

CHAPTER I :

A THEORETICAL FRAME OF RESEARCH

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

University education in India in the modern sense of the term was started during the British period. The narrow ends of which the universities were at first established were clearly discernible from the purpose of starting the universities, stated in 1857. One of the purposes was "to ascertain by means of examinations the proficiency acquired by candidates", and the other was "to provide a test of eligibility for government services" (Rais Ahmed, 1971). In this background, both the narrow spirit of the Indian University education and the dominating role of the examinations right from the inception of universities in the country are understandable. Some new thinking, however, was initiated by the Calcutta University Commission (1917-19) to improve the quality of University education.

In the post-independent period the innovative trends in university education gained momentum with the establishment of the University Education Commission (1948-49), the UGC Committee on Examinations including the one on Evaluation on Higher Education (1961), and the Education Commission (1964-66), which made valient and insightful proposals to reform university examinations. In this connection it may be said to the credit of the University Grants Commission that from

Fourth Plan period onwards, it has been supporting more prominently than before many programmes of qualitative improvement including innovative reforms in universities and colleges. Among these, in the course of the last three years or so, if there was any programme which received greater attention and support from the UGC leadership, it was the operative programme of examination reform. The UGC (1972) termed it as an "action programme" of examination reform. This programme is comprehensive and has almost become multi-dimensional. One of its most prominent dimensions is the introduction of SEMESTER SYSTEM of academic calendar in the institutions of higher learning in the country, and the gearing of other academic programme to it. The UGC had selected in this regard twelve universities to try out this action programme of which Madras University is one. In pursuance of this policy the Semester System is now being introduced in the university in its teaching departments and in its affiliated colleges. In fact, the College of Engineering and the Indian Institute of Technology in Madras have been having the semester pattern of academic calendar for over six years now.

As is very often the case with educational reforms, the decision regarding the introduction of semester system

also appears to have come from above and not from the teaching fraternity. It should, however, be remembered that teachers and students constitute two vital components of the university community without whose willing co-operation no reform is likely to succeed. The present research constitutes, perhaps, the first attempt to study in depth what one segment of the university, namely teachers, ^{feel} about the adoption of the Semester System on two important counts - its DESIRABILITY and FEASIBILITY.

The need to keep educational organizations like a university or a college vital and adaptive to changing conditions is a pressing practical problem as well as a significant theoretical area for research so much so a study of this kind can perhaps provide lessons about the reform process in general. Several perspectives run through the study. First, the introduction of the Semester System is sociologically significant because it represents an unprecedented attempt to mobilize leadership and co-ordination within the academic community for its success. Further the involvement of the UGC increases the legitimacy of the reform movement. Second, the way an educational organization actually functions and responds to adaptive needs depend on the perceptions of the members of the organization. The

perceptions are governed by a combination of personal and sociological considerations. In view of this assumption, the process of deliberate change can be understood better in terms of the perceptions of the academic community than in terms of the more rational or bureaucratic models of organizations. In this study, the perceptions of the college teaching community in regard to the innovative process of introducing Semester System is investigated from the points of view of

- (a) organizational climate of the Institutions;
- (b) Leadership Behaviour of the Heads of the Institutions;
- (c) Teacher Morale; and
- (d) 'Dogmatism' of the teaching community.

1.2 AN IDEOLOGY OF ACADEMIC CALENDAR*

The academic calendar is an essential feature of college organization. It is a major element in the framework for defining courses, teaching assignments, dormitory occupancy, and practically all other phases of academic activity since it directly affects everyone, it cannot

* The model is built with reference to the essay on 'Academic Calendars' by Warren D. Wells in "Handbook of College and University Administration (Academic)", Edited by Asa S. Knowles, 1970, pp.2.102-2.110.

please all and may not completely please any. The significant question is what calendar pattern to use. Unfortunately, no one pattern has yet emerged which satisfies varied demands put on it.

Educational Factors

A major premise in college calendars and curricular work is that there is some direct relationship between class exposure time and the amount taught and learned. There are regulations governing the minimum number of classes in education courses and a reduction in the number of weeks of classes^{which} raises serious questions about the coverage or exposure and about equivalency of credit.

An academic calendar does not determine educational goals or methods but should be appropriate to them. A paedagogical question related to the calendar pattern is the number of courses which a student takes concurrently. A Calendar with three terms per year allows and encourages this number to be lower than in the case of two semesters per year.

Cooperative, work-study programmes call for a calendar which facilitates and equalizes the alternating work and academic terms. These seem to have been best accommodated

under a quarter system with four equal terms per year.

Independent projects by students and an increased emphasis on self-education are trends which are having repercussions in calendar arrangements, the principal manifestation of which has been the appearance of short term of about four weeks (in U.S. colleges) occurring once in the academic year. The most popular time for this term has been January. Each student generally concentrates on one topic or project during this time, although it may be structured as a general theme being studied by all students, one regular course, an independent project, or off-campus work or study. It may also offer an opportunity to improve contact between students and faculty and may afford some of the latter an opportunity to concentrate on their own research.

It is easiest to operate with terms of an equal length of class time. Somewhat less convenient are terms of quite different lengths which are accommodated by differences in course load, and most troublesome are those which differs by only a few weeks in length. One major problem in the last arrangement is the difference in pace between terms for both faculty and students.

The duties associated with starting and ending a term - registration, grading, laboratory set-ups, etc. may represent a loss of valuable time and should be minimized. But there are the advantages of the counselling opportunity associated with registration and the feedback provided by grades.

Psychological factors

Research is continuing on the question of how to optimize learning, and part of this research concerns the pace and duration of an academic programme. The duration of the term and the academic year are related to the quality of education gained by a student. Pauses in the midst of sustained academic effort seem to be beneficial. This raises the question of the optimum frequency of such pauses; they should occur often enough to be refreshing but not so often that they become disruptive. There is need to consider the most effective time span for teaching, as there is evidence that year-round academic study leads to a deterioration in the quality of work for many students.

Since each person is unique in his learning characteristics, the central problem here is obvious. An academic calendar can probably best serve here by being set up to be

flexible in order to accommodate variations in curricula and teaching approaches.

A college term also has an aspect of psychological momentum which must be considered. As the start of a term there is a build-up of momentum, and then a letdown over the end of the term. The more terms there are in an academic year, the more problem there is with this rise and fall of momentum.

A general final-examination period, and any associated review or reading period is part of the pace and intensity consideration. They should be weighed against class time, as part of the overall consumption of time for education during the year.

Social factors

Summer is the accepted time for vacation throughout society. Faculty members, too, are accustomed to using this period for their own interests and vacations. To ask or expect students to undertake regular academic programmes during the summer is probably not feasible. The obvious exception to this is the cooperative programme which regularly is on a year-round basis but does have the compensation of alternate terms in a work situation.

The other major vacations at the end of the first two terms and major holidays are again breaks which people have come to expect in the course of the academic year. These vacations and holidays should be accounted for when determining the length of the term.

Administrative factors

The academic calendar is directly related to the degree of space utilization possible. Involved here are decisions on whether to operate on a five - or six-day week, a nine or twelve-months academic year, or with or without evening classes. Such decisions involve much more than efficiency since they strongly influence the style of a campus and affect the morale of a most valuable and costly part of a college, the faculty. An analysis of year-round proposals of either the trimester or four-quarter type of system shows that, to greatly increase the use of facilities, it would be necessary for a college to require to have equal size groups entering each term including summer term.

There are inevitable administrative expenses associated with starting and ending a term. Thus, efficiency argues for fewer terms per year. There is extra work involved for the faculty at the start and end of terms, so that the

faculty would probably also like to have as few terms as possible.

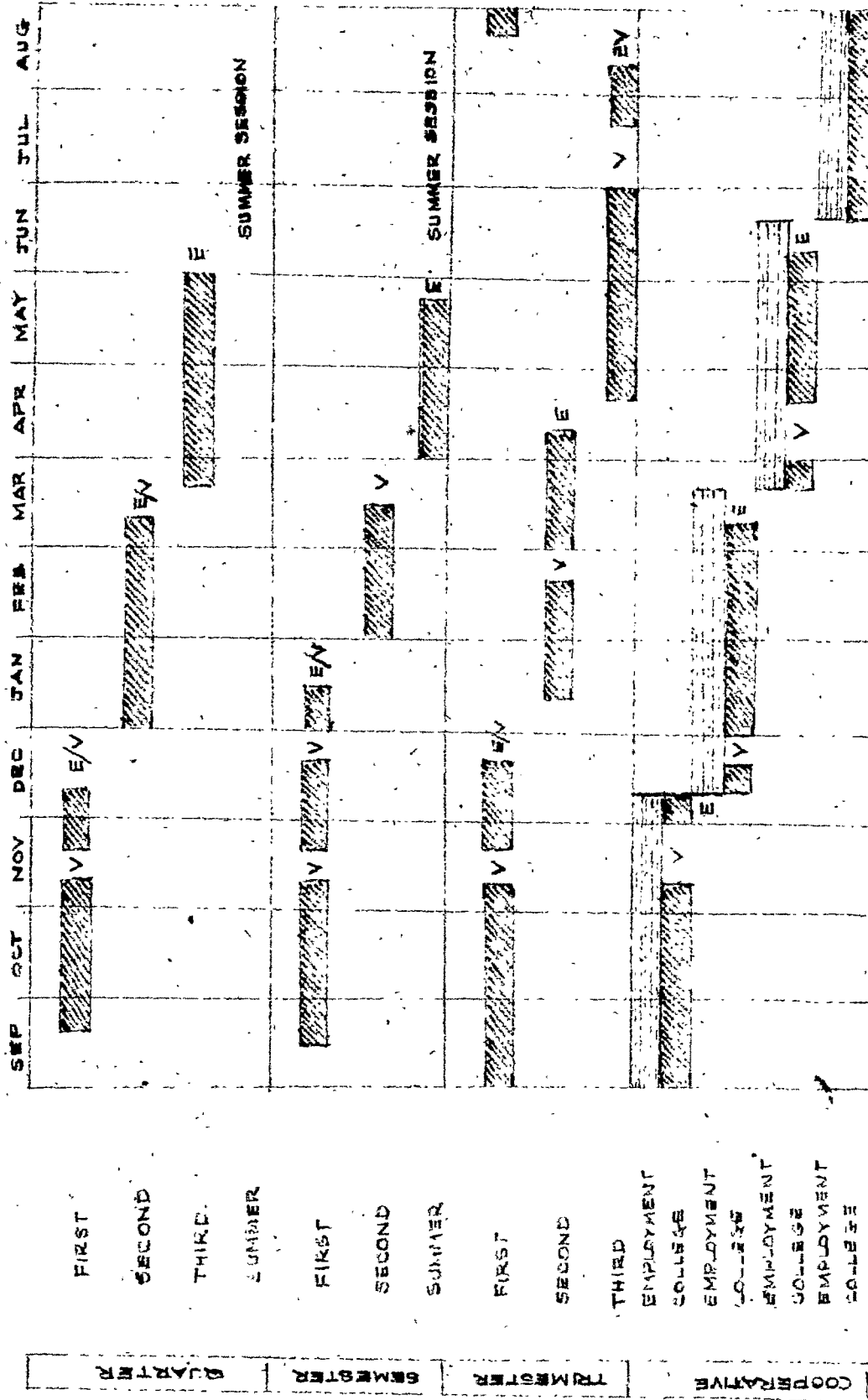
The calendar should allow some time for plant maintenance and renovation, which are constantly required by shifts in emphasis in academic and research fields. Such activities have customarily been concentrated in the summer period, when major portions of the college may be freed for this purpose.

