### **1.2 MEANING AND DEFINITIONS OF EDUCATIONAL**

#### **ADMINISTRATION**

The world 'administration' has been derived from the Latin word 'minister' which means, 'service rendered to others for their welfare'.

The classical and medieval meanings of the term 'administration were - perform, take charge of or accomplish'. The recent dictionary defines it as direction or management.

The term 'Educational Administration' is very comprehensive. It is concerned with the formulation, execution and appraisal of educational policies.

A school comes into being through the process of organising. Then comes its administration. Running or functioning of the school is the job of the head of the institution. This does not mean that only the Head and none else is responsible for administration. In fact, administration is a job of many minds and many heads. All combined into one. The Head of the institution is the leader who is to make all other follow him. Thus educational administration is more or less a co-operative undertaking and in the language of economic it is a 'Non profit making enterprise'.

Education administration has been defined variously. Some of the important definitions<sup>1</sup> are given below :

American Association of School Administration describes administration as "the total of the processes through which appropriate human and material resources are made available and made effective for accomplishing the purpose of an enterprise."

Campbell, Corably and Ramesyer observe in Introduction to Educational Administration that the educational administration "consists of facilitating the development of goals and policies basic to teaching and learning, stimulating the development of appropriate programmes for teaching and learning, and procuring and managing personnel and material to implement teaching and learning."

Dictionary of Education by Good defines educational administration as "All those techniques and procedures employed in operating the educational organisation in accordance with established policies is defined as administration."

Grayson Kefauner has observed in The Forty Fifth Year Book of as, "Educational administration approaches statemanship when

there are clearly formulated long term policies and objectives, and when day-to-day activities and problems are dealt with under the guidance of the perspective given by such long - term policies."

According to National Society for the Study of Education (NSSE) "Educational Administration is a social statemanship which guides educational activities, plans, programmes and facilities, and provides leadership in a long-term but broad social perspective."

Educational Administration has been defined by R. Mort as, " the influencing of one group of human beings, the pupils, to grow towards defined objectives, utilising a second group of human beings, the teachers, as agens; and operating in a setting of a third group of public, variously concerned both with objectives and with means used to achieve them."

Russell T. Gregg, in an article on Administration in Encyclopedia of Educational Research writes, "Educational Administration is the process of utilising appropriate materials in such a way as to promote effectively the development of human qualities. It is concerned not only with the development of children and youth, but also with the growth of adults and particularly with the growth of school personnel." According to Samuel Mathai, "Educational Administration presumably means the combined operation of a large unmber of persons whereby the whole fabric of education in the counry is maintained in good working condition. An administration is a person who has a part to play in running an institution. He is responsible servent whose duties may includes both giving orders and carrying out orders."

The International Encyclopedia of Higher Education (1988) edited by Asa S. Knowles and other reads "Educational Administration, in general, is cncerned with the management of state and local shoool systems and with local school attendance units. Indentified with the executive branch of government, educational administration is treated usually as a field of study in it self and not as a part of public administration. A more sophisticated definition of educational administration is, "A social process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling and unifying, formally and informally organized human and material energy within a unified system designed to accomplish predetermined (educational ) objectives (Knezevich, 1969).

The Encyclopedia of Education (1971) by IEEC. Deighton States, "Educational Administration is concerned with the overall

- 11

direction and support of the schools. It includes the immediate leadership of the school principal and the specialised skills of the business manager, curriculum co-ordinator, and other staff specialists, all under the general supervision of the suprintendent. The concept of administration as a profession evolved with the expansion of educational enterprise during the late nineteenth century."

"Administration is justified only to the extent that it contributes to the capacity of organisation to fulfil its primary mission. In the field of education, administration is justified only as it contributes to the capacity of the school to help children and youth to grow toward responsible boyhood.

#### - Clavence A., Nowell (1978).

According to the Concies Dictionary of Education (1982), "Administration includes Management, Organisation, Operation and Supervision of an educational institution. Usually includes all institutional functions other than teaching."

Stephen I Knezevich describes educational administration "as a process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating and unifying the energies within an educational institution towards realization of the predetermined objectives."

12

I,

Will French, Hull and Dodds compare administration to a lens that brings everything about the school into focus for community, faculty and students. If it is a poor lens, the image is fuzzy and obscure, and no one in the school or community gets a clear picture of what the school is trying to go. If it is a good lens, the school becomes a clear cut and vivid projection of the ideals and ideas that all hoped to bring into being.

Educational Administration is a process that includes the combined operation of a large number of persons whereby the whole fabric of education in the country is maintained in good working condition. It is the process of utilising appropriate materials in such a way as to promote effectively the development of human qualities. It includes all those techniques and procedures employed in operating the educational organisation in accordance with established policies.

Educational Aministration means the totality of the process through which appropriate human and material resources are emade available and made effective for accomplishing the purpose of an enterprise. ١,'

## 1.3 <u>SCOPE AND FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL</u>

#### **ADMINISTRATION**

Education is one of the largest enterprises undertaken for the purpose of the development and gorwth of the individual and to meet the needs of Society. It involves the activity of a large number of people - students, teachers, parents and the public. For such a big enterpirse we need a sound machinery to run it and effective principles to secure efficiency. There is need for the co-operative activity of all participants in the educative process for the achievement of its goals. It is the task of administration to set up such machinery and make it work smoothly and effectively. The scope of educational administration therefore extends to a vast area and a large variety of activities. We shall to understand the scope of educational administration taking cue from business and industry.

<u>Ordway Tead<sup>2</sup></u> has laid down the scope of general administration under five areas, viz, Production, Assuring public use, Finance and Accounting, Personnel, and Coordination. Applying

these five areas to the fields of education we can try down the scope of educational administration :

1. <u>Production</u> refers to social activity of work for which an organisation is set up. In education it means realization of the goals of education which have been set up by society. Educational Administration has therefore to interpret the aims of education to the educational workers so that they may shape the final product of education ( the achievement of the pupils ) in the desired form and shape.

2. <u>Assuring public use</u> means that the activity and the product of the efforts of the organisation, the goals and services produced, must be such that they are acceptable of use and benefit to the public, because it is for this that the public has set up the organisation. It is the business of educational administration to define the operations needed, to make them known and to promote them so that the final educational product is good for public and the society.

3. <u>Finance and accounting</u> refers to the receipt and disbursement of money invested in the activities of the organisation. Educational administration is also concerned with receiving and spending money necessary for the operation and activities of the educational machinery. It should record and measure the monetary and other resources invested in the educational enterprise and also evaluate the inputs and outputs.

4. <u>Personnel</u> is the framing and operation of policies and procedures for recruitment of workers and maintenance of good-will and personal relationships among them in order to ensure fullest interest, cooperatio, moral and loyalty of all the persons working in the organisation. This is specially important for the educational enterprise where the whole work is centred round the impact of one type of human beings, the teachers, upon another type of human beings, the students. The scope of educational administration, therefore, spreads over the personnel.

5. <u>Coordination</u> is an important activity of educational administration. It ensures the close inter-relation and integration of all the functional activities of the organisation such as personnel, finance and production of desired results. Such integration has to be brought about not only in the structure of the organisation but also of the attitudes and efforts of the workers, so that all of them pull together in the direction of the desired goals and achieve them.

Sears<sup>3</sup> has pointed out the scope of administration more specifically in relation to education as follows:

۲.

