

Durham E-Theses

Administration: An examination of theory and its application to secondary public schools in Cyprus with particular reference to the role of principals

Ellada A. Constantinidou

How to cite:

Constantinidou, Ellada A. (1995) Administration: An examination of theory and its application to secondary public schools in Cyprus with particular reference to the role of principals. Masters thesis, Durham University.

Use policy

The full-text may be used and/or reproduced, and given to third parties in any format or medium, without prior permission or charge, for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes provided that:

- a full bibliographic reference is made to the original source
- a <https://etheses.durham.ac.uk/id/eprint/5153/> is made to the metadata record in Durham E-Theses
- the full-text is not changed in any way

The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

Please consult the [full Durham E-Theses policy](#) for further details.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to present in broad lines some of the basic theories of administration and to consequently examine the way administration is exercised in the secondary public schools of Cyprus to determine whether a better understanding of these theories would make principals more productive.

The first part includes basic theories, as mentioned in subjects

- a. The school as a Social System
- b. Concepts of Organization and Administration
- c. Leadership
- d. Communication
- e. Decision - Making, and
- f. Motivation

In the second part, after the Cyprus educational system is briefly described including the responsibilities of the principals, the assistant principals and the assistant principal coordinators derived from the school regulations, a report is given on the way administration is exercised in secondary education in relation to the subjects of the theories examined in part I.

The findings of two small scale researches made, one by a questionnaire to teachers regarding the ideal assistant principal and the other one by interviewing principals on the manner in which they exercise administration in their schools are presented.

Final recommendations are given for further training principals and for presentation of exemplary subjects of training in accordance with the ones at the School of Education of Durham University.

**ADMINISTRATION: AN EXAMINATION OF THEORY
AND ITS APPLICATION TO SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN CYPRUS
WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE ROLE OF PRINCIPALS**

ELLADA A. CONSTANTINIDOU

**M.A. Degree
University of Durham
School of Education
1995**

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author.
No quotation from it should be published without
his prior written consent and information derived
from it should be acknowledged.



-
- 2 JUL 1996

This is to certify that none of the material offered has previously been submitted by me for a degree in this or in any other University.

Signature ...*D. Vafid*...

Date*28.10.1995*..

"The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. No quotation from it should be published without her prior written consent and information derived from it should be acknowledged".

Acknowledgements

I wish to express my gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Michael P. Fleming of the School of Education, University of Durham, for his patient advice, penetrating criticisms and constant encouragement during all stages of the preparation of this thesis.

CONTENTS

		PAGE
	INTRODUCTION	1
	PART I	10
Chapter 1	THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM	11
1.1.	Analytic Dimensions of the Social System	13
1.1.1.	The Normative (Nomothetic) dimension	14
1.1.2.	The Personal (Idiographic) dimension	16
1.2.	Internal and External feedback loops	21
1.3.	Effectiveness, Efficiency and Satisfaction	21
1.4.	Morale	23
1.5.	Conflict	24
1.6.	Summary	26
Chapter 2	CONCEPTS OF ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION	28
2.1.	The Traditional Monocratic Bureaucratic Concept	28
2.2.	The Emerging Pluralistic Collegial Concept	33
2.3.	Some Contrasts Between Monocratic, Bureaucratic and the Pluralistic Collegial Concept.	35
2.4.	Other Scientific and Administrative Management Approaches	37
2.4.1.	The Managerial Point of View	37
2.4.2.	The Human Relations Point of View	40
2.4.3.	The Social Science Point of View	42
Chapter 3	LEADERSHIP	45
3.1.	Leadership - Administration - Management	45
3.2.	Studies of Traits	50
3.3.	The "Times Make the Man" Approach	52
3.4.	The Interactional or Group Approach	53
3.5.	Dimensions of Leadership	54
3.5.1.	Dimensions of Leadership: Comparisons	59
3.6.	Contingency Approaches	60
3.6.1.	Fiedler's Contingency Model	61
3.6.2.	House's Path-Goal Theory	64
3.7.	Managerial Grid	66
3.8.	Situational Theory	69

II

Chapter 4	COMMUNICATION	72
4.1.	Definition of Communication	72
4.2.	Direction of Communication	74
4.3.	Communication Skills	75
4.4.	Theories of Communication	76
4.4.1.	Sociopsychological Theory of Communication	76
4.4.2.	Formal and Informal Organizational Theory of Communication	82
Chapter 5	DECISION - MAKING	90
5.1.	The Classical Decision Theory	91
5.2.	The Administrative Model	93
5.3.	The Incremental Model	97
5.4.	The Conflict Theory of Decision - Making The Janis Mann Model	99
5.5.	Participation in Decision - Making	100
5.5.1.	A Model for Shared Decision-Making: Decision Rules	105
5.6.	Styles in Decision-Making	106
5.6.1.	Key Principles	108
Chapter 6	MOTIVATION	110
6.1.	Content Approaches to Motivation	111
6.1.1.	Need Hierarchy Model	112
6.1.2.	Theory X and Theory Y	116
6.1.3.	Motivation - Hygiene Theory	117
6.2.	Cognitive Process Models of Motivation	123
6.2.1.	Expectancy Theory	123
6.2.2.	Goal Theory	126
6.3.	Some Comments	128
6.4.	The Job Characteristics Model	129
PART II		131
Chapter 7	EDUCATIONAL SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM IN CYPRUS	132
7.1.	Types of secondary Schools (Six Year Education)	133
7.1.1.	The Gymnasium	134
7.1.2.	The Lyceum	134
7.1.3.	The Technical and Vocational Schools	135
7.2.	Principals, Aims and Objectives of Education	137
7.3.	Curricula	137
7.4.	Problems and Difficulties	138

Chapter 8	SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN CYPRUS	139
8.1.	Authorities and Responsibilities of the School Principals, the Assistant Principals and the Coordinator Assistant Principals, Based on the Educational Regulations 1969 - 1994.	139
8.1.1.	The School Principal	139
8.1.2.	The School Assistant Principal	143
8.1.3.	The Coordinator Assistant Principal	154
Chapter 9	LEADERSHIP AS EXERCISED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CYPRUS	159
9.1.	The Interviews with the Principals	165
9.1.1.	Introduction	165
9.1.2.	The Interviews	166
9.1.3.	Results	176
Chapter 10	DIMENSIONS OF ADMINISTRATION IN SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN CYPRUS	179
10.1.	Administrative Peculiarities in Cyprus	179
10.2.	Factors which Influence Principals in Performing their tasks	180
10.2.1.	Principal's Personal Factors	181
10.2.2.	School's Factors (External Factors) or Situational Factors	182
10.3.	Administrative Models in Cyprus	182
10.3.1.	Administrative Models - Some Comments	186
10.4.	Communication	197
10.4.1.	Some General Comments	205
10.4.2.	Effective Communication	208
10.5.	Decision Making	209
10.5.1.	Factors Affecting Decisions	215
10.5.2.	Some Comments	217
10.6.	Motivation	220
CONCLUSION		231
BIBLIOGRAPHY		239
APPENDIX		251

INTRODUCTION

The practice of organization and administration is an ancient art. It began when people tried for the first time to organize their work in order to achieve their goals. Philosophers, Kings, State and Church leaders examined administration and influenced not only their contemporaries but their descendants as well; however, its formal study, in the form of research and scholarly publications devoted to it, is more recent.

Educational Administration is a unique area of research and study. It is a phenomenon of the twentieth century, which was first developed in the United States of America; the rapid growth of business administration there, provided the concepts and methods for studies in education.

Educational administration involves many people in the professional task. School principals, directors, local administrators represent the largest group. The types of educational administrators depend on the system of each country.

Educational Administration does not remain static, but it continuously changes, functioning in a world changing at an unprecedented rate.

Although it is a changing field of study it has been viewed - during the past few decades at least - as a process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling and unifying formally and informally human and material energies for the accomplishment of predetermined objectives. It includes decision making, communication, motivation, leadership and management.



According to Ronald W. Rebores (1) "Administration is the cordial process of managing human financial and material resources towards the fulfilment of a mission. The school administrator fulfils these requisites by developing and establishing administrative processes, procedures and techniques that harness human, financial and material energies. The importance of administrative leadership stems from its potential for converting these energies within an organization to the fulfilment of educational objectives".

Administration, Leadership, and Management are relational concepts developing over lengthy periods of time.

Leadership is first constituted in the nineteenth century in moral terms and is reconstructed over time in market relation terms. It traces the changing discourse of school management as it moves from preoccupations with social control to contemporary forms of market and finance management in education (2).

Educational leadership by the rise of administrative science lost its distinct conceptual identity in subsequent studies and has been recontextualized as a form or part of management.

In the early twentieth century the "scholarly educational leader" had been reconceptualized as "business manager" or "school executive" and later from the 1930s to the 1950s as "statesman" in a democratic school system, at least in England. This shows educational leadership and management is bound up with changes in the social - political and cultural system of the wider society (3).

-
1. Ronald W. Rebores, **Personnel Administration in Education, A Management Approach**, 3rd ed. (Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632, 1991), p.9.
 2. Gerald Grace, **School Leadership: Beyond Education Management, An Essay in Policy Scholarship**, (The Falmer Press, 1995), p. 47.
 3. **Ibid.**, pp.49-50.

The political and cultural effects which resulted from the Second World War required new progressive curricula and progressive methods for the new needed high standards of education. The ideal of head teacher of this period was that of modern professionalism - professionally expert, a modernizer, a team leader (4).

The good head teacher was expected to be a competent organizer and administrator. It is the period of the "amateur ideal", the gifted amateur in administration. At this time the idea that head teachers required "training" to run their schools efficiently had little currency. School organization and administration was not taken to be either complex or esoteric. It was a necessary second order activity to the prime purpose of educating students (5).

Modern Management practice made its first appearance in the 1960s, arising out of the establishment of large comprehensive secondary schools. It involved market analysis input - output calculation, quality control and personnel relations. All these constituted an imperative for the introduction of managerial systems and a managerial discourse, and training for head teachers had become essential.

The operation of large comprehensive schools necessarily generated the creation of bureaucracy (6).

From the 1980s and the 1990s and beyond the position of head teacher is itself in radical transformation as chief executive or senior manager. Entrepreneurial and managerial functions are constructed as the prime responsibilities of the role, which indicate new priorities in the future operations of schools (7).

4. **Ibid.**, pp. 54-56.

5. **Ibid.**, pp. 57-61.

6. **Ibid.**, pp. 61-66.

7. **Ibid.**, p. 79.

- As far as Cyprus is concerned the principal of a secondary school never had the authority throughout the existence of secondary education to appoint teachers or to pay their wages during the period of the English rule. This role was taken by the powerful local school Committee who was the only body responsible for the appointment, dismissal and payment of the staff of the school.
- Since 1960 with the establishment of the Cyprus Republic, the State took over this responsibility within a centralized system. The Educational Service Committee, a central Committee, appointed directly by the President of the Republic, undertook the task of appointment and placement of teachers of each school, and their salaries are paid by the General Accountancy of the State.
- Despite all the recent changes in the regulations for the functioning of the schools in different aspects, the system remains centralized with its advantages and disadvantages. The Ministry of Education determines the educational policy, as well as the means for its successful implementation (eg. curriculum, books, methods, timetable etc.)

For the above reasons the term administration is considered to be the most suitable for the Cyprus situation. (The concepts of administration, management are considered in more detail on pp. 46-47).

Educational systems pay particular attention to the administration of schools for several reasons. These reasons include political, historical, philosophical and societal factors, which consequently determine the way schools are administered. Whatever, though, the form of administration of schools, all systems expect the school administrator to exercise a number of roles, all of which are considered to determine the character and the success of the school and the system in general. Some of these roles are the same, irrespective of the system: a principal should be efficient as a leader, an inspirer of others, a motivator, a good decision maker, an effective manager, especially in financial affairs, a good negotiator when in contact with the authorities and a successful person in human relations, when cooperating with parents and the public.

Since principals are associated with students' achievement, there has been a lot of interest and concern about the effectiveness of principals. Theories of school administration describe the characteristics a good principal should possess, and schools of Education today include in their programmes of studies theories of administration, since recruitment to administrative posts in many countries, like Cyprus, tend to be via the teaching profession. Need, therefore, to provide not only pre - but also in-service training in educational administration and clearly defined career opportunities are apparent.

In Cyprus, school administration is traditionally exercised by teachers who have been graded as efficient in their profession and promoted to assistant principals and then to principals. The centralized educational system promotes and appoints principals all over the island, who work according to the existing educational regulations and the Ministry's circulars (See Chapter 7, Part II).

Although a great part of the principals' work is common to all, there are simultaneously some distinctive issues which they have to face, due to the location of the school and its peculiarities in consequence.

Administration, especially of a secondary school nowadays in Cyprus, is not an easy task. There are plenty of problems and difficulties to deal with, particularly since Cyprus political problem remains unsolved with financial, social, cultural, moral reformations as a direct consequence. We stand, thus, before a changeable society receiving influences hindering stability. Without a stable situation the task of discovering the problems and finding ways and means of solving them becomes very difficult, if not impossible.

As part of the constant changes and the european orientation of Cyprus, a new type of secondary school will be introduced experimentally from the next school year, a kind of comprehensive school. From all the above one can argue that the traditional type of principal of our schools, who has been promoted to this post due to his/her efficiency in teaching, may not have the same efficiency to respond to the new demands.

Having in mind that from a total of 90 secondary school principals only 5 of them have postgraduate studies in Administration, I tend to believe that in-service training programmes could help them to be more effective.

The purpose of this study is to examine how the administration of secondary schools in Cyprus is exercised, and how its future needs can be confronted. As a frame of reference some of the well known theories of administration are described, in order to relate the practice of the school principals (in Cyprus) with the content of these theories.

The main question of this study is:

- How the performance of the role of secondary school principals could be improved, and
- to what extent can an awareness of the theories of administration by principals offer them the necessary background and necessary frame of reference to respond to their duties more efficiently ?

In order to answer this question a number of subsidiary issues will be considered:

- a. To what degree does the centralized educational system in Cyprus determine the role of the principal?
- b. What is the influence of the principal over curriculum content, over teaching style, statutory powers, legal obligations, relationship to assistant principals, teachers, students and parents?
- c. How close to the arguments of the theories is the behaviour of the principals in Cyprus, as far as administration is concerned?

In order to answer these questions, the following are included in the work.

- a. Overview of theories (8). There are occasional references to the Cyprus system - the main relating of theories to the Cyprus system will occur in part II.
- b. Description of existing practices of the principals within the content of the educational system.
- c. Although the work is not primarily empirical, reference is made to two small scale researches:
 1. A small scale research about the characteristics of an effective assistant principal.
 2. An examination of the opinions of principals, as they have been expressed in interviews I undertook with them.

Part I of the study deals with some of the theories of Administration, concentrating on what are described to be the basic dimension of administration; thus, leadership, communication, decision making, and motivation are examined from the point of view of some of the theorists. Traditional theories are included in the survey because of their relevance to contemporary Cyprus.

In Chapter 1, studies about the school as a social system are considered where the dimensions of it are examined as well as the factors which affect them.

Concepts of organization and administration are presented in Chapter 2, and in particular models of administering the school and their contribution to issues like the division of labour and the solution of organizational problems of adaptiveness, production efficiency and job satisfaction.

-
8. Both contemporary and more traditional literature was consulted.

Leadership is dealt with in Chapter 3. Apart from what makes a leader effective, the dimensions of leadership are examined, as well as the relationship between leadership style and the situational variables.

In Chapter 4, a fundamental and integrative process of administration is studied, that of communication; the exchange by individuals interacting in social situations of ideas is examined along with the channels of formal and informal communication.

The understanding of the decision making process is vital to successful administration; this is the content of chapter 5, which studies the steps in the analysis of a problem and the development of a plan for action.

The 6th and last Chapter of Part I deals with motivation and examines the forces that start and maintain voluntary activity for achieving educational goals, as well as the factors which contribute to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction.

Part II deals with the way the administration is exercised in the secondary public schools of Cyprus, so that one can refer to the theories of administration and at the same time make the necessary comparison of the two approaches.

In particular:

Chapter 7 examines the educational system of Cyprus in order to give to the reader the necessary information about the conditions in which the secondary school principals work.

Chapter 8 deals in detail with the system of secondary school administration in Cyprus. The authorities and responsibilities of the school principals, assistant principals and assistant principal coordinators, based on the educational regulations of 1969-1994.

Leadership as exercised in secondary school in Cyprus, according to the interviews with the principals; this is the content of Chapter 9.

Chapter 10 examines the dimension of administration in secondary public schools in Cyprus:

- a. Administrative peculiarities in Cyprus. Administrative models exercised in secondary schools.
- b. Communication.
- c. Decision Making.
- d. Motivation.

In the conclusion, after the examining of the relations between the theories and the behaviour of the principals in Cyprus, there are some concluding remarks and recommendations which are derived from the whole study.

PART I

Chapter 1

THE SCHOOL AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM

The school is a system of social interaction; it is an organized whole comprised of interacting personalities bound together in an organic relationship (1). As a social system, it is characterised by an interdependence of parts, a clearly defined population, differentiation from its environment, a complex network of social relationships, and its own unique culture.

A social system is a bounded set of elements (subsystems) and activities that interact and constitute a single social entity (2). This definition implies that a social system is creative as it has properties and purposes over and above the component parts and relationships.

Marvin Olsen (3) says: A social system is a model of organization that possesses a distinctive total unity (creativity) beyond its component parts; it is distinguished from its environment by a clearly defined boundary; it is composed of subunits, elements, and subsystems that are at least interrelated within relatively stable patterns of social order.

A social-system's model can be a unit of any size that is of analytic value. A given community may be considered a social system. The school itself or even a single class within the school may be considered a social system in its own right. The environment is anything outside the boundaries of the unit of analysis. When the system has no exchange with the environment, it is closed.

-
1. Willard Waller, *The Sociology of Teaching* (New York: Wiley, 1932), p. 6.
 2. A.D.Hall, and R.E. Fagen, "Definition of a System," *General Systems: The Yearbook of the Society for General Systems Research*, 1 (1956), 18-28.
 3. Marvin Olsen, *The Process of Social Organization* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968), pp. 227-232.

The clear separation of the organization from its environment is virtually impossible when applied to open systems such as schools. The environment contributes students, materials, energy, information, and cultural values; the school returns educated persons, information, and entertainment.

Officials attempt to control this openness of the school, but the result is a partially controlled exchange that modifies both the system's internal and environmental components. This mutual control and exchange mechanism is explained in social system model as homeostasis, feedback, and equilibrium. Homeostasis is a process in which a group of regulators acts to maintain a steady state among the system components. Feedback loop ensures that a portion of the school's behaviour and the internal and external environment's reactions to that behaviour are filtered back into the system as input.

Equilibrium exists when the social and biological parts of the system maintain a constant relationship to each other so that no part changes its position or relation with respect to all other parts. When disruptive stresses upset this equilibrium, the system either changes itself or neutralizes the disruptive forces impinging on it, and restores equilibrium. Because all parts of the school are related, a change in any one part necessarily produces a corresponding change in every other part.

Joseph A. Litterer (4), Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba (5), and Charles E. Bidwell (6), suggest some basic assumptions for social-system models:

-
4. Joseph A. Litterer, **Organization: Systems, Control, and Adaption**, 2nd Edition, Vol.2 (New York: Wiley, 1969), pp.1-6, 116-119.
 5. Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social behaviour and the Administrative Process," **School Review**, 65 (1957); 423-441, Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F. Campbell, **Educational Administration as a Social Process: Theory, Research and Practice** (New York: Harper and Row, 1968), pp.52-78.
 6. Charles Bidwell, "The School as a Formal Organization," in James G. March (ed.), **Handbook of Organization** (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965), pp.972-1022.

- 1) Social systems are comprised of interdependent parts, characteristics, and activities that contribute to and receive from the whole.
- 2) Social systems are goal-oriented, and indeed they may have a multiplicity of goals.
- 3) Social systems are peopled. People act in the roles of administrators, teachers, students, and so forth.
- 4) Social systems are structural. Different components are needed to carry out specific functions and allocate resources.
- 5) Social systems are normative. Each person within them is expected to behave in a particular manner.
- 6) Social systems are sanction bearing. The norms for behaviour are enforced with reward and punishment.
- 7) Social systems are open systems. There are exchanges between the system and the environment. Schools are affected by outside forces; the values of the community, by politics, and by history.

1.1 ANALYTIC DIMENSIONS OF THE SOCIAL SYSTEM

Each social system involves two classes of phenomena which are conceptually interdependent and phenomenally interacting (7): 1) the institutions, with certain roles and expectations, that will fulfil the goals of the system; and 2) the individuals, with certain personalities and dispositions, inhabiting the system, whose observed interactions comprise what we generally call "social behaviour". This behaviour may be understood as a function of these major elements: institution, role, and expectation, which together constitute the Nomothetic or Normative dimension of activity in a social system; and the individual, personality, and need-disposition, which together constitute the Idiographic or Personal dimension of activity in a social system.

7. Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F. Campbell, *op. cit.*, p. 73.

1.1.1. The Normative (Nomothetic) Dimension

All social systems have certain imperative functions that come in time to be carried out in certain routinized ways - governing, educating, policing. Established agencies, the Institutions, carry out these institutionalized functions.

Institutions generally have at least five basic properties:

- 1) Institutions are purposive. They are established to carry out certain goals.
- 2) Institutions are peopled. If institutions are to carry out their functions, human agents are required.
- 3) Institutions are structural. To carry out a specific purpose requires some sort of organization, and organization implies component parts, with rules about how the parts should be interrelated. Each role is assigned certain responsibilities. The actors have to perform their institutional functions by behaving in accordance with their roles.
- 4) Institutions are normative. The roles serve as norms for the behaviour of the role incumbents. Each actor must behave in more or less expected ways, if he is to retain his legitimate place in the institution.
- 5) Institutions are sanction-bearing. The existence of norms is of no consequence unless there is adherence to them. Accordingly, institutions must have at their disposal appropriate positive and negative sanctions for insuring compliance, at least within broad limits, to the norms.

The most important analytic subunit of the institutions is the Role. Role has a number of notable characteristics:

- 1) Roles represent positions and statuses within the institution. As *Linton* (8) says, a status, as distinct from the individual who may occupy it, is simply a collection of duties. When he puts the rights and duties which constitute the status into effect, he is performing a role. A role exists only within a particular social system, represents a particular position within that system, and implies a pattern of more or less obligatory behaviour on the part of the role incumbent in relation to other role incumbents in the system.
- 2) Roles are defined in terms of expectations or normative rights and duties of the position. The expectations specify the appropriate behaviour for a specific position. When the role incumbent puts these rights and duties into effect, he is said to be performing in his role.
- 3) Roles are variable. Some expectations are critical and mandatory; others are more flexible.
- 4) Roles are complementary. Roles are interdependent in that each derives its meaning from other related roles in the institution.

In Cyprus, the secondary school principal has a very significant role to perform. His/her role is distinctive from the roles of the assistant principals or the other teachers. He/she is the head of the school and everything in the school depends on him/her. Due to the position he occupies, he has to adjust his behaviour and to put into effect a system of functioning according to the regulations which must lead to the realization of the educational goals.

8. Ralph Linton, *The Study of Man* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1936), pp. 113-114.

A social system may be described by the component institutions, the institutions by the component roles, the roles by the component expectations.

Expectations, in the present framework, are those rights and duties, privileges and obligations - in a word, those prescriptions that delineate what a person should and should not do under various circumstances as the incumbent of a particular role in a social system.

1.1.2. The Personal (Idiographic) Dimension

The other element in the Getzels-Guba model is the individual. Although people occupy roles and positions in the school, they are not simply actors devoid of unique needs. No two teachers, administrators, or students in the same situation behave exactly the same way. They have different personalities and needs that are reflected in their behaviour. Individuals shape the roles they occupy with their own style of behaviour. Getzels and Guba define personality as the dynamic organization within the individual containing need dispositions that govern idiosyncratic reactions to the environment.

Personality is defined here in terms of an internal motivational system, not behaviour. Yet, it is a motivational system that is dynamic because it is changing, self-regulating, and interacting with its environment. Since no two persons have exactly the same motivational system, personalities are unique; hence variety in behaviour is the rule, not the exception.

This variety is presented even in centralized educational systems, like the one in Cyprus. Although all the state schools in Cyprus function according to very analytical regulations, no two schools are exactly the same, since their mode of functioning represents the distinct personality of the principal (See Chapter 10, Part II, pp. 179-183).

Thus far, there are two basic elements of social systems: the institutional and the individual. Taken separately, each explains a portion of the behaviour in social systems. Together, they provide the basis of behaviour in which a dynamic transaction between roles and personality interact.

In rigid bureaucratic structures, behaviour is more likely to be determined by role factors rather than personality characteristics. In less formal social systems, roles are considered to be more important. In some systems there is balance between the two elements; in others, roles submerge personality or vice versa.

The social system operates within and interacts with a larger environment. The inputs from the environment affect both the institution and the individual; consequently, the environment influences behaviour within the system, which in turn contributes to system outcomes.

However, regardless of the official goals and elaborate bureaucratic expectations, members have their own individual needs and values. As individuals interact in a work group, emergent patterns of social life develop - that is, the group develops its own informal practices, values, norms, and social relations.

Thus, behaviour is also influenced by goal and work group elements. Further, all the elements and interactions within the system are constrained by important forces from the environment.

The model of formal organization examines internal elements of the system: the institution, individual, work group, and goal.

The institutional dimension of an organization refers primarily to bureaucratic expectations of the positions within the organization. As *Max G. Abbot* notes (9), "these expectations, which ideally are functionally specific and universalistic, are generally formalized and codified and adopted as the official rules of the organization." Thus, a teacher is expected to behave in appropriate ways based on the school's rules and the expertise demanded by the instructional job.

