

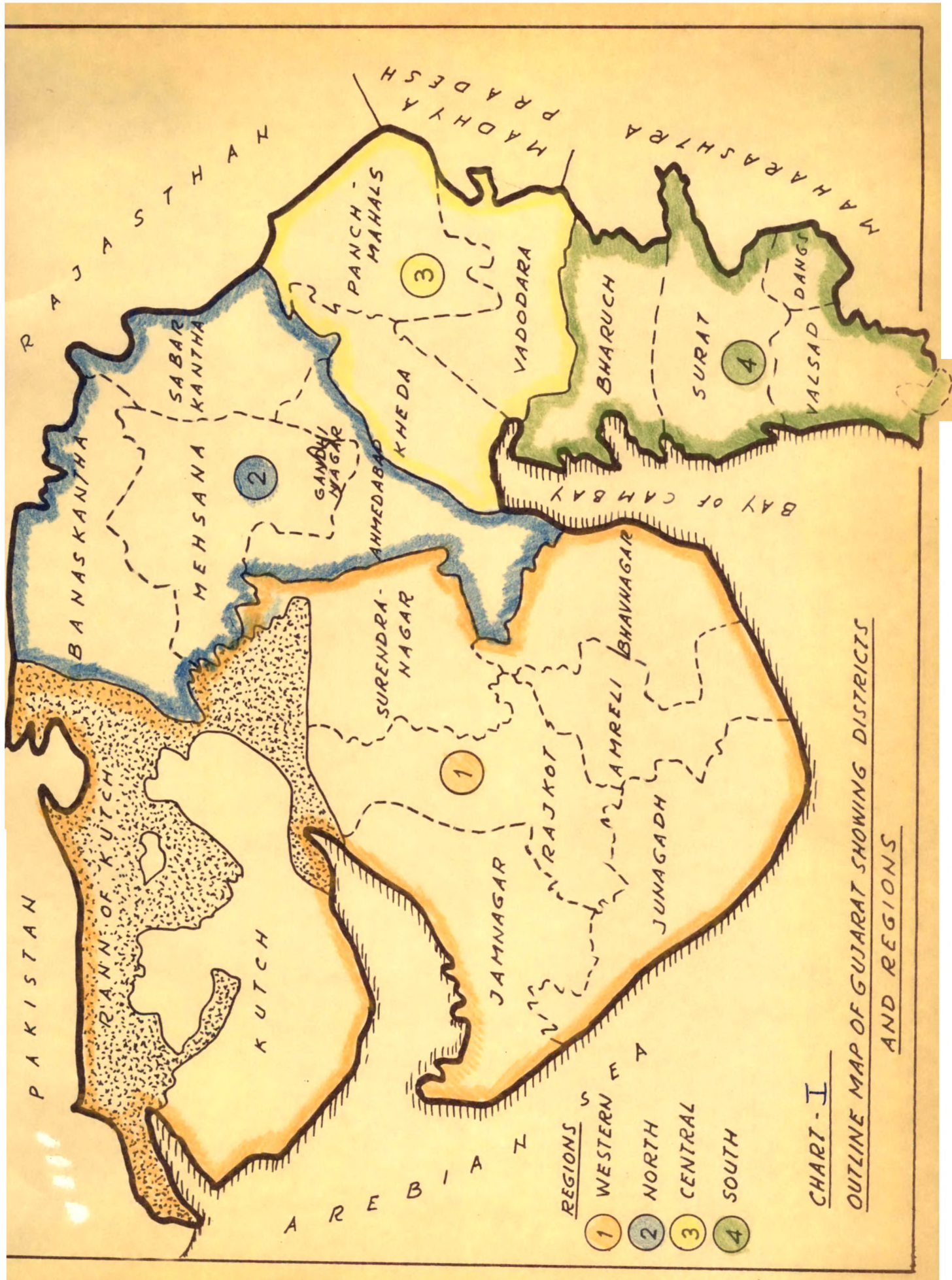
CHAPTER I :

INTRODUCTION : CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURE

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

The present study falls into the area of organizational climate of secondary schools, but it differs from the earlier studies done on the theme by Mehra (1967), Kumar (1972), Sharma (1973), Patel (1974), Shelat (1975), Pandya (1975), Darji (1975), Choksi (1976) and Gupta (1976) on three major counts, viz., development of (a) a different spectrum of dimensions and a tool to map the domain of organizational climate; (b) evolution of a new technique and profile to identify only three (as against Halpin and Croft's six) categories on climate continuum, and (c) examination of possible effect of personality traits, pupil control ideology and belief system of teachers' whose perceptions of the behaviour-interaction patterns of their own colleagues, principal and administrative process provide the material and the texture of the organizational climate. Thus, the present study seeks to explore further into the field of climate build-up.

The climate studies add a vital dimension to the study of educational administration. This is though late yet fruitful realization. Research^{es} on organizational

climate of school underscore a crucial fact that in studying administration of education at different institutional levels, it will not suffice to confine one's inquiry to merely to such factors as organization, personnel recruitment, physical plant, supervision, inspection and control. These indeed are important facets of educational administration. Gupta (1976) calls them the inputs of the systems analysis. They, at the best, vouch for task-accomplishment. But even task-accomplishment is not really effective and lasting if it is not supported by group maintenance or social-needs satisfaction. This has been revealed in all the climate studies done so far in the West and in India.* Another feature of the present study is that it can more appropriately be called a Gujarat Climate Study because it has drawn its sample from all over Gujarat (from most of its districts) and not as it happened in many of the earlier studies which are limited to a region or a district or to a few selected schools; the manner of selection was kept vague by the researcher.

When it is increasingly becoming evident that the

* Most of them are done at the M.S. University of Baroda.

study of organizational climate of school holds a vital key to school quality, the importance of research in this area becomes all the more critical. Today, the country stands on the threshold of a mighty transformation. The political, economic and social climate in the country has changed so much on account of the impact of the Emergency and the Prime Minister's 20-Point Programme of betterment of the weaker sections of the society in the last two years, that education has been under pressure to change its character and input-output system and contribute its might to the changing face of India. Schools will be more effective centres not only of teaching-learning, but of emotional and social integration, transformation of the traditional society into a modern one based on science and technology and of the inculcation of a new value system which would be politically, economically and culturally more viable. In this transformation process, attention will have to be given to improvement of organizational climate of institutions, because when teachers' social needs and morale will be satisfactorily met by the school system, the task-accomplishment in the desired directions will not be difficult. Understanding of forces that build up school or institutional climate, will be

helpful to educational administrators to chalk out new grooves into which the educational system may be led to a new shape of things so that educational efforts - plans and practices will be most rewarding to the nation. Thus, climate studies are likely to give new vistas of ideas and provide hitherto unknown, and therefore unattempted, dimensions and directions of change for better. Climate studies would eventually serve as fruitfully as tapping up new, hitherto unknown resources of social, economic and even political values.

1.2 CONCEPT OF A GOOD SCHOOL

There are around 2,500 secondary schools in Gujarat. In a recent study, Desai (1976) puts 3 per cent of them into 'very good' category, about 10 per cent into the 'good' category, 50 per cent into 'average' category, another 30 per cent into the 'below' average' category and the rest of them - 7 per cent into 'very bad' category. Such a picture may not only be true of Gujarat but of a number of other states of India.