1. <u>Establishing educational purpose</u>, by expressing them in the form of aims and the programme of work in order to accomplish them, i.e., laying out the work of the organisation.

2. <u>Provision and development of the personnel</u> and necessary financees, housing; materials and facilities for carrying out the work of the organisation, i.e., mobilising resources of men and materials for the realisation of the aims of education.

3. <u>Laying down procedures</u> and techniques for the performance of the work and the policies and plans to guide the work, i.e., the curriculum and methods of teaching and supervision.

4. Defining the nature and procedure of use of authority (legal, official and personal) and control (scientific and democratic) by which the administrative process will operate.

5. Deciding the nature of aims and procedures by which the administrative process will operate.

6. <u>Deciding the mechanism</u> (structure and relationships) by which authority and power are applied in the administrative process.

From the above discussion we find that the scope of educational administration is very wide and extends over many fields. When the process starts working numerous problems arise and have to be solved on the basis of a broad social perspective and the nation's way of life. In view of the innumerable activities that have to be performed by educational administration its scope may be broadly classified and delineated under the following areas:

1. Legal Structure refers to the laws that have to be passed and rules and regulations have to be framed in order to determine the agencies of eduction, their types, powers and standards of educational institutions to be run by them, to prescribe authority and control, to fix up responsibility and obligations, to decide the question of decentralisation of management and to set up organisational and administrative machinery.

2. Pupils. Children are the centre of the educational enterprise. It is for them that the entire process of education and its constituents exist. It is therefore necessary to determine the individual and social purposes and procedures of their education in accordance with their needs, interests and capacities and the demands of society. Rules for their admission, promotion, discipline, etc., have to be framed and implemented.

3. Personnel. To run educational activities necessary and adequate man-power has to be found and engaged. Personnel plays the key-role in education. This is the fly-wheel or the driving force of the educational machinery. Proper attention has to be paid to the

workers. Men and women have to be selected, recruited and trained and their qualifications and standards have to be prescribed. Good service conditions like attractive salaries, security of tenure, welfare service and retirement benefits have to be offered to bring in the best available talent. Schemes for their direction, guidance and supervision have to be drawn up. Last but not the least, a good and effective programme for the workers' continuous development and professional progress through reorientation and in-service education has to be launched.

4. Finance is an important area which includes problems of income and expenditure and their accounting and auditing. Decisions have to be taken about the sharing of the cost of education by the centre and the States and the Local Bodies. The policy of taxation and prescribing fees, etc., has to be formulated. Rules and regulations have to be framed for budgeting, spending and controlling of funds and resources.

5. Curriculum is the means of achieving the goals of education. Educational administration has to deal with the problem of curriculum construction and its day to day development. It has also to look after the continuous evaluation and progressive improvement of the educational programme which are urgently called for in view of the constantly going on scientific, technological and social changes. Administration has to pay close attention to the teaching-learning programmes and processes and also to other instructional material. Important pupil services, such as health and recreation and psychological services of testing and records, guidance and councelling and co-curricular activities, etc., have to be organised and administered for the benefit of the young.

6. Physical Facilities comprise the area dealing with the problem of provision and maintenance of the school plant equipment and supplies, their production, purchase, upkeep and accounting.

7. Public Relation. Education is a social enterprise run with the cooperation of students, teachers, parents and the community. Educational administration has to make each of them contribute its due share to the success of the enterprise. It should, therefore, maintain effective public relations. This involves maintenance of records, issuing periodical reports, information and bulletins about past achievement and future proposals. Administration should encourage community visitation and secure its participation and cooperation by a process of give and take, i.e., by utilising community resources and rendering useful services for its welfare.

It is necessary to add a work of caution here. The above list and categorisation are only suggestive and not exclusive. They are not arranged in any priority order, as all of them are equally necessary and important. The analysis has been made only for the sake of convenience of discussion and all the different areas of scope should be viewed with an approach to integration.

#### FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Administration is the service rendered to the school and society in the task of achieving the educational goals by co-ordinating the efforts of the people engaged in the task. It is the process through which the functions of the school are discharged. Administration has therefore to perform some definite functions. Several attempts have been made to list these functions of which three of them have been noted below:

(1) In the Fortyfifth Year book<sup>4</sup> are mentiond the following functions of educational administration.

1. To delegate authority and responsibility.

2. To strengthen local initiative and local control.

3. To secure the greatest return from the money spent.

- To secure the goodwill of personnel, public education department and other social agencies and institutions.
- 5. To implement a democratically determined programme.
- 6. To determine policies and to implement them.
- 7. To utilise maximally the special capacities of the personnel and the material resources.
- 8. To integrate the units concrud with the same problems or areas.

(2) Jease B. Sears<sup>5</sup> defines the subject matter of the field of educational administration as activities given below :

- Establishing educational purpose by expressing them in the form of aims and a program of work to be accomplished, e.g., laying out its work.
- 2. Development and organisation of a personnel and the necessary finances, housing, materials and facilities for carrying on the work.
- Procedures and techniques for the performance of the work, including the policies and the plans to guide it.
- Nature and use of the authority (legal, scientific, social and personal) by which administration operates.

- Origin and nature of the aims and processes by which administration operates.
- Nature of the mechanism by which authority and knowledge are applied in the process of administration.

Of these six items the first three are related to the practice of administration, while the latter three have with theory or philosophy underlying practices.

1

(3) Russell T. Gregg<sup>6</sup> describes the administrative process as having seven functions or components : decision making; planning : organizing ; communicating ; influencing ; coordinating ; and evaluating.

The researcher feels that a long list of the functions of educational administration can be prepared and yet would remain inexhaustive. And hence the researcher believed that a fruitful exercise would be to classify the functions under some broad categories like purposes, planning, organising, operating and evaluating. These five functions should be looked upon as stages in the administrative process but it must be remembered that they are not isolated activities. They often overlap and always produce results cumulatively.

#### 1.4 THEORIES OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Educational administration is relatively a young social science. Its history does not go beyond Century or so. In our own country where educational traditions are some 3,000 years old, educational administration was never looked upon as a separate branch of learning. Conditions of life were simple and so was educational administration. Now we are living in an age of specialization. In the present day world things are changing fast and even highly specialized techniques and skills become absolute. There, adaption of individuals to changed circumstances has become very essential. Leadership has to be inspiring at all levels. It is no longer possible to depend upon the ideology, " An administrator is born, he is not made". We can no longer depend on the theories of other social disciplines.

Educational administration has suffered much for want of a well set theory of administration of its own. Attempts have been made to borrow fragments from several diverse disciplines namely law, political science, social Psychology, Sociology, Economics, business education, engineering, architecture and statistics.In addition, the contents of the course in administration haveconsisted of description of prectices, the cautions, personal success stories, lively anecdtes etc.

Prof. S. N. Mukerji... feels that the theory of educational administration " has become 'khichri' or a hotch-potch of several disciplines and techniques". He further observes that " it is difficult for a practioner to find anywhere in the literature of educational administration a coherant statement of theory on how the principle of organization and administration should be implemented. This is really surprising since administration has ceased to be a vocation. It is now a profession."

We need a theory (i) to understand the complication nature of the various factors that influence education and to take appropriate action (ii) to collect facts related to a theme.

25

The theories have been divided into two parts (I) Administrative theories (II) Leadership theories.

# **1.4.1 Administrative Theories :** Prior to description of theory it is necessary to know the sources of the theories.