The second element of examination is the individual. Individual's behaviour is a function of the interaction between bureaucratic role expectations and the relevant personality needs of him. For example, the evaluation of the teaching staff is affected by district policy or state policy - as in Cyprus - as well as by the principal's own needs. The administrator who has a great personal desire for social acceptance from the teachers may treat these sessions as an opportunity for friendly socializing rather than for evaluating, as a number of administrators do in Cyprus (See Chapter 10.3, Part II, pp.184, 186-189). But the other, who lacks such a need for social acceptance, may follow the book and remain analytical in the evaluation. The two principals are affected by both elements, but the first is more influenced by the personality and the second by the bureaucratic role expectations.

In formal organizations the work group is the mechanism by which bureaucratic expectations and individual needs interact and modify each other. The work group develops its own informal status structure and culture, its social organization. This informal organization, with its important group norms becomes another power force that affects organizational behaviour. In a school, peer pressure among teachers has a significant impact on behaviour. The group with its informal organization and norms influences behaviour for several reasons. Communication of feelings is easy among peers, especially friends.

9. Max G. Abbot, "Intervening Variables in Organizational Behavior," *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 1 (1965), 1-13.

Informal groups maintain cohesiveness and a feeling of personal integrity, self-respect, and independent choice. Members receive important rewards from the group, and group norms are significant in guiding their behaviour.

Another element which influences behaviour is goal. Goals are future states of affairs that the organization is attempting to realize; they are images of desire ends, which must be achieved through the performance of their job (10). Goals have different origins and functions; they are used to direct, to motivate, to evaluate, and sometimes to justify behaviour (11). There are status goals and actual goals, official and unofficial goals, abstract and concrete goals, individual and organization goals, and imperative and operational goals.

Moreover, all the elements and interactions within the system are constrained by important demands from the environment. Environment can be defined as everything that is outside the organization. The environment is critical to the organizational functioning of the schools, because schools are social systems, and social systems are open. The environment provides resources, values, technology, demands, and history, all of which place constraints and opportunities on organizational action.

Broad and specific environmental factors influence the structure and activities of schools. Larger social, legal, economic, political, demographic and technological trends have a potentially powerful impact on schools. Parents, unions, regulatory agencies, colleges and universities, state legislatures, accreting agencies, and educational associations have more immediate and direct effects on schools.

10. Amitai Etzioni, **Modern Organizations** (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p.6.

11. W.Richard Scott, "Introduction: From Technology to Environment," in John M. Meyer and W. Richard Scott (eds) **Organizational Environments: Ritual and Rationality** (Beverly Hills, CA:Sage, 1983), p.289.

Especially in small societies, like Cyprus, the pressure of the social environment is even more obvious. All the prevailing trends are shown in the school system; politicians, unions' representatives, church leaders, non-governmental organizations and cultural tradition do really affect the system in one way or another.

Administrators resort to strategies to reduce uncertainty and control their environments. They try to minimize external effects, but in spite of their efforts, schools are open systems, and they are, more or less, affected by general and specific external forces.

Thus, school can be thought of as a set of elements - goals, individuals, information, and bureaucratic arrangements; however, behaviour in organizations is not simply a function of its elements and environmental forces; it is a function of the interaction of bureaucratic expectations, individual motives, informal norms, and organizational goals, as constrained by environment forces.

Therefore, if an organization is to survive and develop, it must solve the problems of adaptation, goal achievement, integration, and latency. Schools must acquire sufficient resources and accommodate to the demands of the environment (adaptation), define and implement their goals (goal achievement), maintain solidarity and unity among students, teachers, and administrators (integration), and maintain and renew the motivational and cultural patterns of the school climate (latency) (12).

12. Talcott Parsons, **Structure and Process in Modern Society** (New York: Free Press, 1960), pp.16-58.

1.2. INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FEEDBACK LOOPS

The social systems have both internal and external feedback mechanisms. The formal school structure and the informal groups both attempt to influence individual behaviour. Although the bureaucracy has formal mechanisms and the work group informal ones, both have internal feedback loops.

The formal school organization provides an official definition of the position, its rank in the hierarchy, and a set of expected behaviours that go with it. If the school bureaucracy approves of an individual's performance, positive rewards reinforce his or her behaviour. If that person's behaviour is evaluated as inferior, negative incentives are increased.

Informal groups similarly influence behaviour. Norms exist within and among all informal peer groups, and control behaviour.

Behaviour in schools also is monitored through external feedback loops. The culture of the community provides environmental constraints that directly influence individual needs. In spite of attempts by the school to isolate itself, it remains open to community, state, and national forces.

Social behaviour in a school is, thus, affected directly by at least four elements, or subsystems - bureaucratic expectations, group norms, organizational goals, and individual needs.

1.3. EFFECTIVENESS, EFFICIENCY AND SATISFACTION

Many of the administrative problems of formal organizations arise from the fundamental conflict between the needs and motives of the mature individual and the requirements of the bureaucratic organization (13). Individuals attempt to reshape bureaucratic roles so that personal needs can be actualized. Conversely, the organization attempts to mold and fit individuals into the prescribed roles in order to achieve organization goals best.

13. Chris Argyris, *Personality and Organizations* (New York: Harper and Row, 1957), p.66.

As *Chester Barnard* (14) argues, an action is effective if it accomplishes its specific objective, and efficient if it satisfies the motives underlying the immediate objective. Personal behaviour can be effective and not efficient, that is, the objective accomplished without satisfying the personal motives behind it.

Behaviour can also be efficient and not effective, if individual needs are satisfied but the action intended as a means of obtaining that satisfaction is not successfully accomplished; or behaviour can be simultaneously effective and efficient. When behaviour is congruent with the bureaucratic expectations for a given role, it is effective. When behaviour is consistent with the personal motives of an organizational member, it is efficient. Personal action can be effective without being efficient or vice versa. However, when behaviour results in the fulfilment both of bureaucratic expectations and of individual needs and motives, satisfaction with the organization is maximized. Job satisfaction, then, depends on the congruence of bureaucratic expectations and the individual needs and motives.

As for Cyprus, it can be said that, although there are no statistical data, principals are rather effective than efficient. They feel that they have first of all to try hard in order to satisfy the bureaucratic expectations and then to satisfy their personal needs and motives.

Sometimes they do really feel satisfied if their success in implementing the Ministry's guidelines is mentioned either by a higher echelon or by their colleagues. Thus, they identify effectiveness with efficiency to a certain extent. It is possible that this is due to the process by which teachers are promoted in Cyprus and principals are appointed. A teacher who is considered by the Ministry officials to be successful inevitably sets high scores in the evaluation climax and sooner or later is promoted; a successful teacher is obviously one who works hard for the attainment of the goals set by the Ministry.

14. Chester Barnard, *Functions of an Executive* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1938), pp.19-20.

Apart from that job satisfaction involves a number of parameters which make it difficult to achieve. It involves the individual's psychological condition at a given time, as well as his personality and the way he/she comprehends his/her job; how he understands the notion of being responsible, exercising power, feeling control, introducing innovation and generally all the aspects of the administrative post. One can also add the human environment (the society in general, the pupils' parents in particular), as well as the personnel of the school, and so many other factors. Bureaucratic expectations are set by others and have to be as concrete and clear as possible, whereas personal needs are vague and complicated.

It seems that this phenomenon exists in other countries as well. In England *Anne Jones* (15) asked principals to name five aspects of their job which they enjoyed and five aspects which they did not. It is interesting to note the differences in the answers of the principals, which reveal the variety of their way of thinking and the difficulties they have to cope with in the turbulent, inconsistent world of today.

1.4. MORALE

Satisfaction is a necessary prior condition for the achievement of high morale.

The morale of organizational members depends upon the extent to which organizational goals and individual needs are congruent (sense of identification), the extent to which bureaucratic expectations and personal needs are compatible (sense of belonging), and the extent to which bureaucratic expectations are logical and well-suited for the achievement of organizational goals (sense of rationality).

15. *Anne Jones, Leadership for Tomorrow's Schools* (Basil Blackwell Ltd, Oxford, 1988), pp.79-82.

Administrators attempting to obtain high morale in a school must be concerned with substantial levels of agreement among bureaucratic expectations, personal needs, and organizational goals. Morale cannot be high if any one of the three components is low.

1.5. CONFLICT

Since schools are social systems, a number of potential conflicts are possible, if not probable.

Teachers and administrators face conflicts and pressures not only by virtue of their formal position but also because they occupy several roles in a number of social systems.

Formal organizations attempt to limit role conflict by elaborating a consistent body of bureaucratic rules, regulations, and procedures. Nevertheless, tension and strains exist within the bureaucratic expectations defining formal positions, and the pressures from many role affiliations outside the formal organization persist.

Role conflicts occur whenever a role incumbent is required to conform simultaneously to a number of expectations which are mutually exclusive, contradictory, or inconsistent, so that adjustment to one set of requirements makes adjustment to the other impossible or at least difficult. Role conflicts are evidence of disorganization in the nomothetic dimension and may arise in several ways.

Personality conflict is another potential source of stress for an organization. Personality conflict arises from basic incompatibilities in the need structure of the individual. Personality conflicts occur as a function of opposing needs and dispositions within the personality of the role incumbent himself. The effect of such personal disequilibrium is to keep the individual at odds with the institution, either because he cannot maintain a stable relationship to a given role or because his autistic tendencies cause him to misperceive the expectations placed upon him.

Norm conflict results when there is inherent conflict and tension between informal norms.

Goal conflict is another potential source of difficulty for formal organizations. The organizations like schools have multiple goals, which are often contradictory. The decision to focus attention on the one of them can detract from the development of the others.

Role-norm conflict is also a possible tension between the formal and informal organization. It is the conflict between the official job expectations and the norms of the informal groups of workers (The Hawthorne Plant example).

Role-goal conflict depicts a situation in which the bureaucratic expectations are inconsistent with organizational goals.

Role-personality conflict provides another source of organizational tension. Role-personality conflict occurs as a function of discrepancies between the pattern of expectations attaching to a given role and the pattern of need-dispositions characteristic of the incumbent of the role. There is a mutual interference between nomothetic expectations and idiographic dispositions, and the individual must choose whether he will fulfil individual needs or institutional requirements.

Norm-personality conflict refers to a similar contradiction in the informal organization. In this case, the personality needs of the individual and the norms of the informal organization are not consistent.

Norm-goal conflict can occur between the informal organization and the goals. Goal-personality conflict refers to the problem which occurs when teachers do not comply with the organizational goals for a variety of individual reasons. Another source of tension and pressure comes from the environment. The school does not exist in a vacuum. It is influenced by its environment, and an important aspect of that environment is the culture consisting in part of societal and community values. The values of the broader social system in which the school is embedded provide another source of tension and pressure.

Indeed, dominant community values can and do come into conflict with bureaucratic roles, with individual personality, with informal norms, and with organizational goals.

Therefore, the school's effectiveness can be defined as the degree to which the actual outcomes of the organization - (the school) - are consistent with the expected outcomes (16).

1.6. S U M M A R Y

This chapter dealt with the school as a social system. A system can be defined as a complex of elements in interaction. Each system is conceptualized as having a "boundary". The environment of a system is everything external to its boundary.

A school system is an open living social system which can be conceptualized in a number of ways in terms of system theory.

The model which was presented, has been developed by Getzels and Guba. According to them, the social system is conceived of in terms of two major dimensions which are conceptually independent but phenomenally interactive. The first, the institutional dimension, defines roles and expectations that will fulfil the goals of the system; it is the nomothetic or normative dimension of activity in a social system.

-
16. David A. Nadler and Michael L. Tushman, "A General Diagnostic Model for Organizational Behaviour Applying a Congruence Perspective," in J.R. Hackman, E.E. Lawler III, and L.W.Porter (eds.) **Perspectives in Behavior in Organizations** (New York: Mc Graw-Hill, 1983), pp. 112-124.

The second, the personal dimension, is influenced by personalities and need-dispositions of individuals. Individual, personality and need-dispositions constitute what is referred to as the idiographic dimension in the social system. It is impossible to attain organizational goals with efficiency, if there is a crucial conflict between organizational goals and the goals of the actors in the organization.

Moreover, all the elements and interactions within the system are constrained by important demands from the environment, as the organization solves the imperative problems of adaptation, goal achievement, integration and latency. In addition, internal and external feedback mechanisms reinforce appropriate organizational behaviour.

Among the many concepts which are related with the fundamental conflict between the needs and motives of the individual and the demands of the organization are those of effectiveness and efficiency. According to *Chester Barnard* the continuance of a successful organization depends upon two conditions: 1) the accomplishment of the purposes of the organization, which he termed "effectiveness", and 2) the satisfaction of individual motive, which he termed "efficiency".

Job satisfaction - which is a necessary prior condition for the achievement of high morale - depends on the congruence of bureaucratic expectations and the individual motives. Rules and regulations attempt to limit possible role conflicts in the social system. Conflicts occur when, for example, an individual is required to conform to mutually exclusive expectations or due to basic incompatibilities in the individual's need structure. There are also a number of conflicts related to norms, goals and the personality of the individual. Tension and pressure are also caused by the environment.

For the study of school as a social system concepts of organization and administration need to be mentioned. These concepts will be examined in Chapter 2 which follows.

Chapter 2

CONCEPTS OF ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Two principal concepts of organization and administration, the Traditional Monocratic Bureaucratic concept and the Emerging Pluralistic Collegial concept are helpful in studying the school as a social system.

2.1. THE TRADITIONAL MONOCRATIC BUREAUCRATIC CONCEPT

The traditional monocratic bureaucratic concept of organization and administration is defined as a pyramidal hierarchical organizational structure, in which all power for making decisions flows from superordinates to subordinates.

This concept is known as the Weberian model of Bureaucracy, because it has been described by *Max Weber* (1).

Many modern organizations still have many of the characteristics enumerated by Weber - a division of labour and specialization, an impersonal orientation, a hierarchy of authority, rules and regulations, and a career orientation.

- a. According to Weber, division of labour and specialization mean that "the regular activities required for the purposes of the bureaucratically governed structure are distributed in a fixed way as official duties" (2). Because the tasks in most organizations are too complex to be performed by a single person, division of labour among positions improves efficiency.

1. Max Weber, **The Theory of Social and Economic Organization** (trans.) A.M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons, (ed.), Talcott Parsons, (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, Inc. 1947.), p.152.

2. H.H. Gerth and Wright Mills (eds), from Max Weber. **Essays in Sociology**. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1946), p. 196.

Efficiency increases, because division of labour produces specialization; employees become knowledgeable and expert at performing their prescribed duties. Hence, division of labour and specialization produce more expertise in school personnel.

- b. According to the above concept the working atmosphere of a bureaucracy should provide "the dominance of a spirit of formalistic impersonality "sine ira et studio" without hatred or passion, and hence without affection or enthusiasm" (3). The bureaucratic employee is expected to make decisions based on facts, not feelings.
- c. Offices, according to Weberian model, are arranged hierarchically. That is "each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one. The superintendent is at the top in the organizational chart and assistants, directors, principals, teachers, and students at lower levels" (4).

Almost without exception, large organizations develop a well-established system of superordination and subordination which attempts to guarantee the disciplined compliance to directives from superiors that is necessary for implementing the various tasks and functions of an organization.

- d. Weber asserts that every bureaucracy has a "consistent system of abstract rules, which have normally been intentionally established, and must be applicable to particular cases (5). They cover the rights and duties inherent in each position and help to coordinate activities in the hierarchy. They also provide continuity of operations, when there are changes in personnel.

-
- 3. Max Weber, *op. cit.* p. 341.
 - 4. Max Weber, *op. cit.*, p. 331.
 - 5. Max Weber, *op. cit.*, p. 330.

Rules and regulations, thus, ensure uniformity and stability of employee action. As *Musgrove* pointed out bureaucracy "has helped to make jobs secure and has based appointments and promotions on qualifications rather than personal connections and it has regulated activity through rules" (6).

- e. Since employment in a bureaucratic organization is based on technical qualifications, employees think of their work as a career. Weber maintains "there is a system of promotion according to seniority, achievement, or both. Promotion is dependent on the judgement of superiors" (7).
- f. To Weber, bureaucracy maximizes rational decision making and administrative efficiency. "The purely bureaucratic type of administrative organization is capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency" (8).

Division of labour and specialization produce experts, and experts with an impersonal orientation make technically correct, rational decisions based on the facts (9).

Finally, a career orientation provides the incentive for employees to be loyal to the organization and to produce that extra effort. Career orientation is an incentive for teachers in Cyprus educational system but not very strong, especially for the younger ones, for reasons which are explained in Chapter 10.6, Part II, p.222.

-
- 6. F. Musgrove, "Patterns of Power and Authority in English Education," (London, Methuen, 1971) in Gerald Grace, **School Leadership: Beyond Education Management, An Essay in Policy Scholarship**, typescript (The Falmer Press, 1995), p.65.
 - 7. Max Weber, *op. cit.*, p. 334.
 - 8. Max Weber, *op. cit.*, p. 337.
 - 9. Victor Thompson, **Modern Organization** (New York, Alfred Knopf, Inc. 1961), pp. 81-113.

In England for most of the social democratic period (from the Second World War onward), schools were organized by a group of professionals with the headteacher as leading professional. Schools were, thus, pre-bureaucratic. Professionalism was exercised culturally rather than organizationally (10).

However, the managerial complexity of running large educational units, the operation of large comprehensive schools, due to the 1960s and 1970 reforms, the demands for headteachers "experts" for modern management systems made essential the creation of bureaucratic systems of communication and coordination (11).

Bureaucracy, according to writers from Weber (1947) onward has contradictory potential: to be either a resource for democracy and participation or a resource for authoritarian control (12).

In England it seems likely that many schools were characterized by a positive alliance of bureaucracy and shared decision making to a greater or lesser extent (13).

In Cyprus as an ex English colony, the bureaucratic system of school organization and administration was the dominant one from the 1960s and it is still, with many modifications and differentiations, in existence, due to English influence.

10. Gerald Grace, **School Leadership: Beyond Education Management, An Essay in Policy Scholarship**, typescript (The Falmer Press, 1995), pp. 58-60.

11. **Ibid.**, pp. 64-66.

12. **Ibid.**, p. 65.

13. **Ibid.**, p. 66.

Some of the important assumptions underlying the traditional monocratic bureaucratic concept are the following:

1. Leadership is confined to those holding positions in a power echelon. A capable person should secure a power position if he wants to be a leader. If a person does not exercise his authority, he will lose it. If the superordinate permits leadership to develop from other person, his own position is threatened. Good human relations are necessary in order that followers accept decisions of superordinates.
2. Authority and power can be delegated, but responsibility cannot be shared. All responsibility rests ultimately with the top executive, if things go wrong.
3. Final responsibility for all matters is placed in the administrator at the top of the power echelon. He is ultimately responsible for everything that happens. He should, receive the credit and he should receive the blame. In Cyprus schools, for example, the principal is responsible for everything that happens in the school.
4. The individual finds security in a climate in which the superordinate protect the interests of subordinates in the organization. The leader defends his subordinates right or wrong, so long as they take his orders and are loyal to him (feudal system).
5. Unity of purpose is secured through loyalty to the superordinate. Since they are protected, they accept the decision of the superordinates without question.

6. The image of the executive is that of a superman. The executive is the ablest, the most industrious, the most indispensable, the most loyal, the most reliable, ethical, honest, fair, and impartial. So he should be paid the highest salary (14).
7. Maximum production is attained in a climate of competition and pressure.
8. Authority is the right and privilege of a person holding a hierarchical position.
9. The individual in the organization is expendable. The purpose or goal of the organization is more important than the individual. The individual should be sacrificed, if necessary, to accomplish the goals of the organization.
10. Evaluation is the prerogative of superordinates. Since the superordinate is finally responsible for everything, logically he should have the exclusive authority to evaluate persons and productions.

2.2. THE EMERGING PLURALISTIC COLLEGIAL CONCEPT.

The emerging pluralistic collegial concept can be described as a modification of the monocratic bureaucratic concept, providing for a pluralistic sharing of power to make policy and programme decisions on a collegial basis.

The organization is structured hierarchically to implement programmes and policies, and it is structured collegially on an egalitarian basis for making policy and programme decisions. College of this model emphasizes academic freedom, scholarship and the dignity of the individual.

14. Victor Thompson, *op. cit.*, p. 143.

Some of the assumptions of the emerging pluralistic collegial concept are the following:

- a. Leadership is not confined to those holding status positions in the power echelon. Any person who helps a group to formulate goals, programmes, any person who assists a group to attain its goals is providing leadership. Leadership potential is widely dispersed throughout the organization. The superordinate will be more effective if he develops rather than restricts. This leadership potential throughout the group increases his own potential. He can thus prevent conflict through the coordination.
- b. Good human relations are essential to group production and to meet the needs of individual members of the group. They improve group moral (need of acceptance), and high group morale, generally facilitates production.
- c. Responsibility, as well as power and authority, can be shared. If potential leaders in the organization are permitted to exercise their leadership potential, they will voluntarily accept responsibility as well as authority and power.
- d. Those affected by a programme or policy should share in decision making with respect to that programme or policy.
- e. The individual finds security in a dynamic climate in which he shares responsibility for decision - making. A person will understand goals, policies and programmes, if he helps to formulate them.
- f. Unity of purpose is secured through consensus and group loyalty.
- g. Maximum production is attained in a threat-free climate. A threat is particularly destructive to the individual, if the pressure is exerted to force him to accept a value or attain a goal which he does not believe is valid.

- h. The situation and not the position determines the right and the privilege to exercise authority. The administrator finds himself in a situation in which he must exercise authority in order to meet the needs of the group. Therefore, he exercises that authority due to the necessities of the situation, not due to the prerogatives of his position.
- i. The individual in the organization is not expendable. The ultimate purpose of an organization is to meet the needs of individuals in human society. The worth of the individual should not be ignored by the organization. The organization can better achieve its own purpose by conserving and improving the members of the organization.
- j. Evaluation of group responsibility. Group evaluation is more valid and reliable than evaluation by one individual.

2.3. SOME CONTRASTS BETWEEN MONOCRATIC, BUREAUCRATIC AND THE PLURALISTIC COLLEGIAL CONCEPT.

- a. Climate: The climate of human relations is different in school systems.

The absence of fear of the hierarchy, the feeling of equality and the knowledge that one is master of his own fate beget different personalities in systems.

Monocratic: a closed climate.

Pluralistic: an open climate (15).

Impersonality of the monocratic bureaucratic concept may improve rationally in decision-making, but it also may produce a rather sterile atmosphere in which people interact as "nonpersons" resulting in low morale. Low morale impairs organizational efficiency.

-
- 15. Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft "The Organizational Climate of Schools," **Administrators Note Book**, 2, No.7, (Mar. 1963).

- b. **Structure:** Monocratic concept emphasizes centralized authority for planning, controlling, and decision-making. Such structures exercise a close inspectional type of supervision. This system requires more echelons of authority and tends to have longer chains of command supervised by each executive. The organizational structure may actually be more complex than the other.

- c. **Communication:** The communication in the monocratic organization must pass from the top through all intermediate echelons of authority before it reaches the bottom and is rather an one-way channel of communication. From the bottom to the top any intermediate echelon can stop the communication. Every level in the hierarchy produces a potential communication block, for subordinates are reluctant to communicate anything that might make them look bad in the eyes of their superiors. There is a tendency to communicate only those things that make them look good or those things that they think their superiors want to hear (16). (See also Chapter 10.4, Part II, p.p. 201-205).

In the pluralistic organization there are many channels of communication. Communication is circular and horizontal. Members at the bottom of the line structure may communicate in a face-to-face relationship with the top executives. Since communication is much freer among all members, the opportunity for beneficial interactions is much greater.

- d. **Innovation and change:** Monocratic, bureaucratic organizations are not as innovative as pluralistic, collegial organizations (17). Consequently, innovation and change when it does come, usually comes from the top of the hierarchy downward.

-
- 16. Peter Blau and Richard Scott, **Formal Organizations: A Comparative Approach** (San Francisco: Chandler, 1962), pp. 28-29.
 - 17. Victor Thompson, "Bureaucracy and Innovation," **Administrative Quarterly**, 10, No 1, (June 1965).

In pluralistic, collegial organizations there is more feedback from the environment and from subsystems in organization. Leadership which promotes change is encouraged at all hierarchical levels. Here innovation may come from the bottom of the hierarchy as well as the top.

It should not be inferred, however, that democratic administration is ipso facto good and authoritarian administration is ipso facto bad.

History provides numerous examples of successful and unsuccessful democratic and authoritarian administration. Furthermore, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to find an administration which is completely authoritarian or completely democratic.

2.4. OTHER SCIENTIFIC AND ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT APPROACHES

Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham and Roald F. Campbell in their book "Educational Administration as a Social Process" identify three major points of view in the study of administration:

- 1) The Managerial point of view, 2) The Human relations point of view, and
- 3) The Social Science point of view.

2.4.1. The Managerial Point of View

Representative of this view was *Frederick W. Taylor* (18), the father of the scientific management movement. His goal was the rational analysis of administrative procedures for exploiting human and material resources in order to attain the objectives of an organization most expeditiously. Excellence in management, he believed, resided in "knowing exactly what you want men to do and then seeing that they do it in the best and cheapest way No system or scheme of management should be considered which does not in the long run give satisfaction to both employer and employee" (19).

18. Frederick W. Taylor, **Shop Management** (New York, Harper and Row, 1911), p. 21.

19. **Ibid.**

The type of management Taylor advocated is described in his Principles of Scientific Management (20). But Taylor took a narrow view of administrative behaviour and organizational relationships.

Basis of his view was that "what the workmen want from their employers beyond anything else is high wages and what employers want from their workmen most of all is a low labour cost of manufacture" (21). Taylor ignored the motivational, interpersonal, and emotional factors involved in mobilizing human effort for common purposes. But he did demonstrate that many jobs could be done more efficiently.

Henri Fayol (22), like Taylor, took a scientific approach to administration. The main points of Fayol's system were the now famous elements of 1) planning, 2) organizing, 3) commanding, 4) coordinating, and 5) controlling.