From what Barnard (1938) has said about organization, it becomes clear that a good school should have a well-

knit structure which could give scope for coordinated efforts of its teachers and other staff members. A coordinating and unifying principle for the organization may be task-accomplishment and/or of social-needs satisfaction which can weld and cement the organizational structure of the school into a harmonious entity. The organization should stimulate and facilitate communication. The personnel should have spontaneous willingness to work for the achievement of the goal of the school (which is the total development of the students). The operation of the organization should be so smooth and well set that the integrity of the purpose of the school is maintained with little difficulty and the effectiveness of its operation is achieved in the normal course. The organization of the school is no doubt formal, but in a good school, there is scope for informal organizations to develop on the base of what Mathur (1968:68) calls "inter-personal relationships of people involved in the formal organization. Such informal organizations of teachers and students characterise only a few schools in the country where the ideal of social-needs satisfaction and group maintenance are recognized. More of the informal organizations of students are to be found in good and even average categories of

schools with this difference that whereas in good schools the educational scene is democratic and informal organizations have spontaneity and freedom while in the other category of schools where they are found, they spring up at the initiative of the school principal who watches, supervises and directs them. In other schools, the situation is so authoritarian that teachers' and students' informal organizations are looked upon with an eye of suspicion.

A good school has all the physical inputs - classrooms, equipment, furniture, laboratory, library, playground facilities and sports essentials - in adequate measure. Not only that, but planned efforts are made in a democratic manner to utilise them fully and effectively. This condition is obtained in decreasingly lesser degree in average, below the average and poor schools.

But a good school is much more characterised by its administrative processes than merely by its physical inputs. The quality of human inputs - the teachers and the students - is no doubt important, but, perhaps, the more important are the processes by which they are moulded into outputs. In this respect, decision-making constitutes a vital process.

McCamy (1947:41) describes "all other attributes of the administrative process being dependent or interwoven with and existent for making decision." Culbertson, Jacobson and Reller (1961:438) regard it as lying close to the nerve centre of administration. In a good school, teachers are involved in the vital decision-making process; in average schools, they have sometimes an opportunity to participate and in poor schools decision-making is centralised either in school management or in the school principal or in both of them in varying degrees. In good schools, rational thinking becomes the core of decision-making; it is based on adopted policy or guide lines; and often it is the decision of the group rather than of one or few individuals. This helps in creating among teachers a sense of belongingness and involvement.

A good school also does institutional planning. This it does keeping its goals in mind. Programming is intended for better goal achievement. This is not done by the school principal and a few senior teachers but by the staff as a group, giving scope even to the junior most persons to participate. The guiding philosophy is that those who stand at the lower rung of the hierarchy in the school can

contribute as much preciously as those who stand on the higher levels. If the principal and the seniors have some new ideas about programming, they do not at once impose on them but hold a dialogue with other staff members, and whatever decisions are taken, they are with full consultation with even junior staff. The leader - the school principal endeavours to create such an atmosphere that all seniors and juniors feel free to express what they feel about the issues under discussion. Thus, there is fruitful involvement of teachers in institutional planning, sessional work-planning and programming.

In a good school, communication is two way channel. It is not that the principal directs all activities of the school, but also he looks forward for the feedback from those whom he directs. Communication - the feedback from below is frank, fearless and honest. This makes the principal review his orders - rules, regulation and policy. He lets staff members know what is expected of them, but he also gives a patient hearing to them if they have something to say on what they are told to do.

In a good school, the leaders - the principal and school supervisor - are effective in their leadership acts,

i.e. on what Halpin (1966:89) calls 'Initiating Structure' and 'Consideration'. They are dynamic and keep the organization moving. Both - the principal and the supervisor - make their attitude clear to their staff. They do not rule with an iron hand, but they never fight shy of criticising slipshod, slovenly and poor work of any staff member, whether junior or senior. They set targets and make the staff arrive at a possible date when the targets can be reasonably completed. They emphasize the meeting of deadlines. They are not only vigilant about maintaining definite standards of performance (in terms of achievement index) but see that the standards are maintained at definite levels. They also see to it that their colleagues are working upto capacity. What Malthur (1968:75) observes is true of the administrator of a good school, viz., "his success depends very much upon the stimulation which he provides to the members of his organization to give their spontaneous cooperation in achieving the organizational goals."

A good school is not only characterised by the high standing of its leader or leaders on "Initiating Structure", but also on "Considerations" and "Human Relations". The

school principal is characterised by an eagerness to do personal favours to individual staff members. This does not mean that he does favouritism to some staff and to others he shows a red eye. The underlying idea is that in hours of crisis or dire needs, the principal stands by the individual staff member and helps him in the best possible manner.

As Halpin and Winner have put in their LBDQ, "he does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff." The four basic psychological needs of (a) recognition, (b) affection, (c) security, and (d) adventure are satisfactorily met in a good school. This results in what Halpin calls 'Group maintenance' and 'esprit'. Personal motives of individual staff members are also met.

Halpin (1966:44) while discussing a paradigm for research in administrative behaviour, maps out three areas in which the administrator's behaviour becomes of especial importance: (a) his perception of the organization's task, (b) his behaviour as a decision-maker and (c) his behaviour as a group leader, vis-a-vis his own immediate work group. In a good school, these three areas are not only well articulated and marked out but have positive and productive-output overtones.

In a good school, the discipline of a school is the discipline of the activities that go on in it, and this arises when children are voluntarily immersed in what they are doing, can see the point of it, and also having success with it. A good school is one that is having a good measure of success in deriving its discipline from the interest of the children in the subjects they are studying - and activities they are pursuing.

A good school will help students to set up within themselves the motivation to continue their own development in the direction that the school has set for them - to make them gyroscopically controlled rather than radar controlled.

For these characteristics to develop suitable environment is a primary need. An appropriate atmosphere fosters growth and happiness. As Dewey (1938) shows, "... learning is dependent on experience... the nature and quality of educational experiences are largely determined by the characteristics of the learner's environment. By viewing the school atmosphere in terms of the aspects that are significant of the growth and development of the learner, we can extract and classify important portions of the environment in which the student lives."

It is clear from Dewey's statement that school environment is a powerful force and it plays a pivotal role in the all-round development of the child. The more congenial the school environment, better the chances of flourishing newer practices and innovations in education, resulting in better development of the student.

Bloom (1968) discusses and describes this environment as follows :

"... we regarded the environment as providing a network of forces and factors which surround, engulf, and play on the individual. Although some individuals may resist this network, it will only be the extremes and rare individuals who can completely avoid or escape from these forces. The environment is a shaping and reinforcing force which acts on the individual."

School environments are as different and complex as the personal characteristics of individuals because they are created as a result of interaction among various role participants housed in them. It is the differences in school environment that contribute to appreciable extent to differences that create good schools and bad schools.

To the observer of the school as an institution it is not startling to state that each school has a personality. It is this 'personality' which is called the 'Organizational Climate of the School'.

1.3 CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The discussion given in the preceding section on what constitutes a good school was intended to provide a kind of background canvas to project step by step the colours and shape that build up an image - a picture of organizational climate. It was felt it desirable to do so because a good school has a climate which distinguishes it from a school that is average or below the average. The qualities that make a school good were also delineated from an angle different from the usual 'good teaching-learning angle'. The focal points selected were such that go to build up a school's inner life tones or environment or climate.

