreme attitudes. This is so because membership in the group prevents existing attitudes from being disturbed by filtering information. Information likely to cause dissonance or inconsistency is either omitted or perceived according to group norms with some modification or is rejected or considered irrelevant. Though people are not always exposed to information in the concept of group and information which may change their attitudes impinges upon them from many sources even outside the group, their membership still influences the way the information is perceived. This is particularly true of primary groups such as family and friendship group etc.

**1.2.6 Attitude Measurement**:

Attitudes are subjective attributes of people. They can be regarded as constructs in the sense that they are conceptualizations of human qualities that are formed on the basis of either rational consideration or statistical evidence. People may vary along a number of attitudinal dimensions. Attitude measurement developed largely by social psychologists is concerned with efforts to tap these attitudes as they are characteristics of individual. The attitude of people can be measured with a number of psychological devices especially developed by social psychologist in the following manner such as (a) self-report (usually elicited with questionnaires dealing with beliefs, feelings and
behaviours), (b) indirect tests (such as projective techniques and disguised approaches), (c) direct observation techniques and (d) psychological reaction techniques. Measurement of attitudes based on questionnaires uses several scaling methods. There are three types of attitude scaling which are commonly used in attitude measurement such as Thurstone type scale, Likert type scale and Sementic differential scale etc.

Apart from these measures of attitudes, certain other scales have also been developed. These include the Guttman technique, the error-choice method and the sentence completion method.

**1.2.7 Impact of Teacher’s Attitude on Job Satisfaction:**

Indeed, teacher’s attitude is playing very significant role as far as question of level of job satisfaction of a teacher in teaching profession is concerned. Although job satisfaction as an attitude is distinct from motivation which involves behavior. If an individual perceives that his profession is realizing his values and beliefs, if he has reached the ideals in his profession, he will develop positive feelings towards his/her profession and get greater satisfaction from his/her job. Job satisfaction depends on the degree to which the individual’s job role complies with his cultural value system. It is also being affected by his/her needs, emotion and expectations. According to Blum and Nylor, (1968) job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. In a narrow sense, their attitudes are related to the job and are concerned with such specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, opportunities for advancement, recognition of ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on the job, prompt settlement of grievances, social relations on the job and other
items. Professional satisfaction is an issue that begins with the choice of the profession and affects the individual during his entire life (Yalcinkaya, 2000; Koc, 2001).

Attitude to the job can contribute to job satisfaction, because job satisfaction is a general attitude that comprises several attitudes related to various fields. Job attitude is the state of readiness to act according to job-related personal factors towards a particular objective. Job satisfaction and job attitude are identical and show the emotional reaction of the employees towards their existing job roles. However, this approach may not be appropriate because job attitude is one of the factors affecting job satisfaction. Job satisfaction appears as a general attitude formed by several effective attitudes from many areas. Job attitude is the employee’s condition of readiness to act to achieve job related goals determined by job related personal factors.

According to Michalinos and Elena (2004) teachers’ view job dissatisfaction as principally being overloaded, given poor payment and how they are evaluated by society. A lack of participation in decision-making, failure to provide essential instructional resources, deficiency of administrative support and insufficiency of trust among teachers professional expertise seem to increase the degree of teacher dissatisfaction. Most importantly though, teacher dissatisfaction appears to be the main factor behind leaving the profession in many countries. Shan (1998) indicated that the problems related to teacher load and expectations for assuming extra-curricular assignments increase teachers’ dissatisfaction and to push them to leave the profession. Teachers in many other places are not satisfied with the benefits of their jobs. Onyishi (1999) ascertained that teachers were not satisfied with their conditions of service as poor salaries and conditions of service were responsible for dissatisfaction with their jobs. Teachers viewed job
dissatisfaction as principally contributed by perceptions of how teachers are viewed by society (Michalinos and Elena, 2004). According to Aduwa and Raymond (2005) teachers viewed job dissatisfaction as principally contributed by work overload.

A teacher who is happy with his/her job plays a pivotal role in the uplifment of society. A well adjusted and satisfied teacher can contribute a lot to the well-being of his/her pupil. A dissatisfied teacher can became irritable and may create tensions which can have negative influence on the student‟s learning process and consequently affects their academic growth. Thus, the teaching profession demands a clear set of goals, love for profession and obviously the more favourable attitude towards the profession.

1.2.8 Impact of Teacher‟s Attitude on Teaching Profession :

Attitude is an important concept to understand human behavior. It is a tendency of an individual to favour or not to favour some type of object. People‟s attitudes towards their profession have an effect on their performance. This case is also valid for the profession of teaching. Teaching is like planting a tree one should wait for a long time for the trees to finally mature. According to Cook (2002) teacher‟s attitude are extremely important because of the relationship between attitude and action. Teacher attitudes are often translated into specific classroom and instructional practices which in turn affect student’s behavioural and learning outcomes. There has been a general agreement that the attitude of teachers towards teaching is significantly correlated with teaching success. Researchers identifies many factors and situations that influence the development of attitudes in different situations like type of schooling, the parental attitudes and the attitudes of friends, teachers and siblings.
Teachers face several difficulties when they start teaching in a classroom situation. When this happens they start to feel alone and isolated and they feel that they have to do everything by themselves without any kind of support. Such cases could cause a burnout and negative attitude towards the teaching profession. In fact, negative attitudes towards the profession can be cause in any profession. However, especially in teaching attitudes of teachers play a crucial role since negative attitudes can have a negative impact on one’s teaching practice.

There are many reasons why teachers might not hold positive attitudes toward teaching. Classroom pressure causes immediate reactions to students, principals and parents, obligates teachers to do many activities simultaneously and requires teachers to cope with unpredictable environments. (Rimm-Kaufman and Sawyer, 2004). These attitudes toward teaching appear to be transmitted to students. Cheng (1996) indicates that teachers reporting greater professionalism are more likely to have students who report positive attitudes toward peers, schools and learning. Thus, teachers’ attitudes toward teaching have important implications for understanding the classroom environment. According to Bradely (1995) inadequate funding of schools, lack of parent and community support, insufficient salaries are factors related to teachers’ attitude towards the teaching profession. Marchant (1992) added the role of experience to the factors influencing teachers’ attitudes towards their profession. Flores (2001) indicated that the workplace also plays a crucial role in shaping teachers’ attitudes towards teaching especially behaviours of principals and the nature of communication within the school. Teachers having favourable attitude towards their profession are generally successful, properly adjusted and well satisfied with their job.
Secondary education is an important sub-sector of entire educational system because it is the most crucial stage of career. The competent professionally trained and enthusiastic teachers are required to teach at this level. Naturally, a teacher with favourable attitude towards his/her profession would produce a right type of youth while the one with an unfavourable attitude towards the profession would produce lope sided personality. In fact, attitude of a teacher towards teaching profession is playing very potent role in so many respects as mentioned earlier. Keeping in view the significance of teacher’s attitude before eyes, in this study teaching attitude has been taken into good consideration as an important independent variable.