The outcome of Fayol's system, like that of Taylor's was a set of administrative principles, "precepts" as Fayol called them:

The manager who has to command should:

1. Have a thorough knowledge of his personnel.
2. Eliminate the incompetent.
3. Be well versed in the agreements binding the business and its employees.
4. Set a good example.
5. Conduct periodic audits of the organization and use summarized charts to further this.

20. Frederick W. Taylor, **The Principles of Scientific Management** (New York: Harper, 1947), pp. 63-64.

21. Fr. Taylor, **Shop Management**, *op.cit.*, p. 22.

22. Henri Fayol, **General and Industrial Management**, trans. Constance Storrs (London: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, 1949).

6. Bring together his chief assistants by means of conferences, at which unity of direction and focusing of effort are provided for.
7. Not become engrossed in detail.
8. Aim at making unity, energy, initiative, and loyalty prevail among the personnel (23).

Luther Gulick (24) later amplified these functions in answer to the question "What is the work of the chief executive?"

His answer was his POSDCoRB acronym:

1. Planning (P)
2. Organizing (O)
3. Staffing (S)
4. Directing (D)
5. Coordinating (Co)
6. Reporting (R)
7. Budgeting (B)

As Gulick says "In any organization ... directors and supervisors must keep the workers supplied with detailed instructions as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed, and the material and appliances to be used."

In education we would be well advised to do as industry does. The man who would be superintendent of schools must be clean, both in person and mind; he must be honest and square. He must be a man of affairs, possessed of good common and business sense, a man capable to observe, to study, to think, to plan, to advise, to guide and to lead (25).

23. H. Fayol, *ibid.*, pp. 97-98.

24. Luther Gulick and L. Urwick, eds., **Papers on the Science of Administration** (New York, Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University, 1937), p.13.

25. Ellwood P. Cubberley, **Public School Administration** (Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1916), p. 143.

2.4.2. The Human Relations Point of View.

Mary Parker Follet (26) was the first great exponent of the human relations point of view in administration. She contends that the central problem of any enterprise is the building and maintaining of dynamic yet harmonious human relations. "Human relationships are at their best, when difference is solved through conference and cooperation, when the parties at interest 1) evoke each other's latent ideas, based on the facts of the situations, 2) come to see each other's viewpoints and to understand each other better, and 3) integrate those viewpoints and become united in the pursuit of their common goal."

More specifically in a paper entitled "Business as an Integrative Unity" she says: "It seems to me that the first test of business administration should be whether you have a business with all its parts so coordinated, so moving together in their closely knit and adjusting activities, so linking, interlocking, interrelating, that they make a working unit, that is not a congeries of separate pieces, but what I have called a functional whole or integrative unity".

According to Follet "when you have made your employees feel that they are in some sense partners in the business, they do not improve the quality of their work, save waste in time and material, because of the Golden Rule, but because their interests are the same as yours."

Follet made coordination the underlying strategy of effective organization.

The experiments at Hawthorne plant (1923-32) of the Western Electric Company have made obvious the importance of human relations in productivity.

26. Henry C. Metcalf and Luther Urwick, **Dynamic Administration: The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follet** (New York: Harper and Row, 1941), p. 14.

Mary Parker Follet, **Creative Experience** (London, Longmans, Green, 1924).

The systematic empirical data in support of this theory (the human relations point of view) were provided by *Elton Mayo* (27) and his colleagues *F.J. Roethlisberger* and *W.J. Dickson* (28). From 1923 to 1932 they performed the famous series of experiments at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company ("Management and the Worker"). Their experiments stated that: "The limits of human collaboration are determined far more by the informal than the formal organization of the plant. Collaboration is not wholly a matter of logical organization.

It presupposes social codes conventions, traditions and routine or customary ways of responding to situations. Without such basic codes or conventions, effective work relations are not possible" (29).

The human relations movement in administration was influenced, perhaps even more than by the Hawthorne studies by an experiment with children, an inquiry into the psychological dynamics of democratic, authoritarian and laissez -faire leadership with 11-year olds.

The investigators were *Kurt Lewin*, *Ronald Lippit* and *Ralph K. White* in 1938 of the University of Iowa. The three types of leadership were defined as follows:

Autocratic (or Authoritarian): Policy is always determined by the leader. Techniques and activity steps are dictated by the authority. The leader usually dictates the particular work task and work companion of each member. The principal is personal in his praise or criticism of the work of each member of his staff.

27. Elton Mayo, **The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization** (New York, Macmillan, 1933).

28. F.J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, **Management and the Worker** (Cambridge, Mass, Harvard University Press, 1939).

29. *Ibid.*, p. 568.

Democratic: All policies are a matter of group discussion and decision, encouraged and assisted by the leader. Activity perspective is gained during discussion period. The division of tasks is left up to the group. The leader is "objective" or "fact-minded" in his praise and criticism.

Laissez - faire: Complete freedom for group or individual decision.

Complete non participation of the leader in determining tasks and companions. Infrequent comments on member activities unless questioned. Supply of materials and information only when the leader is asked for (30).

2.4.3. The Social Science Point of View.

The behavioral science approach is in part a synthesis of the preceding two and uses modern behavioral and social science methods in its analysis.

In 1938 *Chester Barnard* in a series of lectures and with his book "The Functions of the Executive" stated a significantly different approach from the others. Barnard argues that the executive, regardless where he works, he always works within the organization, which is "a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons (31). He made a distinction between the concepts of effectiveness and efficiency, as discovered in Chapter 1. The former refers to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose, which is essentially nonpersonal in character. The latter refers to the satisfaction of individual motives, which is personal in character. The persistence of cooperation in an organization depends on exactly these two conditions: its effectiveness and its efficiency (32).

30. Ralph K. White and Ronald O. Lippit, **Autocracy and Democracy: An Experimental Inquiry** (New York, Harper and Row, 1960), pp. 26 - 27.

31. Chester I. Barnard, **The Functions of the Executive** (Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1964 - (originally published in 1938), p. 72.

32. *Ibid.*, p. 60.

Barnard dealt mainly with the structure and function of the formal organization, though he pointed out that each formal organization contains informal organization. Whatever their origins, the informal contacts, interactions, and groupings change not only the experience, knowledge, attitudes, and emotions of the individuals affected but also their functioning in the formal organization (33).

Herbert A. Simon in his book "Administrative Behaviour" (1945) (34) shifted the emphasis from the principles of administration to a study of the conditions under which competing principles are applicable. Simon poses the question "what are the factors that determine the level of efficiency which is achieved by an administrative organization?"

A fundamental aim of good administration is to increase the rationality of organizational decisions. The organization was seen by Simon as an exchange system in which inducements are exchanged for work.

Simon saw administration as a process of rational decision making that influenced the behaviour of members of the organization. In Simon's view, there is no best solution to any given problem, but some solutions are more satisfactory than others.

The work of Taylor, Fayol, Gulick and Urwick, Mayo and Barnard as well as Lewin, Lippit and White has had a perceptible impact on the study and practice of administration.

33. *Ibid.*, p. 120.

34. Herbert A. Simon, **Administrative Behaviour** (New York, Macmillan, 1945), p. 39.

In addition to that, the work of Argyris, Bakke, Parsons, Bass, Blau, Gouldner, Griffiths, Gross, Halpin, Homans, Katz, March, Presthus, Selznick and Simon has greatly influenced the way for future research and development of educational administration.

The organization and administration of any social system depends on the leadership style used. Leadership its dimension and styles are discussed in the following Chapter.

Chapter 3

LEADERSHIP

Definitions of leadership are almost as numerous as the researchers engaged in its study.

The concept of leadership remains still elusive because it depends not only on the position, behaviour and personal characteristics of the leader but also on the character of the situation.

3.1. LEADERSHIP - ADMINISTRATION - MANAGEMENT

Definition of the terms

Differences in definition of leadership reflect different contexts as well as different perspectives.

Dubin (1968:385) saw leadership as "the exercise of authority and the making of the decisions", *Fiedler* (1967:8) as "the task of directing and coordinating task-relevant group activities", *Stogdill* (1950:4) as "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal setting and goal accomplishment", *Lipham* (1964: 122) as "the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives", *Pondy* (1978:94) as "the ability to make activity meaningful ... not to change behaviour but to give others a sense of understanding of what they are doing" etc. (1).

-
1. R. Dubin, "Human Relations in Administration," 2nd ed. (1968), F.E.Fiedler, "A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness" (1967), R.M. Stogdill, "Leadership, Membership and Organization," (1950), and J. Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," in Hedley Beare, Brian J. Caldwell and Ross H. Millikan: **Creating an Excellent School, Some New Management Techniques** (Routledge, London, 1992).

Anyone can be a leader and leadership is not restricted to persons in a given status quo. Leadership can be exercised by anyone, in or out of the formal institutional positions in education. The hierarchical arrangement of most organizations, including education, supports the belief that those higher on the organizational chart "ought" to be leaders more often than those nearer the bottom (2).

Some writers used the terms leadership, management and administration as though they were interchangeable. *Landers* and *Myers* (3) believe that leadership is an integral function of management and administration in the modern organization.

Warwick, however, makes a distinct definition of the terms. Schools as social systems are characterized by certain modes of organization. According to *Warwick* (4) the following three modes can be considered: administration, management and leadership.

1. Administration, the most bureaucratic mode, involves clear specification of tasks at the centre and implementation in the field. It is an appropriate mode of management for organizations in which the goals and technologies are clear, when uniformity in product-service is important and when local implementors need clear, complete, unambiguous directions. Success is gauged by how well the rules are followed. Local actors are not expected or ever permitted to innovate...its defining terms are delivery, uniformity, supply, implementation, accountability, and compliance."

2. Richard W. Saxe, **Educational Administration Today: An Introduction**, (University of Toledo, Berkeley, California, 1980).

3. Thomas J. Landers and Judith G. Myers, **Essentials of School Management**, Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders, 1977, p.iv.

4. Donald Warwick, "School Organization in Pakistan: Administration, Management, or Leadership?" (Cambridge, Mass., Harvard Institute for International Development) in UNESCO'S Education Sector's **Education Brief No.2** (1994).

2. "The management mode gives greater discretion to local decision makers. As such, management is more responsive to variations in environment and client needs... Local administrators and teachers are given much greater discretion in determining the best way to realize these objectives... A management approach has potential to improve system efficiency and outcomes, to innovate in response to local variation and changing needs."

3. "The leadership mode gives decision makers close to the delivery point a critical discretionary role. System missions are defined by some higher authority but many of the operational objectives and means are left to the discretion of those in schools and classrooms... Leadership seeks to establish a professional partnership among decision makers at local and central levels of the system, negotiating an appropriate role for each in achieving system goals. Local decision makers are accountable for achieving system outcomes... Leadership mode is less concerned whether the rules were followed than whether missions were achieved."

Gerald Grace gave new directions in leadership studies by informing them with historical, cultural, sociopolitical and critical analysis (5).

According to *Watkins* leadership, power and management are relational concepts developing over lengthy periods of time (6).

-
5. Gerald Grace, **School Leadership: Beyond Education, Management, An Essay in Policy Scholarship**, (The Falmer Press, 1995), pp.47-82.

 6. P. Watkins, "Leadership Power and Symbols in Educational Administration," in Gerald Grace *op.cit.*, p.47.

Leadership is first constituted in the 19th century in moral terms. Overtime is reconstructed in market relation terms and is considered to be a form or part of **management**. Leadership as moral energy and mission is part of the requirements of management because it had to implement a strategy of control and some form of organizational plan for the maintenance of internal social order. Leadership and management were therefore in practice linked.

The reconceptualization in the early twentieth century of the "scholarly educational leader" as "business manager" or "school executive" and later from the 1930s to the 1950s as "statesman in democratic school" shows how educational leadership and management is bound up with changes in the social-political and cultural system of the wider society.

After the Second World War, the new requirements for new progressive curricula and methods which could provide the needed high standards of education, resulted to the ideal type form of leadership which was the professionally expert "the modernizer", "the team leader".

Leadership, as modern professionalism, was grounded upon a personal and professional record of successful innovation and evidence of interpersonal skills and capacity for team working, and the good headteacher should be a competent organizer and administrator, a gifted amateur, "the amateur ideal".

Modern management practice made its first appearance in the 1960s, after the establishment of large comprehensive secondary schools. The coordination of the activities of large numbers of pupils and teachers, the scheduling of curricula programmes and options, the pastoral care of pupils and the maintenance of good human relations demanded the introduction of managerial systems and a managerial discourse (7).

7. **Ibid.**, pp.61-62.

The strong boundaries between the schooling system and the market place have been broken from the 1980s onward. In the nineteenth century school leadership was considered to be a moral mission. In the social democratic era (after the Second World War onwards) was a professional and pedagogically progressive mission. The use of the term of management to apply to the coordination of the school's activities has been in general use for not much more than twenty years (8), and is expected to articulate a market mission (9).

In the 1990s and beyond the position of the headteacher is itself in radical transformation as chief executive, or senior manager, that indicates new priorities in the future operation of schools (10).

School is reconceptualized as a budget centre; educational institutions are considered as corporations or businesses. The new managerialism has involved more expert attention to budgeting control and forecasting, public relations and market research, performance indicators and quality control and staffing and personnel relations. Management, in new terms, means the process of goal setting, need identification, policy making, planning, budgeting, implementing and evaluating (11).

8. E. Hoyle, "The politics of School Management," in Gerald Grace, *op.cit.*, p. 76.

9. *Ibid.*, pp. 73-74.

10. *Ibid.*, p. 79.

11. *Ibid.*, pp. 80-82.

3.2. STUDIES OF TRAITS.

Prior to 1945, most of the studies of leadership were devoted primarily to the identification of the traits or qualities of leaders. These studies were based in part, on the assumption that human beings could be divided into two groups - the leaders and the followers.

Many individuals still believe, as Aristotle did, that "from the hour of birth, some are marked out for subjection, others for rule." This so-called great man theory of leadership or the trait approach dominated the study of leadership until the 1950s.

According to this approach "leaders are born, not made". Thus, leaders must possess certain traits or qualities not possessed by followers.

In 1948, *Stogdill* (12) examined 124 studies on the relationship of personality factor to leadership. He classified the personal factors associated with leadership into the following five general categories:

1. Capacity (Intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgement).
2. Achievement (Scholarship, knowledge, athletic accomplishments).
3. Responsibility (Dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excel).
4. Participation (activity, sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humour).
5. Status (socioeconomic position, popularity).

According to Stogdill, the average person who occupies a position of leadership exceeds the average members of his group in the following respects:

- 1) sociability, 2) initiative, 3) persistence, 4) knowing how to get things done, 5) self-confidence, 6) alertness to and insight into situations, 7) cooperativeness, 8) popularity, 9) adaptability and 10) verbal facility.

-
12. Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership, A Survey of the Literature, *Journal of Psychology*, 25 (1948), 35-71.

The qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader.

Stogdill, after further studies, concluded:

The leader acquires leader status through the interactions of the group in which he participates and demonstrates his capacity for assisting the group to complete its tasks.

In 1954, *Myers*, (13) analyzed more than 200 studies of leadership. His conclusions were:

1. No physical characteristics are significantly related to leadership. There is no significant relationship between superior intelligence and leadership.
2. Knowledge applicable to the problems faced by a group contributes significantly to leadership status.
3. Insight, initiative, cooperation, originality, ambition, persistence, emotional stability, judgement, popularity, and communication skills correlate significantly with leadership.

However the early searches for personality traits to distinguish leaders from followers were remarkably unsuccessful. These studies have shown clearly that the assumption, "leaders are born, not made", is largely false. Leaders with one set of traits are successful in one situation but not in others. Leaders with different combinations of traits can be successful in the same or similar situations. The only inherited trait that has been identified as having a relationship to leadership is intelligence. Yet, even, this relationship is quite low.

-
13. Robert B. Myers, **The Development and Implications of a Conception for Leadership Education** (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1954), pp.105-107.

In 1970, after reviewing another 163 new trait studies, Stogdill concluded (14):

The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay ability to influence other persons behaviour, and capacity to structure interaction systems to the purpose at hand.

All the above traits, except of intelligence, are acquired traits and, as such, are subject to modification by training and experience. They can be classified as skills or competencies rather than personality traits.

3.3. THE "TIMES MAKE THE MAN" APPROACH

When it became apparent that the trait approach to the study of leadership had limited value, other approaches were sought.

In 1940, some researchers got the idea that the "times make the man". Hitler, Mussolini, and Stalin, were leaders. However, each of them lacked many of the qualities that rationally should be associated with leadership. They were products of their times.

This approach's principal contribution was to make researchers emphasise the need for studying the leader in relation to his social environment.

14. Ralph M. Stogdill, "Traits of Leadership: A Follow-up to 1970", in Bernard M. Bass (ed) *Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership* (New York: Free Press, 1981), pp.73-97.

3.4. THE INTERACTIONAL OR GROUP APPROACH

By this approach it is generally accepted that, although the individual leader is still an important object of study, he cannot be studied in isolation. The leadership behaviour of Robinson Crusoe could not be studied until Friday came to his island. The focus of this approach is on "leader behaviour" in a social system, rather than on "leader traits".

During the late 1940s and 1950s, researchers sought to identify distinctive characteristics of the setting to which the leaders success could be attributed; they attempted to isolate specific situational determinants of leadership such as the following:

1. Structural properties of the organization (size, hierarchical structure, formalization).
2. Organizational climate (openness, participativeness, group atmosphere).
3. Role characteristics (position power, type and difficulty of task, procedural rules).
4. Subordinate characteristics (knowledge and experience, tolerance for ambiguity, responsibility, power). (See also Chapter 10, Part II, p.182).

3.5. DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Chester I. Barnard (15) in his analysis distinguishes between the effectiveness and the efficiency of cooperative action.

The persistence of cooperation depends upon two conditions: a) its effectiveness and b) its efficiency. (See Chapter 1, Part I, pp.21-23).

Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose, which is social and non personal in character.

Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives, and is personal in character.

Bakky and Argyris (16) say:

The first problem in all organizational life is how to take an aggregate of varied individual people, with varied capacities and predispositions and get them involved in cooperative activity which adds up to success for the organisation and satisfaction for the individuals concerned. The problem is to integrate the individual participants with the organization.

Effectiveness depends on the relationship between expectations and behaviour. Efficiency depends on the relationship between needs and behaviour.

-
15. Chester I. Barnard, *The Functions of the Executive*, (Cambridge, Mass, Harvard University Press, 1964), p.60.
 16. E.W. Bakke and C. Argyris, *Organizational Structure and Dynamics* (New Haven, Labour and Management Centre, Yale University, 1954), p.4.

The same behaviour may be held effective at one time and ineffective at another time by the same persons, depending on the expectations he applies to the behaviour. The same behaviour may be held effective and ineffective simultaneously, because different person or groups apply different expectations to the behaviour.

Effectiveness is a function of the congruence of behaviour and expectations.

Efficiency is a function of the congruence between behaviour and need-dispositions (17).

Stogdill and his associates at Ohio State have proposed twelve dimensions (18). These dimensions/factors can once again be collapsed to more general components:

- 1) "System - oriented",
- 2) "Person - oriented" behaviour.

-
17. Jacob W. Getzels, J.M. Limpham, R.F. Campbell, **Educational Administration as a Social Process, Theory, Research and Practice** (Harper and Row Publishers, New York, 1968), p.129.
 18. Ralph M. Stogdill, **Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII** (Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University, 1963).

1. **System - Oriented**

- a. **Production emphasis** - applies pressure for productive output.
- b. **Initiation of structure** - clearly defines own role and lets followers know what is expected.
- c. **Representation** - speaks and acts as the representative of the group.
- d. **Role assumption** - actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others.
- e. **Persuasion** - uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions.
- f. **Superior orientation** - maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence with them, and strives for higher status.

2. **Person - Oriented**

- a. **Tolerance of freedom** - allows staff members scope for initiative, decision, and action.
- b. **Tolerance of uncertainty** - is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset.
- c. **Consideration** - regards the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers.
- d. **Demand reconciliation** - reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system.
- e. **Predictive accuracy** - exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately.
- f. **Integration** - maintains a close-knit organization and resolves intermember conflicts.

The Ohio research group postulates two fundamental dimensions, **initiating structure and consideration** (19).

1. **Initiating Structure** refers to the leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group, and in endeavouring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.
2. **Consideration** refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.

Other theorists and researchers use different labels to refer to similar aspects of leadership behaviour:

Nomothetic and Idiographic (20), Task and Social leaders (21), Employee and Production orientations (22).

-
19. Andrew W. Halpin, **The Leadership Behaviour of School Superintendents** (Chicago, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1959), p.4.
 20. Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," **School Review**, 65 (1957), 423-441.
 21. Robert F. Bales, "In Conference," **Harvard Business Review**, 32 (1954), 41-49.
 22. Daniel Katz, N. Maccoby and Nancy C. Morse, **Productivity, Supervision and Morale in an Office Situation** (Detroit: Darel, 1950).

David G. Bowers and Stanley E. Seashore (23) in an attempt to synthesize the theory and research on leadership, have proposed four basic dimensions:

1. Support - behaviour that enhances someone else's feelings of personal worth and importance.
2. Interaction facilitation - behaviour that encourages members of the group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships.
3. Goal emphasis - behaviour that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the groups goal of achieving excellent performance.
4. Work facilitation - behaviour that helps achieve goal attainment by activities such as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and by providing resources such as tool, materials, and technical knowledge.

School administrators generally are most effective when they score high on both dimensions of leader behaviour. To neglect initiation of structure limits the effectiveness of the school; to ignore consideration reduces the satisfaction of the subordinates.

The findings of the University of Michigan studies complement the Ohio State studies. However, both researchers did not take situational differences systematically into account.

-
23. David G. Bowers and Stanley E. Seashore, "Predicting Organizational Effectiveness with a Four-Factor Theory of Leadership," **Administrative Science Quarterly**, 11 (1966), 238-264.

3.5.1. **Dimensions of Leadership: Comparisons (24)**

Theorist	Concern for Organizational Tasks	Concern for Individual Relationships
Barnard	Effectiveness	Efficiency
Etzioni-Parsons	Instrumental Activities	Expressive Activities
Cartwright-Zander	Goal Achievement	Group Maintenance
Getzels-Guba	Nomothetic	Idiographic
Halpin	Initiating Structure	Consideration
Kahn	Production Orientation	Employee Orientation
Bales	Task Leader	Social Leader
Bowers-Seashore	Goal Emphasis Work Facilitation	Support Interaction Facilitation
Brown	System Orientation	Person Orientation
Stodgill	Production Emphasis Initiating Structure Representation Role assumption Persuasion Superior Orientation	Tolerance of Freedom Tolerance of uncertainty Consideration Demand reconciliation Predictive accuracy Integration

24. Wayne K. Hoy and Cecil G. Miskel, **Educational Administration, Theory Research and Practice**, 3rd edition, (Random House, New York, 1987), p. 276.

3.6. CONTINGENCY APPROACHES.

Contingency theories maintain that leadership effectiveness depends upon the fit between personality characteristics and behaviour of the leader and **situational variables** such as task structure, position power, and subordinate skills and attitudes (25). Thus, there is no one "best" leadership style. The Contingency Approach attempts to predict which types of leaders will be effective in different types of situations. Under one set of circumstances, one type of leader is effective, under another set of circumstances, a different type of leader is effective. The question "what traits under what situations are important to leader effectiveness" is still unanswered.

Robert k. Merton says that leadership does not result merely from the individual traits of leaders; it must also involve attributes of the transactions between those who lead and those who follow.

Leadership is some sort of social transaction (26).

The two most widely tested Contingency Theories are **Fiedler's Contingency Model** and **House's Path - Goal Theory**.

-
25. Edwin A. Fleishman, "Twenty Years of Consideration and Structure," in Edwin A. Fleishman and James G. Hunt (eds.), **Current Developments in the Study of Leadership**. (Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press, 1973), pp. 1-37.
 26. Robert Merton, "The Social Nature of Leadership," **American Journal of Nursing**, 69, (1969), 2615.

3.6.1. Fiedler's Contingency Model

The basic postulates of *Fiedler's* model are the following:

1. The Leadership style is determined by the motivational system of the leader.
2. Group effectiveness is a joint function of the leader's style and the situation's favourableness; that is, group performance is contingent upon the leader's motivations and upon the leader's control and influence in the situation (27).

The theory departs from the view that the leader seeks to satisfy personal needs as well as to accomplish organizational goals.

Leadership style. Fiedler distinguishes between the terms "leadership behaviour" and "leadership style".

Leadership behaviour denotes the specific acts of a leader in directing and coordinating the work of group members.

Leadership style refers to the underlying need structure of the leader that motivates behaviour in various interpersonal situations. It is a personality characteristic. As Fiedler says "..... important leadership behaviours of the same individual differ from situation to situation, while the need - structure which motivates these behaviours may be seen as constant".

Fiedler developed a simple personality measure called the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale.

27. Fred E. Fiedler, *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p.36.

According to Fiedler, a person scoring high on the LPC describes the least preferred co-worker positively (pleasant, friendly, efficient, cheerful, and so forth). Thus, even a person with whom it is difficult to work might also be seen as an individual who has some acceptable traits.

In contrast, the individual scoring low on the LPC describes the least preferred co-worker negatively (unpleasant, unfriendly, inefficient, gloomy and so forth). This person states a strong rejection of people with whom he/she cannot work. This person believes, "if I cannot work with you, then you're no damn good!" (28). Task-oriented leaders score low on the LPC and are motivated by successful task accomplishment.

Conversely, relationship - oriented leaders score high on the LPC and receive satisfaction from successful interpersonal interactions.

Fiedler strongly emphasizes that the LPC relates to different goal priorities, not differences in leader behaviour.

Situation: The contingency Approach states that different types of situations require different types of leadership. Fiedler identifies three major factors that determine the favourableness of the group situation: 1) Position power of the leader, 2) Task structure, and 3) the leader-member relations.