It appears from researches done on organizational climate in nineteen fifties that when Halpin (1966:238) discussed the idea of the study of organizational climate

of schools at a meeting of the CPEA held on the Campus of the Ohio State University in the spring of 1954, he must have formulated some ideology of concept of organizational climate. He makes an observation that "ironically enough nobody picked up the idea." The task of researching into the domain of organizational climate lay waiting to be done when Don B. Croft and Halpin tackled it in September. But the available research evidence also indicates that Cornell (1955) used the term in 1955. His conceptualisation of organizational climate was different from that of Halpin and Croft. Cornell used the term 'climate' to note "a delicate blending of interpretations or perceptions by the persons in the organization, or their jobs or roles in relationship to others, and their interpretation of the roles of others in the organizations." This concept underscores blending of perceptions of the teachers, relationships within the organizations and interpretation of roles, whereas Halpin and Croft underscore variations in the school personality or feel. They found the concept of morale as inadequate "to tell us enough about the school organizational climate, and therefore, went out for a concept that would throw light on three vital

facets of a school as a social organization, viz., social needs, esprit and social control. Halpin and Croft regarded school as a social organization where teachers manifest variations in their behaviour in relation to one-another and in relation to the school principal, a complex of interaction goes on among the teachers and of the principal with the teachers which weaves an intricate and delicate web of organizational climate. Thus, Halpin and Croft's concept of organizational climate hinges on social-needs satisfaction and group maintenance.

From 1968 to the present day a dozen studies have been done on organizational climate based on the concept, theory and the tool developed by Halpin and Croft. A feeling of inadequacy has been expressed about the ideology of organizational climate of Halpin and Croft. In Asian societies where society is comparatively more closed than that in the U.S.A. and Europe and where school system is directed and supervised closely and to a greater extent by the State Department of Education, it has been felt that not only teachers' behaviour and principal's behaviour and the resulting interaction patterns create climate but hierarchical nature of Indian social patterns which have been percolated into school system, the pattern and

channels of communication, the positive or negative type of human relations and centralised or decentralised pattern of administration and supervision and the degree of academic freedom enjoyed by teachers also contribute in no small measure to climate build-up. This extends and enriches the conceptualisation of organizational climate by Halpin and Croft. Thus, climate is conceived not only to be the result of nature of task-accomplishments and group maintenance but also of administrative orientation given to them. The present research makes use of this extended concept of organizational climate of schools.

A few more pertinent facts about the concept of organizational climate as evolved by Halpin and Croft would add to the clarity of its framework.

Halpin (1966:132) observes that his conceptualization of organizational climate and construction of a tool to measure it came from the fact that experience showed them that it was much futile to assign a principal with high scores on both Initiating Structure and Consideration (the two dimensions of the LBDQ developed by Halpin and Winer in 1952) to a school whose staff was not quite ready to accept him as a leader, though on the basis of his

performance on the LBDQ, he was likely to be effective. So, as Halpin himself observes "Some kind of matching had to be done between a leader's style and how ready the group members were to accept the style. But as the use of the OCDQ gained frequency in Indian studies, especially in Baroda studies, it seemed to underscore that not only a leader's style, a group's style but administrative behaviour ^{also} contributes to the climate. The administrative behaviour includes four patterns of behaviour: viz., (a) existence of a formal structure within which a few are high up and a large many low down can be identified - they are in the hierarchical relationship which also decides the power structure; this creates an environment within which persons with varying 'press' interact, their varying status giving them different 'feel' which, in ultimate analysis, affects the organizational climate; (b) this hierarchical structure and relationship may tend to make communication as a single channel operation in which it flows from the top to the bottom; such a state of affairs cannot but influence the total accumulating influences that create climate; (c) human relations embody feeling friendliness, group life which is fruitful, sincere and permitting positive variations, cooperativeness, courteous behaviour, facilities and

ease of social behaviours and democratic way of thought and life. According to Guba and Gatzel, when administration becomes sensitive and responsive to psychological and social needs-satisfaction of personnel and when it endeavours in a genuine way to integrate the demands of the group with their (psycho-social needs), relationship between administration and personnel assumes humane overtones. When this is done, it becomes conducive to the building up of climate in positive direction; when this fails to take place, the climate-build up is in negative direction; (d) teachers should have academic freedom to try out new instructional practices; there should be enough decentralization of decision-making on academic plane to permit the try-out of educational innovation. Thus, freedom and decentralisation become other focal points of organizational climate.

It would, thus, be seen that the concept of organizational climate encompassed by the investigator extends the Halpin-Croft concept of the same, and it is enriched to meet some of the inadequacies pointed out by a seminar of principals of Baroda city on the theme that met in August 1974.

Before this section on conceptualisation of climate is

concluded, it may be noted that other researchers have conceptualised organizational climate in different ways. A few such variations are referred to here only to emphasize the fact that climate is a multi-dimensional concept and not only different focal points can ^{be} underscored but each of them can be envisaged in a different way. In conceptualising organizational climate Argyris (1958) refers to three kinds of variables, formal organizational variables such as policies and practices, personality variables such as needs, abilities, values, self-concept, etc. and informal variables that arise out of the continuing struggle of an organization's personnel to adapt themselves to it so that the organization accomplishes its goal and each member obtains at least a minimum amount of self expression. Gibb (1960) refers to supportive climate and defensive climate. He conceptualises climate as a feeling about the group which a new comer gets when he mixes for the first time with its members. Guba (1960) conceptualises climate as the state of the organization which results from the interaction that takes place between the organizational members as they fulfil their prescribed roles with satisfying their individual needs. This concept deviates from the Halpin-Croft concept in the sense that it takes no cognition of

how the leader behaves with the members of the group. Feldt~~re~~bel (1964) underscores only the social interaction characterising an organization. Lonsdale (1964), on the other hand, defines climate as the global assessment of the interaction in regard to task-achievement dimension within an organization. Alan Brown (1965) perceives organizational climate emerging from cate^{is}netic patterns giving identity to sub-groups and the inter-personal relations in a living organization. Sargent (1967) seems to reflect Halpin-Croft ideology when he observes that organizational climate embraces the milieu of personalities, principal and teachers interacting within the sociological and psychological framework of an institution. In the present research, the concept of climate is also based on the interaction patterns between teachers and teachers as well as teachers and the principal within the sociological and psychological framework of secondary schools of Gujarat State, but one more framework - the administrative framework is added. Thus, in the present research the concept of climate is based on the interaction patterns of teachers as a group and principal in three types of framework, within secondary schools, viz., social, psychological and administrative.

1.4 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

When a concept is to be translated into a tool of measurement, a further exercise in mapping out the dimensions or sub-tests consistent with the climate becomes necessary. Halpin (1966: 147) observes that by factor analysis he and Croft could identify eight dimensions of organizational climate. These eight dimensions include four dimensions of group (teachers) behaviour and the other four of the leader's (school principal) behaviour. These eight dimensions are not named using the common language. They invented some new terminology to denote some of them.

Teacher's Behaviour

(1) Disengagement : In ordinary language, this would mean that teachers are disengaged from the tasks - they do not identify themselves with the tasks set to them by the school i.e. the school principal. They do not seem to be one with the purpose, philosophy and goals of the school. When such a situation occurs, there are internal bickerings and conflicts. They behave in a nonchalant way. The staff is split up in groups. Open defiance is hurled against the principal - or the school management - by one or more groups. The discord and disharmony are conspicuous.

Pressurisation becomes a weapon to gain advantages or concessions from the authorities. Staff meetings hardly operate smoothly - often non-sensical questions are asked and irrelevant issues are raised at staff meetings. Back-biting is rampant. Isolation manifests in behaviour of many teachers. Teachers will not stop at resorting to any means to gain undue concessions from the school principal. Halpin (p.150) describes this dimension as teachers' tendency to be "not with the group" or to show that teachers as a group are not in gear." This dimension manifests negative behaviour on the part of teachers. It also depicts a task-oriented situation.