1.3 Adjustment

1.3.1 Conceptual Framework of Adjustment:

Adjustment is a vital problem of the modern world. The present century is characterized by psychological disorder and disturbed interpersonal relationship. Human adjustment is a complex process. The making of desirable adjustments to the various demands of life is influenced by the differing inherited characteristics and varying environmental conditions and situations to which an individual is exposed. The achievement of desirable life adjustment depends upon the recognition of the significance of inherited potential and environmental conditions as these affect his/her way of life. Adjustment is a kind of interaction between the individual and his/her environment for the sake of bringing harmony between them. Adjustment is a dynamic and continuous life long process. A well-adjusted person manifests certain behavioural characteristics; he/she has the capacity to conform to the norms of the society. He/she expresses confidence in him and in others. He/she shows strong sense of security and responsibility. He/she ably
satisfies his emotional needs as well as of others. He/she has well defined goals in his/her life and a set of values. He/she is well adapted to reality and time.

Adjustment is a continuous process that tends to bring out more or less changing attitudes throughout the individual’s life. Some adjustment connotes happiness and freedom from personal problems. While for others, it means an unhappy conformity to group demands and expectations. Adjustment is a lifelong process and can be defined as a person’s interaction with his environment. It is a process in which an individual learns certain ways of behavior through which he enters a relationship of harmony or equilibrium with his environment. He thereby tries to lead a life acceptable to society (Mohan and Singh, 1989).

Initially the concept of adjustment was biological in its nature and was termed as adaptation. The term adaptation has been replaced by ‘adjustment’ which now stands for psychological survival in which psychologists are more interested i.e. the subject of their interest is individual’s adjustment to social or inter-personal pressure and not only adaptations to physical world (Lazarus, 1961).

1.3.2 Meaning of Adjustment:

The psychological meaning of adjustment can be discussed in terms of needs. Internally these needs have to do with homeostasis and externally there is the need of avoiding pain and other negative influences. These needs may be satisfied by interaction with environment. The term adjustment has been defined differently by different thinkers in their own respective ways. According to Warren (1934) “Adjustment relates to any operation an organism organ becomes more favorably related to the environment and the entire outrun environmental and internal.” According to James Drever (1952)
“Adjustment means the modification or compensation to meet special conditions.”

According to Crow and Crow (1956) an individual wholesome or to the extent that he has established relationship between himself and the conditions, situation and persons who compose his physical and social environment. Carter V Good (1959) viewed “Adjustment is the process of finding and adopting modes of behavior suitable to the environment or change in the environment.” Coleman (1960) suggested three criteria for effective adjustment: (i) the behavior of the individual meets the objective requirements of the situation, (ii) an individual’s behavior satisfies his overall needs and (iii) the behavior of the individual is compatible with the welfare of the group. Mathews (1960) asserted that a successful adjustment consist of man’s freedom “to join his fellow man in a loving, creative and productive way”. According to Shaffer (1961) “Adjustment is a process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its need and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these need.” Haas (1965) defines adjustment as “the ability to get along with others”. This is based upon having the necessary skills to fit ourselves in with others and respond as desired by those with whom we associate. Boring (1966) viewed adjustment “as a process by which living organism maintains balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of needs”. According to Lazarus (1976) “Adjustment consists of psychological process by means of which the individual manages to cope with various demands and pressures of life.” Symonds (1978) stated that “the psychological meaning of adjustment process consists of the efforts of an organism to overcome frustration in achieving satisfaction of a need”. Adjustment is the establishment of a satisfactory relationship, a representing harmony, conformance and adaptation etc. Thus, adjustment is a process by which the individual responds to certain
aspects of life. A well-adjusted person feels secure in his understanding of ability to bring his inter-relation with those attitudes that are conductive to effective living.

Adjustment and all its meanings implies a satisfactory adaptation to the demands of day-to-day life. From the foregoing discussion it may be concluded that adjustment is a process that helps a person to lead a happy and contented life while maintaining a balance between his needs and his capacity to fulfill them. It enables him to change his ways of life according to the demands of the situation and gives him the strength and ability to bring about the necessary changes in the conditions of his environment. In addition to his own basic needs an individual is also subject to certain demands of society. If he thinks only in terms of satisfying his own needs without thought of the norms, ethics and cultural traditions of society, he will not be adjusted to his environment. Adjustment does not cater only to one’s own demands but also to the demands of society. It may therefore, be stated that in its comprehensive connotation, adjustment is a condition or state in which the individual’s behavior conforms to the demands of the culture or society in which he belongs and he feels that his own needs have been, or will be fulfilled.

1.3.3 What is Good Adjustment?

In the light of above said definitions, question arises here and strikes our mind that what is good adjustment and who is a well adjusted person? In order to answer this question we can say that a well adjusted person is one whose responses are mature, efficient, satisfying and healthy. In contrast, an emotionally disturbed person is inefficient in completing the tasks that a well-adjusted person will complete within its proper stipulated time. The term healthy implies that the response is wholesome, that is, best
suited to man’s nature, to his relations with others and to his responsibilities. Wholesomeness is an important characteristic feature of a good adjustment. Adjustment is relative in character since there are no such things as a perfectly adjusted person. It must be evaluated in terms of a person’s capacity to change and to cope with demands that are encountered and these capacities vary with personality and with the level of development. Anderson stated that “Good adjustment cannot be defined once and for all in any simple fashion. It must be defined in terms of meeting the problem appropriate to the level of development good adjustment. He also viewed in this way that growing up is a process of meeting stresses, strains and thus building the capacity to meet the problems”.

Adjustment is relative also because it varies to some extent with social and cultural norms and because of individual variations in behavior. Even a well-adjusted person sometimes find himself with problems beyond the scope of his adjustive ability. In this way a good adjustment is not necessarily pervasive.

1.3.4 Characteristics of a Well-Adjusted Person:

A well-adjusted person is supposed to possess the following characteristics such as:

Awareness of his own strengths and limitations: A well adjusted person is having complete awareness regarding his own strengths and weaknesses. He tries to make capital out of his assets in some areas by accepting his limitations in others.

Respecting himself and others: The dislike for one-self is a typical symptom of maladjustment. A well adjusted individual has respect for himself as well as for others.