1. Position power is the degree to which the position itself enables the leader to get subordinates to comply with directives. Position power determines the extent to which a leader can reward and punish members.
2. Task structure is the extent to which the task is clearly specified, verified, and programmed in a step-by-step manner. Thus, the leader and the group know exactly what to do and how to do it. The more structured the task, the more favourable the situation for the leader.

28. Fred E. Fiedler, "The Leadership Game: Matching the Man to the Situation," **Organizational Dynamics**, 4 (1976), 6-16.

3. Leader - member relations is the extent to which the leader is accepted and respected by the group members. Two factors are important with respect to leader - member relations: The quality of interpersonal relations between the leader and the subordinates, and the level of informal authority granted to the leader. The quality of leader-members relations is determined primarily by the leader's personality and behaviour, and is the most important factor in determining the leader's influence over the group members, followed by task structure and position power (29).

In general, the leader has more control and influence when: 1) The group is supportive, 2) The leader knows exactly what to do and how to do it, and 3) The organization gives the leader means to reward and punish the group members.

Fiedler develops three major propositions of his Contingency Theory (30):

1. In favourable situations, task-oriented leaders are more effective than relationship - oriented. In a highly favourable setting, the leaders can focus on secondary goals because their primary goal is being met.
2. In moderately favourable situations, relationship - oriented leaders are more effective than task-oriented leaders. Under moderate situational favourability behavioral flexibility on the part of the leader is required to adapt the situation's demands.
3. In unfavourable situations, task-oriented leaders are more effective than relationship-oriented leaders. Unfavourable situations demand directing and controlling behaviour that is most likely to get the job done.

It is likely that one type of leadership behaviour is not appropriate for all conditions. The contingency Model demonstrates some characteristics of situations and individuals that partially explain the leadership phenomenon.

29. Fred E. Fiedler, **A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness** (New York: McGraw - Hill, 1967), pp.32-34.

30. Fred E. Fiedler, **Leadership** (New York: General Learning Press, 1971), p. 15.

3.6.2. House's Path - Goal Theory

This theory is called path-goal because it explains how leaders influence their subordinates' perception of work goals, personal goals, and paths to goal attainment. According to this theory leaders are effective when they enhance the acceptance, satisfaction, and motivation levels of their subordinates.

a. Path-goal theory focuses on **leader behaviour**. The theory includes four basic types of leader behaviour (31):

1. Directive Leadership: behaviour that clarifies expectations, gives specific direction, asks subordinates to follow rules and procedures.
2. Achievement - Oriented Leadership: behaviour that sets challenging goals, seeks performance improvements, asks for high standards.
3. Supportive Leadership: behaviour that is considerate, displays concern for the well-being of subordinates, and creates a friendly climate in the work group.
4. Participative Leadership: behaviour that calls for consultation with subordinates and use of their ideas before decisions are made.

Directive and Achievement - Oriented behaviours are ways of initiating structure. Supportive and participative leader behaviours represent the other basic dimension, consideration.

b. Two types of situational variables are considered in the Path-Goal theory: 1. personal characteristics of subordinates as they strive to accomplish work goals and derive satisfaction, and 2. environmental pressures and demands.

31. Robert J. House and Terence R. Mitchell, "Path-Goal Theory and Leadership," **Journal of Contemporary Business**, 3 (1974), 81,97.

Leaders are effective when their behaviour provides subordinates with the guidance and reward necessary for satisfaction and performance.

House and Baetz (32) argue that specific traits are required in most if not all leadership situations.

They say:

1. Since leadership requires followers, social skills will always be needed. Skills such as speech fluency and traits such as cooperativeness and sociability.
2. Since leadership requires a predisposition to be influential, traits such as dominance, self-confidence, need for power, and need for influence are hypothesized to be associated with leader effectiveness.
3. Since leadership is most often exercised when specific task objectives or organizational goals must be accomplished, traits, such as need for achievement, desire for responsibility, task orientation, energy level, and task-relevant knowledge also are likely to be associated with leadership.

The basic assumption is that leadership effectiveness cannot be determined adequately without understanding the total situation, including subordinate traits, structural configurations of schools, role definitions, and both internal and external environmental conditions of the school.

32. Robert I. House and Mary Baetz, "Leadership: Some Empirical Generalizations and New Research Directions," *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 1, 1979, p. 352.

The characteristics of the situation combine with the traits of the leader and produce a behaviour on the part of the leader which is related to leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, the characteristics of a situation have a direct impact on the effectiveness; moreover, the situational characteristics of the school (motivation and ability levels of teachers and students, the socioeconomic status of individuals attending a school) may have a greater influence on leader effectiveness than the leader's own behaviour.

3.7. MANAGERIAL GRID.

The managerial grid evolved by *Robert R. Blake* and *Jane S. Mouton*, (33) has two basic dimensions:

1) concern for production and 2) concern for people.

Concern for production refers to whatever the organization engages its people to accomplish, that is, the successful accomplishment of the organizational task.

Concern for people refers primarily to friendly and warm interpersonal relations. Self-esteem and the personal worth of the individual are stressed.

33. Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, *The Managerial Grid III* (Houston, TX. Gulf, 1985), p. 12.

High

9. 1.9 9.9

Country Club Management
Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.

c
o
n
c
e
r
n

Team Management
Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

f
o
r

p
e
o
p
l
e

5.5
Organization Man Management
Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

1.1
Impoverished Management
Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

9.1
Authority - Obedience
Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

0
Low

5

9
High

Concern for production

The Managerial Grid

("The Managerial Grid III", by Robert R . Blake and Jane S. Mouton.

Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1985, p.12).

The 9.1 Style - authority - obedience - is a starkly task oriented style: a high concern for task accomplishment is coupled with a low concern for people. Interaction is strictly along authority lines. Communication is formal, one-way, and downward. Superiors act close supervision and tight control.

The 1.9 style - country club management - is characterised by a low concern for task coupled with a high concern for people. The dispositions and feelings of people are of overriding importance to the leader. The needs of task achievement are contrary to the needs of people. Goals are kept global, ambiguous and general. Communications are informal and concentrate on social and personal topics rather than on task-related matters. The superior is primarily concerned with winning friends and influencing people.

The 1.1 style - impoverished management - is characterized by low concern for task achievement and low concern for people. The supervisor's approach is to put people on jobs and then leave them alone, hiding behind the rules, and regulations in order to remain relatively invisible. Administrators with this leadership style confine themselves to delivering messages coming down from above.

The 9.9. style - team management - is characterized by a high concern for both accomplishment and people. No inherent conflict exists between organizational requirements and the needs of people. Administrators with this leadership style attain high productivity and high morale, because given the opportunities people are creative. Communication is two-way and open. When conflict arises the facts are faced directly and the problems are solved.

Teamwork, participation, involvement and group decision making are basic ingredients in the development of such conditions. People tend to support what they have helped to create.

The 5.5 style- organization man management - is characterized by a conflict between task needs and people needs. The solution to the conflicts is approached through compromise. The posture is one of balancing and satisfying and maintaining the status quo. Communication flows through both the formal and informal systems, but formal communication is general rather than specific. This style seems sufficient for getting the job done, but it is probably insufficient for promoting innovation and change.

Blake and Mouton clearly indicate that the integrated style of leadership (9.9) is the ideal.

The Managerial Grid is useful for several reasons, it is consistent with the theoretical and research perspectives of the Ohio State, Michigan, and Harvard studies. Furthermore, it introduces a greater range of leadership styles. There are more complex styles that can be conceived by mixing the basic pattern. Administrative models in Cyprus which are described in Chapter 10.3, Part II agree to a great extent to the styles of management of Managerial Grid III.

3.8. SITUATIONAL THEORY

Edgar Schein with his model - Situational Theory (34) - observes that leaders must have the flexibility to vary their own behaviour according to the needs and drives of subordinates. If teachers' needs and motives are different, they must be treated differently (35).

The basic assumption of the theory is that leader effectiveness depends on the appropriate matching of leader behaviour with the maturity of the group or individual.

34. Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, **Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources**, 4th ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1982).

35. Edgar H. Schein, **Organizational Psychology** (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1965), p. 65.

Maturity is a relative concept. Maturity is defined only in relation to a specific task. Individuals who have a high level of task relevant maturity not only have the ability, knowledge, experience, and motivation to do the job, but also feelings of self-confidence and self-respect about themselves.

The maturity of both individuals and the work group determines the appropriate supervisory of leader behaviour.

According to Situational Theory, effectiveness is promoted by matching leader behaviour with the appropriate situation.

Hersey and Blanchard state:

As the level of maturity of their followers continues to increase in terms of accomplishing a specific task, leaders should begin to reduce their task behaviour and increase relationship behaviour until the individual or group reaches a moderate level of maturity. As the individual or group begins to move into an above average level of maturity, it becomes appropriate for leaders to decrease not only task behaviour but also relationship behaviour.

According to this model the leader has to improve the maturity of the group: the ability, the knowledge, skills, responsibility, motivation, and confidence to perform the task without the leader's help. Thus, developmental activities are as important as leadership behaviour.

Staff maturity is of great importance, as we can see also in our schools in Cyprus; productivity is high and goals are attained without pressure from the part of the principal. On the contrary, lack of maturity results in a more close direction and supervision by the principal which is time-consuming and affects the smooth functioning of the school.

Effective leaders are flexible and adaptable. Leaders can do more than adapt their behaviour to the situation; they can change the situation by developing the skills and confidence of subordinates. Even though a particular style is appropriate in a given situation, it will not necessarily be effective unless the leader has skill in using that style (36).

From all the above it is evident that leadership of high quality is elusive or at least very difficult to be achieved. Studies and research revealed results which show that leadership depends not only on the personal characteristics, the position, and behaviour of the leader but also on the character of the situation. Each type of situation demands a relevant type of leader. Thus, the answer to the question: "what type of leadership will be effective in each particular situation" is very difficult. Such a serious task, therefore, must not depend only on the principal's experience and the guidelines of educational regulations, as in Cyprus. A training programme for the principals is evidently indispensable to cover all these demands.

Furthermore, effective leadership depends on an improved communication system. Communication and theories dealing with it are the content of Chapter 4 which follows.

36. Fred E. Fiedler and Martin M. Chemers, **Improving Leadership Effectiveness**, 2nd ed. (New York: Wiley, 1984).

Chapter 4

COMMUNICATION

4.1. DEFINITION OF COMMUNICATION

Many writers point out the need of comprehension in the procedure of communication. According to *Philip V. Lewis* (1) communication means "sharing messages, ideas, or attitudes that produce a degree of understanding between a sender and a receiver".

Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (2) stress that communication transmits information in such a way which is comprehensible by the receiver and *Katz and Kahn* (3) point out that communication is the exchange of meaningful information.

As *Chester Barnard* (4) says "The essential executive functions ... are, first, to provide the system of communication."

It is evident that communication permeates every aspect of school life. Teachers instruct using oral, written, and other media such as videotapes, computers, and art forms. Students demonstrate their learning through similar media, and according to findings from a number of studies, superintendents and principals spend most of their time communicating.

-
1. Philip V. Lewis, **Organizational Communications: The Essence of Effective Management** (Columbus, OH: Grid, 1975), p.5.
 2. H. Koontz, C.O'Donnell and H. Weihrich, **Management** (New York, McGraw, 1980), p. 688.
 3. D. Katz and R. Kahn, **The Social Psychology of Organizations**, 2nd ed. (New York, Wiley, 1978), p.428.
 4. Chester Barnard, **The Functions of the Executive** (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1938), pp. 89, 106.

In complex organizations, the translation of goals into action and subsequent goal accomplishment depend on communication. Establishing a communication network and process, therefore, becomes the first task of the organizer and the continuous task of the administrator. As *Herbert A. Simon* says (5) without communication there can be no organization".

Communication implies an attempt to share meaning by transmitting messages among people. For schools it means the sharing of messages, ideas or attitudes among administrators, teachers, students, parents and other interested constituencies.

From this perspective Simon (5) defines it as "any process whereby decisional premises are transmitted from one member of an organization to another". There are many definitions of the word communication. However, implicit in all the definitions is the notion that communication involves at least two people - a sender and a receiver.

Communication takes place only if the receiver correctly or accurately interprets the information being transmitted. It requires a high level of understanding. Low levels of understanding can develop between people who do not speak the same language. Body motions, facial expressions, voice intonations and speech rapidity convey meaningful information.

Administrators want receivers such as teachers and students to understand and accept their ideas and to act on them. Therefore, the greater the clarity of the message, the more likely administrator, teacher, and student actions will proceed in fruitful directions. The extent of action depends, in large measure, on how effectively the principal has communicated the goal and accompanying procedures.

5. Herbert Simon, *Administrative Behavior*, 2nd ed. (New York: Free Press, 1957), p.154.

Communication in schools is successful or accurate when the sender of a message and the receiver have a very similar comprehension of the message's content. Thus, the effectiveness of a communication procedure can be verified by the security of feedback. Effective communication exists when sender and receiver attribute the same meaning in the message which is transmitted.

4.2. DIRECTION OF COMMUNICATION

Perhaps it is useful to distinguish between two kinds of communication: The "one-way" communication, like an announcement or an information, and the "two-ways" communication which provokes doubts, questions or counter propositions.

The "one-way" or "down-ward" communication is useful for specific task directives, for job instructions, information to produce understanding of task, job rationale or for giving information about the organization. It does not need much time and secures order; it does not have much clarity, though.

The "two-ways", both "downward and upward" communication gives chances for questions and clarification of the messages and opportunity for repetition or modification, introduction of new information provision for feedback. It provokes noise and stress, but is more clear and effective. The receivers are more sure about themselves and their opinions (6).

Horizontal communication, furthermore, is the communication by which information is given for task coordination.

6. H. Leavitt and R. Mueller, "Some Effects of Feedback on Communicating," *Human Relations*, 4 (4), (1951), pp. 401-410.

4.3. COMMUNICATION SKILLS

According to *Mintzberg (7)* administrators perform three basic functions:

1. They develop interpersonal relations in and out of service.
2. They collect and communicate information which is related to the activities of the service, and
3. They take decisions for the solution of various problems, they purport to find ways and/or means of achieving the goals set and to introduce innovations.

The administrator of a school is, therefore, obliged to inform all the members of his service about the planned targets, to check the implementation of the relevant timetables and to evaluate the results. Verbal as well as written communication are needed. Verbal communication is direct and fast and, thus, it is more in use.

Communication brings people in the service together, and a unifying power is created, which helps the attainment of a common aim.

Barnard (8) believes that without communication the actions of a team are weak, simply because coordination cannot exist.

Communication is, thus, a must in determining aims, in planning the action needed, in using the human and material resources in a proper way in exercising the administrative duties and in evaluating the results.

7. Henry Mintzberg, "The Manager's Job: Folklore and Fact," *Harvard Business Review* (1975), 53 (4), pp. 49-61.

8. Chester Barnard, *op. cit.*

4.4. THEORIES OF COMMUNICATION

Two theories, the sociopsychological and the formal-informal organizational theory focus on individual attributes and organizational factors which affect communication.

4.4.1. Sociopsychological Theory of Communication

Communication among people depends on a combination of personal and environmental factors. As such, a basic generalization is that the meaning of a message is to be found in what people take to be the meaning and not necessarily in the intended content. The same word means different things to different people. The same word may have a wide variety of meanings, because people have different communication abilities, knowledge levels, and back-grounds. The words assume alternative meanings, because individuals have personally experienced different environmental or social forces.

The effectiveness of a message depends in part on the level of credibility that the receiver attributes to the Source (sender). Source credibility consists of the trust and confidence that the receiver has in the words and actions of the communicator. The level of credibility, in turn, influences the reactions of the receiver to the words and actions of the sender (9). In some cases the identity and reputation of the source leads to the receiver's distorting the information or ignoring the message completely.

The first step in the process of communication is for the sender to create an idea or choose a fact to communicate. The idea or fact is the content of the message.

9. James L. Gibson, John M. Ivancevich, and James H. Donnelly, Jr. **Organization: Behavior, Structure, Processes**, rev. ed. (Dallas, T.X. Business Publications, 1976), p.318.

The source (sender) organizes the idea into a series of symbols such as words or pictures to communicate the correct meaning to the intended receiver. The sender selects a particular medium because the encoding (organizing the idea) must be done in relation to the transmitting medium as well as the receiver's characteristics.

The person's particular psychological characteristics limit the encoding process. Communication skills, knowledge of the subject, and personality factors such as attitudes, values, interests and motivational needs are traits or mental conditions that combine to limit screen, or filter what is encoded and the quality of the message (10).

Joan Dean (11) says that "if two people are to understand each other, the words each one uses must mean approximately the same to them both. Yet each person's understanding of language is dependent upon his/her experience. For example, a parent whose own experience of education was entirely formal will have a different view of the process of teaching from that of a teacher who believes in a great deal of practical work and first-hand experience of many kinds. The parents' interpretation of the language they both use will be different from that of the teacher, because of the differences in their frames of reference. Words used in common do not carry the same meaning for both parties. The message is conveyed not only by the content, but also by the way it is presented, by the language chosen, the tone of voice and facial expression in the case of speech and by appearance on the case of written communication" and something more "in emotional situations people tend to hear what they want to hear".

-
10. David K. Berlo, **The Process of Communication** (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), pp. 30-32.
 11. Joan Dean, **Managing the Secondary School**, 2nd ed. (Educational Management Series, London, 1993), p.169-170.

Transmitting transforms the encoded message into a signal and places it into a channel. Transmitting, therefore, involves the message, channel and medium. *Richard L. Daft and Robert H. Lengel* (12) hypothesize that the communication media used in organizations determine the richness of information processed by the receiver.

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Medium:	Face-to-Face	Telephone	Written Personal	Written Formal	Numeric Formal
Richness:	Highest	High	Moderate	Low	Lowest

Rich media combine multiple ones, rapid feedback, and a variety of language. The face-to-face medium is the richest form, because it provides immediate feedback through verbal and visual ones. The telephone medium is less rich than face-to-face, because the visual ones are absent.

-
12. Richard L. Daft and Robert H. Lengel, "Information Richness: A New Approach to Managerial Behavior and Organizational Design," **Research in Organizational Behavior**, 6 (1984), 191-233, and 195-198.

Written communication is described as moderate or low in richness, because feedback is slow. Some times the message does not actually reach the receiver; for example in our schools in Cyprus, there are cases when, although information is given either by written notes to each one of the teachers or by putting a written announcement on the board, teachers do not pay any attention, and they are not actually informed about the content of the information. The same with students. Sometimes the school wants to send through them some message to their parents; they either forget to convey the message or they do so late (See Chapter 10.4, Part II, p.207).

Addressed correspondence is richer than general memos or bulletins, which are anonymous and impersonal. Formal numeric documents, e.g., computer print-outs convey the least rich information. Numbers do not have the information - carrying capacity of natural language. However, comprehension is higher when information is presented in written form. Opinion change is greater in face-to-face interactions.

The appropriate medium, thus, depends on the purpose, understanding or persuading (13). The most effective communication efforts use a combination of written and oral media; the next most effective is oral alone; and written is least powerful (14).

Written communication alone can be effective in two situations: where information requires future action or where it is general. The oral medium by itself can also be effective in two situations: demanding immediate feedback, for administering reprimands and settling disputes.

-
13. Lyman W. Porter and Karlene H. Roberts, "Communication in Organizations" in Marvin D. Dunnette (ed.), **Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology** (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1976), p. 1563.
 14. Dale A. Level Jr., "Communication Effectiveness: Method and Situation," **Journal of Business Communication**, 9 (1972), 19-25.

As important as verbal signals are the less fully understood nonverbal signals. The raised eyebrow, the firm handshake, the impatient tapping of the fingers are well-known actions or nonverbal media that communicate meaning (semantics). Even silence and rigid inactivity may tell the other person that the communicator is angry, annoyed, depressed or fearful.

Grunts, laughter, sighs and coughs are also of communicative value. Various symbols which surround people communicate also information to others. The arrangement of the principal's office, for example, the decoration, the distance between the chairs and the desk and so many other things transmit powerful messages to visitors.

However, the meaning of those messages are determined by the people who interpret them. The receiver may have communication ability, knowledge of the subject interests, values and motivational needs that combine to limit qualitatively what is decoded. Consequently, the meaning the receiver applies is not exactly what the sender intended. Meanings may be relatively comparable, but they are never identical (15).

To ensure a high level of understanding feedback mechanisms are also essential. Feedback supplies a clue to how successful the communication process was. The knowledge of results forms a basis for correcting or modifying future or additional communications. The feedback loop provides two-way communication. Two-way communication requires channels that form a continuous loop in two-way exchanges. Each participant initiates messages and each message affects the next one. So, feedback processes do increase the accuracy of communication (16).

-
15. W. Charles Redding, **Communication Within the Organization** (West Lafayette, IN: Purdue Research Council, 1972), pp.68-87.
 16. Harold Guetzkow, "Communication in Organizations," in James G. March (ed.), **Handbook of Organizations** (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965), pp. 534-573; and Ph. Lewis, *op.cit.*, pp. 95-96.

Research suggests that the feedback process can influence the level of effort expended and the types of strategies used in the task performance (17). Each phase of the communication process is clouded by situational noise. Noise is any distraction that interferes with sending or receiving the message. Personal traits also cause noise in the channels. Prejudices of the sender and receiver toward sexual, social class, racial, and ethnic groups constitute noise in the communication process and distorts the message.

Some principals in Cyprus, for example, accept or reject information (messages) not after examining or considering whether they are right or wrong, but according to their source. If they value the source, i.e. if they respect the person providing the information they also accept what he says. On the other hand if they dislike or they do not respect someone they reject the information provided by that person without even examining its correctness (See also Chapter 10.4, Part II, pp.204-205).

So, the sociopsychological model of two-way communication posits that the meaning of a message depends on both the content itself and the organizational context.

-
17. David A. Nadler "The Effects of Feedback on Task Group Behavior: A Review of the Experimental Research," **Organizational Behavior and Human Performance**, 23 (1979), pp.309 - 338.

Thus, according to this approach the following questions must be considered:

1. Who is speaking and to whom?
2. What is the language used?
3. What is the channel or medium being used?
4. What is the content of the communication?
5. What is the context, and what factors are creating noise that blocks or distorts the message?
(Who says what through which channel or medium to whom and with what impact).

4.4.2. Formal and Informal Organizational Theory of Communication

a. **Formal Organization and Communication.**

In the traditional bureaucratic model formal communication channels traverse the organization through the hierarchy of authority, the "communication system" as *Barnard* calls it (18).

According to Barnard the channels of communication must be known and must link every member of the organization. The line of communication must be as direct and short as possible. Every communication is authenticated as being from the correct person occupying the position and within, his/her authority to issue the message. Accuracy is supposed to be insured by the emphasis placed on formal, written communication. The greater the efficiency of communication within, the greater the ability to coordinate interdependent activities such as the scope and sequence of curriculum content and instructional procedures.

18. Chester I. Barnard, *op.cit.*, pp. 175-176.

According to Barnard communication is the basis of coordinating the organization's parts.

Communication has four primary functions: informing, instructing/directing, evaluating and influencing (19). School Organizations require formal communication to survive.

Effects of school structure on communication. Three characteristics of school bureaucracies are critical to the formal system of communication.

1. The degree of centralization in the hierarchy.
2. The organizations shape, and
3. The level of information technology.

The degree of centralization is critical to the effectiveness of communication. In centralized schools, a few positions in the structure have most of the information - obtaining ability. If the system is decentralized, the information obtaining potential is more or less spread evenly among all the positions.

In Cyprus where the system is completely centralized, the Ministry sends circulars to the teachers via the principal. The latter will convey the content of some of the circulars in the teaching staff meetings. Those which are urgent will be announced during the breaks. These face the risk of not actually reaching all the teachers, either because some of the teachers are absent or busy at the time of announcement or because some are working in another school on that day.

-
19. Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal, **Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations** (San Francisco: Jossey - Bass, 1984), p.247; and
Lee O. Thayer, **Administrative Communication** (Homewood, IL: Irwin, 1961), pp. 133 - 205.

The schools shape also affects the communication processes. Each school differs in its ability to communicate across levels, and from top to bottom from systems with more or fewer levels. Finally, technology appears to have a significant effect on organizational communication. The new technology may well create both new problems and new opportunities for educational administrators.

b. Informal Organization and Communication

Messages that pass through the organizational structure of schools, but are not shown on the hierarchical chart are called informal communications. Informal channels, commonly called "grapevines" exist in all organizations. People who are in groups, cliques, or gangs tend to reach an understanding on things or issues very quickly. They communicate easily and well among themselves. Common office areas, similar duties, shared coffee breaks, and friendships give the chances for facts, opinions, attitudes, suspicions, gossip, rumours, and even directives to flow freely through the grapevine. The grapevine serves as a barometer of opinion and sentiment. School administrators can often tap the informal flow of information about morale of students, teachers, and other administrators. They can also test the receptivity of a new procedure or programme.

The timetable of our schools in Cyprus allows for free time among the teaching periods of the staff. These periods of time are usually used by teachers to communicate with each other, discuss several issues especially school ones, such as the issue of the teaching material, discipline, and attainment of students.

Thus, teachers have the opportunity to hear and discuss particular problems and gain a better picture of the classes they teach. Sometimes this information is more valuable and useful than the one given formally by the principal or the assistant principal because it is given informally to people who are interested in listening to it.

Depending on the reaction, the administrator uses the formal communication system to announce the plans for the new programme, allows the programme to remain hypothetical, or formally quashes the rumor.

The informal channel can assist administrators to assess the accuracy of formal upward communication. Research, however, indicates that the more tangible and the more objective the information, the more likely that subordinates will communicate accurately with their superiors. The frequency of communication between them also affects the accuracy of the exchange.

Horizontal communication, among organizational members at the same hierarchical level, is the strongest and the most easily understood. Horizontal communication can be either formal or informal.