(2) Hindrance : It denotes a feeling of obstruction, ^{tea} interruptions, blocking or prevention entertained by teachers in performing their normal duties in the school. It bespeaks of impediments. Some principals tend to overburden their staff with clerical type of work which teachers perceive as interrupting their normal academic work or depriving them of their free period when they can rest and relax for a while. Calling teachers frequently to meet in conferences is also perceived by teachers as a veritable hindrance. Correction of students' assignment is a legitimate part of

teachers' normal instructional work. However, when it becomes excessive - consuming their free period and even extra time after school hours, it is perceived as 'hindrance' and they tend to perform these forced assignments in a mechanical way. This happens particularly in the case of those teachers who are (or want) to plan and try out some instructional innovations.

(3) Esprit : This dimension is focused on teacher morale. It denotes what is called 'school spirit'. Where esprit is high, the resultant behaviour of teachers is that they display cohesion, solidarity and team spirit. Not only do they display a kind of vitality - the vim and vigour in their work, but they perform their assigned tasks with pleasure. The school appears to be a happy, well adjusted family where each member derives genuine satisfaction from the work he does. They seem to be happy to belong to the school. Their attitude to one another is rational - they appreciate merits but also point out faults when they occur without rancour or malignity. The school facilities - classrooms, furniture, equipment, instructional materials and aids are adequate and they are easily accessible to teachers when they want to use them. Task-accomplishments are greatly facilitated by group maintenance. Group dynamics characterise

teachers' way of working. They do work hard on their own initiative. Therefore, there is no tension but there are spontaneity and pleasure in their work. This is a positive behaviour of teachers.

(4) Intimacy : This is a dimension denoting social-needs satisfaction. Teachers enjoy friendly social relations with one-another. They visit one another's home. They are inwardly close to one-another in their relations. A spirit of mutual trust and confidence in each other prevails. They do not hesitate to open out their hearts to colleagues, and derive solace^{from} each other. Personal problems are discussed without any misgivings or hesitancy. The atmosphere is warm and cosy. During the recess, teachers meet in common room, take tea together, talk freely, crack jokes and laugh heartily. They do most of the school administrative work together. Where needed, they do not hesitate to lend a helping hand. Cooperation distinguishes their behaviour. Halpin (p.151) observes that this dimension describes a social-needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.

Such are the four dimensions of group (teachers' behaviour). These dimensions have been operationally

conceptualised above. They either conceptualise social-needs satisfaction or task-accomplishment. Two of them connote negative behaviour concepts and the other two positive behaviour concepts.

The other group of four dimensions refers to the leader's (principal's) behaviour. They are conceptualised in operational terms below.

Principal's Behaviour

(5) Aloofness : Formality and impersonalness are the two principal attributes of this behaviour. These patterns of behaviour arise from the fact that the principal regards himself as 'important' and 'far above the crowd (teachers)' on account of his position. His is status-oriented. He is apparently very much conscious of his special position in the school community and makes no secret of it. He does not mix freely with his staff. During the recess, when the staff takes tea together in the staff common-room, he either prefers to take his tea in his own office or chamber or if he goes to the staff commonroom, the way in which he talks and sometimes the way in which he behaves mark him out as if he belongs to a different tribe. Another concept

implied by this dimension is his going by the book, using rules and regulations as his chief weapon of controlling the teachers. He does not make friends with teachers. He does not even meet them in face to face situations - he prefers rather to direct the teachers and school work by issuing notices and instruction. Halpin (p.151) describes this behaviour as "universalistic rather than particularistic, nomothetic rather than 'idiosyncratic'. This behaviour manifests most closedness.

(6) Production Emphasis : This phraseology is hardly deployed in Indian education - it seems to be rather pertinent to the industry. Halpin uses this rather uncommon language to indicate the excessive degree of task-orientedness on the part of the school principal. The goal of this behaviour is apparently to obtain good result for the school at either S.S.C. or H.S.S.C. examinations of the State Secondary Education Board. When production is emphasised - when higher percentage of results becomes the goal of the school, the principal puts constant pressure on teachers to work hard in the class, and to coach weak students by conducting extra classes. He supervises whether they perform this task satisfactorily or not by close supervision of their work in the school. This dimension also denotes

high authoritarianism on part of the school principal. This is reflected in his directions - he becomes dominantly directive. Halpin (p.151) observes that he "plays the role of a 'straw boss'. Another manifestation of this behaviour is in the communication pattern of the school principal - it is a single channel and it emanates from him, with teachers at the receiving end. He neither cares to receive feedback from the consumers of his orders and directives nor he is sensitive to them if any teachers cares to react to his way of thinking and doing things. This is a negative behaviour and is close to closedness.

(7) Thrust : The connotation of this dimension is comparatively less closedness and more openness. This behaviour differs meaningfully from the earlier behaviour of 'production emphasis'. Task-accomplishment is an important concern here as in the earlier dimension, but this is not sought to be done through close, authoritarian supervision. In fact, here close supervision is not at all necessary. Teachers make their best effort to accomplish their tasks without the need of their work being placed under rigorous scrutiny, and supervision. The teachers are motivated from within. This happens because of the under-

standing with which he handles the staff. The example set by the principal of conscientious work with a sense of dedication and commitment stimulates the teachers from within. The principal is vigilant that his organization - the school is on the move. He puts his best in doing so. His intentions appear clear and honest to the staff. They are moved by the sincerity and anxiety of the principal to increase the school's task-accomplishment. They, too, put their might in the noble and lofty venture of faith. Halpin (p.151) observes that "because he does not ask the teachers any more than he willingly gives of himself, his behaviour, though starkly task-oriented is nonetheless viewed favourably by the teachers."

(8) Consideration : This concept is also positive and is free from any moorings of task-orientation. In fact, more than task-accomplishment, the welfare of the staff members becomes prominent here. This dimension conceptualises, in a way, group maintenance. This dimension has a focus on humanly treatment of teachers which is morale boosting. Sympathy, help, understanding, welfare, justice, parity, satisfaction, fair work-load, friendship-comradeship are some of the ideas inherent in this dimension. There is a

ring of "genuineness" in all these facets of behaviour. There is no window-dressing or artificial role-playing or double deal. The principal is genuinely concerned about the welfare of his colleagues and does not hesitate if he can be of any help to them to make their work in the school more rewarding or to make their personal life or the life of their family members happy and joyful. The principal behaves as a real friend, philosopher and guide to his colleagues. He places their welfare and happiness above his conveniences and comforts. He is a service-oriented man.

Thus, aloofness, production emphasis, thrust and consideration constitute the second set of behaviour, but here of principal's behaviour. As observed earlier, the investigator felt it desirable to add to these two sets another set of behaviour which is largely administrative behaviour. This set also consists of four dimensions. They are dealt with hereafter.

Administrative Behaviour

(9) Non-graded order : The concept here is that on the school faculty, though officially there are few high ups and many low down, the authority and powers are not vested in the

rank and degree of seniority. Prestige goes with acts of leadership and initiation. The infra-structure is flexible, and not leaning largely on line-and-staff relations. If a school has two streams - the Gujarati medium and the English medium stream, the teachers of both the streams carry with them equal importance and prestige. This denotes a positive behaviour. The school faculty is a unified group of teachers - the fellow travellers or the common and equally engaged in the pursuit of knowledge and disseminating them to the generations of school-going children. It is not presumed that all good "ideas", knowledge, ability, competence, and ability flow from those who stand high in the hierarchy. The set up tends to be, more or less democratic. There is a concern for the welfare of teachers. Juniors have not to pass through a long period of waiting before they climb up the ladder of the hierarchy. When the principal retires, resigns or is removed by death or for malpractice and misbehaviour, any staff member who has leader's skill and other executive competences has scope to become the principal - the next man in the hierarchy by virtues of his status does not get the chair of the headship automatically. The school organization is not bureaucratic and it does not operate on the basis of the professional rights of seniority.