Types of Calendars

Semester System :

A semester system is the most prevalent calendar, being used currently by about four-fifths of the colleges in U.S.A. and many other countries of the world. This calendar is generally composed of two regular terms of 15 weeks of classes each. In U.S.A. it extends from mid-or-late September to early June. The summer session normally is outside the regular-term academic pattern, is composed of sessions of varying lengths, caters to a different climate, has a different and limited array of course offerings, and is taught by a fraction of the regular staff. In addition to the 30 weeks of classes, a typical college year encompasses

Fig. 1.1. ACADEMIC CALENDERS IN AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.



QUARTER - THREE REGULAR TERMS PLUS A SUMMER SESSION.
 SEMESTER - TWO REGULAR TERMS PLUS A SUMMER SESSION.
 TRIMESTER - THREE REGULAR TERMS PER YEAR. STUDENTS ARE REQUIRED TO STUDY IN TWO OF THESE TERMS ONLY.
 COOPERATIVE - ALTERNATING PERIODS OF EMPLOYMENT AND STUDY ON A YEAR-ROUND BASIS.

time for registration and final examinations and time for recognized holidays and vacations (Fig.1.1).

Quarter system

The next most popular academic calendar is the quarter system, which is composed of three regular terms per year with about 10 weeks of class time per term and which encompasses an academic year with about the same overall length (typically 37 or 38 weeks) and with similar beginning and ending dates as under a semester system. The fourth quarter is most often a summer-session period outside of the regular programme and with a different emphasis. Generally, the students take four to six courses concurrently, similar to the programmes of the semester system.

Quarter System Vs. Semester System

Some people feel that the semester is a more favourable time length for the preparation of term papers, for extensive reading in connection with courses, for the maturing process, and for student interest to be built. Others feel that more frequent class meetings under the quarter system favour education and help maintain student interest. It is easier to allow time for a reading period at the end of each

semester than it is to allow one at the end of each quarter. Some also maintain that it is easier to arrange sequential course offerings under a semester plan than under a quarter plan. Some content that there are fewer examination periods per year in a semester system, which is advantageous to students, and that there is less time devoted to examinations. Some maintain that frequent examinations under a quarter system stimulate better student performance.

The quarter system requires the expenditure of more time for starting and closing terms. From an operational point of view, the semester plan is easier and more efficient. All the standard administrative procedures of registration, scheduling of classes and rooms, examinations, and the processing of grades and records are carried out twice during the academic year rather than the three times called for under the quarter system. Administrative cost would be higher under the quarter plan, but the main instructional costs, such as faculty salaries and overhead, would be the same for both systems.

Under the quarter plan the additional term per year permits readier evaluation of student progress and more

frequent student counselling. A quarter system allows greater flexibility in planning a program of studies or at least more changes, since students wishing to change their programmes may do so more-readily and frequently. On the other hand, the confusion attending the dropping and adding of courses during the early part of the term occurs less frequently under the semester system.

Cooperative Programme

Cooperative programmes most often use a quarter system, but with the fourth quarter being fully utilized as part of their regular year-round operation. The alternate terms at work afford both the students and the faculty a break in the academic routine. Very often cooperative programmes are only a part of a college's total programme and operate under the calendar arrangement which has been adopted to meet the overall goals of the college. Thus, many cooperative programmes for groups of students in particular fields function satisfactorily under a semester calendar, with the summer also being fully utilized. Some cooperative programmes cover the student's whole undergraduate curriculum, which generally results in an extension of the total

time to five years, some others only cover two years.

Trimester System

A few universities have tried a trimester calendar in recent years, a type of year-round academic system composed of three 15-week terms. It was devised to cope with the increasing pressure of more students and to provide for accelerating the education of students who contemplate an extended period of graduate study. A year-round system is a way of trading time for space and enables a college to handle more students in the same physical facilities.

Calendar Change

A major academic calendar is difficult and expensive to bring about and should not be undertaken lightly. As well as affecting the routine of everyone at the college, such an action includes the direct costs of the time of the many people who must plan and implement it, of the printing of a multitude of revised forms and publications, and of the extra communication and publicity to all interested parties. A careful appraisal of the work and cost involved for the advantages sought by a calendar change is vital in order to judge its worth.

Detailed planning should be carried out, based on a clear statement of the main objectives of the change and of the existing features to be retained. The particular calendar arrangement may affect the operating expenses of a college not only in terms of the academic budget but also with regard to the costs of dormitory operation, food service, maintenance, and construction.

A key factor in determining the calendar to use is faculty and student morale. The academic calendar determines to a major extent the schedule of each faculty member with regard to teaching, research, study opportunities, and his personal life as well. The personal schedule of each student with regard to study, work, vacations, and family relations is also affected. Since the individual's schedule is important to him, the calendar is a sensitive issue. The timing of faculty appointments, the cost of instruction, and the relation of the programme of course offerings desired to faculty appointments should all be considered with respect to a calendar change. Particular groups such as part-time, cooperative, nondegree, evening, and extension students all have their own peculiar time problems. The best calendar pattern is that which enjoys the most

enthusiastic backing of faculty and students.

various curricular and pedagogical questions need to be considered in relation to a change. What should be the length of a class period, the number of class hours per week and term, the number of weeks per term? Should the calendar accommodate students progressing at a faster or slower rate than the usual four years for a bachelor's degree? Should students be allowed or encouraged to study on a year-round basis? Should students be restricted in the number of courses which they take concurrently? How many courses are required for a degree? Should there be a reading period, and how long should it be?

If the length of the term is changed, the system of credit units may have to be changed (e.g., from semester hours to quarter units). A change in credit units will affect degree requirements, the relative weights of courses, tuition schedules, grade-point averages, and other similar items. The coverage in courses may have to change, and curricula may need whole-sale revision. A review may be needed in order to ascertain which courses should be offered more than once a year.

The length of the final examination period may need to be modified in relation to the fraction of the term which it consumes and to the length of the school year which is desired. The length of the examination period must also be weighed against considerations of the pace or examination frequency for the student and the availability of examination facilities and proctors.

Other items which need attention include articulation with interacting institutions, holidays, the break between terms, the timing and frequency of special events, board and room changes, and revised course and class-room schedules (Wells, W.D., 1970).

Calendar Criteria

Whatever may be the calendar pattern, the following criteria may be helpful in evaluating the academic calendar experiences and proposals.*

(1) The quality of our higher educational institutions be carefully safeguarded; a university calendar is not an end in itself but only a vehicle for implementing or strengthening particular educational values.

* Academic calendar policy, working paper No.18(Madison: Wisconsin Coordinating Committee for Higher Education, March 1966), p.2.

(2) The student should be allowed sufficient flexibility in entering upon his college programme and in pursuing his educational goals.

(3) More specifically, the freedom of the student to determine his own time of entry and his own academic pace thereafter should be fully preserved.

(4) The student who so desires should be afforded an adequate opportunity to accelerate his academic work through continuous or near-continuous year-long attendance.

(5) Existing physical facilities and institutional resources should be utilized to the fullest extent possible consistent with the values above.

1.3 AN IDEOLOGY OF SEMESTER SYSTEM

A. Concept

The literal or dictionary meaning of semester is half year. The Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary defines the word semester as 'A University half year course'. The University Grants Commission (1971) has stated that the division of the academic year implies that courses are designed to cover one semester instead of a year and that final examinations are held twice a year. Different from this

is the British System under which a student is assessed for his degree by an examination covering the whole of his undergraduate or post-graduate studies taken in his final term.

An academic year can also have three or four divisions, each being called Trimester or Quartermester respectively. A summer Semester may be organised to provide courses for those who want to complete their studies a little earlier or for those who want to make up for failure in earlier semester. In the Trimester and Quartermester Calendars the last division is held during summer and it is of shorter duration. Ordinarily each semester would have at least 100 working days excluding the examination period.