The major purpose of horizontal communication is coordinating educational activities on the same level. Written information for coordination is not enough. Written messages frequently are supplemented by conferences of peers in hopes that a more personal informal interchange of ideas will facilitate efforts at coordination.

With the advent of large capacity computers, scholars have increasingly used sociometric surveys to describe communication structures.

Sociometry represents one means of assessing the attractions, or attractions and repulsions, of members of a group to one another.

The result from research using a sociometric technique indicate that communication patterns in organizations are extraordinary complex. A large majority of all participants interact consistently with many other individuals and in far greater numbers than is suggested by formal organization charts.

After research *Bruce G. Barnett* (20) found that administrators are likely to be dependent on teachers who have access to certain resources, especially information. In exchange for these resources, teachers can influence administrator behaviour. Some teachers gain influence and power because they have information about how to get things accomplished or who can resolve specific problems. Department chairs also, committee members, and teachers with specialized skills, possess important information, due to that they can exert considerable power in the decision-making processes of school organizations.

This phenomenon in Cyprus is especially seen in the work of committees; in particular, teachers with many years of experience possess such specific knowledge, and, therefore, their opinion is influential on the committee members as well as the assistant principal - in his capacity as chairman - for whom the experienced teacher can be of great assistance.

20. Bruce G. Barnett, "Subordinate Teacher Power in School Organizations," *Sociology of Education*, 57 (1984), pp.43-55.

Planning the communication and using the knowledge from communication theory can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of administrative communication. For that are suggested the following general guides (21).

1. Determine the objective for placing the information into the communication flow.
2. Identify the audience and their characteristics that might produce distortions in the message.
3. Encode the message to fit the relationship between the sender and receiver to diminish the amount of distortion by the receiver.
4. Determine the medium (media) and transmission channels; establish a mutual interest with the receiver.
5. Release the message at the most opportune time to maximize its psychological impact.
6. Consider the volume and do not overload the communication channels, and
7. Measure the results with feedback (to improve communication).

Although perfection is impossible, several techniques are available to measure and to improve the communication process at both the individual and the organizational levels, as it is already said. Despite the many difficulties, two sets of skills can improve communication process.

21. Wayne K. Hoy and Cecil G. Miskel, **Educational Administration Theory, Research and Practice**, 3rd Edition (Random House, New York, 1987), p.377.

- a) Sending Skills, i.e. the ability to make oneself understood;
and
- b) Listening skills, i.e. the ability to understand others.

a. Sending Skills: Five methods can improve sending skills.

1. Appropriate and direct language should be used.
2. Clear and complete information should be provided to the listener.
3. Noise from the physical and psychological environments should be minimized.
4. Multiple channels should be employed to stimulate a number of the receiver's senses (sight and sound).
5. Face-to-face communication and redundancy should be used whenever possible.

b. Listening Skills. Active listening requires both a willingness and ability to listen to a complete message and to respond appropriately to the message's content and intent, i.e.

feelings, values, and emotions. Accepting another individual's feelings and trying to understand his/her message in the context of those feelings can improve the accuracy of communication. The school's administrator must create conditions that allow people to say what they really mean and to be heard - unfortunately feedback is not always useful, because neutral or positive feedback is easier to give than negative assessments. Most of us are fairly adept at sending back messages that do not really represent our true reactions.

This is actually happening in our schools. It of course depends on the principal and the kind of person he is. The more authoritarian he is, the lesser chances he has of getting the correct messages from the teaching staff.

It is a sad fact that in Cyprus, as well as no doubt in other parts of the world, some teachers never speak openly in meetings even though they disagree with something.

Others, will always agree with the principal's view for obvious reasons. There are, however, fortunately those who will openly express their opinion regardless of the possibility of being misunderstood or disliked by the principal. Rarely, some of the teachers convey a negative message because they like to stir up things or because they see nothing positive in the whole system. (See also Chapter 10.4, Part II, pp.206-207).

Some people rationalize such behaviour as tact, human relations, or survival. Feedback must be helpful to the recipient, otherwise is useless. Feedback must be specific, it must depend on trust within the group and must be an expression of wanting to help (22).

Finally, the effectiveness of the feedback depends on the ability of the recipient to use it properly.

It is clear that communication is not an easy task. All the work of an organization depends on it. Communication needs to be well organized in order to be successful; to achieve this it takes a variety of means and ways to be followed. Leadership - which we have already examined - depends on its success as well as Decision Making and Motivation which constitute the content of the following chapters.

-
22. John Anderson, "Giving and Receiving Feedback," in Paul R. Lawrence, Louis B. Barnes, and Jay W. Lorsch (eds.), **Organizational Behavior and Administration** (Homewood, IL: Irwin, 1976), pp. 103 - 111.

Chapter 5

DECISION - MAKING

"The task of deciding pervades the entire administrative organization. A general theory of administration must include principles of organization that will insure correct decision-making, just as it must include principles that will insure effective action." *Herbert Simon, Administrative Behavior* (1).

Decision-making is a major responsibility of all administrators. It is, according to *Hoy and Miskel* (2), the process by which decisions are not only arrived at but implemented.

All modern organizations place emphasis on decision-making because it is an important procedure for the quality of their work. In Cyprus where the educational system is basically run by the State, the emphasis is on the regulations for the functioning of schools, and on which individuals or bodies should take the decisions and in what way (See also Chapter 9, Part II, pp.173 - 174 and Chapter 10.5, Part II, p.209).

-
1. Herbert A. Simon, **Administrative Behavior** (New York: Macmillan, 1957), p. 1.
 2. Wayne K. Hoy, Cecil G. Miskel, **Educational Administration, Theory Research and Practice**, 3rd ed. (New York, 1987), p. 316.

Three basic strategies of decision-making have been analyzed as follows:

1. The Classical Decision Theory,
2. The Administrative Model, and
3. The Incremental Model.

5.1. THE CLASSICAL DECISION THEORY

The Classical Decision Theory (an optimizing strategy) assumes that decisions should be completely rational. According to this model, the decision-making process is a series of sequential steps:

1. Identification of the problem.
2. Establishment of goals and objectives.
3. Generation of alternatives.
4. Consideration of the consequences of each alternative.
5. Evaluation of all the alternatives in terms of the goals and objectives.
6. Selection of the best alternative, the one that maximizes the goals and objectives.
7. Implementation and evaluation of the decision.

But the individual is limited by his:

1. Unconscious skills, habits, reflexes.
2. His values and conception of purpose.
3. The extend of his knowledge and information.

Decision-makers virtually never have access to all the relevant information. Generating all the possible alternatives and their consequences is also impossible. This model assumes intellectual capacities, rationality, and knowledge that decision-makers do not posses.

As *Everard and Morris* (3) believe, decision-taking can be a painful process, since it usually involves:

1. Change.
2. Conflict.
3. The risk of being wrong and being called to account.
4. Having to cope with a bewildering number of facts and alternatives.

The result is that many people would rather do almost anything than actually take a decision, though the failure to take a decision is often worse than most of the alternatives. Be that as it may, colleagues and subordinates are often frustrated and paralysed by lack of decision. That happens because people are blamed heavily if a decision proves to be wrong, whereas no blame is attached to inertia.

So some administrators who get an inkling of a situation which threatens their security may repress the perception and not see it at all. On the other hand, other administrators may perceive the problem, not be threatened, accept the situation, and act upon their perception.

The ability to perceive problems is also related to knowledge of the area in which the problem resides. For this reason it is not possible to develop skill in decision - making per se; instead one must develop skill in decision - making about something in particular.

3. K.B. Everard and Geoffrey Morris, **Effective School Management** (Harper Education Series, Harper and Row Publishers, London 1985), p.38.

5.2. THE ADMINISTRATIVE MODEL

Herbert Simon (4) was first to introduce this strategy of satisfying in an attempt to provide a more accurate description of the way administrators should make decisions. According to this model, decision-making is a cycle of activity that includes different stages going through again and again in the process.

When a problem is recognized, defined and limited, there should follow an analysis and evaluation (5).

1. What does the problem mean to me ?
2. What does the problem mean to the organization ?
3. What can I do about it ?
4. What do I want to do about it ?
5. What do we want to do about it ?

Common sense suggest a series of logical steps in decision taking.

1. Define the situation (problems, opportunities, data, aims).
Decisions are made either to correct a situation or to improve it. The situation must be understood and must be compared with the desired one. We can ask questions, as well, as when, where, how, and why the problem occurs. Relevant data (facts, attitudes, events, figures) can be adduced and the total should be seen in a context of what the school is trying to achieve.
2. Establish criteria (essential desirable).
After the problem has been analyzed and specified, the decision-maker must decide what constitutes an acceptable solution. What are the musts compared to the wants? What is good enough? In this way, the decision-maker establishes his or her aspiration level. That is, what are the criteria for a satisfactory decision?

4. Herbert Simon, *op.cit.*

5. Andrew W. Halpin, **Administrative Theory in Education** (Macmillan Company, New York Collier, Macmillan Limited, London 1967), p. 135.

3. Generate Alternatives

This is the central step of the process. The process involves at least the following steps: specifying alternatives, predicting consequences, and deliberating on and selecting the alternative for action.

People do not have the capacity to think of all alternatives. Advancing a greater number of choices increases the likelihood of finding satisfactory alternatives. The first step is, in that stage, to list all possible alternatives.

Routine decisions often can be handled quickly and effectively. Unique decisions, though, demand more thoughtful and creative decision making.

As Hoy and Miskel (6) say, the development of effective alternatives typically requires: 1. willingness to make fewer black-and-white distinctions, 2. the use of divergent and creative thinking patterns, and 3. time to develop as many reasonable alternatives as possible.

As Everard and Morris (7) state "using the longest possible incubation period (sleeping on a problem) is a very positive technique."

Here the administrator will enlist the aid of his staff and of other groups in order to broaden the number of proffered solutions.

The second step is to predict consequences. For each alternative that is developed, probable consequences should be proposed. Here brainpower and experience is needed to make predictions as accurately as possible. A test of proposals is also needed for "side effects" for the fact that they might bring new problems and disadvantages.

6. W.K. Hoy, Cecil G. Miskel, *op.cit.* p.326.

7. K.B. Everard and Geoffrey Morris, *op.cit.*, p. 41.

4. The next step is deliberating and selecting the course of action, evaluate and test the alternative courses of action.
The decision-makers weigh the consequences of each alternative in the light of the criteria for a satisfactory solution, and having also in mind the time limits and the financial costs of the preferred solution.

Obviously, a large number of factors affect the choice of an alternative or alternatives: The values of the administrator, the cultural context in which the decision is made and implemented, the perceptions of those involved in the process, the importance of the situation, the pressure on the decision-maker, and the importance of the goal. These and also some other factors intervene in the selection of an alternative.

5. Initiate the plan of action, is the final step.

The initiation of the plan of action requires at least four steps: Programming, communicating, monitoring, and appraising.

Programming:

Decisions must be translated and interpreted into specific programmes. The mechanics and specific details for implementing the plan must be specified.

As Simon states "The individual can be rational in terms of the organization's goals only to the extent that he is able to pursue a particular course of action, he has a correct conception of the goal of the action, and he is correctly informed about the conditions surround his action" (8).

8. Herbert A. Simon, *op. cit.*, p. 241.

Who has to have the information about the plan, what actions need to be taken and by whom, what preparation is needed to act probably? All that needs to be considered.

The action that is to be programmed must be also appropriate to the abilities of the people involved. The programme must be realistic and capable of implementation.

Communicating:

Once the plan has been programmed, it is necessary that each individual involved in the plan become aware of his/her responsibilities. Individuals need to know clearly not only what their own roles are but also the roles of others as they relate to the total plan.

Monitoring:

The process of overseeing the implementation of the plan of action in order to be sure that is proceeding as scheduled. The monitoring process is a continuous evaluation, a control process using systematic feedback loops. Continuous feedback reports are necessary to evaluate the progress of implementing a reprogramming of the plan of action.

Appraising:

The outcomes need to be appraised to determine how successful the decision has been. The appraisal stage is both an end and a new beginning in the action cycle of decision-making, because there are no ultimate solutions, but only satisfactory decisions and solutions for the moment.

5.3 THE INCREMENTAL MODEL

Although many problems in educational administration can be solved by the administrative, the satisficing strategy, some others require an incremental strategy. The incremental strategy was first introduced and formalized by *Charles Lindblom* (9). It is more appropriate than others when the set of alternatives is undefinable and the consequences of each alternative unpredictable with respect to a given aspiration level.

This process is a method of successive limited comparisons. It does not require objectives, exhaustive analysis of alternatives and consequences, or a priori determination of either optimum or satisfactory out-comes. It requires only a very limited set of alternatives, similar to the existing situation.

This strategy analyses only differences between the current state and proposed outcomes and ignores all outcomes that are outside the decision-makers narrow range of interest. The decision-makers limit themselves to a reasonable set of alternatives based on their experience so that they can make predictions of consequences with accuracy and confidence.

With such successive limited comparisons in such complex situations decision-makers will make more progress and they will conserve time and energy.

-
9. Charles E. Lindblom, "The Science of Muddling Through," **Public Administrative Review**, 19, (1959) 79-99.

Charles E. Lindblom, **The Policy-Making Process** (Englewood Cliffs, N.J. Prentice-Hall, 1968); and

David Braybrook and Charles E. Lindblom, **The Strategy of Decision** (New York: Free Press, 1963).

The administrative model, if compared with the incremental strategy, is more flexible and heuristic. Decisions are based on comparisons among consequences of alternatives and the decision-maker's aspiration level. The exploration of the alternatives is performed until a satisfactory course of action is discovered. But when the set of relevant alternatives is undefinable and the consequences of each alternative are unpredictable with respect to a given aspiration level, an incremental strategy is a reasonable alternative to the satisficing strategy (Administrative model).

It is assumed, however, that small changes are not likely to produce large negative consequences for the organization.

In our schools in Cyprus principals do not apply some particular theories from the above mentioned; as it has already been said the decision making bodies are determined by the regulations.

Regardless of the number of persons involved in the decision-making procedure, the way they reach a decision is almost always the same; as was stated in Chapter 10.5 of Part II, the issue is presented and discussed by the members of the group - many or few - and at the end they choose that suggestion which seems to be the most suitable for the circumstance. Then all those who are involved or have a form of responsibility for the particular case are asked to apply it.

The principal helps in the application by providing all the necessary means. The particular model of the principal has an important role to play, as mentioned in the relevant Chapter, in Part II.

5.4. THE CONFLICT THEORY OF DECISION-MAKING THE JANIS MANN MODEL

Regardless of the strategy, the pressures of the situation and the decision-making process itself often produce stress. The main sources of such stress are the fear for a situation, the concern about unknown consequences when the decision is critical.

Critical decisions usually involve conflicting values, so decision-makers face dilemmas that any choice they make will require sacrificing valued objectives. Thus, the decision maker's anxiety, shame and guilt rise and increases the level of stress.

Stress has unfavourable effects on the quality of the decision.

Janis and Mann (10) propose a conflict-model of decision-making by specifying the psychological conditions that mediate the five coping patterns and their accompanying levels of stress.

The basis of the model is that when confronted with a decision-making situation reflective decision-makers either consciously or unconsciously consider four issues. Their responses to four questions determine the quality of the solution:

-
10. Irving L. Janis and Leon Mann, **Decision Making: A Psychological Analysis of Conflict, Choice, and Commitment** (New York: Free Press 1977); and

Irving L. Janis, "Sources of Error in Strategic Decision Making," in Johannes M. Pennings and Associates. (eds), **Organizational Strategy and Change** (San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1985), pp.157-197.

1. Are the risks serious if I do not change? Information about losses from continuing unchanged (Unconflicted adherence - Low stress).
2. Are the risks serious if I change? Information about losses from changing (Unconflicted change - Low stress).
3. Is it realistic to hope to find a better solution? Signs of more information available and of other unused resources (Defensive avoidance - High stress).
4. Is there sufficient time to search and deliberate? Information about deadline and time pressures (Hypervigilance - High stress).

If the decision maker perceives insufficient time then a stage of hypervigilance may occur. A hastily contrived solution is decided, which promises immediate relief. If time, however, is ample, then the decision-maker is much more likely to engage in vigilant information processing, with moderate stress, and the end will be through search, appraisal, and contingency planning.

Administrators should avoid unconflicted adherence, unconflicted change, defensive avoidance, and hypervigilance. But sometimes things go wrong because of the forces of labour, time, and stress.

5.5. PARTICIPATION IN DECISION - MAKING.

L. Coch and John R.P. French (11) conducted an early study on the effects of participation in decision-making, using a series of field experiments at the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation (1948). The results of the experiment demonstrated the outcomes of participation.

-
11. L. Coch and John R.P. French, Jr. "Overcoming Resistance to Change," *Human Relations*, 1 (1948), 512-532.

Other studies also have supported the desirability of participation in decision-making in business as well as educational organizations. The following generalizations summarize much of the research and theoretical literature on teacher participation on decision-making (12):

1. The opportunity to share in formulating policies is an important factor in the morale of teachers and in their enthusiasm for the school organization.
2. Participation in decision making is positively related to the individual teacher's satisfaction with the profession of teaching.
3. Teachers neither expect nor want to be involved in every decision; in fact, too much involvement can be as detrimental as too little.
4. Participation in decision making has consequences that vary from situation to situation.
5. Both internal and external factors affect the degree of participation in decision making by teachers.
6. In order to maximize the positive contributions of shared decision making and to maximize the negative consequences, the administrator needs to answer the following questions (13):

-
12. Wayne K. Hoy - Cecil G. Miskel, *op.cit.*, pp. 337 - 338.
 13. Edwin A. Locke and David M. Schneiger, "Participation in Decision-Making: One More Look," **Research in Organizational Behavior**, 1, (1979), 265 - 339 and, Edwin M. Bridges, "A Model for Shared Decision-Making in the School Principalship," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, 3 (1967), pp.49-61.



- a) Under what conditions should teachers be involved?,
- b) To what extent and how should teachers be involved?,
- c) How should the decision-making group be constituted?
- d) What role is most effective for the principal?

Involvement in decision making can produce either positive or negative consequences. The question is, "Under what conditions should subordinates be involved in decision making?".

In this particular issues it is perhaps the case that the probable ignorance by the principals of Cyprus of these theories is the main reason for the exceeded or the limited participation of the staff in the process of decision making.

The concept of "zone of acceptance" as Simon calls it (14) or "zone of indifference", according to Barnard (15) give an answer to the above question. "Zone of acceptance", is the range of behaviour within which subordinates are ready to accept the decisions made by their superiors.

Edwin M. Bridges (16) postulates that 1) as the administrator involves teachers in making decisions located in their zone of acceptance, participation will be less effective, and 2) as the administrator involves teachers in making decisions clearly located outside their zone of acceptance, participation will be more effective. The problem is to determine which decisions fall inside and which outside the zone.

-
14. H. Simon, *op.cit.*
 15. C. Barnard, *The Functions of the Executive* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938).
 16. Edwin M. Bridges, "A Model for Shared Decision Making in the School Principalship," *Educational Administration Quarterly* (1967), pp.49-61, and
E. Bridges, "Teacher Participation in Decision Making," *Administrator's Notebook*, No.1, 1952, pp. 1-4.

Bridges proposes that two tests are very useful to that: the test of relevance and the test of expertise.

If subordinates have a personal stake (high performance) in the decision and the knowledge to make a useful contribution (high expertise), then the decision falls outside the zone of acceptance, and subordinates should be involved in the decision making process.

If the issue is not relevant and it falls in the zone of acceptance, involvement should be avoided, because subordinates will not want to be involved.

But what the administrators must do when subordinates have a personal stake in the issue while they have little expertise? The answer to such a question is: Not often, because problems may arise. Another question is what must be done when subordinates have no personal stake in the situation but they do have knowledge to make a useful contribution. Should they be involved? The answer to that is, only occasionally, because that increases the risk of alienation.

Once the administrator has determined that subordinates will be involved, the next decision is to select the constitutional arrangement of the decision-making group. *Guy E. Swanson* (17) has identified three major types of constitutional arrangements that are classified in terms of how the group is to arrive at a decision:

1. The leader presents a problem to subordinates and asks for comments, suggestions, reactions, and ideas. The decision is clearly the administrator's, but she/he tries to reflect the subordinates participation and feelings in the final decision. This arrangement is the democratic centralist mode and is used probably most frequently.

17. G. E. Swanson, "The Effectiveness of Decision-Making Groups," **Adult Leadership**, 8 (1959), 48 - 52.

This is a usual way of decision making followed by many principals in Cyprus and particularly in cases where they want their opinion to be adopted by the majority of teachers (See Chapter 9, Part II, p.173 and Chapter 10.5, Part II).

2. The parliamentary arrangement give decisions according to the majority's agreement. All members of the group, including the leader, have an equal vote.

This is the most usual way of decision-making for the majority of the issues in Cyprus - including the most serious ones among them.

3. The participant - determining arrangement requires a total consensus of the group on the decision.

The participant determining mode is a powerful decision-making procedure but it is good to be used only if complete agreement is essential, because its costs are high in terms of time, energy and frustration.

This kind of decision-making is exercised by the principals in Cyprus in rare and problematic occasions, when they want to give power and emphasis to the decision, and they try to present it as an anonymously taken one in order to be able to confront any external reaction to that decision.

The democratic-centralist mode might be used in situations where teachers have both a personal stake and a high degree of expertise, but such an arrangement seems less likely than others to maximize participation and involvement.

The parliamentarian arrangement is used most often. The administrator must give the minority the opportunity to have a fair hearing. The role of the administrator is neutral, leaving the subordinates to make their decisions based on the relevant facts. The extent of involvement is maximum.

5.5.1. A Model for Shared Decision Making: Decision Rules

Another model for determining when and to what extent subordinates should be involved in decision making is that proposed by *Victor Vroom* and *Philip Yetton* (18). Their approach suggests that participation in decision making should depend on the nature of the problem and the situation.

Three rules enhance the quality of the decisions.

1. The information rule. If the quality of the decision is important a unilateral decision is inappropriate.
2. The trust rule. If the quality of the decision is important and if the subordinates cannot be trusted to decide on the basis of the organizational goals, then decision through group consensus is inappropriate.
3. The unstructured problem rule. If the decision is important and the administrator lacks information, then participation of knowledgeable subordinates should improve the quality of the decision.

Another set of rules enhance the acceptance of decisions by subordinates:

1. The acceptance rule. If subordinate acceptance of the decision is critical for effective implementation, then some sharing of the situation and participation of others are necessary.
2. The conflict rule. If acceptance of the decision is critical, then all subordinates must have full knowledge of the problem and they should also have an opportunity to resolve any differences.

18. Victor H. Vroom and Philip W. Yetton, **Leadership and Decision Making** (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973), pp.11-58.

3. The fairness rule. If the quality of the decision is not important, but its acceptance is critical and problematic, then a group decision will likely generate more acceptance and commitment than a hierarchical one.
4. The acceptance priority rule. If acceptance is critical and if subordinates can be trusted, only group decision-making is appropriate.

The "zone of acceptance" model is simple but powerful model that can be used quickly and efficiently.

The Vroom -Yetton model is much more time consuming. It can be used, when time permits, to validate and refine actions derived from the first model.

5.6. STYLES IN DECISION-TAKING

According to *K.B. Everard* and *Geoffrey Morris* (19) four types of decision making can be identified:

1. **Autocratic:**

The decision is taken without consultation, then others are informed of what is to be done and what is expected of them.

This style is acceptable for routine matters which do not deeply concern people one way or the other. It will also be accepted more easily where the decision-taker is an expert or has a "charisma".

This type of decision-making was at one time very common in our schools in Cyprus. During the last decades, however, this type is not followed and it tends not to be used apart from routine matters, as was mentioned above, or when an extraordinary or very urgent issue is in the agenda.

19. K. B. Everard and Geoffrey Morris, *op.cit.*, p.44.

2. **Persuasive:**

The decision is taken before consultation and then "sold" to others. This differs from the autocratic style in that the manager uses his powers of advocacy to explain and justify his decision to his staff, subsequent to the decision being taken. It is not open to negotiation. If it is presented as what it really is, is an acceptable type of decision taking in the right circumstances. Otherwise it would be dishonest if the staff is manipulated by slick "sales talk" into accepting a "fait accompli".

This is a type of decision making which is used by some principals in Cyprus, as revealed from the interviews (Chapter 9, Part II, pp.173-174). They believe that their opinion in certain issues is the only correct one and they try to present it as the opinion of the whole staff in order to apply it.

3. **Consultative:**

The views of others are sought and taken into account before a decision is taken.

This method combines the advantages of obtaining the ideas, suggestions and commitment of those involved, with vesting decision-taking responsibility in one person with consistency of decision-taking and conformity to established guidelines.

It is used by many principals in Cyprus in very critical issues; they do not allow others to take part in decision making, because they believe that, since the issue is critical and the responsibility is their own, they themselves have to take the decision and not others (Chapter 9, Part II, p. 174).

4. **Codeterminate:**

Decisions are taken on either a consensus or majority basis.

This approach runs the risk of inconsistency, but is the only method available when no one party has clear decision-taking authority.

It is common in Cyprus. As the theory states, it runs the risk of inconsistency. The inconsistency though is a product of many factors, as mentioned in the relevant Chapter (See Chapter 10.5, Part II, pp.211-212).

Whatever form of decision-taking is used, the important things are (20):

1. The form of decision-taking should be "open" and "clear" to all concerned.
2. It should be consistent with reality.
3. The decision-taker should understand and establish the conventions of the particular form of decision-taking.

5.6.1. Key Principles (21)

The effective taking of decisions depends in short on a logical process which ensures in particular that we:

1. Gather as many as possible of the relevant facts and opinions.
2. Consider the alternatives.
3. Take into account the criteria which we need to meet and choose accordingly.

Effective implementation depends on:

1. A plan
2. Reviews of progress
3. The involvement of the right people at the right time and through a well-controlled process.

20. K. B. Everard and Geoffrey Morris, *op.cit.*, p. 45.

21. *Ibid.*, p. 50.