Feedback: This constitutes a positive concept of the flow of communication within the school. In the school, departmental rules and regulations and rules of the school denoting its policy are made from time to time in consultation of teachers and pupils. It means that principal, teachers and pupils freely communicate among themselves. The transmission or communication is two way, from the top to the bottom and the vice-versa. The administration is expected to be sensitive to get teachers' reactions on the rules made or orders given to them. The teachers have not take orders dumbfoundedly; they can reason 'why'. They have the greater scope and opportunities to tell the administration about the type of difficulties and problems they face in carrying out the administrative directives. The administration is not blind to the need of getting a feed-back from the consumers and improve upon the situation. This tends to remove misunderstanding. It also tends to decrease the frequency of resentment among the teachers. It dilutes the ills of hierarchical structure. Teachers' identification with the school increases. The distance between them and the principal and the school management decreases. They all perceive the school similarly. School affairs become the joint venture of all the staff members. The school becomes a happy family of seniors and juniors where the former do not believe that the latter have nothing to say. This tends to sharpen the creativity of the juniors and the school is profitted by good ideas that the teachers might have about improving school quality.

(11) Human Relations : This dimension denotes more than 'Consideration' which was earlier conceptualised. Consideration denoted the treatment of the teachers by the principal on human terms. This dimension encompasses larger and more general perspective. It refers to concern that administration manifests for the welfare of teachers which includes congenial work conditions, reasonable work-load for them, recognition of and respect for their individuality, rewards for meritorious work. Not only are teachers treated well, but care has been taken to see that teachers- particularly the new teachers are helped to adjust to their environment. Teachers are not looked upon as 'employees' but as men and women whose psychological, social, economic and cultural needs have to be satisfied by their organization. The principal introduces the newly recruited teacher to other teachers and to pupils and is vigilant about the problems he is likely to face in tiding over initial resistance or apathy. He acquaints the school community with his abilities, skills and other competences and secures their cooperation and assistance in helping him to master his short-comings. He utilises school's occurricular and cultural activities to bring together in pleasant relationship teachers of different temperaments and tastes. There is

a relationship of understanding between administration and teachers and pupils, parents, the Education Officers of the district, the local community. The school clienteles are happy with the school administration. Thus, this dimension denotes positive administrative behaviour.

(12) Autonomy : This refers to the feeling that all members of the school community entertain that they have internal autonomy so far as academic issues and day-to-day administrative operations are concerned. The administration is not coercive, but permissive within reasonable limits. Administration operates on democratic lines. Teachers are consulted by the principal on academic and even administrative issues, though in the case of the latter, the final decision-making is done by him or the advisory committee pooling together the spectrum of view points expressed on them (issues). The dimension also refers to decentralization wherein teachers or teachers' work groups have good scope for decision-making. Teachers feel that they count in the school, as they have involvement in the school decision-making process to more or less degree. Teachers feel free to express their views on matters that arise in staff meetings. They also are least restrained in putting

forth new ideas in education or trying out any educational innovation. Administration encourages teachers to think for themselves when difficulties or problems arise. The group thinking is harnessed in tackling with difficult-hard problems. The school develops an image of a democratic, decentralised, internally autonomous community.

Thus, organizational climate of school is here conceptualised as resulting from three intersecting sets of behaviour, viz., teachers' principal's, and administrative which also weaves intricate webs within the sphere of each group and the school as a whole.

Climate Typology

The research on organizational climate of school by Halpin and Croft has yielded six climate types, viz., Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal and Closed. These names assigned to climates are not only descriptive but also evaluative. Halpin (p.135) observes, "the more we worked with the findings, the more did judgements about the climates force themselves on us." He (pp.170-71) has accepted the possibility of collapsing the six categories into three major groups : (1) composed of the first two,

relatively Open climate; (2) composed of third and fourth climates, each of which stresses only one of the two major organizational requirements (group maintenance or task accomplishment); and (3) composed of the fifth and sixth climates, both of which are closed. In the present research, instead of original six categories of Halpin and Croft, the investigator has retained three categories which he has named the Open climate, the Intermediate Climate and the Closed Climate.

The three organizational climates based upon the behaviour tapped by the items of each of the twelve dimensions which constitute the three prototypic profiles are as follows :

(a) The Open Climate : Its distinguishing features will be as follows :

- | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| - Low disengagement | high consideration |
| - Low hindrance | high - thrust |
| - High Intimacy | High Non-graded order |
| - High Esprit | high feed-back |
| - Low aloofness | high human relations |
| - Low production Emphasis | high autonomy. |

The open climate describes an energetic, lively organization which is moving towards its goals, and which provides satisfaction for the group members' social needs. Leadership acts emerge easily and appropriately from both the group and the leader. The members are preoccupied disproportionately with neither task achievement nor social-needs satisfaction; satisfaction on both counts seems to be obtained easily and almost effortlessly. Administration is also understanding, congenial and harmonious. The main characteristic of this climate is the 'authenticity' of the behaviour that occurs among all the members.

In the school manifesting this climate, the school faculty manifest high morale (high esprit) and they operate as goal-oriented well cohesive team. They plunge themselves willingly and joyfully in the school work (low disengagement) and they enjoy best possible friendly relations among themselves (high intimacy). The leadership of the school - the principal and the management create the minimum obstacles in the smooth working of academic work (low hindrance). The school faculty enjoy intrinsic motivation to work. Everybody does the school work in a normal way without any friction or tension and even without

any direction. The principal never feels it necessary to tell the staff to do their job well - they perform all their tasks sincerely and with efficiency without any body's dictation (low production emphasis). The principal himself is a good worker and sets himself the example of planned, intelligent and conscientious work (high thrust). He not only treats the teachers in a human way (high consideration), but does everything that is possible to ensure their welfare and establish pleasant and fruitful relationship both within and without (high human relations). Though there is apparent hierarchy of rank and status, but worth of teachers is not determined on that basis but on merits (low hierarchy). The communication is from bottom to top (upward), top to bottom (downward) and horizontal, and administration profits by the feedback it gets from teachers (high feedback). Administration is democratic and decentralised and teachers enjoy internal academic autonomy (high autonomy).

(b) The Intermediate Climate : Its distinguishing features are envisaged, as follows :

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|
| - Average disengagement | Low consideration |
| - Average hindrance | Average thrust |

- Average intimacy	Average non-graded al order
- Average esprit	Average feedback
- Average aloofness	Average human relations
- Average production Emphasis	Low autonomy

This climate is envisaged to be characterized by an average degree of apathy on the part of all the members of the organization. The teachers do their work haphazard. There is a little job satisfaction or social needs satisfaction as the principal is somewhat ineffective in directing their activities and he shows little interest in their welfare. Actually, they are hardly heard of referring to any encouragement they receive from the principal. The principal is aloof, impersonal, and keeping the organization run by rules and regulations. He has some consideration for others but still low. For freedom, he gives some scope for practice but very limited. Administration is neither obstructive nor facilitating.

In this climate, the dominant manifestations in respect of all the three sets of behaviour (i.e. group, leader and administration) ^{are} neither highly task-oriented nor group maintenance oriented.