Thompson<sup>7</sup> has painted out four primary sources of theory of administration. These are, (1) Comments and Reports made by practising administrators. (2) Sumery Research of teachers. (3) Deductive reasoning of teachers and (4) Adaptation of models from other diciplines.

Practising administrators have put down their experience in verbal terms and from these have developed principles of administration which other administrators can apply. The difficulties with this approach are : (1) very few administrators have attempted to record their experience so that they would be available to others. (2) most of such records have not been put in precise and clear language, (3) they are not good enough to be generalised for universal application.

2. University Professors have conducted extensive researches through questionnaries; interviews and library studies of distinguised writers on administration. The limitations of such theories are : (1)

Research problems are selected from the common sense point of view, (2) they are not capable of absorbing new knowledge; (3) they put their principles in separate categories without establishing dynamic relationship among these categories so there is no scope for correction. (4) they assume relationships among the variables to be "linear" which is not true. For example, " planning and communication have a positive relationship, "but " double the amount of planning will not double the performance."

3. Deductive reasoning of teachers has also given us theories or principles of administration. This approach; too, suffers from the following defects : (1) These theories are often value-oriented? they treat administrative behaviour as what it "ought to be" rather than "what it is" the "ideal" rather than the "actual", (2) They are incapable of incorporating new developments as knowledge expands as a result of the impact on administrative behaviour of new forces, (3) they are special therories of administration rather than general, because they are not sufficiently generalised to include all types of administration. There are both diffierences and similarities, but the latter escape our attention.

4. Adaptation of models from other disciplines. Thomson calls the above three approaches as "traditional theories", suffering from

several defects, some of which have been mentioned above. The modern approach to build a theory is the adaptation of models from other disciplines. Griffith<sup>8</sup> explains a model thus : "When we say that whatever we are studying is like something else, the something else is a model for what we are studying. The something else, to be of value, should be well know to the student, preferably simpler, and easy to work with, "English and English give the scientific meaning of model thus : " a description of a set of data in terms of a system of symbols; and the mainpulation of the symbols according to the rules to the system. The resulting transformations are translated back into the language of the data, and the relationships discovered by the manipulations are compared with the empirical facts."

Some researchers have adopted models from other disciplines.Example of such models are the social system theory used by the Midwest Administration Center as a model used by Simon. In this approach " a theory about which there is considerable concensus is now being used as a model for the unknown area." Several theories of administration have been developed Griffiths<sup>9</sup> has reported eight of them, four general and four educational. These are summarised below in order of the sources.

[1] The first source of theory mentioned above is comments  $\epsilon_{\text{Red}}$ reports of practicising administrators. Typical of this approach is the theory of general administration by Barnard<sup>10</sup>

Barnard shows a deep insight into the nature of administration. The salient features of his theory are:

- Cooperation is a synthesis of three basic factors, physical, biological and social.
- (2) Finance; building, equipment, etc., constitute the physical environment.
- (3) All complex organisations are made up of unit organisations.
- (4) The understanding of the three factors, physical, biological and social is necessary for the study of normal organisations.
- (5) Society is made up of complex organisations.
- (6) Informal organisations are found within all formal organisations. The formal organisations are essential for

maintaining order and consistency and the informal (personal relationships) for vitality. They are mutually dependent and both are necessary for cooperation.

- (7) Disturbance in cooperation results from false ideologies, prejudices, interests, etc., of the leader of formal organisations.
- (8) These false ideologies cause four types of errors oversimplification of organisation life, disregard for the necessity for informal organisation, wrong emphesis on subjective rather than objective aspects of authority and confusion of morality with responsibility.
- (9) Appropriate physical, biological, personnel and social factors of the situation for specific combination for action are selected through decision.
- (10) Wrong decisions are made due to wrong perception of the above factors of the environment and they limit the scope and success of cooperation.
- (11) Good administrators and executives take into account in the specific situations not only the physical, personal and social factors but also the utilities of each of them and the utilities attached to them by the organisation.

- (12) An increasing degree of cooperation implies an increasing degree of complexity of morality and a high degree of moral complexity cannot be attained without high technological efficiency.
- (13) Cooperation depends upon leadership, which is another name for high personal capacity for technological attainment and moral complexity.
- (14) Dynamic expression of leadership is the moral creativeness which depends upon technological proficiency and development of techniques.
- (15) Social integratio depends upon development of leadership. In the preparation of leaders mistakes have been committed. In the past morality was more emphasised than technological capacity. At present greater emphasis is laid on development of technological proficiency than on morality. In both cases the result is the same - imbalance and disequilibrium. Both are equally important and necessary for good administration.

h

[2] The second source of theory is the survey research of teachers. Typical of this approach is the study made by the Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (SSCPEA) at Peabody College. This study is based on the competency concept and expounded in "Better Teaching in School Administration" published by George Prabody College, Nashville in 1955.

The authors believe that believe that competency in administration results when an "individual exhibits behaviour that enables him to perform a particular "administrative task in the most desirable manner." Thus the "competency concept" emphasises values as the basis and deals with "what" what ought to be", or an "ethical or normative" standard of human behaviour. The study lists 52 critical tasks comprising the job of administration.

- Each of these tasks has been precisely defined (e.g. Initiating and maintaining a system of child accounting and attendance.
- (2) Under each task is appeared "theory", which defines what activities have to be performed (e.g., recording all information concerning children in a cumulative record).
- (3) Under each task is appended "know-how", which consists of operational beliefs; skills and knowledge needed to perform the task (e.g., factual information concerning children, the

32

١,

!

kinds of forms needed for collection of the data and skill in devising procedures for collection of the data.

[3] The third source of theory of administration is deductive reasoning of teachers of administration. Typical examples of this approach are the theories developed by Sears (1950) Mort (1957), Argyris-Bakke (1953), Simon (1956) and Litchfield (1956). Of these the first two are purely theories of educational administration and the other three like Barnard's are general administration theories.

Sears<sup>11</sup> assumes that the administrative a function derives its nature from the nature of the service it directs. He distiguishers between, "authority-centred" and "need-centred" administration. In the former, the ways of organising, directing and performing other functions of administration are done by applying authority according to the principles derived from the sutdy of education it-self. In the latter, the administrator first studies school activities, such as learing, counselling, supervision, etc., and then decides how best to administer these and thereby developes a theory of administration. Thus he emphasises the nature of the process of learning and other school activities, the nature of the culture (ways of government, laws, economy, etc.) and the capacity of the administrator. Together they determine the mechanism of the administrative system. He says authority is derived from law, knowledge, social standards and personal factors.

Although Sears believes that "authority has limited sphere in which to work". yet the defines the categories of administration (planning, organising, directing, coordinating and controlling) in terms of authority. According to Griffiths the present thinking is moving away from Sears point of view.

- [4] Mort<sup>12</sup> states the rationale of his theory thus :
- The social culture has a series of definable sanctions (value concepts; cultural sanctions, criteria and principles).
- (2) These sanctions have reasonable bases and when stated as principles are dimensions of goodness in action.
- (3) These principles may be in the form of a series of tests to judge whether a proposed act will be wise action.
- (4) Such principles can have specific application in illuminating and making rational the subject matter of training for school administration.