Sometimes in the same institution and for the same group of students there may be "year", "Semester", "Trimester" and "Quarter" courses, depending on the nature of the courses (SINGH, 1960).

In only a small number of universities in India, the Semester System has been introduced. Their calendars show variations. In the Meerut University, for instance, the academic year has been divided into two semesters, the first extends from July 1st to December 7th, and the second,

from December 8th to April 30th. In each Semester, in the Meerut University, there are 100 working days excluding the period of examination. In addition to these, there is the Summer Session of six weeks' duration, that is, from May 15th to the end of June. The examination comes at the end of each Semester - November 17th to 25th for the First Semester, and April 21st to 30th for the Second Semester and in the case of the Summer Session, in the last week of June. In the Aligarh Muslim University, the Semester System has been introduced since 1967. Here the two divisions of the academic year are from August 1st to November 30th, and from January 1st to April 30th with a Summer Semester or term with accelerated courses. Rais Ahemed (1969) observes, "The Departments of Study were asked by the University at the inception of Semester System to rearrange the quantum of work they would require their Honours students to do in terms of Semester-length courses. The Semester being about 16 weeks in duration, each semester course would be based on about 40 lectures and tutorials. The shorter courses would be based on 25 lectures delivered during a semester."

In the M.S. University of Baroda, the Semester System has been in vogue for a long time in the Faculties of Home -

Science, Social Work, Fine Arts, Education, and Technology and Engineering, but the duration of each Semester is not the same in all the faculties.

In the University of Madras, ninety clear working days constitute a semester. Accordingly the opening date of the First Semester is fixed not later than July 1st, and the closing date for admission in the First Semester is around July 15th. The duration of the First Semester is from July 1st to October 31st and that of the Second Semester is from December 1st to March 31st. The dates of commencement of the examination of the university are fixed around November 15th for the First Semester and April 15th for the Second Semester. The concluding dates of the examination will vary for the different major subjects (Rajammal Devados, 1976).

B. Philosophy

The Semester System is a constructive innovation mainly because it greatly helps to reduce the impact of the annual examination in distorting the objectives of education. It acts as a vehicle for implementing and strengthening particular educational values such as developing good study habits, critical thinking, and self-reliance in students. In a Semester System, the student is allowed sufficient

flexibility in entering upon his college programme and in pursuing his educational goals at his own speed and level of ability. The system allows opportunity to desirous students to accelerate or make good his academic work through near-continuous year long attendance or permits him to get a drop if his economic conditions require some gainful employment between periods of learning or research. Further, under the Semester System existing physical facilities and instructional resources are utilized to the fullest extent possible. This is an important consideration in a poor country like India, where expansion has outstripped the ability of the State to step up physical and human facilities to cope up with the demands of mounting student enrolments.

C. Curriculum

The courses in a semester System are intended to be of flexible structure and inter-disciplinary in nature to provide for student interest and need. This is actually the case in American Universities as observed earlier and also in some Indian Universities like Aligarh and Meerut. The material in each course-unit would be such that it may be covered in lectures over a period of 20 weeks. These courses could be made of half-units or connected sequences of such

units but as far as possible self-consistent and self-contained topics, areas or units. These may be called unitary or semester courses in choosing the course. The student is also allowed to change his course if he or she finds it uninteresting or difficult to cope with.

The courses are organised on the basis of the number of hours students are required to put in for their study. The courses carry the number of hour credits on the basis of hours put in by students per week for study. A two credit course involves two periods a week and a four-credit course 3 or 4 periods per week. For a four-semester course, the number of prescribed credits is 80 and for six semester course the number of credits is 120. The normal work load for a student is 20 periods per week and the minimum requirement of attendance for a course is 80 per cent.

Desai (1970) (1971) explains how the Credit System operates in the Aligarh Muslim University. He observes that the University has set the total requirements of the Honours Courses at 120 credits or roughly 30 full courses or about (30 x 40) 1200 hours of study work spread over 3 years. Every student is required to offer at least 24 credits from courses of General and Compulsory Category, in which

there is a considerable choice of courses available. Out of the remaining 96 credits, at least half of the courses carrying 48 credits lie in the subsidiary category, and the remaining 48 credits are assigned as the minimum in the area of the main subject.

D. Teaching

The process of bi-yearly examinations in the semester System requires that teacher plan their instructional work in advance. Each course-unit would be devoted week-long continuous and concentrated teaching and study (as against 3 days in a week for ten months in the present system) with the result more systematic teaching and heading of course material would become possible without 'hang-over' of the subject for one full year as at present. Teaching devices are varied according to needs. Besides lecture, other devices such as discussion, field work, term papers, (tutorials, field or practical work) guided reading, etc. would be used.

E. Class Strength

In a Semester System the class strength is usually small. This is in view of the large number of inter-disciplinary courses offered and the tight schedule of classwork

and internal assessment. In humanities and social sciences the class strength would be about 50, and in professional courses and for science subjects 25 to 30. On the whole the teacher-student ratio is small, that is, 1:10 to 15 at the graduate level and 1:7 to 10 at the post-graduate level and in the professional courses. The investigator learnt from the teachers in the M.S. University of Baroda and also from the Central Examination Reform Committee of the University that some Faculties of the University like Arts, Commerce and Law were reluctant to adopt the Semester System Courses in their Departments because the teacher-student ratio in them was frightfully high. The University seemed to realise this, but was unable to take any steps because its annual deficit as was understood had exceeded several lakhs of rupees and the university had practically been subsisting on overdrafts from banks at high rate of interest which again added to its recurring annual deficits.

F. Evaluation

In a typical semester System the evaluation is purely internal but under certain circumstances as in an affiliating university the evaluation could be partly internal and partly external. In internal assessment, the evaluation is carried out

by the teacher who teaches the group. The evaluation is continuous and is based on tests like announced and unannounced written tests and quizzes and assignments like term papers, tutorial and practical work and other forms of sessional work. Evaluation tools consist not only tests and assignments of various kinds but also checklists, ^{and} rating scales, and Viva-Voce test is deemed to be necessary and is conducted to finalise the internal records of the students.

The continuous sessional work including that of evaluation naturally adds to the work load of teachers and students. In some universities internal assessment has sparked off student unrest on the imagined or real fear of subjectivity and corruption associated with private tuition work.

In evaluation, initially marks are given which are later converted to letter grades. This practice is also objected because some students suffer in the process of conversion of marks into grades. The UGC has, therefore, advocated grading of questions straight away and then computing an overall grade on a seven point basis.* In a semester, a candidate failing to reach the qualifying level in any course

* Vide - Summary of the Recommendations of the UGC Seminar on Action Programme in Examination Reform, August 1975.

or paper at an examination would not be branded as 'detained or failed'. On the other hand, he would be allowed to undergo instructions prescribed for the next semester and is required to clear the unfinished courses or papers of the previous half-year as 'left-overs'. This process of clearing the 'left-over' may be allowed to go on till the candidate reaches the end of final degree examination. He would not be repeating the semester course simply because he has failed in some course-unit. He would be admitted to the degree only when he has completed the requirements of clearing all courses or papers prescribed for the degree. In some universities, however, only two chances are given for a student to pass a semester examination. A student who fails thus is advised to opt for a change of course or to discontinue the course.

G. Learning

The student assumes regular responsibility for his progress. Prompt and regular attendance at all class appointments is required of every student. Three tardiness count as one absence. Absence may lower the students' grade in a course and if for any reason the total number of absences exceeds three times the number of class appointments per week in a course, the credit will be forfeited and a grade of 'failed' recorded. The student is advised to inform his

teacher in advance of any necessary absence from classes. This does not constitute an excuse from classes.

The class load is computed on the basis of the semester or credit hour which represents one fifty-minutes class period per week throughout a semester or term of eighteen weeks, and approximately two hours of preparation for each class period. One laboratory period of approximately two and one-half hours in length is considered equal in value to one lecture period.

Under normal conditions each college student is expected to take at least twelve hours of class work ^{per week} /each semester. Fourteen to sixteen hours constitute a normal load. As observed earlier, in the Aligarh Muslim University, a Semester is of 16 weeks in duration and the Semester course is based on 40 lectures and tutorials. The shorter courses are based on about 25 lectures delivered in a semester. In the Faculty of Education and Psychology, a two credit Semester course carries at least 4 hours or periods of teaching in a week. A student's class load is decided by such factors as his academic standing and his financial position. Students who are employed on or off the campus are required to adjust their class load in harmony with the course schedule. A student who has been permitted to carry a class

or work overload must maintain satisfactory progress. If he fails to maintain progress in his studies, his class or work load will be reduced.

With the semester system, a highly motivated and capable student can complete more courses and less motivated or weak student can do less number of courses. Regular study habits are built up in students in view of his being continuously evaluated which provides him with periodic feedback.

H. Organization

The departments of studies or units are decentralised as decisions pertaining to curriculum, teaching, examination, and student discipline are taken by the departments and the teachers concerned. The inter-disciplinary nature of the curriculum makes co-operation between the various disciplines and departments imperative within the department itself, and each teacher assumes definite responsibility in the conduct of the course. There is great scope for the teachers to be experimental and innovative. There is fluent communication between teachers, and the teachers are much better motivated than in the traditional system.

I. Plant and Equipment

In view of the nature of the semester courses which involve a great deal of student self work such as preparation of assignments and term papers, provision should be made for general and departmental libraries, resource-centre for instructional material, science laboratories, study rooms, tapes and recorders, films and projectors and simple calculating machines. The internal evaluation makes it necessary to have question banks, examination evaluation section, proforma for reporting results and accommodation for storing evaluation materials.

Values of Semester System in General

The Semester System has some distinct advantages, and certain values accrue from its practise.

One great advantage is the flexibility it achieves in the selection of courses by students. A student gets, to a varying degree depending upon the curricular facilities available, freedom of choice of courses (according to their abilities, aptitudes, interest and needs) as against none or little in the traditional system.