An understanding of the decision making process is vital to successful administration. It provides answers to how a decision must be taken in every existing situation.

In order for leadership to be successful, special attention is required by the principal and great care for communication (Chapter 4) and decision making (Chapter 5), which have already been examined; another important subject is motivation, which follows and it is the last chapter - Chapter 6 - of the present section.

Chapter 6

MOTIVATION

The word motivation is used in a variety of ways. At the most general level, motivation refers to a process governing individual choices among different forms of voluntary activities.

John P. Campbell and his associates add specificity to the definition by arguing that motivation involves the direction of behaviour, the strength of response, and the persistence of the behaviour (1). It includes also a number of other concepts, such as drive, need, incentive, reward, reinforcement, goal setting, expectancy.

According to most definitions, motivation consists of three basic components that activate, direct and sustain human behaviour (2). Activating forces like needs, desires, expectancies, antecedents, are assumed to exist within individuals, and they lead them to behave in certain ways.

Thus, motivation can be defined as the complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain voluntary activity toward the achievement of personal goals. This represents a cognitive approach, a general model to motivation. Cognitive theories view motivation as a sort of "hedonism of the future" (3).

-
1. John P. Campbell, Marvin D. Dunnette, Edward W. Lawler III, and Karl E. Weick, Jr., **Managerial Behavior, Performance and Effectiveness** (New York: McGraw - Hill, 1970), p. 340.
 2. Richard M. Steers and Lyman W. Porter, **Motivation and Work Behavior**, 2nd Edition (New York: McGraw - Hill, 1979), pp. 3-27.
 3. *Ibid.*, 3d ed., p.10.

Their basic postulate is that a major determinant of human behaviour is the beliefs, expectations and anticipations individuals have about future events.

In other words, individuals have thoughts about events that have happened to them, expectations about what might happen in the future if they pursue a given course of action, and, if asked, will probably indicate what they intend to do about some goal (4).

6.1. CONTENT APPROACHES TO MOTIVATION

Theories of motivation that have been used to explain the different aspects of the general model can also be classified as content or process approaches.

The so-called need theories are among the most important content models of motivation. One of the most pervasive concepts on the area of work motivation is that of human needs (Needs for affiliation, achievement, power, self-actualization, or recognition).

Among the need theories the most widely discussed are the Need Hierarchy Theory and the Motivator - Hygiene Theory.

-
4. John P. Campbell and Robert D. Pritchard, "Motivation Theory in Industrial and Organizational Psychology," in Marvin D. Dunnette (ed.), **Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology** (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1976), p. 74.

6.1.1. Need Hierarchy Model

Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory was derived primarily from Maslow's experience as a clinical psychologist (5). Five basic need levels in the hierarchy comprise the foundation of Maslow's model.

At the first level of the hierarchy are psychological needs, which consist of the fundamental biological functions of the human organism. Food, drink, shelter, sex, warmth.

At the second level are safety and security needs which derive from the desire for a peaceful, smoothly running, stable society. Freedom from danger, freedom from want.

On the third level, belonging, love, and social needs are extremely important in our society as well as friendship, group acceptance, love.

Esteem needs, at the fourth level, reflect the desire to be highly regarded by others. Achievement, competence, status, and recognition satisfy esteem needs. Promotion, influence, power, prestige, are needs of this level.

The same thing happens in Cyprus; the reason why a young man decides to be a teacher is - as it is mentioned in Chapter 10.6, Part II, p.220, - that the profession secures one good salary and a stable profession, with the opportunity to cooperate with people, make friends and feel their support and love. As far as the issue of promotion is concerned it operates as a strong motivation to our teachers too, despite the difficulties facing it, as mentioned in Chapter 10.6, Part II.

5. Abraham H. Maslow, **Motivation and Personality**, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper and Row, 1970, 1st ed., 1954), pp. 55-56; and "A Theory of Human Motivation," **Psychological Review**, (50), (1943), 370-396.

Finally, the need of the self-actualization is the fifth level. The need to be what an individual wants to be, to achieve fulfilment of life goals, and to realize the potential of his/her personality. Maslow's needs are related to one another and are arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency. The needs at each level have to be satisfied to some extent before we think about needs at the next level up. Higher level needs become activated as lower-level needs become satisfied. As lower-level needs become satisfied, they are displaced by new needs.

Therefore, individual behaviour is motivated by an attempt to satisfy the need that is most important at that point. The successive emergence of higher needs is limited, because lower-level needs are never completely satisfied; moreover, if an individual cannot satisfy needs at a given level for any period of time, those needs again become potent motivators. A completely satisfied need is not an effective motivator. Maslow asserts that normal individuals are usually only partially satisfied in all their basic needs.

A more realistic description of the need structure is that the percentage of satisfaction decreases as one goes up the hierarchy of prepotency. For the majority of people, needs at the first three levels are regularly satisfied and no longer have much motivational effect; however, satisfaction esteem and self-actualization needs is rarely complete. The higher-level needs continually motivate.

A very good example pointing towards the soundness of this view is, among others, the need for promotion. Although it is something which a teacher in our system in Cyprus is after for almost a lifetime (more than 20 years) and as soon as he is successful he is delighted, after a few years he feels the need for another promotion; through this one can satisfy another need motivator, that of self actualization, the fulfilment of a life goal. If teachers do not succeed in getting the post of principal, they do not feel that they have succeeded in their profession.

K. B. Everard and G. Morris in their book "Effective School Management" note that if an individual is really deprived at a lower level, he/she may lose interest in the higher level needs. On the other hand, a "satisfying" job at the higher levels will raise the level of tolerance of deprivation at the lower levels (6).

Furthermore, when a need at a given level is satisfied, the law of diminishing returns sets in. "Oversatisfying" of a need may produce a sense of guilt and/or deliberate self-deprivation.

Finally, different people will feel needs with differing intensity. Another interesting thing which they note is that when dealing with people with whom we work, most of us have a tendency to behave as though the needs of others, particularly our subordinates, are at the lower levels (7).

Lyman W. Porter has modified Maslow's hierarchy to include autonomy needs, which lie between esteem and self-actualization needs. Porter has developed the Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (N.S.Q.) (8), which has been modified for use in specific organizational settings, including schools.

Porter's investigations of managers, using a modified N.S.Q. indicate that the need for self-actualization is generally the least satisfied.

6. K. B. Everard and Geoffrey Morris, **Effective School Management** (Harper Education Series, Harper and Row Publishers, London, 1985), p. 28.

7. K. B. Everard and Geoffrey Morris, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

8. Lyman W. Porter, "Job Attitudes in Management: I. Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfilment as a Function of Job Level," **Journal of Applied Psychology** (46), (New York, 1962), p. 375-384.

In educational settings, an early study by *Frances M. Trusty and Thomas J. Sergiovanni* reports that the largest deficiencies for professional educators were satisfying esteem, autonomy, and self - actualization needs (9).

In a recent investigation, *Mary Beth G. Anderson and Edward F. Iwanicki's* findings are supportive of Trusty and Sergiovanni (10). They conclude that teacher's lack of self-esteem represents the largest source of need deficiency for them. According to a study by *Grace B. Chisolm and her colleagues* (11) administrators exhibit fewer need deficiencies than teachers on all five subscales - security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. The greatest are of deficiency for both administrators and teachers is satisfaction of autonomy needs.

-
9. Frances M. Trusty and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, "Perceived Need Deficiencies of Teachers and Administrators: A Proposal for Restructuring Teacher Roles," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, (2), (1966), 168 - 180.
 10. Mary Beth G. Anderson and Edward F. Iwanicki, "Teacher Motivation and its Relationship to Burnout," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, (20), (1984), 109-132.
 11. Grace B. Chisolm, Roosevelt Washington and Mary Thibodeaux, **Job Motivation and the Need Fulfilment Deficiencies of Educators**. (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, 1980).

6.1.2. Theory X and Theory Y.

Douglas McGregor, 1960, described two conflicting views of work: One asserting that people seek fulfilment through work, Theory Y, and the other that they seek only to satisfy lower-level needs, Theory X (12).

- The managers who adopt "Theory X" believe:
 1. Work is inherently distasteful to most people.
 2. Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.
 3. Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving problems.
 4. Motivation occurs only at the physiological and security levels.
 5. Most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organization objectives.

- The managers who adopt "Theory Y" on the other hand believe:
 1. Work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favourable.
 2. Control of one's own work activities is often indispensable in achieving organizational gains.
 3. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.
 4. Motivation occurs at the social, ego and self-realization levels as well as at the physiological and security levels.
 5. People can be self directed and creative at work if properly led (13).

12. Douglas McGregor, **The Human Side of Enterprise** (New York: McGraw - Hill, 1960).

13. K.B. Everard and Geoffrey Morris, **op.cit.**, p. 29.

The ideas expressed by the two theories of McGregor can be seen in the behaviour of the principals in Cyprus, although it is unlikely that most of them, are aware of these theories. One can see the consequences of the application of these ideas in the organization of the school and in the approach of the principal towards his subordinates.

In the schools where a principal follows by chance Theory X, there are problems, difficulties, weaknesses, complaints, low morale, disappointment. On the contrary in other schools where the principal adopts Theory Y - again by chance - although there are problems and difficulties, they are faced with optimism, high morale and at the end difficulties and problems are solved much easier than in the first case.

6.1.3. Motivation - Hygiene Theory.

Another popular content theory of motivation is proposed by *Frederick Herzberg and his colleagues* (14), Motivation-hygiene theory, the dual-factor theory, and simply Herzberg's theory. Its basic postulate is that one set of rewards contributes to job satisfaction and a separate set to job dissatisfaction.

The motivation-hygiene theory is based on Herzberg's findings from his famous study of industrial employee motivation to work. The study found that positive events were dominated by references to achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Negative events were dominated by references to interpersonal relations with superiors and peers, technical supervision, company policy and administration, working conditions and personal life.

14. Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Snyderman, **The Motivation to Work** (New York: Wiley, 1959).

From these findings, Herzberg drew some important conclusions (15):

- a. The things which make people unhappy at work are not simply the opposites of the things which make them happy and vice versa.
- b. The things that make people dissatisfied are related to the job environment. The things that make people satisfied on the other hand are related to the job content.

Whilst those who have a satisfying job may have a higher tolerance of dissatisfiers, the dissatisfying factors can be so strong that the job becomes intolerable.

Herzberg calls the environmental factors which are capable of causing unhappiness the "hygiene" factors, because he believes that these have to be reasonably well "cleaned up" as a prerequisite for satisfaction.

Hygiene factors are:

Organizational policies and administration,
Management,
Working Conditions,
Interpersonal relations,
Money, status, and security.

Herzberg calls the work content factors which lead to happiness "motivators" or "satisfiers".

15. K.B.Everard and Geoffrey Morris, *op. cit.*, p.30, 32.

Motivator factors are:

- Achievement: Opportunities for a person to use his/her full capabilities and make a worthwhile contribution.
- Responsibility: Freedom of action in decision-taking, style and job development.
- Recognition: An indication about how someone is getting on in a job.
- Advancement: Potential of the job in terms of promotion.
- Work itself: The interest of the job-variety, challenge, personal conviction of the job's significance.
- Personal growth: Opportunities for learning and maturing.

As it mentioned in Chapter 10.6, Part II, pp.224-225, money, status, security and policies are hygiene factors in Cyprus schools; due to the fact though that all schools follow the same rules and regulations the situation is the same in all of them. The good working conditions, however, and the interpersonal relations are very significant factors for somebody to feel content at his place of work (for more details please see Chapter 10.6, Part II, pp. 224-225).

As far as the motivator factors are concerned, the role of the principal in Cyprus is very important because achievement, responsibility and recognition of someone's work depend on the principal. However, the principal's role is rather smaller in the teacher's personal growth and work itself and much smaller in his advancement. Teachers feel comfortable in our school system, where the principal offers the chances which have been mentioned above.

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory has been widely accepted and used as the theoretical rationale for numerous empirical investigations and administrative innovations. It has a close conceptual relationship with Maslow's popular need hierarchy theory.

Both theories emphasize the same set of relationships. Maslow focuses on the general human needs of the psychological person, while Herzberg concentrates on the psychological person, in terms of how the job affects basic needs.

Thomas Sergiovanni (16) and *Gene L. Schmidt* (17) replicated the Herzberg study the first with teachers and the second with administrators. Both used critical-incidents interviews and then analyzed the content. The research indicated several differences between industrial and educational groups.

In considering hygiene, teachers differed from business employees in having more problems with subordinates (students) interpersonal relations than with superordinate relations. School administrators are similar to teachers and different from business employees in having more problems involving interpersonal relations with subordinates. Though these differences were found, a number of reasons tend to explain them. So the Herzberg study with these researches was supported.

The basic Herzberg conclusion was upheld. Employees tend to associate one set of factors with job satisfaction and a different set with job dissatisfaction.

-
16. Thomas Sergiovanni, "Factors Which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers," **Journal of Educational Administration**, (5), (1967), 66-82.
 17. Gene L. Schmidt, "Job Satisfaction Among Secondary School Administrators," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, (12), (1976), 68-86.

Chester Barnard, fifty years ago, was the first who noted that inadequate incentives mean dissolution, change in organizational purpose, or failure of cooperation (18).

Incentives are rewards, reinforcers, or inducements that employees receive from the organization in return for being productive members. The purpose of the incentives offered is to motivate participants to improve their work performance.

More recently, *Douglas E. Mitchell, Flora Ida Ortiz, and Tedi K. Mitchell* asserted that the incentive system of the school largely determines the strength of teacher motivation to perform work responsibilities (19).

Barnard noted that two classes of incentives - specific and general - are needed.

Specific incentives include material items (money, things), personal nonmaterial items (distinction, prestige, power), desirable physical work conditions (good lighting, clean classrooms), and ideal benefactions (personal ideals, goals, priorities).

General incentives include associational attractiveness (social compatibility), habitual methods and attitudes (standard school routine), opportunities for enlarged participation (shared decision making), and communion (support by the informal organization for what the proper personal attitudes should be).

-
18. Chester Barnard, *The Functions of an Executive* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1938), pp.32-33, 139-160.
 19. Douglas E. Mitchell, Flora Ida Ortiz, and Tedi K. Mitchell, "Executive Summary," *Controlling the Impact of Rewards and Incentives on Teacher Task Performance* (Washington DC: National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, Grant NIE-G-80-0154,1982).

As noted by *Miskel*, two terms that are closely related to each other and similar to Barnard's categories, extrinsic, and intrinsic have been used to describe and classify incentives.

Extrinsic refers to incentives provided by the organization or other people: recognition, money, promotion, harassment, low-ability students, and well-behaved students.

Intrinsic rewards are those mediated within the individual: feelings of accomplishment, achievement, competence.

Nevertheless, the most reasonable implication from current knowledge is that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards have reciprocal effects and both represent effective methods of energizing and maintaining behaviour.

Campbell and *Pritchard* asserted that we should stop talking about need theories and start building lists of reinforcements and how they act as incentives to employees (20).

Intrinsic rewards are the rewards which our principals in Cyprus seek to offer to teachers, because the extrinsic ones are not strong, since they are the same for all, and do not depend on the principal.

20. John P. Campbell and Robert D. Pritchard, *op.cit.*, p. 73.

6.2. COGNITIVE PROCESS MODELS OF MOTIVATION

Process theories are an entirely different from the content theories approach to motivation. Process theorists are not concerned with explaining the things that motivate behaviour. Rather, they focus on behavioral processes. They attempt to define the major variables that are necessary to explain choice, effort, and the persistence of certain behaviour. Then, they attempt to specify how the major variables interact to influence outcomes, such as work effort and job satisfaction.

6.2.1. Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory, Valence - Instrumentality - Expectancy, V.I.E. theory or Value Theory was popularized and modified during the 1960s by *Victor Vroom* and others (21).

This theory rests on two fundamental premises. First, individuals make decisions about their own behaviour in organizations using their abilities to think, reason, and anticipate future events.

Motivation is a conscious process governed by laws. People subjectively evaluate the expected value of outcomes or personal payoffs resulting from their actions and then they choose how to behave. Second, forces in the individual and the environment combine to determine behaviour. Individual values and attitudes, for instance, interact with environmental components, such as role expectations and organizational climate, to influence behaviour.

-
21. Jay Galbraith and L.L. Cummings, "An Empirical Investigation of the Motivational Determinants of Task Performance: Interactive Effects between Instrumentality - Valence and Motivation - Ability," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, (2), (1967), 237-257; and Victor Vroom, *Work and Motivation* (New York: Wiley, 1964).

Expectancy theory builds on these assumptions with the concepts of valence, instrumentality and expectancy (V.I.E.).

Valence refers to the perceived positive or negative value, worth or attractiveness that an individual ascribes to potential goals, outcomes, rewards, or incentives for working in an organization. It is the strength of a person's desire for a particular reward.

Instrumentality refers to the perceived probability that an incentive with a valence will be forthcoming after a given level of performance or achievement. Instrumentality is high, when individuals perceive a strong association between performance and being rewarded.

Expectancy refers to the subjective probability or degree of certainty that a given effort will yield a specified performance level. It is the extent to which an individual believes that a given level of activity will result in a specified level of goal accomplishment.

In general, motivation to behave in a certain way is greatest when the individual believes that:

- a. The behaviour will lead to rewards (High Instrumentality).
- b. Outcomes have positive personal values (High Valence); and
- c. The ability exists to perform at the desired level (High Expectancy).

Thus, the individual decides to behave in the way that appears to have the best chance of producing the desired rewards.

Investigations conducted in educational organizations based on expectancy theory are similar to those most commonly reported in the literature for other organizational settings.

In a study examining the relationship between school structure and teacher motivation, *H. Scott Herrick* found strong negative correlations between expectancy motivational force and centralization and stratification (22). Thus, schools that are highly centralized and stratified are staffed with teachers having low forces of motivation.

This is another problem faced by our schools also in Cyprus, because there are not many strong motives for all those who work in education, due to our centralized system and the difficulties in promotion procedures.

In a study of teachers in secondary schools and institutes of higher education, *Cecil Miskel, JoAnn DeFrain, and Kay Wilcox* related the force of motivation to job satisfaction and perceived job performance (23). *Miskel* and his colleagues *David McDonald* and *Susan Bloom* found that expectancy motivation of teachers was consistently related to teacher job satisfaction, student attitudes toward school, and perceived school effectiveness (24).

Overall, most research results have supported the theory: people work hard, when they think that working hard is likely to lead to desirable rewards from the organization.

Expectancy theory has generated a large number of investigations. Although questions and criticisms surround the approach, expectancy theory can make valuable contributions to the field of educational administration.

-
22. H. Scott Herrick, "The Relationship of Organizational Structure to Teacher Motivation in Multiunit and Nonmultiunit Elementary Schools." **Technical Report No. 322** (University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, 1973).
 23. Cecil G. Miskel, JoAnn DeFrain, and Kay Wilcox, "A Test of Expectancy Motivation Theory in Educational Organizations," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, (16), (Winter 1980), 70-92.
 24. Cecil G. Miskel, David McDonald, and Susan Bloom, "Structural and Expectancy Linkages within Schools and Organizational Effectiveness," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, (19), (1983), 49-82.

6.2.2. Goal Theory

Edwin A. Locke and *his associates* are generally recognized for the development and renewed interest of the goal theory of the technique of goal setting in organizations (25). In comparison to expectancy theory, goal theory is not complex. A goal is defined simply as what an individual consciously is trying to do. Goals have two major characteristics - content and intensity.

Content refers to the nature of the activity or desired outcome. Intensity relates to the level of importance a person assigns the goal. Content directs and influences behaviour, because different goals require varying amount of effort; Intensity acts in the same fashion, because important goals are more likely to be accepted, to elicit commitment, and, thus, foster persistent actions (26).

Goals direct both mental and physical actions of individuals. According to the theory, specific goals are superior to general goals, and difficult goals, when accepted, lead to greater effort than easy goals. The goal setting process begins with the assumption that the individual knows something about the nature and properties of things that exists in the work environment. Action or behaviour is required to fulfil personal needs, thus, the individual has to judge the elements in the environment (existents) to determine which actions will enhance the individual's well-being.

25. Edwin A. Locke, "Toward a Theory of Task Motivation and Incentives," **Organizational Behavior and Human Performance**, (3), (1968), 157-189.

Edwin A. Locke, Norman Cartledge, and Claramae S. Knerr, "Studies of the Relationship between Satisfaction, Goal-Setting, and Performance," **Organizational Behavior and Human Performance**, (5), (1970), 135-139.

26. John B. Miner, **Theories of Organizational Behavior** (Hinsdale, IL: Dryden, 1980), p. 172.

So, value judgements are the basis for choosing among alternative courses of action. As in expectancy theory, instrumentality refers to a probability that a reward will occur. At this point, the individual is ready to act. With the overall goal in mind he/she sets subgoals based on a judgement of the probability of achieving the overall goal. Feedback is important, because knowledge of the results enables the individual to set new goals.

As Locke notes, behaviour is regulated and maintained by goals and intentions. Since pursuit of some goals requires greater mental concentration and physical effort than others, goals in the process of directing action, also regulate energy expenditure.

- Early support for Locke's ideas came from a series of well- controlled laboratory experiments. The evidence from field studies does indicate that goal theory is valid for describing employee behaviour in organizations such as schools (27).

Some of the findings of the research are the following:

- a. Specific performance goals elicit a higher level of performance than general goals.
- b. The more difficult the performance goal, the more effort individual will make, if they accept it.
- c. Subordinate participation in goal-setting activities, as opposed to goal setting by the supervisor alone, leads to employee satisfaction, though it may not increase performance.
- d. Goal setting and feedback combine to enhance employee motivation.

27. Gary P. Latham and Gary A. Yukl, "A Review of Research on the Application of Goal Setting in Organizations," **Academy of Management Journal**, (18), (1975), 824-845.

Although strong support exists for the basic propositions of goal theory, there are some deficiencies also. The greatest deficiency is the failure of the theory to specify what determines goal acceptance and commitment.

A second deficiency concerns the mechanisms that explain how goal acceptance, goal difficulty and other variables, combine to determine effort.

A third problem is that the theory is better for predicting outcomes for simple jobs with concrete results, but is less effective when tasks are complex like administrative and instructional ones.

6.3. SOME COMMENTS

Expectancy and goal theories, as cognitive process models, resemble each other. The differences are mainly in emphasis and specificity: cognitive disequilibrium in the general model, internal evaluations of values or valences and prospects for rewards are stressed in expectancy theory, and conscious decisions based on values to pursue an intention in goal theory.

However, the theories offer many suggestions and techniques for improving administrative practice. Administrators have to borrow the best ideas from each theory and apply them to their situations. They have to identify and gauge the most important needs of their staffs and use those needs to link job satisfaction with effort or performance (According to Maslow's and Herzberg's theories).

Process theories provide additional implications for practice.

Expectancy theory indicates that if an employee's level of motivation is inadequate, expectancy, valence, instrumentality can be used as a spur to future efforts. Goal theory suggests that to increase performance the administrators must present clear, difficult goals and make rewards contingent upon meeting them. An essential role of the administrator is to help the individual to become intrinsically motivated (28).

28. Edward L. Deci, *Intrinsic Motivation* (New York (Plenum), 1975).

Similarly, the administrator should offer his staff opportunities for achievement, constructive and diversified assignments, recognition, advancement in status, and other rewards for achievement (29).

6.4. THE JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL

The dominant job design theory during the late 1970s and early 1980s has been the job characteristics model. Primary proponents of the model have been *J. Richard Hackman* and *Greg R. Oldham* (30).

The applied approach combines and unifies Maslow's need fulfilment theory of motivation, Herzberg's concern for job redesign and intrinsic motivation, and expectancy theory into a theory of job design:

The theory specifies three psychological states that are critical to attaining desirable work outcomes.

- a. Feeling of meaningfulness
- b. Feeling of responsibility
- c. Knowledge of results

-
29. William L. Campfield, "Motivating the Professional Employee," *Personnel Journal*, (44), (1965), 425-428, 442.
 30. J. Richard Hackman and Edward E. Lawler III, "Employee Reactions to Job Characteristics", *Journal of Applied Psychology Monograph*, (55), (1971), 259-286; and
J.R. Hackman and Greg R. Oldham, "Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, (60), (1975), pp.159-170; and
J.R. Hackman and Greg R. Oldham, "Motivation Through the Design of Work: A Test of a Theory", *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, (16), (1976), 250-279 and "Work Redesign" (Reading, M.A.:Addison-Wesley, 1980).

The three psychological states are internal to individuals and therefore not directly manipulable in designing work. Instead, the five job characteristics - skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback - which are reasonably objective, measurable and changeable properties of the work, foster the psychological states and produce work motivation. As the motivating potential scores of employees increase, the outcomes (intrinsic work motivation, growth satisfaction, job satisfaction, and work effectiveness) also increase.

This also is the case for our teachers in Cyprus. Inconsistency, though, is a product of many factors, as mentioned in the relevant Chapter (See Chapter 10.5, Part II, pp.211-212).

Core job characteristics	Psychological states	Outcomes
1. Skill variety 2. Task identity 3. Task significance	Feeling of meaningfulness	Intrinsic work motivation growth Satisfaction
4. Autonomy	Feeling of responsibility	General Job satisfaction
5. Feedback	knowledge of results	work effectiveness
	moderators Knowledge and Skill Growth need strength Context satisfactions	

The Job characteristics model of J.R. Hackman and G.R. Oldman, in W.K.Hoy and C.G. Miskel, Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice, 3rd ed. (1987), p.200.

PART II

Chapter 7

EDUCATIONAL SECONDARY SCHOOL SYSTEM IN CYPRUS

The second part of this work as I have already said in the introduction , deals with administration in Cyprus secondary schools. I believe that it is very essential to begin this part with a brief description of the educational system (1).

Educational Administration in Cyprus is highly centralized. It is under the Ministry of Education which is responsible for the enforcement of educational laws and the preparation of the educational bills.