[5] Argyrise-Bakke<sup>13</sup> theory deals with behaviour in formal organisations. It makes certain hypotheses and from them derives the following processes :

- Work flow process : The exact behaviour required for fulfilling the purpose of the organisation.
- (2) Reward and Penalty process : to be applied to the workers in the organisation.
- (3) Authority process : to coordinate; control and direct the workers.
- (4) **Perpetuation process** : to keep the organisation going.
- (5) Identification process : to help individual workers to indentify themselves with the orgaisation.
- (6) Communication process : to provide ways and means of downward and upward communication.
- (7) Status process : to rank workers, materials, ideas in terms of their importance.
- (8) Fusion process : to establish close relationship between the workers and their jobs and to keep close watch over this relationship. This process is necessary because the individuel fulfils his needs and achieves his goals through the organisation and the organisation exits to fulfil its goals and

purposes. Fusion between the individual and organisation may be considered good when the "individual obtains the maximal expression of his personality..... and the organisation has its demands fulfilled at the highest possible level."

Simon<sup>14</sup> presenting some concepts underlying administration. [6] He is of the opinion that instead of emphasising the principles of administration conditions under which the principles are applicable must be kept in view. He says, "an understanding of these underlying conditions for the applicability of administrative principles is to be obtained from an analysis of the administrative process in terms of decisions. Thus it is necessary to increase the rationality of organisational decisions. He says, "administrative theory must be concerned with the limits of rationality, and the manner in which organisation affects these limits for the person making a decision. The theory must determine... how institutionalized decision can be made to confirm to values developed within a broader organizational structure."15

Simon has used Homan's<sup>16</sup> theoretical relationship within a group. Homan's postulates are :

- With change of activities interaction also changes and vice versa.
- (2) Frequent interaction among persons develops their liking for one another.
- (3) With increase in the frequency of interaction liking between them grows and with increase in sentiments of liking rises the frequency of interaction among them.
- (4) Sentiments of liking are expressed in activities beyond the external system and these activities further strengthen the sentiments of liking.
- (5) More frequent interaction among persons makes their activities and sentiments more and more alike.

Simon has adopted the mathematical model to express Homan's theoritical postulates in terms of mathematical formulas.

- [7] Litchfield<sup>17</sup> has made some working propositions which mightlead to a general theory administration.
- The administrative process is a cycle of action (including the specific activities of decision-making, programming, communicating, controlling and evaluation).

Decisions are guides to action. Good decision-making requires defining the problem or issue, analysis of existing situation, delineating of alternatives, deliberation and choice Programming of the decision will succeed to the extent that it is communicated to the workers. Action will succeed if standards of performance are established and enforced through controlling and evaluating. Decisions depend upon values which are likely to change. So they should be reviewed and revised from time to time.

The administrative process functions in the areas of policies, resources and execution.

(2)

Action is accomplished by means of the action cycle mentioned above. These areas are related and intergrated to gether.

(3) The administrative process is carried on in the context of a large action system, whose dimensions are : (A) the administrative process. (B) the administrator, (C) the total enterprise, (D) the ecology within which the administrator and the enterprise function.

The administrative process is constant in basic structure but varies according to the presonality of the administrator.

The three dimensions - the structure, the administrator and the environment - together affect the administrative process.

(4) Administration is the performance of the administrative process by an individual or group in the context of an enterprise functioning in its environment.

Administration has the qualities of perpetuating it self and growing, i.e., it preserves the internal well- being of it self vis-a-vis others and seeks its growth. These attributes have a significant effect upon administrative behaviour.

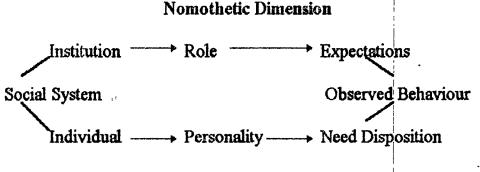
Administration occurs in substantially the same generalised form in industrial, commercial, educational and other organisations.

[8] The fourth source of theory is the adaptation of models from other disciplines. Typical of this approach is the social system theory used by the Midwest Administration Centre established at Chicago. Here Getzels<sup>18</sup> developed a theory which regards administration as a social process. The social system has two dimensions - the nomothetic and idiographic. The nomothetic dimension consists of institution, role and expectations. The idiographic dimension consists of the

time

individual personality and his need disposition. Institution is the agency set up to realize the goals of the social system, roles are the "dynamic aspects" of the positions, offices and statuses within an institution. Roles are defined in terms of role expectations. Behaviour is a function of both the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of the social system.

Getzel's model is presented in the following diagram 1:



#### **Idiopathic Dimension**

According to Getzel, there are two levels of interaction in administration. The first is the publicly prescribed relationship enacted by two persons, the subordinate and the superordinate and the administrative process depends upon the overlap of their perception of role expectations. The second is

that of conflict caused by three sources - role - personality conflict, role conflict and personality - conflict.

Research studies have confirmed the derivations and applications from this model and also the two levels of interaction mentioned above.

Helpin<sup>19</sup> and his colleagues have developed two very useful questionnaries : (1) The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire and (2) the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. The LBDQ has two dimensions - initiating structure and consideration. The OCDQ has eight dimensions four under Teachers' Behaviour and four under Principal's Behaviour. The former includes Disengagement, Hindrance, Espirit and Intimacy and the latter includes Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust and Consideration. These two questionnaires measure important aspects of administrative behaviour and process.

After reviewing eight different theories in order of the sources it can be classified as under :-

	Studies	Туре	Comments and reports practicing administrato ars	of	Deductive reasoning of Teacher	Adapta tion of Models Other disciplines
1.	Barnard	Gen	x			
2.	SSCPEA	Edu.	•	x		
3.	Sears	Edu.			x	
4.	Mort	Edu.			X	
5.	Argyris- Bakke	Gen			x	
6.	Simon	Gen			x	
7.	Litchfield	Gen.	1		X	ı
8.	Midwest Center	Edu.				x

## Table : - 1 SOURCEWISE CLASSIFICATION OF STUDIES

 $1^{4}$ 

۱ t

#### 1.4.2 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Administrator is said to be the leader. His responsibilities are many and quite varied as discussed in the earlier section. The questions that have confronted the researcher quite long is - what are the characteristics of an effective leader ?, what is the behaviour style of an effective leader ?, i.e. what type of leadership style is more effective ? Can success of a leader or the effectiveness of a style of leadership be measured? The review of literature in the area of "Leadership" remained very exhilarating as it would be seen that experts in the field of administration have been pondering ever these issues since 1960. These questions are answered by people in different ways. They have tried to explain and clarify various aspects of leadership. Some of these have been discussed here.

### PHILOSOPHICAL APPROACH

(Theory-X and Theory-Y Assumptions)

According to Douglas McGregor<sup>20</sup> the leadership style is determined by the way a leader perceives his sub-ordinates, by the assumptions that the makes about the human nature and human motivation. These assumptions are very similar to the views presented by Elton Mayo. McGregor called these two sets of assumptions as theory-X and theory-Y. The assumptions underlying theory-X are that People, in genral, prefer to be directed; they try to shirk responsibility and keep their own interest and safety above all other things. Also, theory-X assumes that people generally, do not like to work, they are not enthusiastic about work and prefer to be directed. The theory also assumes that People have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problem. They care most and only for their physiological and safety needs. The theory also assumes that most people need to be controlled and often forced to achieve organizational goals. This is the nature of human beings as preceived by theory-X.