The second significant advantage is the possibility of introducing courses on an interdisciplinary basis. The

Kothari Commission (1966) has laid great stress on promoting interdisciplinary studies, on new combination of subjects, and on new methods of cooperation. In this regard it is well to note that in the course of undergraduate study, the components of the main subject must also be variable to a certain degree. A student and perhaps his adviser must be left with the choice to determine the components of the main subject and also of some of the subsidiary subjects, in keeping with the intellectual requirements of the particular main subject as also of the inclinations or abilities of the student concerned. A rigid pattern of main and subsidiary courses, even though it may be superficially inter-disciplinary, should not be encouraged because the essential features of inter-disciplinary study is the open choice of the components of the study.

The third advantage lies in the improvement it does in student attendance which is at present irregular and indifferent. It assures a minimum number of contact hours, as it lays down attendance requirements in terms of hours for a course rather than in terms of certain percentage of days attended (Desai, D.M., 1970).

The fourth advantage is that it builds up regular

study habits and a sense of purpose in the students as they are subjected to continuous evaluation and the consequent follow-up measures.

The fifth advantage is that it eliminates the concept of "failure" and this has a healthy psychological influence on the minds of the students. A concomitant value is that it reduces wastage of human material caused by failures at each examination and saves the student and his family from financial and emotional strain arising from failures and consequent frustration. The semester system provides the students with the facility and convenience to clear the degree courses at their own pace permitted by their resources.

The sixth advantage is that the system is more convenient for those who appear through correspondence courses or as private candidates because in this system there is provision for part-time instruction on credit accumulation basis.

Summing up, the following advantages could be enumerated as salient to semester system. (Gupta, G.P., 1971).

1. Reduction of waiting period for tests of proficiency from one year to six months.

2. Curtailment of work-load for each examination without reducing the total quantity of courses.
3. Resolving fear complex among the students against examinations by reducing the gap between two examinations.
4. Avoidance of wastage of human material through detention and failures, without lowering the standard.
5. More intensive and compact teaching by devoting more time and introducing compact teaching practices.
6. Supplementary examinations and re-examinations will be dispensed with resulting in economy and comfort to administration.
7. Course contents and course material will be improved through compact teaching and concentrated instructions in the class-rooms.
8. Awareness about the examination among the examinee-students and a sense of trust in the system.

J. Problems and Possible Solutions*

1. Redevelopment of Courses.

One difficulty that is very often pointed out relates to recasting and reorienting the syllabi in such a manner as to introduce an inter-disciplinary approach. The task cannot

* Desai, D.M., discusses the topic in his book, "Some Critical Issues of Higher Education in India, 1970, pp.181-186.

be performed under the present constitution and functioning of our Board of Studies and Faculties which operate as separate entities. At present this is the weakest aspect of the semester system in those universities where it is adopted.

The problem could be tackled by developing the courses at meetings of groups inter-disciplinary in nature under the guidance of some experts in curriculum development. Another way is to restrict the courses to each discipline, and leave the department to invite collaboration from other allied departments or adopt interdisciplinary approach in teaching instead of organizing courses of this nature. This is what is largely done at Baroda, and Meerut.

2. Inter-disciplinary Time Table.

The second great difficulty is the framing of a flexible time table cutting across the boundaries of a number of courses in different disciplines. The framing of inter-disciplinary time tables is indeed time-consuming. Its success depends upon willing and firm co-operation among different inter-disciplinary departments. But it is not a difficulty insurmountable. A university can assign the responsibility of directing and co-ordinating the works of the preparation of time-table on the inter-disciplinary basis to

a senior teacher. He may be a full-time or a part-time co-ordinator who works with the Head of different departments on the university campus or of local constituent colleges and he develops the time-table of inter-disciplinary courses well in advance, so that it can be printed and placed in the hands of the intending students a little before the commencement of the academic programme for a new academic year or a semester. The co-ordinator should have an office with secretarial help and with the facility of a telephone. He, with the help of his office, should be in a position to make adjustments in the time-table if unforeseen circumstances warrant them. To begin with a university or a college can limit inter-disciplinary courses to one Faculty or a college. In that case the framing of an inter-departmental time-table offering flexible courses within a Faculty or among different departments of a college should not be difficult.

3. The Staff-student Ratio

Certainly more staff would be needed if a fairly good number of interdisciplinary courses are offered. If courses are made short and sharply focused, it would again necessitate increase in staff. More and varied courses would mean more classrooms for lectures, seminars and laboratories for practicals.

But this should not be an insurmountable hurdle. What an institution should do is to examine the work-load pattern of its teachers, and make the assignment of teaching, practical work, guidance, etc. in such a way that wastage may be avoided and reasonably some more time of teachers can be economised which could be utilised for teaching new courses. New recruitment for course that are new and for which competence is not available in the existing staff will have to be made. There is no escape from it. But it should be possible for the UGC to support such additional staff through its grant-in-aid for developmental programmes.

If an institution decides to make its time-table from morning to late evening, the question of shortage of classrooms and laboratory can be considerably made up. As such there is at present much under-utilisation of resources in institutions of higher education in India.

4. Inter-University Mobility

It is sometimes held that the Semester System and the new courses, however, progressive, advantageous, purposeful or perfect they might be, are likely to cause difficulties in respect of inter-university mobility. The adjustment of ..

evaluation procedures of a university which adopts such a system with other centres of learning, which have not so far given it a place in their academic schemes, may cause not a little confusion and even headaches. This difficulty could be overcome by evolving some procedures of determining equivalence by the universities themselves depending upon the nature of the cases of migration. In fact compared to American and British universities, the inter-university mobility in India is very little.

5. Student Attendance

In order that the semester system achieves its objectives of keeping the student community busy all round the year, it is necessary to lay down attendance requirements. The current practices in many universities of laying down an overall percentage of attendance, would need a change. It would be advisable to lay down attendance requirements in terms of hours for each course. It, therefore, becomes necessary to make arrangements for keeping records of attendance on a fool-proof basis which in fact is a real problem. But this problem could be solved by obtaining the students' signatures for attending each course and by appointing student leaders to help the teachers in supervising attendance and maintaining records of the same.

6. Internal Evaluation.

Generally speaking, the semester system implies internal evaluation also. It is often maintained that though internal evaluation is sound on paper, yet it does not work in practice especially in affiliating universities, each having 50 or more colleges attached to it. There are quite a large number of educators including university teachers who do not favour and are not ready for the adoption of cent per cent internal evaluation system.

The difficulty in regard to evaluation can be obviated by allowing those universities, and within a university those faculties or colleges which are not ready for full internal evaluation to adopt a system of evaluation which is partially internal and partially external. There are three ways of doing this.

One way is to assign a fairly reasonable 30 to 50 per cent weightage to internal evaluation through periodical tests, practical assignments, term papers, participation in seminars, etc. When this internal evaluation is done by a number of teachers, some arrangement for moderation through developing evaluative criteria and specifications or converting the marks given by different teachers to standard scores by

using simple statistical formulae may be adopted with advantage, which would help in reducing the degree of subjectiveness of internal assessment.

The second way is to do away with the external examination but to retain the external examiners. This is what is being done at present by many universities in the U.K. The assessment of students' work may be entrusted internally to the institution's teachers, but outside examiners are appointed to examine the validity of this assessment by checking up sampled cases of distinction, first classes, second classes, border line second classes and failures. This should work in our colleges and universities.

The third way of doing is by following the practices of Meerut University. The examination papers are set by external examiners, but the answer-scripts are assessed internally by the university teachers. The external examiners are assembled at different evaluation centres to examine the scripts during specific hours of the day under the overall direction and guidance of the Head or Deputy Head Examiner (who is a senior university teacher).

7. An Over-load of Tests :

The semester system does carry full or partial

provision for internal evaluation of the sessional work by teachers themselves. When the number of courses are very many, the internal sessional tests become a continuous load on the minds of the students, and because of the tension created by tests, they cannot really enjoy their student life. At times, students are required to take three to four tests in a day, which is very much tiring for them. When there are tests, the students are found absenting themselves from attending other periods on that day, as they read for the tests.

This difficulty seems to be real. But it can be improved upon by arranging to hold tests on only Saturdays and that, too, not more than two tests on a single Saturday. If the time-table of tests for a month is formulated and if it is announced sufficiently early, it will not create tension on students, and tests will not be a heavy load on them.

1.4 AN IDEOLOGY OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

One of the most significant developments in the study of educational administration in recent years has been the shift of focus from the administration theory to the organization theory. Organisational climate is thus a new field of research which started by the study of climates in schools.

The organizational climate of a school is generally interpreted to mean what is commonly known as the "tone" or the "atmosphere" of a school. This could be further explained by saying that when we visit more than a few schools, we could quickly note how schools differ from one another in their "feel". In one school the teachers and the head of the school find pleasure in working with each other and in another, the teachers show discontent towards their profession and yet in another school the whole atmosphere may be marked by neither joy nor despair but by hollow ritual. Thus each school would appear to have a 'personality' of its own. It is the 'personality' that Halpin and Croft (1966) described as the "Organizational Climate" of the school.

Organizational climates have marked consequences on the behaviour of the members of the organization and consequently on the performance of the organisation. In spite of the obvious difference between the climates of organisations, it is not easy to specify the dimensions of such differences.

Pace and Stern (1958) conceptualised the climates of an educational organisation as consisting of personality characteristics and values of its members and the organisational pressures on the students, administration and faculty. In the

discussion of the organizational climate of schools, Astin and Holland (1961) theorized that the major portion of environmental pressures is dependent upon the nature of the people within the environment. Boyle (1965) conceptualised climates as consisting of both the structural characteristics of the school and the characteristics of the students.