An adequate level of aspiration: A well adjusted person is having an adequate level of aspiration. He is neither too low nor too high in terms of his own strengths and abilities. He does not try to
reach for the stars and also does not repent over selecting an easier course for his advancement. *Satisfaction of basic needs*: His basic, organic, emotional and social needs are fully satisfied or in the process of being satisfied. He does not suffer from emotional cravings and social isolation. He feels reasonably secure and maintains his self-esteem. *Absence of a critical or fault-finding attitude*: He appreciates the goodness in objects, persons or activities. He does not try to look for weaknesses and faults. His observation is scientific rather than critical or punitive. He likes people, admires their good qualities and wins their affection. *Flexibility in behavior*: He is not rigid in his attitude or way of life. He can easily accommodate or adapt himself to change the circumstances by making necessary changes in his behavior. He has capacity to deal with adverse circumstances. He is not easily overwhelmed by adverse circumstances and has the will and courage to resist and fight odds. He has an inherent drive to master his environment, rather than to passively accept it. *He has a realistic perception of the world*: He holds a realistic vision and is not given to flights of fancy. He always plans, thinks and acts pragmatically. He has a complete awareness about his surroundings. A well-adjusted individual feels satisfied with his surroundings. He has maximum adjustment with their own family members, school friends or intimates, neighborhood and others. When he enters a profession, he has a love for it and maintains his zeal and enthusiasm despite all odds. *Balanced philosophy of life*: A well-adjusted person has a philosophy which gives direction to his life while keeping in view the demands of changed situations and circumstances. This philosophy is centered around the demands of his society, culture, and his own self so, he does not clash with his environment or with himself.
1.3.5 Models of Adjustment:

Why do some people adjust to their environment and others do not? What are the factors that make an individual adjusted or maladjusted? There are several theories and models describing the pattern of adjustment for answering such questions. These important models are mentioned below in detail:

The Moral Model: This model represents the oldest view-point about adjustment or maladjustment. According to this view, adjustment or maladjustment should be judged in terms of morality norms of expected behavior. Those who follow the norms are adjusted (virtuous or good people) and those who violate or do not follow these norms are maladjusted (sinners). Evil supernatural forces like demons, devils etc, were blamed for making one indulge in behavior against the norms (committing sins) while the religious gods, goddess and other saintly great souls were responsible for making one a happy, healthy, prosperous and pious person (adjusted in the modern sense). However, as the medical and biological sciences advanced with passage of time and at the same time scientific reasoning gained a firm footing in the nineteenth century. The moral model was replaced by the medico-biological model.

Medico-Biological Model: This model holds genetic, physiological and biochemical factors responsible for a person being adjusted or maladjusted to his self and his environment. According to this model maladjustment is the result of disease in the tissues of the body especially in the brain. Such disease can be the result of heredity or damage acquired during the course of a person’s life by injury, infection or hormonal disruption arising from stress among other things. Some other researchers viewed that the correction of adjustive failures or disorders requires correction of the tissue defect through physical
therapies such as drugs and surgery. This model is still extant and enjoys credibility for rooting out the causes of adjustive failure in terms of genetic influences, biochemical defect hypotheses and disease in the tissues of the body. However, it is not correct to assign physiological or organic causes to all maladapted and malfunctioning behavior especially when there is no evidence of physiological malfunction such a situation.

**The Psychoanalytic Model:** This model owes its origin to the theory of psychoanalysis propagated by Sigman Freud (1938) and supported by other Neo-Freudian psychologists known as Adler and Jung.

Freud viewed the human psyche (mind) consists of three layers such as: the conscious, the sub-conscious and the unconscious. The unconscious holds the key to our behavior. It decides the individual’s adjustment and maladjustment to his self and to his environment. It contains all the repressed wishes, desires, feelings, drives and motives many of which are related to sex and aggression. One is adjusted or maladjusted to the degree, extent or the ways in which these are kept dormant or under control. According to Freud, man is a pleasure seeking animal by nature. He wants to seek pleasure and avoids pain or anything which is not in keeping with his pleasure loving nature, the social restrictions imposed by the members of society and his own moral standards dictated by his superego come in conflict with the undesignated and unbridled desires of his basic pleasure seeking nature. These pleasures are mostly sexual in nature. One remains adjusted to the extent that these are satisfied. An individual drifts towards malfunctioning of behavior and maladjustment in case such satisfaction is threatened or denied. Freud postulated the imaginary concepts of ‘id’, ‘ego’ and ‘superego’ for the adjustive and non-adjustive behavior patterns and formulated the following conclusion: A person’s behavior
remains normal and in harmony with his self and his environment to the extent that his ego is able to maintain the balance between the evil desires of his id and the moral ethical standard dictated by his superego. In case the ego is not enough to exercise proper casual over one’s id and superego, malfunction of behavior would result. Two different situations could then arise: (i) If the superego dominates then there is no acceptable outlet for expression of the repressed wishes, impulses and appetites of the id. Such a situation may give birth to neurotic tendencies in the individual and (ii) if the id dominates then the individual pursues his unbridled pleasure seeking impulses, without care for the social and moral norms. In such a situation the individual may be seen to be engaged in unlawful or immoral activities resulting in maladaptive or delinquent behavior. Freud also uses the concept of libido, i.e. a flow of energy related to sex gratification. He equates it with a flowing river and maintains that if its flow is outward causing sex gratification and pleasurable sensation from outside objects, the individual remains quite normal and adjusted to his self and the environment.

1.3.6 Teachers’ Adjustment and Problems:

Teacher is a role model in the life of a nation. For many reasons he has a unique place in the society. He is very intimately involved in the lives of people of the community so as to improve their economic, political, social and cultural life. No other person than a teacher is so intimately involved in this task. Therefore, the adjustment or maladjustment of a teacher costs more deepening effect on the community and the nation than any other member of any other profession. Behavioral adjustment problems in schools have lately become a significant concern for teachers, parents, psychologists and society. In general, due to the negative consequences these behaviors have for the
teaching-learning process, the psychological adjustment of aggressors and victims as well as quality of social interactions in educational settings (Estevez, Musitu, and Herrero, 2005; Smith and Brain, 2000). A satisfactory adjustment is essential in the job of a teacher. The teacher must know how to be free from maladjustment like aggression, pressures and their personal problems. The advancement in the field of education is possible and depends upon the degree of adjustment and satisfaction of those people who are in the field of education and promote the cause of education. Higher level of adjustment of a teacher causes high level efficacy in his work or profession. Behavioral adjustment problems in schools are becoming matters of increasing concern among professionals of education and psychology side by side. Blair et al. (1962) are of very firmed opinion that “well-adjusted teachers are playing very significant role in connection with classroom discipline, growth of the organization and culture of the school itself”.