Hence managers who believe in this theory tend to exercise greater control and discipline over their subordinates. They try to supervise them closely and direct them as to what should be done in what manner. Thus, these managers happen to be authoritarian, taskoriented, rigid and strict. External control over the subordinates is considered essential by them. Whether these assumptions about people are correct or incorrect is entirely a different matter. But some people do have this kind of thinking about others. McGregor himself held that these assumptions are often inaccurate with the result that management approaches based on these assumptions fail in many situations.

Another set of assumptions about human nature that Mc-Gregor could sort out was termed by his theory. He said that many people perceive others differently from what is expressed in the assumptions underlying theory-X. This theory assumes that people are not, by nature lazy and unreliable, and that they can be selfdirected and creative in situations of work, if they are appropriately motivated. Other assumptios underlying this theory are : people can be made to work to satisfy their social esteem and self actualization needs, they can also be creative in solving organizational problems and achieving its goals, people can be made to develop self control, and that work is as natural as play in situations of favourable conditions. Thus, McGregor held that many people think that the subordinates can achieve their goals best by directig their own efforts towards accomplishing organizational goals.

The managers who believe in this theory-Y are generally supportive and facilitating. They care for the people; give them a chance to work independently, they are permissive and help their subordinates. They have faith in the subordinates and depend on them. Thus, theory-Y managers are people-oriented largely.

Theory-X and theory-Y are just the attitudes towards people. These do not mean that one is good and the other is bad. It depends on the situation as to which will work. Similarly, it is also not true that theory-X manager will always believe as prescribed under the theory. Since his assumptions are only his attitudes, they may change in course of time. But, by and large, it appears to be true that these two theories, theory-X and theory-Y, do influence the management styles of the leaders.

### THE TRAIT THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Prior to 1960 it was assumed that effective leaders have certain unique personality qualities. Everyone cannot succeed as a leader. Only those persons who are endowed with certain personality traits are likely to succeed as leaders. These qualities may be termed as leadership qualities. According to this view personality of the individual was considered to be related to his leadership role. Hence all researches in this field prior to 1960 concentrated on finding out if personality traits were in any way associated with leadership. A large number of researches was conducted with this aim in view. But, the results were disappointing. As early as 1948 Ralph Stogdil<sup>21</sup>, after a thorough survey of literature, had concluded that there was little to support the hypothesis that personality traits were related to effective leadership. Research in the field did not find any relationship between personal characteristics and leadership. Richard Mann<sup>22</sup> also reported a similar view in 1959. Then, came behavioural approaches which shifted the emphasis from personality traits to actual behaviours of the leaders and tried to identify those behaviours that make for success as leaders.

#### THE BEHAVIOUR THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

These approaches focussed on not what leaders are like, but on what they do to help groups accomplish their tasks. The major assumption underlying these theories was that leadership is a highly dynamic relationship between an individual and other members of the group in a specified environment. The relationship must be expressed in certain specific behaviours. Hence, it should be explored through research, what these behaviours are that contributes to effective leadership. Research, now, was directed to identifying behaviour patterns or styles of effective leadership. Voluminous researches were carried out in the field which finally crystallized into certain theories of leadership. Most of these studies were conducted during the 1960s and 1970s. A systematic analysis of the behaviour pattern of persons in positions of leadership was made. In recognition of the fact that leader's behaviour patterns may change in accordance with the situation, attention was shifted towards a situational or contingency approach.

Research based on behaviour approach to leadership was initiated in 1945 by the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio in the U.S.A. These studies attempted to identify those behaviours of leaders which contributed to their success and effectiveness. A large number of such behaviours was identified. But, eventually they were narrowed down to two broad dimensions, initiating structuree and consideration. Researches conducted at Ohio State University during 1950s also conceived that there may be two major types of behaviour to the system and to the individual people, i.e., system-oriented and people-oriented. These two dimensions of leader behaviour were identified to be independent of one another. However, a leader was seen to be adopting both types of behaviour depending upon the situation. Andrew Halpin used these dimensions for describing the leader behaviour of school superintendents. He defined them as follows:

11150

1. Initiating Structure : This means making efforts to establish well-defined pattern of organization, channels of communication, methods and procedures of work, and to specify the relationship between himself and the members of his group.

2. Consideration : This refers to behaviours indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.

These two dimensions, since then, have been used by a number of researchers and experts in the field with different nomenclatures. Parsons (1951) and Bales (1953) have termed them as instrumental and expressive dimensions. Stogdill and Coons (1957) and Brown (1967) have named them as System-Oriented and Person-Oriented dimensions. Brown (1967) has also given them the names of control and cathetic dimensions. Getzel and Guba (1957) have titled them as nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. Fielder (1967) used the terms task-oriented and relationship-oriented for these two dimensions. All these names and terms mean the same thing.

The history of theoretical consideration underlying these two leader-behaviour dimensions may be traced back to the reflections of two of the earliest schools of thought, scientific management and human relations theory. Scientific management or Taylorism started by Frederick Winslow Taylor in the early 1900s emphasized increased production (task) by manipulating man, machines, and technology. Setting up performance criteria to meet organizational goals by the leader was considered by him supreme. Focus on needs of the organization was of supreme importance for him. This is the same as task orientation or initiating structure dimension. On the

other hand, human relation movement initiated by Elton Mayo and his associates in the 1920s and early 1930s argued that apart from considering the task important, it was also beneficial to look into human affairs, interpersonal relations being the real power-centers in the organizations. The functions of the leader, as emphasized by this theory, were also to facilitate co-operative goal attainment among followers. Individual needs, growth and development of the workers were also equally important. This is the same as relationship orientation dimension. But, in the 1950s and 1960s three theoretical considerations were verified and validated on the basis of liberal empirical research. They were also operationally defined so that their measurement could be possible. Not all of these experts have, however, defined these dimensions exactly in the same way. According to Stogdill (1963) each of his system-oriented and personoriented dimension of leader behaviour was thought to be consisting of six sub-sets of behaviour as follows :

- (a) System-Oriented Behaviour Dimension : It consists of the following six types of behaviours.
  - (i) Production-emphasis

(ii) Initiating structure : i.e., establishment and clarification roles, setting standards, assigning tasks

to others and telling them what is expected of him and of others.

- (iii) Representation : It entails acting as the spokes person of the group, publishing the activities of the group, speaking for the group.
- (iv) Role Assumption : Active exercise of the leadership position as opposed to surrendering it, exercising authority, assuming responsibility.
- (v) Persuasiveness : Having firm conviction and also convincing others of his point of view, being assertive.
- (vi) Superior-Orientation : Having firm conviction and also convincing others of his point of view, being assertive.
- (b) Person-Oriented Behaviour Dimensions : This also consists of the following six subsets of behaviours :
  - (i) Tolerance of Uncertainty : It means leader's ability to accept postponements and indefiniteness without being anxious or upset, waiting patiently for results.

- (ii) Consideration : Leader's regard for the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers.
- (iii) Tolerance of Freedom : Permissiveness
- (iv) Demand Reconcilliation : Resolving complex problems efficiently, dealing with conflict demands.
- (v) Integration : Maintaining a closely will-knit group.
- (vi) Predictive Accuracy : Able to anticipat outcomes, interpreting trends.

Stogdill, however, said that no leader can be wholly systemoriented or wholly person-oriented. According to Brown (1967) leaders can be classified into three categories :

- (a) More system-oriented and less person-oriented
- (b) More person-oriented and less system-oriented
- (c) Equally system-and-person oriented. This is called by him a transaction style. It has been found that highly transactional style is associated with most measures of leader effectiveness.