According to Backman and Secord (1968), three factors define climate. (1) the personality characteristics, abilities, motives, values, career and educational plans and past experiences of the entering students. (2) The norms, values, role requirements and other characteristics of the school such as the exercise of authority, size, availability of facilities and nature of ^{the} setting. (3) The traditions and collective feelings passed from one generation of students to another. These three factors, however, are not independent of each other, but interact to some extent.

Lonsdale (1964), defined the organisational climate as the global assessment of the interaction between the task-achievement dimension and the need-satisfaction dimension within the organisation, or, in other words, of the extent of the task needs integration. Lonsdale used the two terms 'task-achievement dimension' and 'need-satisfaction

dimension' synonymously with the 'nomothetic' (institution) and 'idiographic' (individual) respectively. According to this definition, 'organizational climate' is that state of the organisation which results from the interaction which takes place between task-achievement accomplished by the individual members and the need-satisfaction derived by them while discharging their roles responsible for task achievement.

For a long time the term "climate" has been rather generally and imprecisely used to describe the 'feeling' or 'atmosphere' of organisations. The term organisational climate has given somewhat more precise meaning in recent years through the contribution of a number of researches that demonstrate that schools and colleges differ in their organizational climates as they are perceived by their members. Davis (1963), Pace (1963), Coleman (1961), Wilson (1959), Turner (1964), Astin (1961) and Stern (1963) have conducted extensive studies in the field.

Types and dimensions of organizational climate

A lead in the direction of evolving an organizational climate typology for educational institutions was given by Halpin and Croft in 1963. The major impetus which made Halpin and Crofts to study the organizational climate of schools was

their desire to observe how schools differ in their organizational climate. The second one was their dissatisfaction with the concept of morale. Studies about morale in a school failed to tell them enough about the school's organizational climate. The third one was a direct outgrowth of their experience with Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) studies (Halpin, 1966). They felt that some kind of matching had to be made between a leader's style and how ready the group members were to accept his style. Accordingly, such information as the LBDQ gave about a leader needed to be supplemented with related information about the organization itself. The fourth impetus was their interest in organizational climate of schools, hospitals, military units and business corporations. These four institutions promoted Halpin and Croft to study the organizational climate of the schools. They described the 'organizational climate' of a school as the 'organizational personality' of the school. They declare 'climate' is to the organization what 'personality' is to the individual. They identified six types of 'organizational climate', (1) Open, (2) Autonomous, (3) Controlled, (4) Familiar, (5) Paternal and (6) Closed.

The authors constructed eight sub-tests for measuring

organizational climate, four on Teacher's behaviour and four on Principal's behaviour. Teachers' behaviour sub-tests are intended to measure (1) Disengagement, (2) Hindrance, (3) Esprit, and (4) Intimacy. Principal's behaviour sub-tests are intended to measure (1) Aloofness (2) Production Emphasis (3) Thrust and (4) Consideration. The characteristics of these sub-tests are, firstly, they constitute two categories of behaviour as has been stated namely, the teachers' behaviour as a group, and the principal's behaviour as a leader and, secondly, in the case of each set of four behaviours, two of them are negative and the other two positive. Thus Disengagement, Hindrance, Aloofness and Production Emphasis are negative behaviours and the rest positive. Thirdly, it is the extent to which these behaviours are present in the school environment that causes the variations in the school climate typology. Fourthly, these behaviours are presented in operational terms.

Organizational Climate Dimensions

A. Group (teachers') behaviour dimensions

1. Disengagement refers to the teacher's behaviour of disinterestedness and noninvolvement in a task oriented situation.

2. Hindrance refers to the teachers' feeling that the Principal burdens them with unnecessary work and thus perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating in performing their normal work.

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

4. Intimacy refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes social need satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.

B. Principal's Behaviour dimensions

5. Aloofness refers to the behaviour of the Principal which is characterized as formal and impersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behaviour in brief is universalistic rather than particularistic; 'nomothetic' rather than 'idiographic'. To maintain this style he keeps himself at least, "emotionally", at a distance from his staff.

6. Production Emphasis refers to behaviour by the Principal which is characterised by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and his communication tends to go in only one direction and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

7. Thrust refers to behaviour by the Principal which is characterized by his evident effort in trying to "move the organization". Thrust behaviour is marked not by close supervision, but by the Principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers to give of themselves any more than what he willingly gives of himself, his behaviour, though strictly task-oriented, is none-the-less viewed favourably by the teachers.

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

School Climate types.

Under the eight components or sub-tests described above, Halpin and Croft developed an organizational climate study-tool entitled "The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire"

(the OCDQ) with the help of which they identified six climates - Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal and Closed in a continuum.

1. The Open Climate

(a) Behavioural Description

The open climate depicts a situation in which the members enjoy extremely high 'Esprit'. The teachers work well together. They are not burdened by mountains of busy work or by routine reports. The principal's policies facilitates the teacher's accomplishments of their tasks. There is thus low 'Hindrance'. On the whole the group members enjoy friendly relations with each others. The teachers obtain considerable job satisfaction, and are sufficiently motivated to overcome difficulties and frustrations. They possess the incentive to work things out and to keep the organization "moving".

The principal is not aloof, nor are the rules and procedures which he sets up inflexible and impersonal. He does not have to emphasize production, nor does he need to monitor the teachers' activities closely, because the teachers do, indeed produce easily and freely.

On the whole the open climate describes an energetic

and lively organization which is moving towards its goals, and which provides satisfaction for the social needs of the group members. Leadership acts emerge easily and appropriately from both the groups and the leader. The main characteristic of this climate is the "authenticity" of the behaviour that occurs among all members.

(b) Characteristics of this Climate :

Low Disengagement, Low Hindrance, High Esprit, Average Intimacy, Average Aloofness, Low Production Emphasis, Average Thrust, and High Consideration.

2. The Autonomous Climate :

(a) Behaviour Description :

The distinguishing feature of this organizational climate is the almost complete freedom that the Principal gives to teachers to provide their own structures - for interaction so that they can find ways within the group for satisfying their social needs. When the teachers are together in a task-oriented situation they are engaged in their work; they achieve their goals easily and quickly (low 'Disengagement'). The essential point is that the teachers do work well together and accomplish the task of the organization. There is also low 'Hindrance'. The morale of the teachers is high,

but not as high as in the open climate. The high morale probably stems largely from the social-need satisfaction which the teachers receive.

The Principal remains aloof from the teachers, for he runs the organisation in a business like and in a rather impersonal manner (high 'Aloofness'). His leadership style favours the establishment of procedures and regulations which provide guidelines that the teachers can follow; he does not personally check to see that things are getting done. There is low 'Production Emphasis'. The principal is considerate, and he attempts to satisfy the social needs of the teachers (average 'Consideration'). He also provides 'Thrust' for the organisation by setting an example and by working hard himself. But his range of administrative behaviour as compared to that of the Principal in the Open Climate, is somewhat restricted.

(b) Characteristics of the Climate

Low Disengagement, Low Hindrance, High Esprit, High Intimacy, High Aloofness, Low Production Emphasis, Average Consideration, and Average Thrust.

3. The Controlled Climate

(a) Behavioural Description :

The controlled climate is marked by a press for achievement at the expense of social-need satisfaction. Everyone works hard. There is little time for friendly relations with others. This climate is overweighted towards task-achievement and away from social-needs satisfaction. None-the-less, since morale is high, this climate can be classified as more open than closed. The job satisfaction among teachers found in this climate is primarily from task-accomplishment, not from social need satisfaction.

The Principal is described as dominating and directive, he allows little flexibility within the organisation, and he insists that everything be done "his" way (high 'Production Emphasis'). He is somewhat aloof. He becomes dogmatic when members of the group do not conform to his views. He cares little about how people feel; the important thing is to get the job done. There is low 'Consideration'. He tries to move the organisation by working hard, and he personally sees to it, that everything runs properly. Leadership acts emanate chiefly from him, rather than from the group. On the whole, the controlled climate is characterised best as

impersonal and highly task-oriented. Though Esprit is fairly high, it reflects achievement at some expense to social satisfaction. This climate lacks openness, or authenticity of behaviour, because the group is disproportionately pre-occupied with task achievement.

(b) Characteristics of the Climate :

Low Disengagement, High Hindrance, Average Esprit, Low Intimacy, Average Aloofness, High Production Emphasis, Average Thrust, and Low Consideration.

4. The Familiar Climate

(a) Behavioural Description

The main features of this climate is the conspicuously friendly manner of both the principal and the teachers. Social-need satisfaction is extremely high. But little is done to control or direct the groups activities towards goal achievement. The teachers are disengaged and accomplish little in a task-oriented situation, primarily because the Principal exerts little control in directing their activities. There is low Hindrance, The teachers have established personal friendship among themselves (High Intimacy). Morale is average. But it stems primarily from social need satisfaction.

The Principal shows high consideration. He wants everybody to know that he, too, is one of the group, that he is in no way different from anybody else. The Principal is not domineering and directive. Few rules and regulations are established as guides to suggest to the teachers how "things should be done" (low Aloofness). He does not emphasize production. Little is done either by direct or indirect means to evaluate or direct the activities of the teachers.

(b) Characteristics of the Climate.

High Disengagement, Low Hindrance, Average Esprit, High Intimacy, Low Aloofness, Low Production Emphasis, Average Thrust and High Consideration.

5. The Paternal Climate

(a) Behavioural Description

The paternal climate is characterised by the ineffective attempts of the Principal to control the teachers as well as to satisfy their social needs. The teachers do not work well together. There is high 'Disengagement'. Few hindrances burden the teacher. The teachers do not enjoy friendly relations with each other (low Intimacy). 'Esprit' among members is as they obtain inadequate satisfaction in respect to both task-accomplishment and social needs.