The quality of work life of a teacher is affected favourably when he/she is well adjusted. On the other hand maladjustment results in mental tension and unrest. It is reflected in teacher missing his class, misbehaving with the students and their parents, with their colleagues, affairs, shirking from duties, complaining about the work condition, work-load and misleading the students and spoiling their future. His work suffers qualitatively and quantitatively both. Thus, it is quite clear that the friendly, enthusiastic, secure and well adjusted teacher contribute much to the well-being of his pupils. The irritable, depressed, hostile, tired and neurotic teacher may create tensions which may disturb pupils and may leave permanent adverse effect on the outlook and demanding effect on life.
1.3.7 Factors Affecting Adjustment/Maladjustment of the Teacher:

Basically a teacher is also a human being and thus, faces many problems. Like other members of the society he has to be adjusted to a considerable extent in relation to his different needs such as physical, social and emotional. When there are various needs competing with each other there is conflict and when he is not able to satisfy his need he may become frustrated, inhibited and unbalanced and may feel defeated and discouraged. A teacher like other individuals must be reasonably satisfied with himself and with his environment.

The roles played by environmental factors are somewhat different in case of the teachers. The adjustment problems and difficulties faced by the teachers are not the same as that of other individuals. Shaffer (1961) says “In addition to the more general causes of maladjustment, the teaching profession provides some special situations that make it hard for a teacher to remain well-balanced”.

The status of any school is largely determined by the effective teaching or the way the teacher works. It is the teacher who provides inspiration, direction and the meaning to all the activities of the school. If the teacher does not perform his/her duty conscientiously or work effectively then the whole school climate or status would collapse. Hence the place of teacher in the school system is of paramount importance. In our country, the teacher in the school neither gets good salary nor has sufficient power. Thus, teachers’ adjustment in their respective school is an important independent variable in this regard.
1.4 Job Satisfaction

1.4.1 Conceptual Framework of Job Satisfaction:

One of the biggest preludes to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies (1924-1933). These studies primarily credited to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School, sought to find the effects of various conditions (most notably illumination) on workers’ productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase productivity (called the Hawthorne Effect). It was later found that this increase resulted not from the new conditions but from the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay which paved the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction.

Scientific management also had a significant impact on the study of job satisfaction. Frederick Winslow Taylor’s (1911) book, Principles of Scientific Management, argued that there was a single best way to perform any given work/task. This book contributed to a change in industrial production philosophies causing a shift from skilled labor and piecework towards the more modern approach of assembly lines and hourly wages. The initial use of scientific management by industries greatly increased productivity because workers were forced to work at a faster pace. However, workers became exhausted and dissatisfied. Thus, leaving researchers with new questions to answer regarding job satisfaction. Some argued that Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs and other motivational theory has laid the foundation for job satisfaction theory. This theory explains that people seek to satisfy five specific needs in life like physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs and self-actualization.
This model served as a good basis from which early researchers could develop job satisfaction theories. Job satisfaction can also be seen within the broader context of the range of issues which affect an individual's experience of work or their quality of working life. Job satisfaction can be understood in terms of its relationships with other key factors, such as general well-being, stress at work, control at work, home-work interface and working conditions.

The term “job satisfaction” was brought to lime light in the research literature by Hoppock in 1935. He reviewed numerous studies on job satisfaction conducted prior to 1933 and found that job satisfaction is a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person to say, “I am satisfied with my job”. Such kind of descriptions indicate a variety of variables that influence the satisfaction of the individuals but it does not give more clear view about the nature of job satisfaction at the stretch.

1.4.2 Meaning of Job Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction is an important phenomenon in the field of organizational behavior. A large number of social scientists have endeavored to understand this aspect of work life. Which is one of the prime factors related to work performance? In the ultimate analysis, job satisfaction is linked up with the question of meaningfulness of existence of man not only on the job but in the organization for which he is working. Additional factors such as employee’s age, health, temperament, desires and level of aspiration are also important. Further, his/her family relationships, social status, recreational outlets, activity in organization like workers, political or social contribution ultimately pay to job satisfaction. Thus, job satisfaction is a general attitude which is the
result of many specific attitudes in three areas namely, specific job factor, individual characteristic and group relationship outside job. While reviewing the literature on job satisfaction, it is observed that the term job satisfaction has been used differently by different thinkers. Milton (1956) used term like “morale”, “motivation” and job satisfaction interchangeably in different studies.

According to Blum (1956) “Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is the various attitudes the person holds towards his or her job related factors and towards life in general”. Beers (1964) defines job satisfaction as “the attitude of workers towards the company, their job, their fellow workers and other psychological objects in the work environment.” Glimmer (1966) viewed that “job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is the result of various attitudes the person holds towards his/her job, towards related factors and life in general”. Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as a “pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values”. Both satisfaction and dissatisfaction were seen as a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one’s job and what one’s perceives it as entailing. Smith (1969) defined job satisfaction as “presented feelings toward discriminable aspects of the job situation” and further explained that discriminable aspects refer to the work itself, pay, promotional opportunities, supervisors and co-workers. According to Sinha and Aggarwal (1971) job satisfaction is a persistent affective state which has arisen in the individual as a function in relation to his frame of reference. Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975) define job satisfaction as a “feeling about a job that is determined by the difference between all those things a person feels he should receive from his job and all those things he actually does received”. According to
Kovack (1977) job satisfaction is a component of organizational commitment. (Graham, 1982) define job satisfaction is “the measurement of one’s total feelings and attitudes towards one’s job.” According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985) job satisfaction, is an association of attitudes held by an organization. Paul Spector (1985) defined job satisfaction as a cluster of evaluative feelings about the job. Farrugia (1986) demonstrated that teacher’s experience job satisfaction as a result of teaching a group of pupils or standard they feel comfortable with, appreciation expressed by parents, authority and pupils, passing on knowledge and values to others, teaching their favourite subjects, working with colleagues and exercising autonomy. According to Neuman, Reichel and Saad (1998) job satisfaction among teachers can be expressed as their willingness and preparedness to stay in the teaching profession irrespective of the discomfort and the desire to leave teaching for a better job. Isen and Baron (1991) summarise “as an attitude, job satisfaction involves several basic components: specific beliefs about one’s job, behaviour tendencies (intentions) with respect to it and feelings about it. According to Reddy and Rajasekhar (1991) job satisfaction is a general attitude which is the result of many specific attitudes. The amount of satisfaction derived from one’s present job is an indicator of one’s job satisfaction. According to Jyarante (1993) job satisfaction is generally considered to be an affective state. Camp (1994) defined job satisfaction with reference to the needs and values of individuals and the extent to which these needs and values are satisfied in the workplace. Spector (1997) and Stamps (1997) perceived job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable measuring the degree to which employees like their jobs and the various aspects of their jobs. Balzer et al. (1997) define job satisfaction as “the feelings a worker has about his or her job or job experiences in
relation to previous experiences, current expectations or a variable alternatives”. According to Berry (1997) job satisfaction is derived as “an individual’s reaction to the job experience”. Robbins (1998) surmise that job satisfaction is based on “the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive”. According to Shan (1998) teacher job satisfaction is a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment and in turn a contributor to school effectiveness. According to Chelladurai, (1999) “job satisfaction is an attitude people have about their jobs”. Buitendach and de Witte (2005) proffer the view that job satisfaction relates to an individual’s perceptions and evaluations of a job and this perception is in turn influenced expectations. Individuals therefore, evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors which they regard as being important to them. Essentially, job satisfaction is a person’s attitude toward the job. Like any other attitude, it represents a complex assemblage of cognition (beliefs or knowledge), emotions (feelings or evaluations) and behavioral tendencies. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds very positive attitudes about the workplace and conversely a person dissatisfied with the job embraces negative attitudes toward the job environment.