# **CONTINGENCY THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP**

The behavioural theory of leadership has assumed that there are certain types of behaviour that make for the success of the leaders, if they have them in the repertory of their behaviours. In other words the approach asserted that if a leader shows and adopts certain behaviour patterns, he is likely to be more effective. For example, it asserted that if a leader shows regards for his co-workers, he will be more successful. In a way, the theory presented a viewpoint that the determinants of the effectiveness of leaders were locked in certain specific behaviours which they should adopt while exercising leadership. Since, this approach could not stand the test of research, it was supplanted by a more flexible and realistic point of view which emphasized that the effectiveness of leadership is a function of an interplay between leader-behaviour and the situation in which leadership is exercised. Consequently, it was found to be more logical to believe that the desire to have a single ideal type of leader-behaviour pattern was unrealistic. Several theorists in the field, then, started saying that effectiveness of leadership should be considered a resultant of the interaction between the leader and the situation which may be expressed as EFFS<sup>23</sup> in which

E = Effectiveness

F = Function

F = Followers

S = Other Situational Variables.

This means that an effective leaders is one who has the ability to adapt to the demands of the situation and the needs of the followers. The leader or the manager must be like a painter who changes his style and technicque in order to produce a particular effect in his printing. It was, then, realized that more the leaders adapt their style of leadership to meet the situational needs including the needs of followers the more effective they will be in realizing the goals of organization.

There were the views of the situatioal or contingency theories of leadership. These theories were termed as contingency theories since the effectiveness of the leaders were, in them, seen to be contingent upon the situational variables. These theories are based on four assumptions.

- (a) that leadership can be described in terms of
   behaviour patterns or styles of leaders.
- (b) that a key issue is the extent to which leader
   behaviour is task oriented and person oriented.
- (c) that there is no one universal best way to exercise leadership under all conditions. Hence, one has to assess which way or style is more appropriate in a particular situation.
- (d) that in choosing a style of leadership, the appropriate criterion is effective ness or outcome.

There are some popular contingency or situational theories of leadership. These have had powerful impact on training of managers and practice of management in all fields. They seem to have wide applicability to management in the field of education also. They have been described as follows :

#### 1. FIEDLERS CONTINGENCY THEORY OF LEADERSHIP :

Fred Fiedler (1967) developed this theory and said that neither situational characteristics nor leader characteristics alone 1,

accounted for group productivity. To him it was a combination of both that mattered. Leadership effectivness, according, as measured -by group performance, is an outcome of the dynamic interplay between leader and situation both. In other words, he meant that the performance of the leader depended on appropriate matching of leader and situation. Fiedler pointed out that neither the considerate leader nor the structuring leader is consistently more more effective. Similarly, participative management has been effective in some situations but not in others. On the other hand, critical factors inherent in the situation in which leadership is exercised determine the effectiveness of the leadership. He conceptualized these critical factors as the favourableness of the situation and said that the effectiveness of leadership depends on the favourableness of the situation in terms of three characteristics :

(i) Relationship between the leader and the followers.

(ii) The degree to which the task is well-structured .

(iii) Power of the leader's position .

A situation was considered to be favourable if his relations between the leader and other workers in the organization 57

were good, if the leader was accepted by the group, if the workers willingly followed the instructions of the leader. Similarly, a situation was considered favourable if the task to be completed was well - structured. A task was considered to be well - structured if the goals, method and procedures were all clear to the workders. Leader's power of position was defined in terms of his status, authority, his power to punish and reward the workers.

Fiedler has also summarized which leadership style is more effective in what of situation, favourable or unfavourable. In general he has said that both the situations, favourable as well as unfavourable call for a task - oriented leader. But, in case of moderately favourable situation he has recommended relationship oriented style of leadership to be used. Thus, according to Fiedler, it is meaningless to speak of "effective" or "ineffective" leaders. The same leader may be effective in ne situation, but ineffective in another one. He has prepared a matrix taking the variables of situation favourableness and unfavourableness from which one can easily read which kind of leadership will be more appropriate.

	Contin	Contingencies in the situation	ituation	Favourableness	Effective Leader Style
	<b>V</b>	B	C		
Sr. No.	Power Position	Task Structure	Leader-Member Relationship	Favourableness of Situation	Effective Style
	Strong	Structured	Good	Favourable	Task-Oriented (Low LPC Score)
	Weak	Structured	Good	Favourable	Task-Oriented (Low LPC Score)
	Strong	Unstructured	- do -	- op -	- do -
	Weak	- op -	- do -	- do -	Relationship-Oriented (High LPC Score)
	Strong	Structured	Poor	Intermediate	- do -
	Weak	- op -	- do -	- do -	- do -
	Strong	Unstructured	- do -	- do -	- do -
	Weàk	- op -	- do -	Unfavourable	Task-Structured

t

,

1

۱

ŧ

From this Table - 2 one can find out which kind of situation is favourable or unfavourable and also which style of leadership can be effective in that situation. For example, if one finds that leader's power - position is weak, task is also not well structured, but leader member relationship is good, the situation is favourable and relationship - Oriented style is likely to be more effective (see row No.4 in the table.)

Major Characteristics of the Theory : Following are the most important characteristics of this theory :

1. Leadership Styles : The theory has assumed that the whole universe of behaviours that a leader is required to adopt in the situations of leadership exercise may be grouped into two broad categories - task oriented and relationship - oriented. These he calls basic styles, styles of leadership which he defines in terms of the underlying need structure that motivates the leader to hehave in particular way. Basically, these are two need - structures, need for good relationship with the followers and need for successful accomplishment of the task. This, in other words, means relationship - oriented and task - oriented leadership behviours or styles depending upon which of these is more dominant. Satisfaction of either of these needs results in increased feelings of self - esteem, satisfaction and freedom from anxiety.

2. Maximizing Group Performance : The focus of the theory is to analyze and identify the style of leadership which amy maximize the performance of the group so that organizational goals may be achieved.

3. Group - Task Situation : The theory emphasizes that the suitability of leadership style depends upon the group-task situation, i.e. the nature of the task to be completed and the nature of relationship between the group and the leader. It was considered by Fiedler as an inter - personal setting which could be described in terms of facilitating influence of the leader. The favourableness or the group- task situation can be assessed in terms of three factors - leader -members relationship, task structure, and leader's power - position in the organization. Situation's favourableness is, then, a composite of these three factors. This can be measured through a questionnaire.

### 2. VROOM'S AND YETTON'S NORMATIVE CONTINGENCY THEORY

Victor Vroom's and Philip Yetton's contingency theory specifies how leaders ought to behave in order to be effective in view of specific situational contingencies. This is just opposite to Blake's and Moutan's prescriptive formula that team leadership or participative leadership is most effective. Vromm and Yetton's theory can be described as a normative theory as it tries to link leader behaviour to specific contingencies. It lays down norms as to how the leader should behave in a certain situation. The authors of this theory have developed a taxonomy of live leadership styles as follows :

#### A. Autocratic Process :

Coming under this type there are leadership styles as follows :

A-1 Lader or Manager makes the decision using whatever information is available.

A-2 Leader secures necessary information from members of the group and, then, makes the decision. In obtaining 61

information the leader 'may' or may not tell followers what the problem is.