The Department of Secondary Education is administered by the: *Director of Secondary Education, the Inspector General, the Inspectors and the Headmaster of each school.*

The general administration for Secondary Education is exercised by the *Director General* of the Ministry of Education, who is also responsible for Higher Education and Elementary and Technical and Vocational Education.

The Department of Secondary School administration is under the responsibility of the *Inspector General*, of Secondary Education.

The Inspector General is assisted in the field of observing and promoting school work by the *inspectors*, who coordinate supervise and assess the work of teachers, they give pedagogical guidance and exercise control over the functioning of the schools.

1. Since 1978.

Other auxiliary services are those of *Physical Training, Counselling and Vocational Guidance, Educational Psychology, Educational Television, Foreign - Language, Institutes, etc.*

The *Headmaster* is particularly responsible for each school. Assisted by the *Assistant Headmasters* distributes duties among teachers, coordinates their work, supervises them, keeps contact with inspectors and the Inspector General and promotes the goals of Educational system. The number of the Assistant Principals of each school depends on the number of the school's pupils: one Assistant Principal per 200 pupils in the Gymnasium and one Assistant Principal per 150 pupils in the Lyceum. There are also the Coordinators Assistant Principals, one for each of the main subjects, i.e. Classics, Mathematics, Physics, English, Economics (See also Chapter 8, part II, p.152).

The *School Committees* are bodies appointed by the Government every other year, which have the authority to collect from each student a nominal registration fee of four Cyprus pounds (CP4).

The School Committees have responsibility for school construction, maintenance, extension and equipments and they exercise control over the auxiliary staff.

The *Educational Service Committee* is an autonomous body appointed directly by the President of the Republic for a period of six years and it is responsible for appointments, posting, transfers, promotions, grading of teachers and discipline of the teaching personnel and inspectors.

7.1. TYPES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS (SIX - YEAR EDUCATION)

1. Gymnasium (lower cycle).

A three-year school. A common course with general subjects - humanities.

- 2. a) Lyceum (higher cycle)
- b) Technical - Vocational school

7.1.1. The Gymnasium places emphasis on general education and humanities for pupils of 12 - 15 age. Since 1985-86 Education in the lower cycle is compulsory.

7.1.2. The Lyceum gives opportunity for optional subjects (LEM). According to recent arrangements, since September 1980, students in the first year of the Lyceum are invited to choose out of five combinations of subjects the one suited to their inclinations and future plans for professional and vocational training. The three are similar to the old sections: Classical, with emphasis on classics, Science, with emphasis on Physics and Mathematics and Commercial, with emphasis on economics. The two others are new ones. The fourth with emphasis on practical subjects, like office-running practice typing, shorthand. It offers skills for office professions, and the fifth with emphasis on foreign languages and social studies.

In Lyceum of Optional subjects (LEM), subjects are divided into three groups: The common core subjects, which are compulsory, the specialization subjects, and the supplementary subjects. Many of the options like Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, English, Ancient Greek and History, Religious Education and Modern Greek are also subjects of the common core. Music is compulsory in the first year of the Lyceum and optional in the other two.

Some subjects like German, Social Studies, Practical Technological subjects (woodwork, Metallurgy, basic Electrical Skills and Hydraulics), Dress Making and Child Care are completely new subjects.

The number of periods of the common core is kept high for the first year, 26, and for the second and third low, 22, out of a total of 35 periods per week, to avoid early specialization.

The higher cycle of education, Lyceum, became free of all charges as from the year 1985-86.

7.1.3. The Technical and Vocational Schools

Students enter technical vocational schools at the age of fifteen, after successful completion of the gymnasium.

Technical schools offer technical courses and vocational courses.

A. All *technical* courses are of a three year duration. In the technical section there are four departments, each comprising general specializations:

1. **Mechanical Engineering Department**
 - a. Mechanical Engineering Technicians
 - b. Automobile Technicians.

2. **Electrical Engineering Department**
 - a. Electrical Installation Technicians
 - b. Electronics Technicians
 - c. Computer Technicians

3. **Building Department**
 - a. Building Technicians

4. **Graphic Arts and Interior Decoration Department**
 - a. Graphic Arts and Interior Decoration Technicians.

B. All *vocational* courses are of a three year duration with the exception of Hotel and Catering and Dress Making which follow a two year course. In the final year of the vocational courses, students attend school for three days a week, and for the other three days they follow a practical training programme in industry. In the vocational section more emphasis is given on practical skills.

In the vocational section there are six departments which offer the following specializations:

1. Mechanical Engineering Department

- a. Machining - Fitting
- b. Automobile Mechanics
- c. Sheet Metalwork and Welding
- d. Plumbing and Welding

2. Electrical Engineering Department

- a. Electrical Installations
- b. Electronics
- c. Home Appliances and Refrigeration

3. Building Construction Department

- a. Building
- b. Cabinet Making
- c. Joinery and Carpentry

4. Hotel and Catering Department

- a. Waiting
- b. Cooking

5. Dress Making Department

- a. Dress Making

6. Draughtsmanship

- a. Draughting

7.2. PRINCIPLES, AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

The general aim of education in Cyprus is the development of free and democratic citizens with a fully developed personality, mentally and morally refined, healthy, active and creative, who will contribute with their work and this conscientious activity in general to the social, scientific, economic, and cultural progress of our country and to the promotion of the cooperation, mutual understanding and love among men and people for the prevalence of freedom, justice and peace.

Education in Cyprus helps the new generation:

- a. To assimilate the spiritual and other achievements as well as the fruitful elements of the past,
- b. To capitalize on all the possibilities of the present, and
- c. To proceed to new achievements in all sectors of the social activity, drawing lessons from the past.

The objectives of Education as they relate to the possibilities, interests, and social cultural and educational needs of the population are:

- a. The fulfilment of the island's social, economic, cultural and other needs.
- b. The provision of specialized education after a common general education for both vertical and horizontal movement.
- c. The preparation of young people for a profession and lifelong education.
- d. The strengthening of Cyprus as an independent state.
- e. The promotion of equal educational opportunities.
- f. The creation of democratic citizens.

7.3. CURRICULA

The curricula for secondary general and technical schools as well as for pre-primary, primary and the Pedagogical Academy are prescribed by the Ministry of Education and developed on the basis of suggestions made by teachers, inspectors and school boards.

Lycea the students are invited in addition to the subjects of the common core, which are compulsory to all students, to choose the subjects of their preference from a list of options.

Committees of secondary school teachers and inspectors also work on curriculum development in secondary education, in an effort to modernize and update the curriculum but also on account of the substantial changes introduced through the Lyceum of optional subjects.

The curriculum of secondary general education was continuously evaluated and all necessary steps were made to render it more relevant to the needs of the society and the economy of the country. A curriculum development service was established to work for that.

7.4. PROBLEMS AND DIFFICULTIES

1. The occupation of a great number of schools by the Turkish occupation troops. The displacement of 40% of the population as a result of the Turkish invasion led to an acute shortage of school buildings.
2. The intensive movement of people from rural areas to the urban ones made the problem of school buildings even more acute. So it happens that in rural areas there are large buildings but the number of pupils is small, while at the same time schools in urban areas are overcrowded.
3. A third problem is the introduction of the expensive technology in the schools, Computer Science, for instance, has been recently (1986-87) introduced in the curriculum of Lyceum (type 2, and elective subject for the other types) and this is a serious financial problem for the government, as it is for the other two reasons.

Chapter 8

SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN CYPRUS

8.1. AUTHORITIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS AND THE ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS COORDINATORS, BASED ON THE EDUCATIONAL REGULATIONS 1969-1994

The Ministry of Education is, according to the Law 12/1965, responsible for the administration of education, the enforcement of educational regulations, and in cooperation with the office of the Attorney General, the preparation of educational bills.

According to the regulations for the secondary schools (December 1990), the *Principal* is generally responsible for the normal and effective functioning of the school he/she administers. In that he/she is assisted by the *Assistant Principals*, the school teachers and other auxiliary staff. When the Principal is absent, an Assistant Principal, the one who has more years than the others in service, takes his/her place.

8.1.1. The School Principal

The principal is the representative of the school in his relations to the State, the Ministry, the School Committee, the Parents' Association, the other schools, the Church, and the other associations and authorities.

He/she is the liaison between the staff and the Ministry. He (1) cooperates with the Inspectors and the Inspector General, as well as with the Director of Secondary Education, and he promotes the goals of the Educational System.

1. I use "he" for male and female principals in order to avoid too much repetition.

He is in "everyday" contact with the Ministry of Education. He informs the authorities of the Ministry about the needs and problems of his school. Any omission or negligence by the school personnel must be reported by him to the authorities.

It is his role to act on and file any report or information sent by the Ministry of Education, and to keep in files correspondence with the Ministry. The principal cooperates with the School Committee, to seek solutions to school problems related to construction, maintenance, extension, and equipment, the school library and the auxiliary staff.

The principal of the technical schools reports the needs of their schools to the Inspector General for the Technical Schools. He is also responsible for the material and equipment of technical schools and for the stores where they are kept, and he has to make very frequent supervisory visits.

The principal is also responsible for the school building, maintenance, neatness and aesthetic appearance, the school furnishing and equipment; the books for the library, which must be listed in special books, kept in good condition.

The principal, the assistant principals, three representatives of the teachers and three representatives of the Students' Council make up the *Administrative Council*. They discuss, at least once a month, school problems and help the school principal to his task. As the end of each academic year, as soon as the registrations are completed, he makes a report about the whole number of students, the number of classes and number of teachers the school may need for each subject.

The principal has no say in the appointment of the school personnel. The Inspectors are responsible for the posting of teachers and the *Educational Service Committee* is responsible for appointments of new teachers and for transfers and promotions of school personnel.

At the end of each academic year the principal makes a report to the Ministry about what has been done the whole year in the school. This report includes also remarks or suggestions of the principal about the school work. Although the principal is responsible for everything in his school, he is not allowed to have any initiative in the school curricula, the textbooks, the school personnel - as I have already mentioned - the ways of evaluating pupils or the length of the academic year. For all of these - according to our centralized system - the decision depends only on the Ministry, which also is restrained by the laws which regulate almost everything.

At the beginning of each academic year, the principal with the help of the assistant principals, prepares the time-table. He decides with the help of the assistant principals who will be the teacher of each class in every subject. Usually he tries to satisfy the teachers' wishes as long as they do not cause any problems to the time-table.

The principal has to have meetings with the school staff once a month and on any other occasion it would be necessary. With the assistant principals he has meetings once a week and they discuss school problems and together they try to find solutions for anything the school is involved in.

The principal also has special meetings with the coordinators for each subject and they discuss together special topics and sometimes methods of teaching those topics. Thus, he ensures that the material presented by the regulations in each subject is taught and the ways it is taught.

The principal is responsible for anything related to the pupils registration or transfer from one school to another, for the pupils' exams, school celebrations or other extra curricula activities, like excursions or visits. He is responsible for students' discipline, good manners and clean and good appearance. He has by law the right of not allowing any external intervention in the school work, especially from political parties.

For matters like visiting of foreign or external personalities, organizations or services or donations to the school, matters which are not included in the educational law, a permission by the Inspector General is necessary.

The principal, furthermore, watches the students activities - athletics or intellectual ones - and he cooperates with the students committees and help them to promote their goals.

The principal participates in the *Parents' Association Committees meetings*. He/she is often in contact with the parents.

The principal in the schools of Cyprus, almost generally cooperates with the parents, welcomes them whenever they like to visit him and they discuss together many problems, especially financial ones, in order to promote school work.

The principal is also responsible for informing the parents about misbehaviour of their children. He/she cooperates also with the Christian Orthodox Church, the State, and City Authorities, the City Police on matters concerning the students' personal promotion (corporally, spiritually, morally). This cooperation between the school teachers and the social groups, contributes to the promotion of school goals.

The principal has also to invite a school doctor to speak to the pupils about health matters, to examine them, and give them advice. The school doctor makes reports about the pupils' health, and the principal has to take care to solve healthy problems of the pupils, according to the doctor's advice, and he/she is in contact with the School Medical Services.

He/she supervises in cooperation with the School Committee and the Central Students' Council any kind of food sold in the school.

He/she supervises the evaluation of the students and the keeping of records. The students' tests for each term are kept, under his/her command, until the end of the academic year. The final exams are kept until the end of the next year.

The principal is responsible for the school's newspaper or magazine.

Finally, when the Principal is transferred to some other school, or when he/she is released or he/she abandons his/her job, he/she delivers all school's records to his/her successor or to the president of the School Committee.

8.1.2. The School Assistant Principal

Apart from the principal, there is also a number of assistant principals in each school. The principal together with the assistant principals form the administrative team.

The number of assistant principals in schools depends on the number of students. In the Lycea there is one assistant principal for every 150 students and in the Gymnasia one for every 200 students.

Teachers can be promoted to the post of the assistant principal, provided they have more than 10 years in service, they are recognized as good teachers in their subject, they are good in human relations, they have organizational abilities and they are active members of the school staff. A postgraduate degree is not a prerequisite for promotion, but when there is one, it is considered to be an advantage.

Thus, years of service and excellent evaluation are the necessary qualifications which a teacher needs in order to be promoted. It is evident that the role of the inspector and the principal of the school are very important in evaluating all the above characteristics of teachers. (see also chapter 10.6, Part II, p. 222).

According to the regulations the duties of the assistant principal are the following:

The school assistant principals help the principal with the smooth and successful administration and functioning of the school.

They participate in all school activities. They are members of the Administrative Council. They are responsible for sectors of activities, posted to them by the principal; like the responsibility of the progress, behaviour and welfare of the students, the absence of students and teachers, the cleanliness of the school, the supervision of the clerk staff, the superintendence of students by teachers during the breaks, the distribution of the textbooks to the students, the preparation of the time-table, the discipline of the students.

They supervise the registration of the students, their final examination and resettlings. They are also responsible for placing pupils in classes. They have continuous contact with the parents with the aim of developing a cooperative atmosphere between the school and the students' family. They inform the parents about problems of their children concerning their progress, the attendance at school or misbehaviour, always in cooperation with the principal.

At the end of each term they suggest characterization of students behaviour in the Council of teachers, according to their reports, helped to that by the teachers who are responsible for each class.

They teach lessons of their specific area and they cooperate with teachers of the same subject in order to help the planning of the lessons, or the modification of the planning, when there is need for that, and the teaching of the prescribed material.

They must be informed about school correspondence and they are responsible for the implementation of the Ministry's instructions.

They are members of the Disciplinary Council.

They are also chairmen of committees such as:

The Excursions Committee

The "Free Activities Day" Committee

The Students' Welfare Committee

The Sports Committee

The Red Cross Committee

The Printing Committee

The Financial Committee

The Committee which organizes cultural events.

One of the assistant principals is responsible in each school for the Students Council. He cooperates with the representatives of the students about problems arising and helps them to anticipate them or report the problems to the principal or the Teachers' Council and tries to find solutions to them.

The assistant principals are always at the disposal of the principal to help him to anticipate any problem of the school.

At the end of each academic year they help the principal with information they give him to make his report to the Ministry.

As it is obvious, the assistant principals have very complicated work to perform, because they have to deal with the problems of students, of students and teachers, of teachers themselves and of teachers and parents sometimes. They have great responsibility about all affairs in the school and the smooth function of the school depends on their effectiveness.

Their ability and knowledge, especially in the fields of educational psychology and human relations must be on a high level, because they have to get involved in issues like discipline, lack of interest on the part of students, clashes between students and teachers, etc. Their personality and knowledge play a very important role in confronting such problems.

Their assistance in solving behavioural problems of the students and their cooperation with the parents are some usual jobs of the assistant principals. The assistant principals are also the main responsible for referring students to the Counselling and Guidance Services.

As it has already been mentioned, the assistant principals are chairmen of various committees. Their role in the efficiency of each committee is very crucial, especially if they manage to be accepted as the real leaders of the group; friendly relations, cooperative spirit and democratic practices contribute a lot to the attainment of the goal of the committee.

Of course, when there are teachers in a group with negative attitudes, it is possible that the work of the committee may not succeed and the efforts of the assistant principal will be in vain.

The assistant principal therefore, has to face many problems in the committees due to the differences of the people involved, their attitudes, and the acceptance of the goals of the established committee. Apart from these, the personal characteristics of the assistant principal shape to a great extent the situation, the climate, and the morale of the people involved; extremely vigorous or unnecessarily friendly approaches do not result in desired effects.

Working with parents is not easy; a delicate handling of the issues is needed, especially for serious cases; the parent should be satisfied that the solution given to a problem of his child is the most suitable under the circumstances, and that neither the school nor the parent but the child should be the winner in an argument.

In Cyprus where most of the people know each other the situation becomes sometimes extremely difficult; apart from that parents in Cyprus are generally overprotective and, thus, things are getting more difficult. The assistant principal has a difficult role to play, because he (2) is the middle man between the principal and the teachers between teachers and students, between parents and teachers. He has to be always prepared to offer his services wherever they are needed. Since he has so many things to do good planning is needed in order to overcome the difficulties of his job.

In 1991 I conducted a small scale research in four schools of Limassol, two Gymnasia and two Lycea. I administered a questionnaire to 250 teachers in order to examine their opinions about the model of an effective assistant principal.

2. I use "he" for male and female assistant principals.

A Model for the Assistant Principal

RANK FORM: 1 - 5

1: not important
5: very important

How important is it for the assistant principal to:

1.	possess general principles of philosophy, psychology, sociology.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	know how to cope with learning problems of the students	1	2	3	4	5
3.	know how to cope with behavioural problems of the students	1	2	3	4	5
4.	know his subject of teaching	1	2	3	4	5
5.	be informed about the students' problems	1	2	3	4	5
6.	be continuously informed about the development of his subject	1	2	3	4	5
7.	be a resource person in didactic issues	1	2	3	4	5
8.	possess postgraduate qualifications	1	2	3	4	5
9.	know the School Regulations	1	2	3	4	5
10	know technic and methods of planning	1	2	3	4	5
11	look after the teaching material	1	2	3	4	5
12	cooperate smoothly with the teachers of his/her speciality	1	2	3	4	5
13	use time productively	1	2	3	4	5
14	consult with teachers in teaching issues	1	2	3	4	5
15	interfere and help in the solution of behavioural problems which teachers face in class	1	2	3	4	5
16	help teachers without intervening in their work	1	2	3	4	5

How important is the Assistant Principal to:

17	contribute to the solution of learning problems	1	2	3	4	5
18	be innovative	1	2	3	4	5
19	encourage teachers to test new ideas/methods	1	2	3	4	5
20	create climate of cooperation among teachers	1	2	3	4	5
21	bridge differences between teachers	1	2	3	4	5
22	support psychologically the teachers	1	2	3	4	5
23	act in a way that the teachers reach to a consensus	1	2	3	4	5
24	be patient and polite even to teachers who react negatively	1	2	3	4	5
25	use persuasion and not force	1	2	3	4	5
26	let teachers work at ease	1	2	3	4	5
27	check the keeping of discipline	1	2	3	4	5
28	be vigorous in discipline issues of the students	1	2	3	4	5
29	act impartially	1	2	3	4	5
30	be polite with the students	1	2	3	4	5
31	forgive easily	1	2	3	4	5
32	be extremely responsible	1	2	3	4	5
33	express openly and support his personal opinion	1	2	3	4	5
34	be involved in the preparation of the report for the evaluation of the teachers	1	2	3	4	5

How important is the Assistant Principal to:

35	take part in educational seminars	1	2	3	4	5
36	give lectures in educational seminars	1	2	3	4	5
37	help the various scientific bodies to organize their own exams	1	2	3	4	5
38	promote spreading of educational editions. (books, magazines etc.)	1	2	3	4	5

Please underline what you mostly agree with.

The Assistant Principal must be:

39. young - middle aged - Age is not important
(plays no difference)

40. male - female - sex is not important
(plays no difference)

41. conservative dressed - dressed in a modern way - clothing style is not important
(plays no difference)

42. single - married - family life is not important
(plays no difference)

43. father/mother - with no children - children are not important
(plays no difference)

Skills needed for the Assistant Principal in priority order

(According to the results of the small scale research)

1. - To cooperate smoothly with the teachers of his/her speciality.
- To act impartially.
2. - To know how to cope with behavioural problems of the students.
- To be informed about the students' problems.
- To know the school regulations.
- To use time productively.
- To be extremely responsible.
- To express open and support his personal opinion.
3. - To know his subject of teaching.
- To help teachers without intervening in their work.
- To create climate of cooperation among teachers.
- To be polite with the students.
4. - To know how to cope with learning problems of the students.
- To be continuously informed about the students' problems.
- To know technic and methods of planning.
- To consult with teachers in teaching issues.
- To bridge differences between teachers.
- To support psychologically the teachers.
- To be patient and polite even to teachers who react negatively.
- To use persuasion and not force.
- To let teachers work at ease.
- To check the keeping of discipline.
5. - To look after the teaching material.
- To act in a way that the teachers reach to a consensus.

6.
 - To be a resource person in didactic issues.
 - To be innovative.
 - To encourage teachers to test new ideas/methods.
 - To be vigorous in discipline issues of the students.
 - To take part in educational seminars.

7.
 - To possess general principles of Philosophy, Psychology, Sociology.
 - To interfere and help in the solution of behavioural problems which teachers face in class.
 - To contribute to the solution of learning problems.
 - To forgive easily.

8.
 - To give lectures in educational seminars.
 - To help the various scientific bodies to organize their own exams.
 - To promote spreading of educational editions (books, magazines etc).

9.
 - To possess postgraduate qualifications.

10.
 - To be involved in the preparation of the report for the evaluation of the teachers.

What is particularly interesting about the results of the questionnaire is the view of teachers of what is considered less important. Academic ability, theoretical knowledge was valued much less than personal qualities, practical knowledge and skills. The fact that the possession of postgraduate qualifications has been ranked 9th in priority order is an evidence of the unimportance which teachers attribute to postgraduate studies and may be the ignorance they have about them.

Since 1988 a new institution has been introduced in the Secondary Education in Cyprus. This is the institution of the *coordinator assistant principal* in some Gymnasias and Lyceas.

The coordinator assistant principal coordinates the teachers of his speciality. In the Lycea there are coordinator assistant principals for the subjects of Language (Classics), Mathematics, Physics, Economics and English; in the Gymnasia there are coordinator assistant principals for the subjects of Language (Classics), Mathematics and Physics for the time being. Assistant principals and coordinator assistant principals are interchangeable.

8.1.3. The Coordinator Assistant Principal

The organization and administration of a school is a series of procedures designed in an attempt to form common objectives as well as the necessary means to attain these objectives.

One of the measures which was recently introduced is the institution of the *Coordinator Assistant Principal (C.A.P.)*. With the increase in the number of teachers in the schools it was evident that the principal was not able all by himself to coordinate and guide teachers of different specialities. He was neither able to work with each one individually. Thus, an important part of his role, that of the instructional leader, could not be achieved (attained), due to the fact that he had too many and diverse administrative duties.

The cooperation among teachers was not exercised systematically and in reality it rested on the enthusiasm and the willingness of the teachers. Having in mind - apart from the many duties - the individualism which usually characterizes teachers, one could not expect proper cooperation and coordination among them. Thus, teachers performed their duties relying on their knowledge alone, without new incentives and objectives. Sometimes there were teachers, especially in large schools, who were isolated and even disappointed believing that they could do nothing for achieving the goals of the school, because communication among teachers of the same subject was not successful or nonexistent.

It was, therefore, accepted by Ministry officials that the situation could be confronted by the systematic work of smaller groups under the guidance of a coordinator. This task was appointed to assistant principals, who had many years in service, seemed to be accepted by other teachers as efficient in their subject and as leaders in a group.

Such duties were taken by assistant principals in large schools -in all Lycea and a number of gymnasia - where there were many teachers of the same speciality. The institution began in the school year 1987-88 and it was introduced gradually in the Lycea. From the year 1992-93 it was introduced in large Gymnasia as well. The target is to introduce the institution in all secondary schools of the island.

The C.A.P. organized the group from the beginning of the school year by trying to establish channels of communication among all and by setting targets which are accepted by all. When personal targets become group targets, the work becomes more productive and pleasant. The satisfaction of the person originates from the success of the group. In this respect this smaller group offers:

- a. Chances for promotion of all the members of the group.
- b. Satisfaction to the members, because their work has better results.
- c. Feelings of belonging and an increase in consciousness.

In a small group personal involvement has a greater importance for each one, because one feels that the result depends to a great extent on themselves. As far as the personal gains are concerned the teacher feels secure, and is more prompt for innovations, cooperation and flexibility.

The C.A.P. plays an important role in the whole organizational and administrative task and promotes in a variety of ways the objectives of the school. The authority of the C.A.P. is not yet completely formal and his role is more developmental than remedial. His duties are, according to the guidelines of the Ministry of Education and Culture, the following:

1. They are the liaison between the school (the teachers of his/her subject) and the supervisor/inspector.
They are the counsellors for the principal on matters of their special subject. They are the counsellors for the principal in the placement of teachers to the different forms.

2. They determine the general and special goals of their subject and coordinate the teachers on matters of their subject.

They have to bring together the teachers of their special subject by means of conferences at which unity of direction and focusing of effort are provided for.

3. They must give detailed instructions as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed and the material and appliances to be used.

They are the organizers and the promoters of their group. They have to supply the teachers of their group with the necessary books, materials and appliances.

4. They have to direct the teachers of their group in making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions, and in serving as the leaders of the group.

They must find in collaboration with the group the best methods of work and must enforce the use of these methods on the part of the teachers of their group.

Among other things they organize: exchange of visits in classrooms and watching of model - lessons of the C.A.P. or of other teachers; exchange of teaching material, common planning of lessons, coordination in the introduction of innovations or new teaching approaches.

5. With the help of the teachers of their special subject, the coordinators determine a common policy on matters like: a) homework of pupils, b) ways of study, c) evaluation of the pupils, d) individualized and group work etc.