1.4.3 Dimensions of Job Satisfaction:

The idea of a job satisfaction is very complicated (McCormick and Ilgen, 1985). Locke (1976) presented a summary of dimensions that have been established to contribute significantly to employee’s job satisfaction. The particular dimensions represent characteristics associated with job satisfaction. The dimensions are work itself, pay, promotions, recognition, working conditions, benefits, supervision and co-workers. This is postulated to influence employees’ opinion of “how interesting the work is, how
routine, how well they are doing and in general, how much they enjoy doing it” (McCormick and Ilgen, 1985).

The Work Itself: The nature of the performance by employees has a significant impact on their level of job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead and Griffen, 1992). According to Luthans (1992) employees derive satisfaction from work that is interesting and challenging and a job that provides them with status. Landy (1989) advocates that work is personally interesting to employees are likely to contribute to job satisfaction. Similarly, research suggests that task variety may facilitate job satisfaction, (Eby, Freeman, Rush and Lance, 1999). This is based on the view that skill variety has strong effects on job satisfaction implying that the greater the variety of skills that employees are able to utilize in their jobs the higher their level of satisfaction (Ting, 1997).

Sharma and Bhaskar (1991) postulated that the single most important influence on a person’s job satisfaction experience comes from the nature of the work assigned to him/her by the organization. They purport that if the job entails adequate variety, challenge, discretion and scope for using one’s own abilities and skills, the employee doing the job is likely to experience job satisfaction. Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe’s et al (2000) research involving 37 employees and their supervisors found that desirable job characteristics increased work satisfaction. Using a sample of medical technologists, Blau (1994) concluded that increased task responsibilities are top overall job satisfaction. Similarly, Culpin and Wright (2002) found in their study of job satisfaction amongst expatriate women managers, that they enjoyed the expansion of their job responsibilities. These women’s job satisfaction increased as they saw the significant impact of their job
on their employees. Reiskin and Padavic (1994) claim that “workers value authority in its own right and having authority increases workers job satisfaction”.

Aamodt (1999) posits the view that job satisfaction is influenced by opportunities for challenge and growth as well as by the opportunity to accept responsibility. Mentally challenging work that the individual can successfully accomplish is satisfying and that employees prefer jobs that provide them with opportunities to use their skills and abilities that offer a variety of tasks, freedom and feedback regarding performance is valued by most employees (Larwood, 1984; Luthans, 1992; Robbins, 1998, Tziner and Latham, 1989). According to Robbins (1998) “under conditions of moderate challenge, most employees will experience pleasure and satisfaction”.

**Pay:** Pay refers to the amount of financial compensation that an individual receives as well as the extent to which such compensation is perceived to be equitable. Remuneration and earnings are a cognitively complex and multi-dimensional factor in job satisfaction. According to Luthans (1998) salaries not only assist people to attain their basic needs but also instrumental in satisfying the higher level needs of people. In their study of public sectors managers, Taylor and West (1992) found that pay levels affect job satisfaction, reporting that those public employees that compared their salaries with those of private sector employees experienced lower levels of job satisfaction. According to Boone and Kuntz (1992) offering employees fair and reasonable compensation relates to the input the employee offers the organization and should be the main objective of any compensation system. The category of compensation includes as medical aid schemes, pension schemes, bonuses, paid leave and travel allowances etc.
Lambert, Hogan, Barton and Lubbock (2001) found that financial rewards have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Such findings are largely consistent with the idea that most employees are socialized in a society where money, benefits and security are generally sought after and are often used to gauge the importance or the worth of a person. Thus, the greater the financial reward the less worry employees have concerning their financial state, thereby enhancing their impression of their self-worth to the organization.

Groot and Maassen van den Brink (1999; 2000) provide contradictory evidence for the relationship between pay and job satisfaction. In their earlier research they did not find evidence for a relationship between compensation and job satisfaction, however, their subsequent research revealed the opposite. Hamermesh (2001) found that changes in compensation (increases or decreases) have good impact on level of job satisfaction of employees in the organization.

A number of researchers are also opinion that the key in linking pay to satisfaction is not the absolute amount that is paid but rather, the perception of fairness (Aamodt, 1999; Landy, 1989; Robbins, 1998). According to Robbins et al. (2003) employees seek pay systems that are perceived as just unambiguous and in line with their expectations. He was also with the opinion that when pay is perceived by employees of the organization equitable and just then, it may have good impact on achievement of employees. Gunter and Furnham (1996) found employee perceptions concerning the equity with which the organization rewards its employees to be better predictors of job satisfaction than is the case with gender, age, or actual salary. Similarly, Miceli, Jung, Near and Greenberger (1991) cited in Hendrix, Robbins, Miller and Summers (1998)
validated a causal pathway leading from fairness of the pay system to improved job satisfaction. Sousa-Poza’s (2000) research indicated that perceived income that is, whether the respondent considered his income high or not was found to have the third largest effect on the job satisfaction of male employees of the organization.

**Supervision**: A sizeable number of studies conducted earlier in the literature clearly shows that the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship will have a contributory influence on the employee’s overall level of job satisfaction (Aamodt, 1999; Kinicki and Vecchio, 1994; Luthans, 1992; Moorhead and Griffen, 1992; Robbins, 1998).