(c) The Closed Climate : Its factor distinctions are envisaged as follows :

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| - High disengagement | Low consideration |
| - High hindrance | Low thrust |
| - Low intimacy | Very low non-graded order |
| - Low esprit | Low feedback |
| - High aloofness | Low human relations |
| - High production Emphasis | Low autonomy. |

The closed climate is characterized by a high degree of apathy on the part of all members of the organization. The organization is not 'moving'; Esprit is low because the group members secure neither social needs satisfaction nor the satisfaction that comes from task achievement. The members' behaviour can be construed as 'unauthentic'; indeed, the organization seems to be stagnant.

A school manifesting this climate type seems to be organismically sick. The teachers manifest highest disengagement and the school is a house divided in itself. The teachers have no heart in the work they do (high disengagement). The hindrance from the principal and the management in the work the teachers do is pronounced.

Teachers are not only overburdened, but are called upon to do work which is least interesting and rewarding to them (high hindrance). The morale of teachers is broken to pieces (low esprit) and the social needs satisfaction - sympathy, friendship, cooperation, recreation - is the least (low intimacy).

The principal's behaviour is impersonal, detached and devoid of any warmth (high aloofness). The principal behaves as if he is the king of the little world encompassed by the school. He is highly bossing, and out-put oriented (high production emphasis). He shouts at the staff and tries to threaten them with evil consequences if certain results are not achieved by the school. But his threats are hollow. He himself talks more and does little. (low thrust). There is little consideration on the part of the principal (low consideration) for the staff. The administration functions in the hierarchical way. The communication is order-oriented and downward (low feedback). Teachers enjoy lowest internal autonomy. Administration is highly centralised and teachers have no involvement in decision-making process, even pertaining to academic issues.

1.5 CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY

In the earlier section, the concept of organizational climate was examined in detail. One of the major interests in the present investigations is to find out to what extent the personality of teachers, whose perception provides the base for building up the structure of climate typology, is a factor in influencing their perceptions about their (teachers'), principal's and administrative behaviour whose interaction patterns ultimately create climate. Thus, 'personality' is used as an independent variable in the present study. It is essential to examine its conceptual framework.

'Personality' has become a term in common usage. However, its concept is complex and intricate. In common language, the term denotes effective or impressive look or bearing. A few definitions of personality given below reveal how the term 'personality' is conceptualised by psychologists in different ways. The illustrations are only indicative and they do not represent the spectrum.

Cattell (1950) observes that 'personality' is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a

given situation. For Murray (1951), it is the governing organ of the body, an institution, which from birth to death, is ceaselessly engaged in transformative functional operations. McClellans (1951) defines it as the most adequate conceptualization of a person's behaviour in all its detail. Guilford (1959) regards an individual's personality as a unique structure of traits. Linton Eysenck and others (1972) view personality as the organized structure of psychological processes and states which concern the individual. Thomae Eysenck and others (1972) see personality as the inclusive concept of all events which comprise an individual life history.

As these examples imply, there may be ^avariety of meanings with which the psychologists have endowed the term. Allport (1937) in an exhaustive survey of the literature extracted some fifty different definitions of it. He classified these in terms of whether they refer to :

- (1) etymology or early history of the term;
- (2) theological meanings;
- (3) philosophical meanings;
- (4) juristic meanings;
- (5) sociological meanings;
- (6) external appearance;
- (7) psychological meanings.

Warren (1934) underscores in the personality build-up the integrated organization of all the cognitive, affective, conative and physical characteristics of an individual as it manifests itself in total distinction from others.

Personality is also conceived by some psychologists as an individual's characteristic pattern of adjustment.

Allport (1937)'s classic definition of the personality is : "Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment." Though in 1961, he modified this definition by substituting "characteristic behaviour and thought" in place of "unique adjustment to his environment."

It can be concluded from the above discussion that most psychologists (though some would reject) would accept that personality consists of an individual's characteristic and distinctive ways of behaving. But how to discover and label characteristic and distinctive ways of behaving is a problem faced by psychologists; many approaches have been taken to it, and they have resulted in a number of different theories of personality.

Theories of Personality

There are many theories - partly because personality is so loosely defined that all theories do not deal with the same subject matter, partly because the facts upon which a finished theory must rest are not yet well enough known. There are four main groups of theories: type theories, trait theories, developmental theories, and dynamic theories.

(1) Type Theories : Theories of personality types are ancient in origin and they persist to-day. Some theories stress body types, others stress physiology, some are based solely on behaviour.

Another way to look for types is based on behaviour or psychological characteristics. Perhaps the best known of the psychological type theories is the classification into introverts and extraverts proposed by the Swiss psychologist Jung (1923).

(2) Trait Theories : A trait theory is in some respects at the opposite extreme from a type theory; instead of grouping people according to a few types, it classifies people according to the degree to which they can be characterized in terms of a number of traits. The trait approach

begins with the common-sense observation that individuals often differ greatly and consistently in their responses to the same psychological situation or stimulus. According to trait theory, one can describe a personality by its position on a number of scales or dimensions, each of which represents a trait. There are two outstanding sub-varieties of trait theory: Allport's (1937) theory of personal dispositions and Cattell's (1950) theory of surface and source traits.

Allport (1937) accepts a kind of trait theory but distinguishes between common traits (those traits that are comparable among people) and personal dispositions (traits that are unique for the person).

The essence of Allport's (1961) theory is that patterned individuality constitutes the subject matter of a science of personality. He, therefore, resists the tendency of others to reduce personality to the traits that are common to all men. He prefers to treat cardinal, central, and secondary "traits" as personal dispositions in describing individual uniqueness.

Cattell (1946) bases his trait theory on common traits, holding that sufficient uniqueness can be indicated

through combinations of common traits present at different strengths.

Allport and Odbert (1936) listed 17,953 words used in English to distinguish the behaviour of one person from another. Cattell (1946) began his research with this list of trait names, adding the terms that psychologists have coined in their researches. By eliminating overlap of meanings, he (1946) came out with 171 personality or temperament variables describing the whole "personality sphere." Although some traits, such as ability, can be thought of as positions along a scale ranging from zero to a high value, most temperament variables can be expressed as polar opposites with the zero point lying between them (e.g. cheerful Vs. gloomy). Cattell (1946) prefers such paired terms wherever possible. If many such variables are used to describe the same group of individuals, the variables can be examined for correlation; that is, it is possible to find out which are closely related to others and which are distinct.

Two main techniques of examining the interrelationships exist, leading to a distinction that Cattell (1946) makes between surface traits and source traits.

Surface traits are found by studying the clusters of the actually obtained correlations. For example, all traits that intercorrelate .60 or higher can arbitrarily be assumed to be a manifestation of one cluster or surface trait. Thus it is found that people judged on the three trait pairs are thoughtful Vs. unreflective, wise Vs. foolish, and austere Vs. profligate tend to fall in similar positions on all three scales, at least to the extent of a correlation of .60; hence these three are clustered together (with others of similar sort) into the surface trait of disciplined thoughtfulness Vs. foolishness. They are called surface traits because the similarity lies on the "surface" (i.e. is evident in the actual raw ratings), without any transformation or process of inference leading to some less obvious underlying uniformity. They are readily observable, appear in interpersonal contacts, in one's way of doing a job, in responses to questionnaires.

By analysing a very large number of trait ratings and measurements, and then analysing them by factor analytic methods, Cattell (1957b) comes out with a picture representative of the whole personality sphere. The result of such an enormous amount of work is Cattell's 16 PF question-

naire. It yields scores on 16 relatively independent personality characteristics ("source traits") such as dominance, emotional stability, radicalism and will control.