The Principal is non-aloof. He knows everything that goes on in the school. He gives due emphasis to the things that are to be done, but somehow nothing does get done. He is considerate but he uses this consideration behaviour to satisfy his own social needs. He preserves an average degree of 'Thrust'.

In brief the paternal climate is characterised as one in which the Principal constrains the emergence of leadership acts from the group and attempts to initiate most of these acts himself. This climate is a partially closed one.

(b) Characteristics of the Climate

High Disengagement, Low Hindrance, Low Esprit, Low Intimacy, Low Aloofness, High Production Emphasis, Average Thrust and Average Consideration.

6. The Closed Climate

(a) Behavioural Description

The closed climate marks a situation in which the group members obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task-achievement or social-needs. The principal is ineffective to direct the activities of the teachers and at the same time he is not inclined to look out for their personal welfare.

"Institutional Behaviour" as a new dimension of
Organizational Climate

Halpin and Croft used only two sets of behaviours, viz., the leader's behaviour and the group's behaviour in their OCDQ. But researches undertaken by the Department of Educational Administration, M.S. University of Baroda in 1976 and 1977* identified four more organizational climate dimensions peculiar to some Indian situations. These dimensions denoted the existence of some common administrative behaviour factor. The tool standardised in these studies to measure Organizational Climate had an additional cluster of tests namely "Institutional Behaviour" with sub-tests for the four dimensions, (i) Organizational Structure, (ii) Human Relations (iii) Communication, and (iv) Democratization and Freedom. The tool which is known as "Questionnaire on Institutional Climate" (QIC), Baroda version, form II, has thus all the dimensions of the OCDQ plus the 'Institutional Behaviour' dimensions. The QIC, however, categorises the Institutional Climates into three, that is, Open Climate, Intermediate Climate, and Closed Climate unlike the OCDQ which gives six classification of school climates as described earlier.

* Studies of Samrong Pengnu (1976), Kirit Gandhi (1977) and Anjani Mehta (1977), Faculty of Education & Psychology, M.S. University of Baroda.

Institutional Behaviour Dimensions

9. Organizational Structure refers to the tendency to make infra-structure rigid, bureaucratic, learning largely on line-and-staff relations and status emanating from seniority. It is presumed that all good "ideas" - knowledge, competence, and ability-flow from those who stand high in the hierarchy. In short, this dimension focuses on the administrator's behaviour to run the organization on lines consistent with the bureaucratic and mechanistic behaviour often associated with the officialdom of the Education Department.

10. Human relationship goes somewhat beyond "Consideration" described in dimension eight. It does refer to the quality of personal relation of the Principal with the staff individually and collectively and that among the teachers themselves. It means that the self-conscious personality of teachers - their individuality and self-respect - is to be translated into action by the administrator. It implies recognition of their merits, guarantee of their security of service, creating for them good conditions of work, scope for their adventurousness, a natural flow for affection and love for them and acceptance of them as human beings rather than cogs in a machine, with their individual

strengths and weaknesses.

11. Communication refers to the administrative mode or process by which information, direction, ideas, explanations and questions are transmitted from person to person. The communication may be upward, that is, from the teachers to the principal or horizontal, from teacher to teacher or downward, from the Principal, the office superintendent and senior teachers to junior teachers. The idea of communication may be many and varied. The teacher may perceive the communication being adequate, satisfying, effective or otherwise, depending upon the feedback that is sought from them.

12. Democratization and Freedom refers to the behaviour of the Principal as an administrator which is characterized by a willingness to devolve authority and provide experience in hierarchy, sharing in decision-making with both senior and junior staff, an attitude to recognize merit irrespective of rank and hierarchy and a tendency to give freedom to the staff to conceive and try out new ideas, undertake experiments and projects and express freely without fear or diffidence in staff meetings, etc.

Institutional Climates Categorised by QIC

1. The Open Climate is envisaged to depict a situation where the group members, that is, the teachers, enjoy friendly relations with one another, work well together, have a high sense of duty, obtain considerable job satisfaction as there is no hindrance from the Principal, rather the principal's policies facilitate the accomplishment of their tasks. They are proud to belong to that school or college.

The principal is genuine in his behaviour; he sets an example by working hard himself; he is flexible in his attitude, controls and directs when necessary; he is also considerate and goes out of the way to help people on occasions; he provides leadership, allows leadership acts to emerge from the teachers as well. In short, this climate is envisaged as characterised by authenticity of behaviour among all the participants.

2. Intermediate Climate :

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 haphazardly. There is a little job satisfaction or social needs satis-

faction as the Principal is somewhat ineffective in directing their activities and he shows a 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 according to rules and regulations. He shows some consideration for others but it is very little. He gives some scope for freedom of action but it is very limited. The organization is seen almost stagnant and its progress towards its goals is slow and halting.

3. Closed Climate :

This climate is envisaged to be characterized by a high degree of apathy on the part of all members of the organization. The teachers do not work well together. There is very little job satisfaction or social need satisfaction for the teachers as the Principal is neither effective in directing their activities nor does he show any interest in their welfare. Routine duties hinder their teaching job, and all that they get from the Principal and his administration is exhortations for hard work. The Principal is highly aloof, impersonal and tries to control through rules and regulations. He is, however, genuine in his actions but has little

consideration for others and though he expects initiative from them, he does not give the freedom to perform any leadership acts by the group members. The organization is seen as most stagnant and not moving towards its goals.

The teachers do not work together as they are disengaged (high 'Disengagement'). There is also high 'Hindrance'. 'Esprit' is low reflecting both in job satisfaction and also in social need satisfaction. Teachers in this climate obtain satisfaction from their friendly relations with other teachers (high 'Intimacy').

The Principal is highly aloof and impersonal in controlling and directing the activities of the teachers. He emphasises production. He is not genuine in his actions.

This climate is thus characterised by a high degree of apathy on the part of all members of the organisation. The organisation seems to be stagnant and not moving towards its goals.

Summary

A summary of the criteria used in classifying the institutional climates on the basis of the organisational climate dimensions discussed in the preceding paragraphs is given in the following table.

Table 1.1 : Institutional Climate Classification Criteria.

Dimensions	Measures of Dimensions in		
	Open Climate	Intermediate Climate	Closed Climate
1. Disengagement	Low	High	Highest
2. Hindrance	Low	High	Highest
3. Esprit	Highest	Low	Lowest
4. Intimacy	Highest	Low	Lowest
5. Aloofness	Lowest	High	Highest
6. Production Emphasis	Lowest	High	Highest
7. Thrust	High	Low	Lowest
8. Consideration	High	Low	Lowest
9. Organizational Structure	High	High	Highest
10. Human Relations	High	Low	Lowest
11. Communication	Highest	Low	Lowest
12. Freedom and Democratization	Highest	Low	Lowest

1 to 4 Group Behaviour Dimensions

5 to 8 Principal's behaviour Dimensions

9 to 12 Institutional Behaviour Dimensions

1.5 AN IDEOLOGY OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR*

Few conceptualizations have perennially pre-occupied practitioners, researchers, and theoreticians in education and other social sciences as that of leadership behaviour. The body of speculative and scientific literature regarding this complex social phenomenon is extensive, encompassing in its definitions of leadership behaviour, styles of leadership behaviour, and correlates of leadership behaviour.

Definition : It has been observed that the definition of leadership behaviour, as of any concept, is an arbitrary matter and that the definition simply consists of that which experts in the field wish to consider, designate, and measure as leadership behaviour (Erickson, 1967). Thus, it is not surprising to find a plethora of definitions by experts presumed to have had experience with the phenomenon at first hand.

At the present time leadership behaviour may be defined as an act that initiates a new structure in interaction with others. Such a definition takes into account both effectiveness

* The model is built with reference to the treatise on 'Leadership Behaviour' by Walter H. Drost in the Encyclopedia of Education, The Macmillan Company and the Free Press, Vol.1 (1971), pp.77-80.

and efficiency measures (Barnard, 1938), both group achievement and group maintenance functions (Carterwright and Zander, 1953), both situational and personalistic determinants (Halpin, 1956), both organizational and individual constructs (Getzels 1958), both active and passive relationships (Bards, 1960), both formal and informal contexts (Charters 1964a; Iannacone 1964), and similar dichotomous distinctions. The emphasis of leadership behaviour is upon initiating change in the goals, objectives, configurations, procedures, inputs, processes, or outputs of social systems. The focal social system may range in size from gross cultures to institutions within cultures to individuals within institutions or cultures. Thus, leadership behaviour involves social systems in action or in interaction; it is relationally dynamic and, as such, is ineffably complex.

The complexity of leadership behaviour as defined above may be analyzed in terms of such concepts as classes of leadership acts, frequency of leadership acts, and potency of leadership acts.

Classes of Leadership Acts. It has been noted that leadership behaviour involves at least three stages: (1)

attempted leadership - that is, acts accompanied by an intention to initiate change; (2) successful leadership, acts that have initiated a change; and (3) effective leadership, acts that have initiated a change that is judged beneficial by the parties to an interaction (Hemphill, 1958). Such a taxonomy may be useful both for differentiating among leadership acts and for assessing the dynamics of leadership acts through time.

Frequency of Leadership Acts :

Studies of school administrators have revealed that school principals exhibit leadership behaviour much less frequently than might commonly be supposed (Hemphill et al, 1962). In an observational study of the on-the-job behaviour of school superintendents it was found that only occasionally did they attempt to engage in leadership behaviour (Lipham, 1959). There was even less evidence that the attempted leadership behaviour was either accepted or effective. Thus, while the concept of leadership frequency may be important, it becomes obvious that studies which simply assess the frequency of leadership acts tend to highlight only one aspect of leadership behaviour.