**B.** Consultative Process :

In this category also there are two leadership styles as follows :

C-I This style refers to the leader who shares the decision making process with relleyant members on a one-to-one basis getting their ideas and suggestions individually without bringing them together as a group. Having collected the information he takes the decision on the basis of that.

C-II This style refers to the leader who shares the problem with members as a group in a meeting and takes the decision in consultation with them in the meeting itself.

C. Group Process :

This is the group of styles in which the leader makes decisions as follows. This is the style known as G-II.

G-II This is a style in which case the leader acting as the chair person at a meeting of the group shares the problem with the group and faciliates efforts of the group to reach consensus on a group decision. The leader may give information and express opinion but does not try to force a particular decision on them or manipulate the group through indirect method or backdoors to accept his decision. He accepts and implements any decision that has the support of the entire group.

Vroom and Yetton's contingency theory describes leadership style in behavioural terms and not in general terms. Which of these style will be more appropriate in a particular situation can be diagnosed by using the following two steps :

- First diagnose the situation in which leadership is to be attempted.
- II. Then, consult the flow chart given here. The chart indicates the style to be used in that situation.

Diagnosing the situation : In order to diagnose the situation in which leadership is to be exercise one has to put to himself the following seven questions. The "yes" or "no" answers given to these questions will reveal what kind of a situation this is. These questions are :

1. Does the problem processes a quality requirement ? This means considering whether the decisions has to be made right now with no time to consult others whether it is desirable to stimulate team development, whether it is desirable to keep people informed through participation. 2. Does the leader have sufficient information to make a good decision ?

3. Is the problem strucutred well enough?

4. Is it necessary for other to accept the decision in order to be implemented ?

5. If the leader makes the decision alone, how certain is it that others will accept it ?

6. Do others share the organisational goals that will be attained by solving this problem ?

7. Are the preferred solutions to the problem likely to create conflict among others in the group ?

Having assessed the situational centigencies in this way, attempts are made to identify the style that may be most appropriate by consulting the flow chart which shows fourteen types of problems or leadership situations along with a preferred leadership style for each one of them. Out of the five styles (AI, AII, CI, CII, GII) one may be identifid as the most suited style.

ļ

#### 3. HERSEY'S AND BLANCHARD'S SITUATIONAL THEORY

Hersey-Balanchand theory known as "Life Cycle Theory of Leadership" syas that the level of maturity of the group members is a critical factor in the situation that determines the effectiveness of a leadership style, Situational maturity of the group is seen in terms of a specific task to be performed. The point for consideration in this regard is to assess whether the group is mature to do what is required to be done. Maturity, according to these authors, is composed of two inter-related factors :

1. The skill and willingness to set high but realistic goals.

2. The skill and willingness to take responsibility for the achievement of their goals.

Thus, the three dimensions of leadership effectivenesss are :

1. Task Orientation (TO).

2. Relationship Orientation (RO)

3. Maturity of the group.

The theory asserts that (1) the maturity level of the group can be increased over time, and (ii) that as the maturity level increases the 65

1

effectve leadership style will be characterized by a reduction in TO behaviour and by an increase in RO behaviour.

#### 4. GRID CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

All the leadership theories have defined leadership and leader styles in terms of two broad dimensions - concern for the task or production and concern for the people. These concerns are not mutually exclusive. Rather, they are complementary to one another. Their integration in the management process or more correctly into the manager's job of getting results would optimized both. Taking these two dimensions Robert Balke and Jane Mouton developed the concept of managerial grid. Many research studies have been conducted using this concept for studying and categorizing leader behaviour. It has been found useful in clarifying the dynamics of organizational leadership as exercised in a particular situation. Its use is helpful in identifying the alternatives available to an administrator for improving effectiveness as a leader. The grid is used as the basis for self diagnosis by the managers who are participating in leadership training.

The concept of grid is based on the argument that every manager has a discernible style of managing and that this style is a composite of the above-mentioned two dimensions, since no

manager can be wholly task - oriented or wholly people oriented. Every manager has a variable position somewhere on both these dimensions. There can be many specific positions of styles of leadership in - between being wholly task - oriented and wholly people-oriented. To show these on a chart, Blake and Mouton developed a grid - chart. This grid is a kind of scaling of various managerial styles as depicted in the chart. The scaling has been done on a nine point scale. On the left side of the chart is a vertical scale representing concern for people or relationships numbered from one to nine vertically starting from bottom. At the base of the chart is a horizontal scale representing concern for task, also unmbered from one to nine starting from left to right. On both scales number 1 is low concern and number 9 is high concern.

Theoretically, there are 81 possible positions on the grid representing many facets and varieties of leadership styles, but the instrument and the training for which it serves as a backdrop usually centers around five points or managerial styles. These are 9, 1, 1, 9; 'i'

1, 1; 5, 5; 9, 9 styles. What each of these leadership or managerial style means has been described as follows :

## 9, 1 style (lower right of the grid)

This is the style showing little concern for people or subordinates, but very high concern for the task. Such a type of leader is primarily concerned with getting the job nicely done and completed in time. He is the embodiment of authoritarian personality telling the people all the time what to do and how to do. He considers ranks, status and authority important. He is the boss who plans and directs, while his subordinates have to only execute. This style is called by Blake "task management" style. In this the manager does not care much for he needs and development of the subordinates.

#### 1, 9 style (upper left of the grid)

This style represents little concer for the task or production and intense concern for people or friendly relations with them. This, generally, results into comfortable friendly organizational atmosphere and work climate. It is "country club management". It cares more for happy and harmonious work force, even at the cost of organizational goalss. The basic assumption underlying this style is that the happy and satisfied employees will do better work.

### 1,1 Style (lower left of the grid)

This style represents low concern for both the task and the people. Such a manager cares neither for the task nor for the people. He is not really involved in the organizational affairs and contributes nothing to the achievement of goals. Also, he is not at all bothered about the people and hks relationship with them. This is called "improverished management." Such type of a leader does not, in fact, lead, Rather, he himself is lost in the people, Such manager wannts to be just present in the organization, but ot seen. He just wants to survive.

# 5, 5 Style (center of the grid)

This style is moderately concerned with both the task and the relationship with people. By sticking to the middleof the road such administrators keep the orgaziation stable. This type of manager may ousg for the completion of the task or production and at the same time may pay due attention to the welfare ad progress of the employees. But, in case of this style neither concern for the task nor concern for the people is optimal as the manager is always in a mood to strive for a compromise. This style is a style of "middle for the road management". In fact this is a style of mediocrity. This is suitable for highly bureaucratic organization, in which rules and regulations and traditions have become ends in themselves. This type of manager tries to see that they are administered properely.

## 9, 9 style (upper right corner of the grid)

This style reflects McGregor's theory-Y orientation. The manager using this style is highly involved in the task and the people both. Such managers enjoyed their work. Blake and Mouton have held that 9, 9 style is likely to yield optimum results in mostorganizations. Rensis Likert's large scale research also supports this view. This style is also know as "team management". There is, in this, maximum concern for the task and maximum concern for the people. The goals of managerial grid training, therefore, is always to produce 9, 9 managers. This style assumes that the needs of the organization and needs of the people are not inherently in conflict. It also assumes that people want to involved in work and this can be encouraged by encouraging participation and creating a proper climate. This type of manager does not abdicate his suprior position. Rather, he considers his jon as a challenge for himself and tries to 70

build a team of organizational people in order to see that goals are achieved.