Research appears to be equivocal since most research indicates that individuals are likely to have high levels of job satisfaction if supervisors provide them with support and co-operation in completing their tasks (Ting, 1997). Similar results were reported by Billingsley and Cross (1992) as well as Cramer (1993). These researchers generally hold that dissatisfaction with management supervision is a significant predictor of job dissatisfaction. The above findings are corroborated by Staudt’s (1997) research based on social workers in whom it was found that respondents who reported satisfaction with supervision were also more likely to be satisfied with their jobs in general. Chieffo (1991) viewed that supervisors who allow their employees to participate actively in their decision making may also have good impact on their level of job satisfaction. Following researchers (Knoll, 1987; Pfeiffer and Dunlap, 1982; Rettig, 2000) have written extensively about the importance of supervision in schools. Their research indicates that supervisory activities foster motivation, inspiration and trust help to improve teaching performance. Research indicates that principals play a vital role in the care for the personal welfare and emotional support of teachers. Isherwood (1973) found that
principals that demonstrated excellent human relations skills heightened teachers loyalty and improved teacher satisfaction, while the lack in participatory management, lack of sensitivity to school and teacher-related problems and lack of support was reliably associated with teacher stress and burnout (Jackson, Schwab, and Schuler, 1986).

Morris (2004) postulated that teachers’ job satisfaction is affected by the work environment and strong principal leadership. Corroborating this, he further believed that the quality of teacher-administrator relationship generates higher level of teachers’ job satisfaction, and greater level teachers’ participation in decision making contributes to job satisfaction (Mohrman, Cook and Mohrman, 1978). Conversely, lack of participation in decision making is advocated to be the greatest sources of teachers’ dissatisfaction (Holdaway, 1978).

Abbey and Esposito (1985) reported that teachers who perceive greater social support from their respective principal’s perceive less stress than those who do not receive any social support from their respective principal. Setting up shared decision making processes in schools, such as governance councils allows teachers to participate in school processes rather than feel subordinate to their principals and coerced into participating in school and teacher responsibilities.

Promotion: An employee’s opportunities for promotion are also likely to exert an influence on job satisfaction (Landy, 1989; Larwood, 1984; Moorhead and Griffen, 1992; Vecchio, 1988). Robbins (1998) maintained that promotions provide opportunities for personal growth, increased responsibility and increased social status. Drafke and Kossen (2002) postulated that many people experience satisfaction when they believe that their future prospects are good. This may translate into opportunities for advancement and
growth in their current workplace or enhance the chance of finding alternative employment. They maintain that if people feel they have limited opportunities for career advancement their job satisfaction may decrease. According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985) employees’ satisfaction with promotional opportunities will depend on a number of factors, including the probability that employees will be promoted as well as the basis and the fairness of such promotions. Visser (1990) indicates that such an individual’s standard for promotion is contingent on personal and career aspirations. Moreover, not all employees wish to be promoted. The reason therefore, is related to the fact that promotion entails greater responsibility and tasks of a more complex nature, for which the individuals may consider themselves unprepared. If employees perceive the promotion policy as unfair but do not desire to be promoted, they may still be satisfied.

Nonetheless, opportunities for promotion appear to have a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction (Tolbert and Moen, 1998). In a study by Jayaratne and Chess (1984 cited in Staudt, 1997) the opportunity for promotion was found to be the best and only common predictor of job satisfaction in child welfare, community mental health and family services agencies. Luthans (1992) further, believed that promotions may take a variety of different forms and are generally accompanied by different rewards. Promotional opportunities therefore, have differential effects on job satisfaction and it is essential that this be taken into account in cases where promotional policies are designed to enhance employee satisfaction.

**Work Group**: There is empirical evidence that co-worker relations are an antecedent of job satisfaction (Morrison, 2004). Mowday and Sutton (1993) suggested that job satisfaction is related to employees’ opportunities for interaction with others on the job.
An individual’s level of job satisfaction might be a function of personal characteristics and the characteristics of the group to which he or she belongs. The social context of work is also likely to have a significant impact on a worker’s attitude and behavior (Marks, 1994). Relationships with both co-workers and supervisors are important. Some studies have shown that better the relationship greater the level of job satisfaction (Wharton and Baron, 1991). According to Hodson (1997) such social relations constitute an important part of the “social climate” within the workplace and provide a setting within which employees can experience meaning and identity. Luthans (1998) postulated that work groups characterized by co-operation and understanding amongst their members tend to influence the level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. When cohesion is evident within a work group it usually leads to effectiveness within a group and the job becoming more enjoyable. However, if the opposite situation exists and colleagues are difficult to work with, this may have a negative impact on job satisfaction.

Riordan and Griffeth (1995) examined the impact of friendship on workplace outcomes. Their results indicated that friendship opportunities were associated with increased in job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment, and with a significant decrease in intention to turnover. Luthans (1992) however, contends that satisfactory co-worker relations are not essential to job satisfaction but that in the presence of extremely strained relationships job satisfaction is more than likely to suffer. Nevertheless, the growing body of literature on the subject seems to indicate that co-worker relations are taking on an ever-increasing role not just in the realms of productivity but also in determining the experience of work and its meaning (Hodson, 1997).
Hillebrand (1989) found that the greatest need of educators centered around interpersonal needs. He believed that healthy relationships with colleagues and school principals increase educational concerns and goal attainment. These findings strengthen the argument that organizations should engage in the integration of employees so as to create group cohesion among employees and departments within the organization (Lambert et al., 2001).

**Working Conditions:** Working conditions is another factor that has a moderate impact on the employee’s level of job satisfaction (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead and Griffen, 1992). According to Luthans (1998) if people work in a clean and friendly environment they will find it easier to come to work. If the opposite happen, they will find it difficult to accomplish tasks.

Vorster (1992) viewed that working conditions are only likely to have a significant impact on job satisfaction for example, when the working conditions are either extremely good or extremely poor. Moreover, employee complaints regarding working conditions are frequently related to manifestations of underlying problems (Luthans, 1992; Visser, 1990; Vorster, 1992). Teachers’ workload, changes in the education system and a lack of discipline amongst some of the learners may be some of the reasons why teachers want to exit the profession. The working environment of teachers also determines the attitude and behavior of teachers towards their work (Bishay, 1996).

Bishay (1996) indicates that research has shown that improvement in teacher motivation has a positive effect on both teachers and learners. Moreover, within the teaching profession for example, there are different working conditions based on the past allocation of resources to schools. In disadvantaged schools, working conditions are often
not conducive to teaching and learning (Mwamwenda, 1995; Ngidi and Sibaya, 2002; Steyn and van Wyk, 1999) which may have negative bearing on their level of job satisfaction.