Potency of Leadership Acts :

Perhaps equal in importance with the concept of leadership frequency is the concept of leadership potency. Potency is the extent to which an initiated change represents a significant departure from that which exists, that is, the magnitude of an initiated change (Lipham 1964a). In regard to potency of leadership, it is often remarked that the school as a social system has changed very little over the past several decades. If this observation is true, it implies that the leadership acts of many educators in status positions are of low potency-limited primarily to tinkering with cultural, institutional, or individual goals, objectives, configurations procedures, inputs, processes, or outputs.

Styles :

Notwithstanding the lack of agreement on definition of leadership behaviour, there has developed an impressive body of literature on administration concerning styles of leadership behaviours. One leadership style formulation that has been eminently popular for several years characterizes leadership behaviour according to autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire types. Although this conceptionalization was originally derived from leadership studies of small, .

temporary groups, it captured the imagination of many researchers and practitioners in the field of education (White and Lipitt, 1953).

From work at the Personnel Research Board of the Ohio State University two dimensions of leadership - initiating structure and consideration - have emerged as significant dimensions for describing leadership behaviour (Hemphill and Coons, 1957). These two dimensions were delineated from a factor analysis of Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire, which assesses the behaviors of leaders in interaction with others (Halpin & Winer, 1957). By far the majority of the studies of leadership behaviour in the field of educational administration have utilized the LBDQ.

The major dimensions of the LBDQ are defined as follows : "initiating structure" refers to the leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his work group and in endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure; "Consideration" refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff (Halpin, 1956).

Subsequent revisions of the LBDQ include assessment of leadership behaviour along the following 12 dimensions:

- (1) representation - the leadership speaks and acts as the representative of the group;
- (2) demand reconciliation - the leader reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to the system;
- (3) tolerance of uncertainty - the leader is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset;
- (4) persuasiveness - the leader uses persuasion and argument effectively and exhibits strong convictions;
- (5) initiation of structure - the leader clearly defines his own role and lets followers know what is expected of them;
- (6) tolerance of freedom - the leader allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action;
- (7) role assumption - the leader actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others;
- (8) consideration - the leader regards the comfort, well-being, status, and contribution of followers;
- (9) productive emphasis - the leader applies pressure for productive output;
- (10) predictive accuracy - the leader exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately;
- (11) integration - the leader maintains a closely knit organization and resolves intermember conflicts; and
- (12) superior orientation - the leader maintains cordial relations

with superiors, has influence with them, and strives for higher status (Stogdill, 1963).

From the work at the Midwest Administration Center of the University of Chicago three distinctive leadership styles have been identified (Getzels and Gulia 1957). The three styles are normative, personal, and transactional. The normative (nomothetic) style places emphasis on the normative dimension of behaviour and, accordingly, on the requirements of the institution, the role, and the expectations. The personal (idiographic) style places emphasis on the personal dimension of behaviour and, accordingly, on the requirements of the individual, the personality and the need dispositions. The transactional style calls attention to the need for moving toward the normative style under one set of circumstances and toward the personal style under another set of circumstances. Several studies in the field of educational administration have found this typology useful in analyzing, understanding, predicting, and (perhaps) modifying leader behaviour (Getzels et al, 1968).

Correlates

Regardless of the underlying definition accepted or the operational typology utilized, the persistent problem

plaguing the analyst of leadership behaviour is: What difference does it make? The hundreds of studies conducted to-date have revealed leadership behaviour variously to correlate or fail to correlate with such personal/or situational variables as age, length and type of experience or training, personality needs or drives, size of group, staff morale, organizational climate, participation in decision-making, goal clarity, group productivity, communication patterns, and pupil achievement. Perhaps the only generalization that now can be drawn regarding the correlates of leadership behaviour is that the findings are highly contradictory. A similar conclusion was drawn 20 years ago regarding the determinants of leadership behaviour (Stodill 1948: Gibb, 1954).

Impediments to understanding leadership behaviour appear to be both conceptual and methodological. A primary impediment is that the definition of leadership behaviour is inextricably entwined with the definition of change. As such, both leadership and change continue to have positive connotations in Western-Type cultures.

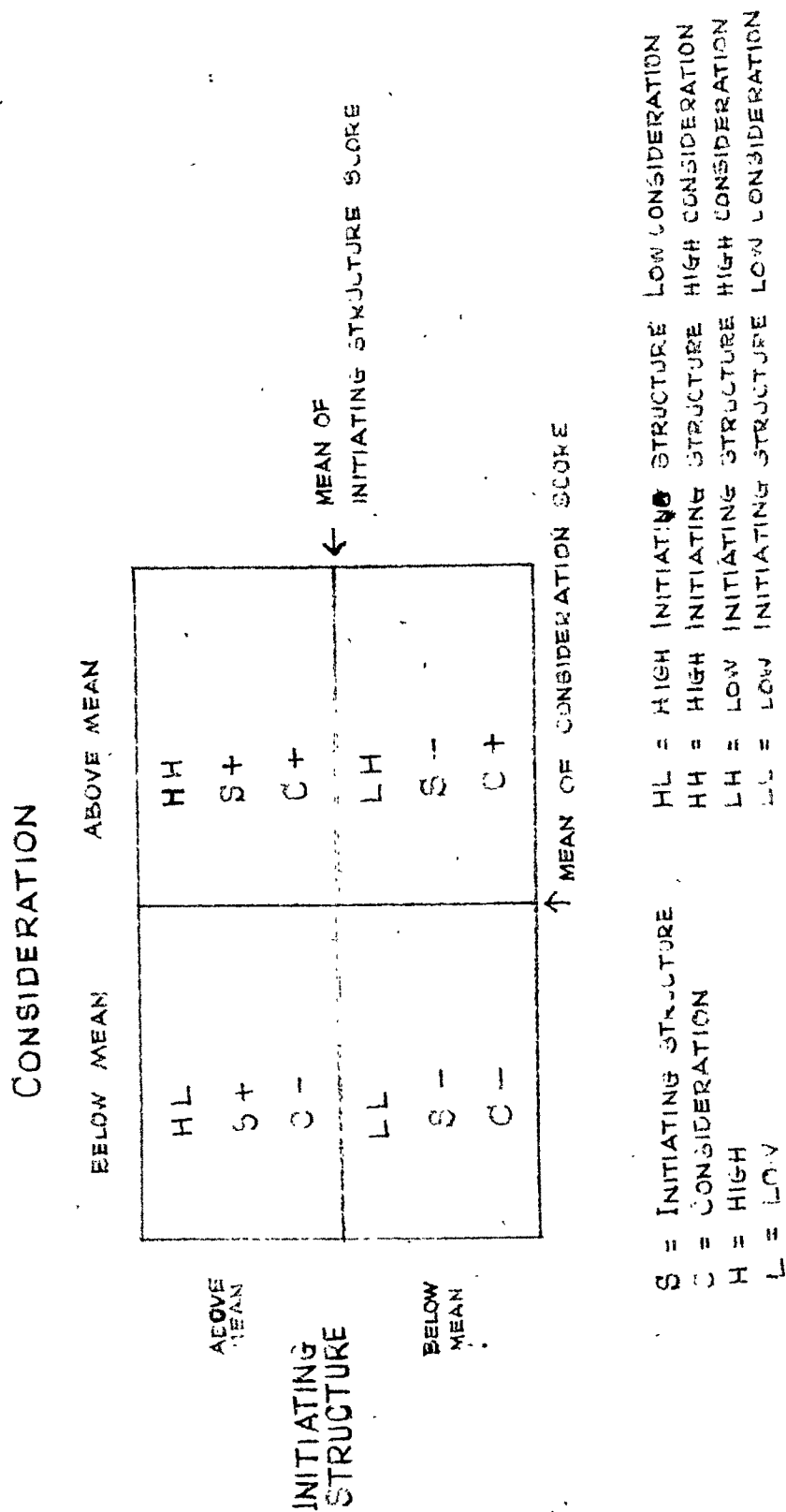
Another difficulty is assessing leadership behaviour is the assumption implicit in many studies that the relation-

ship between variables are linear when, in fact, they may be curvilinear. For example, it typically is assumed that if certain leadership acts result in certain positive outcomes, then additional leadership acts will lead to even greater positive outcomes. But such may not be the case.

Another conceptual and methodological limitation relates to the interdependence of the perceptual measures utilized to assess leadership behaviour. Typically, leadership behaviour is assessed by the use of perceptual data. Both within and between groups, differences in perception of leadership behaviour do in fact exist. Such assessment of leadership behaviour is, therefore, fraught with serious methodological difficulties.

Coupled with the difficulties in utilizing perceptual data is the fact that measures of the outcomes of leadership behaviour also are frequently provided by the same person who originally perceived the leader's behaviour. Obviously, studies designed to assess the impact of the leader on the follower must probe leadership behaviour through variables methodologically independent of follower reaction (Charlars, 1964h; Crickson, 1967).

Fig.1.2.. A SCHEME FOR INTERPRETATION OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR PATTERN.



The present search for correlates of leader behaviour also is limited because it consists primarily of examining the association among variables at a given point in time (Deighton, Lee C., 1971).

Perhaps the most important, and often overlooked, point about initiating structure and consideration behaviours is that they are not arranged in one continuum. On the contrary, they are two separate dimensions which may range from low to high in any individual. The two types of behaviour (or LBDQ scores representing the two) may be plotted on a horizontal and vertical axis which intersect at the mean points to create four quadrants. A leader's scores would place him in one of the four quadrants (e.g., if he is below the mean on consideration and above the mean on initiating structure, he would be in a different quarter of the figure than if he were above the mean on both dimensions). Figure 1:2 illustrates the dual dimensionality of the behaviours (Sergiovanni, 1973).