(3) Developmental Theories : Theories that stress the importance of developmental history for personality need not deny the biological potentialities of the individual, as stressed in theories of physique or physiology, but they insist that this potential merely provides a set of limits within which personality takes shapes. Developmental theories tend to stress continuities: one can best predict what a person will do in a given situation by what he has done before in earlier situations that resemble the present. Thus environmental interaction finds a place in these theories, somewhat more firmly than in either type or trait theories.

(4) Dynamic Theories : There is one more way of looking at personality, and that is according to various strands that are in unstable equilibrium, so that present behaviour is a result of the interplay of various dispositions, often in conflict; these conflicts always take place in the present, no matter what their origins in the past may have been, so that theories of personality

dynamics - the theories concerned with these present conflicts - are inevitably interactive theories rather than developmental ones. Hence, many theories that are from one point of view developmental are from another angle concerned with personality dynamics; this is certainly true of psychoanalysis and of learning theories.

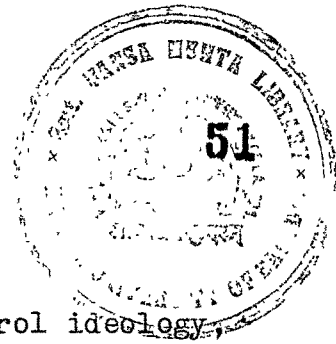
The present study uses Cattell's 16 PF Questionnaire and, therefore, draws more from the Trait Theories than any other groups of theories.

1.6 PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY

Another concern of the present study is also to examine the possible relationship that may be existing between climate typology and pupil control ideology. It becomes, therefore, necessary to clarify the conceptual framework of pupil control ideology as it is perceived and used in the present study. In selecting pupil control ideology as another independent variable of the study, it is assumed that not only the structural characteristics of the organization and personal characteristics of the individual influence the behaviour that occurs in the organizational context - the interaction of which gives

rise to what has been termed the "climate" or "personality" of the school, there are some additional social forces, or intervening variables which play salient role in shaping the organizational behaviour. Abbot (1965) cites the importance of ideology as an intervening variable in mediating the role incumbent's perception of his organizational role expectations. If perception of organizational role expectation influences organizational behaviour, then the pupil control ideology of teachers would seem to serve the basic function of structuring behaviour. Willower (1965) also pointed out by saying that pupil control problems play a central role in teacher-teacher and teacher-administrator relationships.

School being a social organization can be said to have its own culture emanating from its role expectations and functions. Society sends its children to school so that they learn, accumulate knowledge and develop skills. Schools are also expected to develop the interests, attitudes, habits and character of their pupils. These objectives cannot be achieved if the school system pursues a laissez-Faire policy - at least many think in this way. Thus, by its very role expectations, the school system develops a



culture with overtones of control. Pupil control ideology, thus, has become a part of school culture.

Further control is a problem faced by all organizations, but it is especially important in service organizations which work with people or clients rather than material goods. Schools are social units specifically vested with a service function, the socialization of the young. The objectives of the school as a social institution are to achieve major changes in the child. These changes are not restricted to cognitive behaviour (learning) but include a wide range of social, emotional, physical, and in some cases moral behaviour. Schools are people - developing or people-changing institutions.

The school being a service organization in which clients are unselected and participation is mandatory, it seems reasonable to assume that pupil control orientation is an important factor in intra-faculty relations. If pupil control is a salient feature of the organizational life of schools, and if statements concerning ideology correspond relatively well with behaviour, then pupil control orientation of the school may be thought of as another important correlate of the climate of schools.

Conceptualization of pupil control ideology can be done on these lines. Unlike production organizations which deal with inanimate objects, the personnel in "people-changing" organizations (e.g. schools) work with humans as raw material. The desired end product is an altered person. Moreover, the organization-client relationship is not voluntary in those people-changing organizations that pursue the most thorough-going alteration in individuals.

Street, Vinter and Perrow (1966) have maintained that with few exceptions... these organizations are performing functions crucial to the maintenance of social control. The theme of pupil control fits the general climate of the school and it fits the behaviour, particularly of teachers. It fitted the traditional picture of schools as places which pupils seek devoutly to avoid. It fitted in a general way the portrayal of teachers and schools found in such studies as Waller's (1932) early classic and the work of Becker (1961). Thus pupil control appears as a thread running through the fabric of the schools' culture.

In order to develop conceptualization it is a necessary prerequisite to consider more fully the nature of pupil control. Seen in a broader context, pupil control is

a form of social control, the process by which social order is established and maintained. Control implies requirements for behaviour and restraints upon behaviour and it is an essential ingredient of group life. In formal organizations, such requirements and restraints may take the form of rules and regulations. A much more inclusive concept than rules is that of norms, or standards for behaviour. A similar but somewhat narrower concept than norms, is that of role expectations - the rights and obligations of those in a given social position or status. Norms may be quite formal or explicit, as in the case of rules which are widely understood and accepted by the members of an organization, or they may take the form of standards for behaviour which are understood but not explicitly articulated. In other words, concepts such as norms, role expectations, and rules deal with the content of the behaviour to be controlled.

Compliance is insured by a system of sanctions or rewards and penalties. The nature of this system of sanctions can be used to specify types of control. When control is based upon sanctions which are primarily punitive, employing devices such as coercion, ridicuic, and the

withholding of rewards - is called external control. When control is based upon sanctions which are more personal and appeal to the individual's sense of right and wrong, stressing self-discipline rather than imposed discipline - is called internal control. Internal control is non-punitive and implies an optimistic view of those being controlled, while external control implies a pessimistic view of those being controlled.

A classification of client control ideology employed by Gilbert and Levinson (1957) to study staff ideology in mental hospital organizations has been adapted and used for the purposes of the present work. Pupil control ideology has been conceptualized along a continuum ranging from "custodialism" at one extreme to "humanism" at the other. These terms refer to contrasting types of individual ideology and to the types of school organization that they seek to rationalize and justify. They are "ideal types" or analytical abstractions in the sense in which Max Weber used the term; that is, they are pure types which may never be fully realised in experience.

Custodial Orientation : It refers to a school which is characterised by a setting which has prominent overtones of control. The discipline is based on strict observance of rules and regulation. Order is enforced by the adoption of punitive measures. The obedience and observation of the principal's and teachers' order rather than the respect of pupils' individuality seem to be the order of the day. There are many 'don'ts' for pupils. Strict procedures are resorted to in selecting pupils. Wearing school uniform, school crest, going to school assembly hall in set order without deviation, the mode of greeting the principal and teachers, and many other procedures turn the students into stereotypes. Corporal punishment, fines, debarring of students from participation of certain activities of the school are frequently used means to enforce discipline. Students are mostly selected from higher middle and high social groups. There is an air of artificiality about the behaviour and speech of pupils. Pupils are mischievous and they would behave in an irrational and irresponsible manner and, therefore, it is perceived by the principal and teachers that they should be controlled. Exercising³¹ of control over how pupils think and behave is perceived as a measure beneficial to the pupils in the longer run because control

brings in discipline and the latter brings in better learning, inculcation of better habits and moulding of better character. Premium is, therefore, placed on rigorous discipline and pressures from outside.