Grid terminology minly refers to these five "pure" manageerial styles. However, there is a sixth that Blake identifies as a common one, "statistical 5, 5". The statistical 5, 5 manager operates all over the grid and treats each person he encounters differently. So his managerial style averages 5.5 style.

#### **5. REDDIN'S 3-D THEORY OF LEADERSHIP**

William J-Reddin's 3-D theory is see as an extension of earlier two-dimensional (task - oriented and relationship - oriented) theories. In these earlier theories it was suggested that the effective leadership style was a combination of these two behavioural dimensions, task orientation and relationship orientation. Reddin added to these two dimensions one more dimension, "effectiveness" making it a 3dimensional theory.

This theory identifies four basic styles of leadership. Reddin said that these Leadership styles are effective in different situations. None of them is universally effective. Thus, effectiveness of a style depends on the situation in which it is used. In addition to four basic styles of leadership Reddin has described four effective and four ineffective styles.

In the present study the researcher has adopted the tool of Reddin. Details of the tool are given in the next chapter.

## 1.5 ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

Every principal is first of all a teacher and then an administrator. He holds the key position in the school. We can hardly think of any organisation without a leader. "As is the headmaster, so will be the school" is an important saying. When we enter some school, we can at once form an opinion about the administrator of that school - his work, quality of his work, etc. The character of the school reflects and proclaims the character of the headmaster.

In the words of W. M. Ryburn<sup>24</sup>: "The headmaster holds the key position in a school just as the captain of a ship holds the key position on a ship. The headmaster is the co-ordinating agency which keeps the balance, and ensures the harmonious development of the whole institution. He sets the tone of school, and is the chief force in moulding the traditions which develop as time goes on". P. C. Wren<sup>25</sup> says, "What the main spring is to the watch, the fly-wheel to the machine or the engine to the steamship, the headmaster is to the school. He is the seal and school is the wax .... He is organiser, leader, governer, business director, co-ordinator, superintendent, teacher, guide, philosopher and friend".

Good or bad school depends upo the headmaster. He should act as the leader of the team of teachers working with him, seeking their co-operation and also giving full help to them as and when needed. Mohyuddin Sultan<sup>26</sup> has rightly said : "No school can succeed if the teachers in it work as individuals and not as a group. But just as every group needs a leader, so also a school must have a leader who would stimulate and direct its work". Dr. Jaswat Singh<sup>27</sup> says, "The Headmaster or Principal of a school is the hub of the educational process. On his ability and skill as a sound and effective educatioal leader depends the success of a school system".

Thus we find that the headmaster holds the key position in the school. He is the director, co-ordinator, evaluator, organiser and above all, the administrator of the whole school system. On the one hand he is to obey the Education Department, the Managing Committee or the controlling authority and on the other hand he is to make others obey his. He is the chief inter-linking source between the school and the community. He succeeds in doing so by establishing good relationship with parents of the children, the community in general and the different organisations working in the community.

General Grant<sup>28</sup> verdicts : "There are no poor regiments but only poor colonels. So is it with the school also." The point here is that there are no poor schools, actually there are poor headmasters. The personality of the Headmaster determines to a considerable extent the position and status of the school. Secondary Education Commission<sup>29</sup> states : "The reputation of the school and the position it holds in the society depends in large measure on the influence that he (headmaster) exercises over his colleagues, the pupils and their parents and the general public.

The Central Advisory Board of Education<sup>30</sup> states : "No scheme of educational reconstruction will produce the desired results unless it is administered with vision and efficiency." It is explicit here that the success of the school depends mostly on the Headmaster. The reputed headmasters become eternal through their doings. In U. K., we find that some of the schools have been named after the reputed Headmasters, e.g., Harrow's School, Eton School, Rugby Scool, etc.

The headmaster is the central pivot around which the whole system of school revolves. The teaching staff, the non-teaching staff, the learners, and the parents are affected by his personality. So he should possess certain qualities of head and heart which might have positive influence on the developing personalities of others.

# 1.6 "Why and What" of the Problem Selected

In education, the principal is responsible to the Education Department for the work and behaviour of the teachers and students. But with the expansion of education and rise in the number of schools, the inadequacies of Educational Administration have now come to the surface. It is now abundantly clear with the development of educational theory and professional literature that there is need for reorientation of educational administration, with its own precise techniques and procedures which are technical and scientific in nature. There is need for replacing subjective judgement by objective evidence. There is need for experimentation and research to arrive at correct findings and conclusions, instead of uncritical acceptance of opinions. There is also the need for realising the limitations of such objective data and the conclusions drawn therefrom to yeild a clearer and better picture and understanding of administrative problems. All this motivated the investigator to undertake the study of administrative styles / patterns and their effectiveness. The researcher selected the following problem.

1.6.1 Problem Selected.

"An investigation into the administrative patterns of the principls at secondary as well as higher secondary schools of Ahmedabad District."

1.6.2 Definition of Terms :

ł

It is quite essential to define certain terms of the problem.

Administrative Patterns: It is the way of behaviour of the principal with different elements at school organization.

Principal: He is a teacher and an educational administrator leader of the school.

Secondary School: An educational institution of standard 8, 9 and 10.

Higher Secondary School: An educational institution of standard 11 and 12.

76

Ahmedabad District: A geographical district of Gujarat State which covers seven Taluka (Rural Area) namely: City, Dascroi, Saand, Dholka, Viramgam, Dahegam, Dhandhuka and Ahmedabad city (Urban Area).

1.6.3 Objectives : The researcher kept in mind the following major objectives for the study.

i) To study the administrative patterns of the principls of secondary as well as higher secondary schools.

ii) To study the correction between the effectiveness of the principals and their personal variables like age, educational qualification and experience.

iii) To study the correlation between the effectiveness of the principals and institutional variables like area, type, management, position, number of staff members, results etc.

1.6.4 Hypotheses : The following broad hypotheses have been farmulated.

i) There will not be any significant difference between the administrative patterns of the principals of urban as well as rural area.

ii) There will not be any significant correlation at .05 level between the effectiveness and personal variables like age, educational qualification and experience of the principal. 1

iii) There will not be any significant correlation at .05 level between the effectiveness and institutional variables area, type, management, position, number of staff members and result of the school.

1.6.5 Limitation : The investigation was limited to the Gujarati Medium Secondary and Higher Secondary Schools of Ahmedabad District only. Moreover Higher Secondary Schools with general stream and science stream only were included.

1.6.6 Tool : In the present study, a new tool has been developed on the basis of the model "Educational Administrative Style.
Diagnosis Test" (EASDT) designed by Prof. W. J. Reddin and Prof.
M. K. Reddin, taking into consideration the prevailing conditions in the secondary and higher secondary schools at Ahmedabad District.

Prof. Reddin fitst designed "Manegerial Style Diagnosis Test" (MSDT) based on the 3-D. Theory of Managerial Effectiveness and then applied it to Education and developed "EASDT" based on 3-D Theory of Administrative Effectiveness.

1.6.7 Planning of next chapters :

The researcher has divided the report in five chapters. The next chapter focuses on the researches carried in the past. The third chapter presents the research design of the investigation. It describes the problem, definition of the terms, objectives, hypotheses and limitations of the study. Description of the tool includes characteristics of basic styles and substyles. In the forth chapter data collection is presented and interpreted in an analytical manner.

ł

In the last chapter inferences of the duty interpreted in the fourth chapter are noted. Moreover suggestions for further research are also included in this chapter.