1.6 IDEOLOGY OF TEACHER MORALE

The dictionary meaning of morale is "prevailing mood and spirit conducive to willing and dependable

performance". High morale is defined as "a confident spirit of whole hearted co-operation in a common effort". According to Webster's dictionary, morale is a condition as effected by or dependent upon such morale or mental factors as zeal, spirit, hope, confidence etc., mental state as a body of men, an army and the like".

For many years industry had been interested in employee morale and its relation to worker output; education had been rather slow in recognizing the value and influence of teacher morale as a factor in providing quality education to the children. However, as more and more educational problems have been associated with teachers' working conditions, leading educators have been looking to research in areas of morale for possible causes and solutions.

Vernon Anderson (1956) deals specifically with morale question within the field of education and expounds "any one acquainted with schools and school facilities does not have to be in building very long before he can sense the morale in the faculty group. There is a good feeling, a sense of joy in their work, a unity of purpose and a liking for each other that goes to make up what is known as morale".

Thomas Briggs (1958) stated that morale was a term usually supplied to a group, it actually started with each individual member of that group. He pointed to the following factors as being necessary for good morale.

- (1) exuberant physical health
- (2) ability to make proposals to the principal
- (3) freedom from negative criticism
- (4) work assigned according to ability.

Ben Novak (1952) while he describes the teacher as a human equation, has taken a different point than that of Briggs. Novak asserted that a teacher was not solely self-dependent and impersonal automation and that faculty spirit and morale was not completely automatic. So morale has to be treated and maintained through a programme involving the teachers in curriculum development, institutional research and inservice education.

James E. Bennett and Emergy Stoops (1956) in their essay "Seven freedoms for teachers" noted that new teachers usually fitted with enthusiasm for their job and entered the profession with a high degree of morale. They attempted to define their neophytes in terms of the following freedoms :

1. freedom to belong
2. freedom from pressure groups
3. freedom from financial worry
4. Freedom from an unpleasant working environment
5. freedom from conservatism
6. freedom from overwork
7. freedom from being a mere cog in the school administrative wheel.

Calvin Grieder, Thomas Pierce and William Rosenstangel (1961) proposed that teacher morale should receive high priority by the administrators. They stated 'low morale' usually come from poor personal relationships. Teachers, like all other persons, have certain basic drives. If these drives were thwarted, morale would be low. Some of the basic things teachers desired were -

1. feel security within the group
2. feel that they were progressing
3. feel that they are appreciated, and
4. feel that they are affiliated with an important undertaking.

Educators believe that an organizational climate

conducive to strong morale is not likely to be achieved by chance alone. Novak established that teachers are not automatically motivated nor are they self-dependent.

Gregg (1958) in a study on 'teacher morale' found that the confidence in the leadership of the principal or other administrators was the most frequent answer to his questions about high teacher morale.

Bentley and Rempel (1964) in their manual for the 'Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire' have identified ten dimensions for teacher morale namely -

1. Teacher rapport with principal
2. Satisfaction with teaching
3. Rapport among teachers
4. Teacher Salary
5. Teacher load
6. Curriculum issues
7. Teacher status
8. Community support of education
9. School facilities and services
10. Community pressure.

Though the above tool is an extensively used tool to

measure teacher morale, in this study a tool developed by the Faculty of Education & Psychology, M.S. University of Baroda under the guidance of Professor D.M. Desai to suit conditions in affiliated colleges in Indian conditions was used. The tool entitled The College Teacher Morale Opinionnaire, Baroda Version, Form 11 has eight dimensions namely (1) Teacher Welfare, (2) Security, (3) Conditions of work, (4) Interpersonal relations, (5) Job Satisfaction, (6) Administration, (7) Need Satisfaction and (8) Cohesion. These dimensions are briefly explained here.

1. Teacher Welfare : This term refers to the concern shown by the college management in the welfare of its staff members in matters such as housing, health and recreation and leave benefits. There is scope and encouragement for professional growth for the teachers. The college has family benefit schemes to help the members and their families during times of need and otherwise.

2. Security : This term refers to the security of job the staff members enjoy. There is regularity and honesty in the payment of staff salaries. The members of the staff do not have to live in constant fear of being retrenched or fired off. They enjoy permanent tenure. There is provision

for settling conflicts, if any, amicably, justly and honorably. Teachers have no fear of victimization.

3. Conditions of work : Much of the job satisfaction the teachers enjoy emanate from their happy working conditions and their liking for the teaching assignments given to them. The teachers have their cabins for their work and study and the college timining is suitable to them. The college has staff clubs where members meet and have social occasions. The teachers are involved by the management in academic planning and decision-making.
4. Interpersonal relations : There is good interpersonal relationship between the staff members and the principal and the staff. They work as a team. The Principal is benevolent and considerate to the staff, and is like the head of a family. Mutual trust and respect characterise their dealings with each other.
5. Job Satisfaction : It is stipulated that job satisfaction emanates not from simply doing a job but from doing a job in the best possible manner and successfully. In order to facilitate job satisfaction, the college provides internal autonomy for the faculty, freedom of speech, and opportunity

for experimentation. It is not more pay that brings job satisfaction but congenial conditions of work and better human relations. Teachers who enjoy this feeling of satisfaction would not like to change their college even if they get a better position elsewhere.

6. Administration. The teacher morale goes up or down depending upon how it is administered. Centralization of authority and strict supervision and staff control would lower teacher morale. So under this dimension of teacher morale there is decentralization of authority and policy decisions are taken following a democratic process. The recognition is shown to merit wherever it is, and the teachers are protected against undue administrative interference in their work.

7. Need Satisfaction. This term refers to the satisfaction of both social and psychological needs. Teachers need recreation, moments of relaxation, occasions of informality and opportunity for mixing with other members of the staff. They like cultural evenings and they welcome opportunities to work together, to play together and to execute things along with the students. Some derive satisfaction from the fact that to teach in a college is socially prestigious. In short,

four basic needs of individuals namely, recognition, security, affection and adventure are met or endeavoured to be met by the management.

8. Cohesion. The component refers to purposeful unity or agreement between the college Principal and his staff. The members of the college organization operate just as the members of a family. They manifest harmony, concord, and sympathy. The teachers enjoy working in a team. They manifest group processes of deliberations and discussion. There is mutual help and co-operation and recognition of and respect for the individuality of every member.

This in brief is the conceptual frame work of the eight dimensions of the "College Teacher Morale Opinionnaire" which was used in this investigation.

1.7 AN IDEOLOGY OF DOGMATISM

The dogmatism scale developed by Rokeach (1960) to measure individual differences in openness or closedness of organization of belief-disbelief system was employed to measure open and closed mindedness of teachers.

Dogmatism : Its nature and meaning :

The dictionary meaning of the term dogmatism is "adhering rigidity to a tenet". However, Rokeach (1954) used the term to refer to certain characteristics of belief-disbelief system. To be more specific, dogmatism is defined as (a) relatively closed cognitive organization of belief and disbelief about reality (b) organized around a certain set of beliefs about absolute authority, which in turn, (c) provides a frame work for patterns of intolerance towards those with opposing beliefs and a sufference of those with similar beliefs.

Here the term "dogmatic" is synonymously used with "closed" (mind) and, therefore, a high degree of dogmatism denotes closed mindedness and a low degree of it, open-mindedness. It is well to note here that openmindedness and closedmindedness are but extremes on a continuum of belief-disbelief system. The belief system consists of all the beliefs, behaviour and expectancies, conscious and unconscious, that a person at a given time accepts as true of the world he lives in. The disbelief system is composed of beliefs, behaviour, and expectancies, conscious and unconscious, that a person at a given time rejects as false. It

should, therefore, be that there exists close relationship between one's belief-disbelief system and one's perception of things. Since dogmatism is associated with closedness of thoughts and beliefs, dogmatism should be not only individual but also institutional. What one is dogmatic about varies from person to person and from institution to institution.

Rokeach (1960) has provided two definitions of open and closed mindedness. The first definition makes a distinction between these two types of cognitive organization of the mind. According to this, open-mindedness refers to a relatively low frequency of rejection of disbelief system, intercommunication of parts among belief and disbelief system, low discrepancy in the degree of differentiation between belief and disbelief systems. In contrast closed mindedness refers to a high frequency of rejection of disbelief systems, greater discrepancy in the degree of differentiation between belief and disbelief systems and relatively low differentiation within disbelief systems.

Secondly, open minded persons tend to believe that the world is friendly rather than hostile and the authorities are not absolute and people are not evaluated on the basis of their faith or lack of faith in certain authorities. In

contrast a person having a closed mind tend to believe that the world is hostile and the authorities are infalliable.

Thirdly, open-minded individuals have intercommunication amongst themselves about their beliefs or disbeliefs. This is not so with closed-minded individuals. Any communication between closed-minded individuals about their beliefs or disbeliefs is through the authority only.

Fourthly, an open-minded individual has a relatively broad time perspective. That is, the present, the past and the future are appropriately represented in his time perspective. In contrast, a closed-minded individual has a narrow time perspective, that is, 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 to 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, one's ego-motives,

powerness, the need 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 (1967) own words, "the person can receive, evaluate, and act on relevant information received from outside on its own intrinsic merit, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation arising from within the persons or from outside."

The two definitions proposed by Rokeach (1960) may be readily restated 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 disbelief, 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 the 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, which results in a higher rate of acceptance of beliefs or rejection of disbelief. It also leads to a discrepancy in what a person knows about the objects of belief and those of disbeliefs. The lack of information is also responsive 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 result 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 an attempt has been made to set forth the ideology of the dependent and independent variables of the investigation. The dependent variable in this instance is the perceptions of the college communities about the introduction of semester system and the independent variables are the organizational climate, Leadership Behaviour, Teacher Morale and Dogmatism. This study intends to draw upon the theoretical frame of reference presented in this chapter.