The truth that there are individual differences among pupils, that each individual is unique in himself and that his best development is achieved by giving him freedom to choose means and modes of his development has no place in the type of orientation. No attempt is made to motivate children from within. No move is made to understand them, their strengths and weaknesses and plan their development on these bases. There is considerable moralistic preaching. If it fails to keep some pupils on what the school perceives to be the right track, no hesitation takes place in using the rod. Teachers hardly mix freely with their pupils. They do not allow them to come close to them nor do they make any attempt to go close to them (pupils). The teacher-pupil relationship is impersonal. Mistrust seems to be the guiding devil of teachers' attitude to pupils. Willower Eidell and Hoy (1967:5) further characterise teachers' behaviour as under:

"Teachers holding a custodial orientation conceive of the school as an autocratic organization with rigidly maintained distinctions between the status of teachers and that of pupils. Both power and communication flow downward, and pupils are expected to accept the decisions of teachers without question."

The school becomes more like a military training camp or prison where pupils are ordered to behave rather than a temple of learning. Release of creativity among pupils has the least natural scope.

Humanistic Orientation : This gives a picture almost opposite to one operationally conceptualised above. The school is conceived as a community where principal, teachers and pupils are members, each having its own importance. Learning-effective learning is the goal and it is sought to be accomplished by the clash of free minds - through the continuous interaction and accumulating experiences. The school recognises the fact that each pupil is an individual who can learn best by developing his individuality, latent talents by free exercise of his mind. In such a school is indeed discipline. But it is not the discipline of a graveyard or a military camp but the discipline of a temple

where devotees are steeped in meditation. The discipline does not come from above; it comes from within. Teachers try to understand pupils on psychological, sociological and even economic bases. They recognise individual differences and endeavour to provide them a variety of rich learning experiences from which pupils try to derive as many benefits as their intellectual power and motivation permit. Pupils are not reduced to passive listening - no attempt is made to pump in knowledge into their minds - they are active, pulsating participants in the manifold learning experiences. Learning is also not narrowly conceived and equated with book learning, but as experiences in a wide field which include curricular, cocurricular and extra-curricular activities. Teachers try to understand achievement problems of pupils not through mere examinations but trying to understand their home (the parental relations, the workload on pupils at home, facilities available, etc.), their friends and intellectual equipment. There is counselling and guidance where custodial oriented teacher would resort to physical punishment. Teachers miss no opportunity to come close to their pupils and understand them. They try to meet their psychological needs of affection, recognition,

security and adventure. The problems of absentee pupils or dropped out are looked into with the same care and understanding as are given to the problems of the mischievous and trouble-making pupils. To quote Willower, Eisdell and Hoy (1967:5-6) :

"The humanistic teacher is optimistic that, through close personal relationship with pupils and positive aspects of friendship and respect, pupils will be self-disciplining rather than disciplined. A humanistic orientation leads teachers to desire a democratic classroom climate with its attendant flexibility in status and rules, open channels of two way communication. Teachers and pupils are willing to act upon their own, Volition and to accept responsibility for their action."

1.7 DOGMATISM : ITS NATURE AND MEANING

The third correlate of the present study is the belief-disbelief system. The term used to denote it is dogmatism. It is also necessary to clarify its conceptual framework.

The dictionary meaning of the term 'dogmatism' is 'adhering rigidly to a tenet.' However, Rokeach (1954)

used the term to refer to certain characteristics of belief-disbelief system. To be more specific, the definition of dogmatism has three focal points: (a) relatively closed cognitive organization of belief and disbeliefs about reality; (b) a certain set of beliefs about absolute authority and (c) a framework for the patterns of intolerance and qualified intolerance towards others provided by the set of beliefs.

Rokeach (1960) has provided two definitions of open- and closed-mindedness. The first definition makes a distinction between the dogmatics and the non-dogmatics among all the three dimensions of organization of belief-disbelief systems, viz., belief-disbelief dimension, central-peripheral dimension, and time-perspective dimension.

Open-mindedness refers to (i) a relatively low frequency of rejection of disbelief systems, (ii) inter-communication of parts among belief and disbelief systems, and (iii) little discrepancy in the degree of differentiation between belief and disbelief systems. In contrast, closed-mindedness refers to (i) a high frequency of rejection of disbelief systems, (ii) isolation of parts within belief and disbelief

systems, (iii) greater discrepancy between the degree of differentiation between belief and disbelief systems, and (iv) relatively low differentiation within disbelief systems.

The formal content of the central region of open organization of the belief-disbelief system is the belief that the world is friendly rather than hostile. The formal content of the intermediate region of such an organization is the faith that authorities are not absolute and that people are not to be evaluated on the basis of their faith or lack of faith in certain authorities. To a person having a closed system, the world is hostile and the authorities are infallible.

The peripheral beliefs of open-minded individuals, have inter-communication amongst themselves. This is not so with the peripheral beliefs of closed-minded individuals. Any communication between peripheral beliefs of closed-minded individuals is through the authority.

An open-minded individual has a relatively broad time perspective, i.e. the present, past and future are appropriately represented in his time perspective. In contrast, a closed-minded individual has a narrow time

perspective, i.e. either it is the past or the future which is over important for him.

In the second definition, Rokeach (1960) conceives that open- and closed-minded individuals differ in their ability to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant information and the separate substantial information from information about the source of the information. It is difficult for a closed-minded person to react to relevant characteristics of the situation because he is consistently under internal and external pressure not to do so. The internal pressures are unrelated beliefs, habits, perceptual ones, e.g. motives, power-needs, the needs for self-aggrandizement, and the needs to allay anxiety. The external pressures are expectations of rewards and punishments by an external authority. A person's system is open or closed to the extent to which, in Rokeach's (1960) own words :

"The person can receive, evaluate, and act on relevant information received from the outside on its own intrinsic merit, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation arising from within the person or from outside."

The two definitions suggested by Rokeach (1960) may be readily reconciled as follows: According to the first definition, to the extent to which a system is closed, there is greater tendency for the rejection of all disbeliefs, more isolation in beliefs and disbeliefs, high discrepancy in the degree of differentiation between belief and disbelief systems and less differentiation within the disbelief systems. According to the second definition, distinction between open and closed systems depends upon the ability to separate substantial information from information about the source and the ability to remain free from the influence of irrelevant factors both internal and external. Now, if one does not react to what is relevant in a situation due to inner compulsion or compulsion from an external authority, he would not be able to make a logical integration in his belief-disbelief systems of information emanating from the situation.

The failure to realise that any information contains some information about the matter concerned and some information about the source of information on its own intrinsic merit, results in a higher rate of acceptance of beliefs or rejection of disbeliefs. It also leads to a

discrepancy in what a person knows about the objects of beliefs and those of disbeliefs. The lack of information is also responsible for less differentiation within the disbelief system as a whole and inability to distinguish between different disbelief systems.

The formal content of primitive belief of a closed-minded person is that the world is threatening. A person who is strongly threatened and anxious is likely to react in a manner which may reduce threat and anxiety. That is why a closed-minded person becomes highly attuned to irrelevant external and internal pressures. The feeling of threat also makes an individual uncritical adherent to authorities.

For an accurate evaluation of information it is essential that an individual should have in his view past, present, and future. If he is over-concerned with remote past or remote future, he would fail to evaluate information on its own intrinsic merit.

1.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the major emphasis was in clarifying the meaning and building up of conceptual framework of the central theme of the study, namely, the organizational climate of schools and those of its three selected correlates, viz., personality (of school personnel), pupil control ideology and dogmatism. In the chapter that follows, a brief review of research work done in areas of school climate, personality factors, pupil control ideology and dogmatism will be examined. The treatment would be one of brief and quick review underscoring the possible relationship existing between school climate and these factors so that a further understanding of influences that go to build-up climate and give rise to variations among it can be developed.