1.4.4 Personal Determinants of Job Satisfaction:

There are some important personal determinants of job satisfaction, which are given below in detail:

**Job Satisfaction and Age**: Research appears to be equivocal and has consistently found age to exert an influence on job satisfaction (Chambers, 1999; Cramer, 1993; Robbins, 2001; Staw, 1995; Tolbert and Moen, 1998). Earlier research conducted indicates that older employees tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Billingsley and Cross, 1992; Cramer, 1993; Jones Johnson and Johnson, 2000; Larwood, 1984; Loscocco, 1990; Saal and Knight, 1988). This difference may be attributed to better adjustment at work, better conditions and greater rewards at work (Birdi, Warr and Oswald, 1995). Blood et al. (2002) viewed that older respondents were more likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction than younger respondents. These results are consistent with numerous studies related to school personnel, health care and business workers and indicate that older workers are more satisfied than younger workers with their jobs (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2000; Begley and Czajka, 1993; Brush, Moch and Pooyan, 1987; Hodson, 1996; Lowther, Gill and Coppard, 1985; Schabracq, Winnubst and Cooper, 1998; Spector, 1996, all cited in Blood et al., 2002). Similarly, Siu, Spector, Cooper and Donald (2001) also found that age was positively related to job satisfaction and mental well-being in a sample of managers. Blood et al. (2002) viewed that job satisfaction increases along with age and work experience. Older workers are more
comfortable and tolerant of authority and may learn to lower expectations for their jobs (Spector, 1996). Brush et al. (1987 in Blood et al., 2002) postulate that older workers may have jobs that use their skills, better working under better job conditions, benefit from advancements, promotions and appreciate fringe benefits more than younger or less experienced workers. Based on a review of literature on age, Rhodes (1983) concluded that overall job satisfaction is related to age. Older workers appear to evince greater satisfaction with their employment than younger workers. However, this relationship is not clear. While many researchers suggest a linear relationship in this regard (Weiner, 1980; Mottaz, 1988). While other studies report a U shaped relationship (Kacmar, Carlson and Brymer 1989; Staw, 1995). Clark (1996) ascribes this to the fact that younger employees may feel satisfied because they have little experience about the labour market against which to judge their own work. Alternatively, older employees may have reduced aspirations as they realize that they face limited alternative choices as they get older.

**Job Satisfaction and Gender**: The literature with respect to the relationship between gender and job satisfaction is inconsistent. Some studies reported that women have higher job satisfaction, whereas other studies find that men are more satisfied yet other studies find no significant difference between the genders (Mortimer, Finch and Maruyama, 1988). Souza-Poza (2003) found that women’s satisfaction has declined substantially in the past decade, whereas men’s job satisfaction has remained fairly constant. According to Coward et al. (1995) cited in Jinnett and Alexander (1999) female employees demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts across most
work settings. A number of studies involving several different populations support this argument (Lambert et al., 2001; Loscocco, 1990; Ma X and Macmillan, 1999).

However, an interesting research conducted by Al-Mashaan (2003) indicated that male employees in comparison to female employees reported a little bit higher level of job satisfaction. Miller and Wheeler (1992 cited in Lim, Teo and Thayer, 1998) beliefs that women are inclined to be less satisfied in their jobs since they tend to hold positions at lower levels in the organizational hierarchy where pay and promotion prospects are less attractive. Numerous studies across a variety of occupational settings have, however, found no significant gender differences in job satisfaction despite the fact that women on average have inferior jobs in terms of pay, status, level of authority and opportunities for promotion (Hull, 1999; Jones Johnson and Johnson, 2000; Rout, 1999).

Various theories have emerged to account for what has often been referred to as the paradox of the contented working woman (Tolbert and Moen, 1998). One of the most popular explanations is that men and women attach values to different aspects of the job. In addition to placing greater emphasis on co-worker relations, women are also more inclined to assign priority to work that provides them with a sense of accomplishment (Tolbert and Moen, 1998). Furthermore, women may compare themselves only with other women or with women who stay at home rather than with all other employees (Hull, 1999).

**Job Satisfaction and Occupational Level**: Butler and Ehrlich (1991) examined the proposition that the organizational position held by a job incumbent influence their attitude, job satisfaction and performance. They found that position largely determines the job demands and characteristics of the work environment experienced by workers.
Rousseau (1978) concludes “job satisfaction appears to link responses to positional characteristics.” In other words, the effect of organizational position on an employee’s attitudes and behaviour appears entirely attributable to the characteristics of the job he or she performs.

Gazioglu and Tanzel (2002) found that managers, professionals and clerical employees were more satisfied with the influence of their job, although this was less apparent in clerical grade staff with the sense of achievement and with the respect they got from their supervisors as compared to sales employees. However, they were less satisfied with the amount of their pay as compared to the sales employees. Clark (1996) also found that those employees who are at the higher end of the occupational scale reported higher level job satisfaction with various aspects of their work, but were less satisfied with their pay scale.

Burke (1996) found that men and women both at more senior levels in an organization reported higher levels of job satisfaction in relation to administrative, clerical and secretarial staff. Several other researchers have also found support for a positive association between job level and satisfaction. Results from a study by Robie et al. (1998) revealed a consistent and significant positive relationship between these two variables.

Robie et al. (1998) affirmed that the positive correlation between rank and job satisfaction may be attributed to the fact that higher-level jobs tend to be more complex and have better working conditions, pay, promotion prospects, supervision, autonomy and responsibility etc. Vorster (1992) presented a similar argument in this regard. The evidence from the literature seems to suggest, therefore, that job level is a reliable
predictor of job satisfaction with employees at higher ranks being generally more satisfied with their jobs than employees at lower levels.

**Job Satisfaction and Tenure:** Tenure refers to the length of time for which the individual has worked for the organization (Lim et al., 1998). The research conducted by following researchers (Jinnett and Alexander, 1999; Jones Johnson and Johnson, 2000; Staw, 1995; Vecchio, 1988) indicated that employees with longer job-tenure have a greater propensity to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with shorter job-tenure. Moreover, a study by Chambers (1999) established that employees with longer tenure were more satisfied with their work itself as well as their level of pay. From this it might be concluded that satisfaction increases with time and that those benefits that increase in time such as security and experience are likely to have an important influence on the employee job satisfaction. On the other hand, Lambert et al. (2001) affirmed that an inverse relationship exists between job-tenure and job satisfaction and perceived a longer job-tenure as a liability in the organizations.

**Job Satisfaction and Educational Level:** Researches seem to be unequivocal with respect to the relationship between job satisfaction and different level of education (Camp, 1994; Kuntz, Bora and Loftus, 1990; Loscocco, 1990; Ting, 1997; Vorster, 1992). Some proponents (Larwood, 1984; Saal and Knight, 1988) affirmed that the relationship between education and job satisfaction is positive in nature. Quinn and Mandilovitch (1975), Glenn and Weaver (1982) revealed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and education. However, Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) found an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and education. Vorster (1992) viewed that the higher an individual’s qualifications, the higher that individual’s job level and
consequently, so too the employee’s degree of satisfaction. Similarly, Clark and Oswald (1996) found a negative relationship between educational levels and job satisfaction.

Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) observed that degrees and postgraduate holders had lower levels of job satisfaction as compared to individuals with lower levels of education. Clark and Oswald (1996) argued that due to expectation differentials between different levels of education the relationship between education and job satisfaction is unclear. Conversely, Lambert et al. (2001) found that education have no significant effect on job satisfaction. Research (Ting, 1997) indicates that education has no effect on satisfaction of federal government employees. Similarly, Rogers (1991) did not support for a link between satisfaction and educational level of correctional service employees.

Researches conducted in the recent past suggest, however, that educational level is positively related to job satisfaction subject to a successful match being made between the individual’s work and their qualifications (Battu, Belfield, and Sloane, 1999; Jones Johnson and Johnson, 2000). This implies therefore, that better educated employees are only likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction when the duties performed by them are in line with their level of education.

1.4.5 Theories of Job Satisfaction:

In order to understand job satisfaction, it is important to understand that what motivates people at work. Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weik (1970) categorized job satisfaction theories into either content theories or process theories. Content theories are based on various factors which influence job satisfaction. Process theories, in contrast, take into account the process by which variables like expectations, needs, values and others influences level of job satisfaction of employees in the organization.
In terms of content theorists, there is an emphasis on the type of goals and incentives the people endeavor to achieve in order to be satisfied and succeed on the job. Scientific management believed at first that money was found the only incentive which influences working conditions, security and a more democratic style of supervision in the organization. (Maslow, 1943, Herzberg, 1966, Adlerfer, 1969 and McClelland (1961) focused on the needs of employees with respect to job satisfaction and performance (Luthans, 1998; Robins, Odendaal and Roodt, 2003; Smith and Cronje, 1992).

**Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory:**

Maslow believed that people who come out of an environment which does not meet their basic needs tend to experience psychological complaints later in life. Based on the application of this theory to organizational settings it can be argued that people who do not meet their needs at work will not function efficiently. Maslow’s theory is based on two assumptions i.e. people always want more and arranged their needs in order of importance and preference (Smith and Cronje, 1992). Maslow (1970) summarized these needs as below mentioned.

**Physiological Needs:** This is the basic need known as the biological needs such as the need for water, food, rest, exercise and sex. Once these needs are met they no longer influence behaviour. An example of this would be trade unions ensuring that their member’s basic needs are met because they negotiate for better wages for their members (Smith and Cronjee, 1922).

**Safety Needs:** Once the first need is satisfied then the security needs assume precedence. These include the need for job security, insurance, medical aid and the need to feel protected against physical and emotional harm (Smith and Cronjee, 1992).
Social Needs: The third level of needs is advocated once the second level of needs has been adequately met. People have a need for love, friendship, acceptance and understanding from other people. Employees have a tendency to join groups that fulfill their social needs. Managers can play an important part by encouraging people to interact with one another and make sure that the social needs of subordinates are met (Smith and Cronje, 1992).

Ego and Esteem Needs: The fourth level of needs is the need for self-respect, recognition by others, confidence and achievement. Supervisors can play an active role in satisfying the needs of their employees by recognizing and rewarding high achievers for good performance (Smith and Cronjee, 1992).

Self Actualization Need: This is the highest level of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and leads to the full development of a person’s potential. It is a need where individuals reach full potential and what they want to become, to utilize all talents well and to be creative (Glueck, 1974). Practicing managers have given Maslow’s need theory wide recognition, which they ascribe to the intuitive logic and ease of understanding. However, Robbins et al. (2003) argued that research does not validate the theory since Maslow does not provide any empirical substantion and a number of studies that were seeking validation for the theories have similarly not found support for it.

Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory:

In terms of Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory, factors that make employees feel good about their work are different from factors that make them feel bad about their work. According to Herzberg (2003) employees who are satisfied at work attribute their satisfaction to internal factors, while dissatisfied employees ascribe their behaviour to
external factors. Factors that play a role in contributing to the satisfaction of employees are called motivators. While hygiene factors contribute to job dissatisfaction. These two factors are also called the intrinsic (internal) and extrinsic (external) factors.

**Fig 1.2 : Schematic Representation of the Two-Factor Theory.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivator continuum</th>
<th>Hygiene continuum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Dissatisfaction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be argued that if the hygiene factors are removed, that it is unlikely workers will be satisfied. Both the hygiene factors and motivation play an important role in the performance of the individual. Herzberg’s theory has been criticized on the ground of the relationship between source of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Smith et al. 1992).

**Alderfer’s ERG Theory :**

Alderfer revised Maslow’s theory to align work with more empirical research (Robbins et al. 2003). Alderfer’s theory is referred to as ERG theory and is based on the following needs, existence, relatedness and growth. Existence is involved with providing individuals their basic existence requirements and it subsumes the individual’s physiological and safety needs. Relatedness is the desire to keep good interpersonal relationships which Maslow labeled social and esteem needs. Growth needs are intrinsic desire for personal development based on the self-actualization needs of Maslow.
The ERG theory pivots around the axial point that more than one need is in operation at the same time. When the aspiration to safety a higher need is subdued the desire to satisfy a lower order level need increases. Alderfer (1972) mentions two forms of movement which will become important to a person. The first one is referred to as satisfaction-progression. The second movement is the frustration-regression which provides additional insight about motivation and human behaviour. According to Alderfer (1972), when a person’s needs are frustrated at higher level it leads to movement down the hierarchy.

McClelland’s Theory of Needs:

McClelland’s needs theory focuses on the need for achievement, power and affiliation (Luthans 1998). It can be briefly described as follows:

Need for Achievement: It is a drive to excel to meet standards and try to be successful.

Need for Power: It is to let others behave in such a way that they do not behave otherwise.

Need for Affiliation: It is to have a friendly disposition and good interpersonal relationships.

Thus, job satisfaction refers to the satisfaction of a worker in his/her work. It is a source of satisfaction of biological, psychological and social needs of an individual in his/her work setting. Job satisfaction also occupies an important place in the life of an individual. In the same manner job satisfaction is also playing very significant role not only in the career of teachers’ but also in their life span.

It is expected that a well-satisfied teacher would contribute more as compared to a dissatisfied teacher as far as the question of commitment and responsibility pertaining
teaching and school environment is concerned. Hence, it is necessary to assess one’s level of job satisfaction regularly in their organization against the job which he or she is performing. Therefore, keeping in view its significance, job satisfaction has been taken into consideration as a dependent variable in this regard.