They also coordinate and organize common tests, as well as common investigation of the weaknesses and special problems of pupils and common effort for curing them.

6. They have to study, to think, to play, to advise, to guide and to lead the group members. Especially they give advice and attention to those of the teaching staff who are not experienced enough.

Their task is also the involvement in research and the undertaking of projects.

In general, they activate the teachers and promote their morale.

According to P. Persianis some of the problems which C.A.P. face are (3):

- a. Cypriot teachers do not cooperate easily, or at least, they are not used to it.
- b. They do not admit their deficiencies or mistakes. They are afraid to confess their mistakes or ignorance in a matter, because they feel that others will underestimate them. Young teachers are sometimes accused by old ones of impotence.
- c. In-service training of teachers is not considered by a great number of teachers to be necessary, as it was expressed in a small-scale research about the qualifications of a group assistant principal.

The institution of the C.A.P. won an innovation in our system, and in order for it to be established special care had to be taken.

Thus, it was decided that regular meetings and revision of the work among the C.A.P. of each district as well as among the C.A.Ps, the inspectors and the Director of Secondary Education should take place.

-
3. P. Persianis, "The Role of the Coordinator Assistant Principal in the Development of the Personnel," in the **Bulletin of the Assistant Principals' Association** (1994), pp.34-35.

The C.A.P. themselves asked for a special programme of in-service training and such a programme is now taking place every year with new participants; the target is to offer this training to all assistant principals, because all of them are going, sooner or later, to serve as C.A.P. The programme is offered by the Pedagogical Institute and it was based on the expressed by the C.A.Ps needs.

In 1989 it was considered necessary to investigate the institution of the C.A.P. and its usefulness. The Pedagogical Institute undertook the task and the results of the investigation were satisfactory (4).

4. K. Papanastasiou, **Unpublished Research of the Pedagogical Institute (1990)**.

Chapter 9

LEADERSHIP AS EXERCISED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CYPRUS

The work of the Cypriot principal is not an easy task. The pressure of schools due to the number of pupils and the variety of problems lead to the use of more organizational procedures. Today most of the principals accept that authority does not derive from circular and guidelines by the Ministry or themselves but from the way decisions are taken (1). Authority and role go together. Each individual who has role, has also his own personality, and the way he acts his role is a mixture of his aspirations (expectations) from the role and his ego. In this way each individual is determined by the particular style of his personality (2). (See also: Nomothetic or Normative and Personal or Idiographic dimensions of the School as a social system, Chapter 1, Part I, pp.14-20).

Thus, while what is expected from someone to do is predetermined - in the case of the principal by the laws and regulations concerning the functioning of the schools - the way one plays his role is different, due to the variety of personalities. Since institutions are determined to a great extent from the posts, the roles, and the expectations from them, individuals can determine them with their personality (3).

Role is the dynamic side of a post. The bearer of any role is expected to act in particular procedures and play in determined ways as far as his relations with people who work with him (in this case of the school principal, the teachers, the pupils, the parents, and others).

-
1. Andreas K. Phylactou, from the Minutes of the **Conference of the Secondary Schools Principals** (Nicosia - Cyprus 1991), pp. 43 - 44.
 2. Phylactou, *ibid*, p. 46.
 3. J.W.Getsels, "Administration as a Social Process" in A.W.Halpin, **Administrative Theory in Education** (Macmillan, London, 1958), pp. 150 - 165.

This aspect of principal's role was expressed also by two Directors of Secondary Education in two pancyprian educational conferences (4,5).

The two Directors stressed that:

1. The principal of a school does not only follow the regulations of the Ministry but at the same time he takes an initiative with respect to the relations of the school with the Parent's Association, the School Board and others. His position and duties give the principal the most important role in the organization and administration of the school, since he is the representative of the Ministry and responsible for the enactment of its policy. At the same time his personality guides his way of dealing with things and, thus, some differences in schools can be noted. These differences are in most of the cases in the "climate" of the school.

2. Laws and regulations determine the general aims and objectives of education. The principal in his effort to satisfy these aims and objectives, cooperates with the staff of his school and sets the school's process towards these aims and objectives. The Ministry provides for the general frame and the school for the practical procedure. This general frame is broad enough and, thus, the principal is not simply the man who ensures the enactment of the regulations but the man who has to develop mechanisms, chances, ways, and procedures which suit the particular school, and its environment. It is in these acts and plans that an amount of difference is noted in our schools.

-
4. Minutes of the **Conference of the Secondary School Principals** (Nicosia - Cyprus, 1976), pp. 39-46.

 5. Minutes of the **Conference of the Secondary School Principals** (Nicosia - Cyprus, 1991), pp. 41 - 48, 64 - 70.

3. More precisely the organization of the school life, the use of personnel, the provision of the most suitable educational aids, the assignment of classes to teachers and other similar issues rest with the responsibility of the principal. One can add to these issues of morale and motivation, communication and decision making procedures which characterize the way of working of each one of the principals.
4. The teachers' unions are involved in the formation of educational policy in almost all issues. Many regulations were the result of common decisions after long discussions. Apart from that the Director of Secondary Education meets with the principals regularly and discuss with them everyday problems and suggestions for particular or general processes. In these meetings solutions are reached with the involvement of all participants.
5. As far as research and experiments are concerned, the Ministry officials help and provide for any kind of assistance to schools which decide to proceed in such work.
6. There are many factors which determine the enactment of laws and regulations. The educational theories, that the principal is prescribed to, and the local conditions are important determinants. The administration of a school depends on the personality of the principal, of the teachers, of the pupils, the socioeconomic background of the pupils as well as the school building itself.

The principal has really a very important role to play. The whole atmosphere and the ethos of the school depend on the organization and the administration. The principal has, thus, many difficulties. The school is no more the only source of education in our society. Young people not only get so many messages from all kinds of mass media, but they also have many up-to-date technological aids. Society itself has changed and the influence is of particular importance.

7. Although the role of the family is still significant, it cannot determine the way of upbringing children as before. Many of the traditional values are questioned in Cyprus, especially after the Turkish Invasion of 1974 and the occupation of almost the half of our island.

The Turkish Invasion in Cyprus of 1974 inflicted a major blow on the whole system of Education of the island. Out of 49 public secondary schools which functioned in 1974, nineteen (38%) are in the occupied area and three (6%) are in the "buffer zone", fifteen thousand (44%) out of thirty-six thousand secondary school students and seven hundred and twenty (40%) out of one thousand seven hundred secondary school teachers became refugees.

From a total of eight Technical Schools two (25%) are in the occupied area and one in the "buffer zone". Three thousand Technical school students (30%) out of ten thousand became refugees (6).

In such circumstances the principal is called to develop the aims of education in which the target of helping youngsters to be cultured, educated, democratic citizens, with faith to justice, liberty and equality of mankind has an important place.

What the Directors of Secondary Education disclosed, however, is what can be done in our schools with the existing system. It seems that what really happens is rather different.

Interviews with ten principals (see p.165) showed that:

1. What principals in our schools do is not inconsistent with any one single of the administrative theories which I have described. (It is important to say here that we have now in our school of secondary education 90 principals. Forty-four principals have postgraduate studies, but only 5 have postgraduate studies in administration).

6. Andreas Pavlides, "Education" **Megali Kypriaki Encyclopedia** (1986), V, p. 33.

2. All of them try to satisfy the guidelines, the provisions of the regulations (which are set by the House of Representatives) and which are in great detail.
3. The system is centralized. Thus, the principal cannot innovate in organizational issues. He is not involved in the regulations about subject matter, curriculum and books, examinations, promotion of pupils, appointment of teachers or other employees of the school. The system itself does not provide a lot of space for personal involvement.
4. The basic difference which is shown by the principals is the degree of faith in the regulations concerning the functioning of schools as they comprehend them. It is rather a matter of understanding the meaning of the regulations.

There are certainly some possibilities, like for example suggesting to the Ministry, using the personnel, cooperating with the personnel, helping the personnel, organizing all the staff, which is appointed, though, by the Ministry. The principal can only suggest to the Ministry about the appointment of the personnel. A Ministry official deals with this issue having all the necessary information about the years of service, the speciality and the related rules.

So, the role of the principal in appointments is insignificant. Bearing in mind all the above, one can say that principals differ only in matters of human relations and behaviour. In these matters there is the possibility of significant differences. Principals try to satisfy the rules instead of suggesting innovations - since they have some chances to do so. Even in the case of some suggestions, these are not so important to change the system. They actually do not deal with important issues of the system but with the enactment of the rules. They ask the Ministry for explanations about the rules. The outcome of the interviews with the Principals is characteristic of the above.

So we can say that there are not major differences among the principals due to the centralized system. The existing differences are confined in the way they confront the various situations in the school. The centralized system and the rules do not allow the principal to act as in other countries with different systems. In the case of motivation this is very obvious. Teachers know the rules and they understand that the principal cannot influence their promotion. The degree of his involvement depends on his relations with the inspectors. At the end of each academic year the principal makes reports for all teachers and submits them to the inspectorate. The inspectors take into account these reports and make their own which are vital for the teachers' career.

There is no authority on the part of the principal, since he has nothing to do with appointments and promotions.

My hypothesis is that:

1. Due to the existing system there are limited possibilities for a principal to develop freely his personality and approach along with a model of Administration from the known theories (See Chapter 3, Part I).
2. There are possibilities of developing human relations, which in turn influence the development a) of morale among the personnel of the school, and b) of ethos among the personnel and the whole school.

Limitations to the second hypothesis are:

- a. The principal spends a lot of time in routine matters - mostly bureaucratic - and he has not enough time for substantial matters for which he asks the assistant principals to do.
- b. The Principal avoids taking responsibilities and does not show the necessary appreciation to the hard-working members of the staff and dissatisfaction to the other. Thus, morale is not developed as much as it could.

9.1. THE INTERVIEWS WITH THE PRINCIPALS

9.1.1. Introduction

I met ten principals from different parts of Cyprus during the school year 1992-93, in order to get their views and opinions in a number of issues. Thus, I asked them to give me their opinions in issues like the centralized system, leadership, the decision-making process, communication and motivation. I tried to meet principals from urban, rural and semi-rural schools. I met the principals of the following schools:

- A. Urban: - Akropolis Gymnasium, Nicosia
 - Ayios Dometios Gymnasium, Nicosia
 - Anthoupolis Gymnasium, Nicosia
 - Strovolos Lyceum, Nicosia
 - Thekleion Gymnasium, Limassol
 - Drosia Gymnasium, Larnaka

- B. Rural: - Aradippou Gymnasium, district of Larnaka
 - Panayia Gymnasium, district of Paphos
 - Kato Pyrgos Gymnasium, district of Paphos

- C. Semi-Rural: - Episkopi Gymnasium, district of Limassol

The procedure I used was the following: I communicated with the principal whom I planned to meet, explained my intentions and arranged the time and place of the interview. I had to travel twice to Nicosia, once to Larnaka and once to Paphos in order to meet the principals of these areas. It was of course easier in Limassol, since I live there.

I tried to create a friendly and informal climate, in which it was easier to use the questions which I had prepared beforehand for the interviews.

9.1.2. The Interviews

It is interesting to note that no matter where they are working, the principals have almost common responses to issues of administration; reasons for that are the system itself and its influence on them, the experiences which they share and the detailed regulations, through which schools are administered. The response of the principal for each item will be stated below, after the item.

1. **Do you believe that the leader is born or made?**

All the principals agreed that some of the personality characteristics are very helpful for the job, such as: the way one behaves to other people, accepts and respect other people's opinions; one's attitude towards cooperation and hard work; the belief that other people can learn and change towards set goals; one's ability to put clear goals and help one's efforts to succeed in them; the ability to motivate a number of people and form them into a united team.

The principals added that due to the fact that all principals work in different schools as teachers, assistant principals and principals, acquire experiences which contribute to the formation of their attitudes and of their ways of dealing with other people.

Two of the principals, however, working in rural schools responded that leaders are born and they just show their characteristics when they are appointed as principals; characteristics like intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, judgement and originality. One of them stressed also the importance of appearance.

2. How important are the particular circumstances of the school, ie., how much do they influence the effectiveness of the principal?

All agreed that the particular circumstances do influence the work of the principal. They referred to the following areas:

- a. The community and how it values the work of the school; the degree of cooperation with the school and the way the community comprehends it.
- b. The size of the school; it influences good organization and successful cooperation with all.
- c. The synthesis of the staff; if they are experienced teachers or not, self-motivated for their work and group oriented.
- d. The personality of the assistant principals and of the clerks; if they have positive attitudes towards people and their job.
- e. The building itself; it influences the functioning of the school, since it can help or prevent school activities, communication etc.

3. Task oriented or social oriented?

In this issue one rural school principal and one urban school principal agreed that the most important task is to promote good relations among people. They believed that good relations can help and facilitate the work of the school. One rural and two urban school principals believe that the main task of the principal is to promote learning and success to the goals which are set, ie. to help pupils reach the level of learning which is necessary for their grade. The others, one rural, one semi-rural and three urban school principals believe that both orientations are equally important, because the one facilitates the other and they cannot be separated from each other.

4. Behaviour towards the assistant principals and the teachers (the same or different?)

All stated that they behave differently towards the assistant principals and the teachers. They explained their attitude by mentioning the necessity of hierarchy. They stressed that they are gentle to all people, but they have to take into account the opinion of the assistant principals more than the others' opinion, since they have more responsibilities in the administration of the school and they are more experienced in school problems, whereas particular teachers are experienced in their subject and class work.

Assistant principals, they added, cooperate with parents, teachers, pupils, and have to know the general problems of the school and, thus, they form opinions concerning the functioning of the school.

5. Conflicts in school

In the rural schools due to the small number of pupils and teachers there are no major conflicts, and when they appear the principal solves them personally and without difficulties. In the case of one rural school, which did not have assistant principals, the principal dealt with the pupils' problems as well.

In the urban schools conflicts between teachers are dealt with either by the assistant principals, if the problem is among teachers of their speciality, or by the principal himself, when the problem is among teachers of different specialities; the same happens when the problem is serious.

Conflicts between pupils are dealt with by assistant principals. There are, though, cases in large urban schools where a conflict is not known by the principal, unless someone mentions it to him. Sometimes when parents refer to a case to the principal, he is dealing with it personally.

All principals stressed that they do not want conflicts to be obstacles in the work of the school and so their effort is to solve them in a way that all can be satisfied. In cases of aggressive persons they are trying to minimize the problem as much as possible.

One urban school principal stated that when assistant principals are "not capable", he himself deals with all conflicts.

6. Delegation of duties

The delegation of duties is made according to the existing regulations. This was the answer of all principals, something which stress the influence of the centralized system. Another practice which is exercised in all schools is that the more experienced the teacher is, the more advantages he has, i.e., he "chooses" first the classes he wants to teach and he is the coordinator of the subject - teachers in the case when there is no assistant principal of this speciality.

In the case of the formation of the committees, all teachers are asked to enrol in the committees they want to serve. In the case that some committees are with less than the necessary number, the principal intervenes and forms them.

7. How the committees work

Eight of the principals check whatever work the committees are doing and want accounting for each step. The system itself, they stated, makes them feel responsible for everything, and thus, they want to be involved in the committees. Sometimes the members of the committees themselves ask for the principal's help, especially when they have to cooperate with people of the community, or deal with money or need materials for a certain activity.

Two of the urban school principals stated that they do not intervene in the work of the committees and let the assistant principals work with them. They cooperate only with the assistant principals.

8. Acceptance of new ideas of administration

All principals said that they follow the practices which the Ministry of Education wants them to do. Apart from that each year there is a special seminar for the new principals in which inspectors of the Ministry lecture about the duties of the principal; they think that this seminar is very helpful, although it needs to be longer.

All principals - except four - are satisfied with other seminars which periodically are organized by the Paedagogical Institute for administrative and organisational issues. Four urban school principals mentioned the usefulness of trying new ideas, not necessarily included in the regulations.

9. The centralized system

The regulations for the functioning of secondary schools are approved by the House of the Representatives and this results, according to the principals, to a uniformity in dealing with the school administration. The regulations are also considered to be very detailed and, thus, there are not opportunities for innovations. Books and teaching material, amount of the subject matter which must be taught, number of excursions and days for free activities, celebrations are all included in the regulations; appointment of assistant principal and teachers, money allowances and number of clerical staff are not in the duties of the principal and, thus, they said, they find every year a situation ready and they have to deal with this situation according to the regulations.

Three of the urban school principals argued, though, that since apart from the aims for the school year which are set by the Ministry, schools have their own internal aims/objectives, there are opportunities for a school to present its own "personality" and to be, to a certain degree, differentiated from the others.

On the whole the principals agreed that the differentiation between the schools depends basically on the socioeconomic background of the pupils which influences their behaviour and learning standards.

10. Contribution to the system.

All the principals, except three, two rural and one urban school principals, believe that the only ways they have to contribute to the system are: a) the meetings of the principals in each district every month, and b) their meetings with the Director of Secondary Education. In the first they exchange views with the Director and make suggestions. Some of their suggestions are accepted and sent in the form of circular to all schools.

The main argument of the principals is that they know better the everyday problems of schools and this makes the Director agree with number of their suggestions.

The three principals who have different opinions believe that although they make suggestions, the decision rests with the Director who has the right to accept them or not. Thus, they do not believe that they actually contribute to the system.

11. The functioning of the school

The principals stated that they usually check the way the school functions through the following channels:

- a. By cooperating with the assistant principals who are responsible for certain activities. The principals discuss with the assistant principals all the matters during the year and so they have an overall picture of the functioning of the school.
- b. By cooperating with the teachers' committees. This enables the principal to know how things are proceeding and to help teachers if necessary.
- c. By the records of the clerical staff in which the principal can have an overall picture of the pupils grades.

The principals said also that something which enables them to check the functioning of the school and the attainment of its goals is the behaviour shown by the pupils in the assemblies and their general mode of discipline. They stressed that this way is easier than the others, because it is more obvious and no one is needed to describe it to them.

On this last point- description by others - four urban school principals argued that since they have to hear from others about the functioning of the school, it is not easy to have always a clear and sincere picture; after all, the assistant principals and the teachers have to describe and explain things for which they are responsible.

12. Decision - making process

According to the regulations there are five bodies which take the decisions: The principal, the assistant principals with the principal, the teaching staff, the Administrative Council and the Students' Council. Also, according to the regulations, the teaching staff is the most powerful decision - making body. In practice, however, things are not always so, except in the promotion of pupils from one grade to the other, and in the characterization of their behaviour. This was the principals general opinion.

As far as the everyday problems which need a decision, procedures are different in schools. Thus, in one rural school where there are no assistant principals, the principal decides about everything, except for serious matters where he asks the teaching staff to be involved. - In three urban schools and one semi-rural decisions are taken by the principal or the principal and the assistant principals after they are informed by the principal, and then they call the teaching staff, if they think it is necessary. In one urban school the principal decides whether he is going to inform the assistant principals, the teaching staff, the Students' Council about an issue, and reach all together a common decision or whether he is going to decide by himself alone. In two rural schools decisions are taken by the principal and the assistant principals and then they ask the teaching staff to get involved when a problem concerns the whole school. -In one urban school the principal stated that when a problem arise, he tries to conceive the assistant principals and then the teaching staff about the decision he alone has taken.

- In a rural school the principal takes his own decisions and then he asks the assistant principals and the staff in a meeting to approve for his decision.

The Administrative Council is not actually enacted by the principals, except for routine matters. As for the Students' Council, the principal or the assistant principal who is responsible for its actions, inform it what is needed to be done.

13. Decision - making and morale of the staff

Seven principals - three urban, one semi-rural and three rural schools - believe that the involvement of the staff develops its morale, because the participation in decision - making makes them feel co-responsible and, thus, more willing to contribute to the school objectives. They also believe that even when teachers have only a few years in service, by participating in the decision -making process they get valuable experiences.

Three urban school principals do not combine decision-making and morale. They believe that decision-making is their own responsibility and their own accountability to the Ministry and they do not want to take the risk of non correct decisions.

Apart from that they argue that they know better the regulations and have the necessary experience to confront all difficulties. They stated that they follow the regulations, which provide for the involvement of the staff, either by informing or getting the approval of it. They also stressed the fact that they take into account the opinions of the staff, but they themselves are taking the decisions.

14. Communication

All principals stated that the regulations provide for communication. They communicate, therefore, with the assistant principals at least once a week in formal meetings or when a problem arise. Communication with the staff exists in the formal meetings or with messages written or oral. Assistant principals are the channel through which communication is going upwards from teachers and pupils. The parents are informed either in formal meetings or when they visit the school and ask for or give information about their children. Information about their children is also given by reports or by letters, when it is necessary, e.g. when there are problems of behaviour/conduct.

They also said that informal communication exists with the assistant principals and the teachers in the common room, when they do not have classes. With the pupils also, usually during the breaks, there is informal communication.

The principals stressed the fact that sometimes informal communication is more valuable than formal, because people speak with less or no reservations, whereas in a formal meeting some dominant personalities lead on the discussion and inexperienced teachers hesitate to put their own arguments. This, they stated, helps communication from the teachers and pupils towards them. They also said that their offices are most of the time open to anyone who wants to speak with them about school or personal problems.

Three of the principals - urban schools - argued that they rely especially on formal communication, either because they spend most of their time in their office or because they do not think that this kind of communication is reliable.

15. Motivation of teachers

All the principals agreed that good relationships among the staff promote motivation. This is supported by the just behaviour of the principal to all the members of the staff and the balanced delegation of duties. They also stated that recognition of the work of the teachers is necessary for motivating them as well as recognition of special capacities of them, and respect of their personalities and needs.

Three principals - one from rural school and two from urban schools - stressed the necessity of providing the teachers with the necessary material, good conditions of work, help for using new technology, assistance in their teaching problems (methods etc), as an important means for motivation.

The other seven principals stressed developing of responsibility, involvement, recognition of experience, and the feeling of satisfaction, from their work as an important means for motivation.

All argued that promotion, good reports and transfer of teachers, which play an important role in motivation are mainly the responsibility of the Ministry through the work of its inspectors, and not theirs. Their only involvement in this procedure is to give good reports to the inspectors, something which is not always decisive.

9.1.3. Results

All the principals stressed the importance of responsibility, accountability to the Ministry of Education, their experience, and their capability in dealing with everyday school problems, since they are the people who "know better" or "know how" to deal with things.

They believe that there are some school characteristics which are important for their work: community, size of school, synthesis of the staff, personalities of assistant principals and the building itself have also an important role.

Good relations among all the members of the personnel, as well as belief in the importance of the school work are necessary for the good work of a school. The principals behave differently towards the assistant principals and the teachers, because the first have more responsibilities and are higher in the hierarchy. When there are conflicts between teachers, assistant principals and teachers, teachers and pupils, the principal is involved in many cases.

The delegation of duties is determined basically by the regulations. There are always differentiations due to long experience of some teachers. The principal gets involved in many ways in the work of the committees, although the assistant principals are responsible for them.

The in-service training which is organized by the Ministry for new as well as experienced principals seems helpful but not enough for most of the principals.

There are major differences among schools, and when there are this is because of the socioeconomic background of pupils and the aspiration of their parents.

Their contribution to the system, as far as participation in decision - making is concerned, is very little and not institutionalised. As for the way the principals check the way their school functions, this is done through the formal channels. At the same time informal channels give considerable help.

The role of the principals in decision-making is obviously the most important, although according to the regulations the highest body of authority is the teaching staff. They rely neither on the Administrative Council nor on the Students' Council. At the same time most of the principals believe in the relation of involvement and morale.

Communication is exercised through many channels especially formally, but informal communication is not excluded, especially in small rural schools.

Good human relations and provision of the necessary conditions can contribute to motivation. However, the Ministry has basically the means to improve it.

It has been evident from the interviews that the principals were able to discuss each question in some depth drawing an experience, but did not refer to theories in the field.

Chapter 10

DIMENSIONS OF ADMINISTRATION IN SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN CYPRUS

10.1. ADMINISTRATIVE PECULIARITIES IN CYPRUS

As already mentioned in previous Chapters the educational system of Cyprus is centralized. Everything is organized according to the regulations. Hearing that, one may think that schools all work in the same way.

On the contrary, in spite of the existence of the regulations, many differences exist in the way principals behave.

There are many common ways between them in the functioning of the schools they administer due to the regulations, but there exist also a number of differences due to some personal characteristics of the principals and other schools' internal and external determinants.

During the last two or three decades many teachers had postgraduate studies abroad and, thus, teachers have broader ideas and knowledge about educational matters and administrative issues.

There are principals with postgraduate studies and others who were considered to be good teachers and were promoted to principals. We have now in our schools of secondary education 90 principals. Forty four (44) of them have postgraduate studies, but only 5 principals have postgraduate studies in administration. It is important to say here that postgraduate studies are not a prerequisite for promotion.

We have many teachers, assistant principals and principals who are very good in their special subject, but they have no background in theories of administration.

Although the Ministry of Education in collaboration with the Pedagogical Institute organizes every year since 1988-89 a course for assistant principal coordinators and, thus, the latter have the opportunity to hear many things about administrative theories, we can say that in this area there is still a lot to be done.

Nevertheless, principals in secondary schools of Cyprus are very sufficient, not because they practice according to the theories of administration they acquire, but because they like their work and the pupils and they have in their majority strong willingness to help them in their problems.

A great deal of what they practice in their duties depends mostly on their experience. So, they do not explicitly follow any theory of the kind mentioned in the first part of my thesis. But of course in every day practice many problems find solutions which are in accordance with the theories, but this happens incidentally.

10.2. FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE PRINCIPALS IN PERFORMING THEIR TASKS

There are many factors which influence principals in performing their tasks. We can distinguish them in two categories: (1) Those which determine a specific anticipation of the school work, (2) Those which allow a broader, more personal and autonomous approach.

1. The first one refers to the regulations concerning the functioning of the schools as they are set by the House of Representatives. They are very detailed and they do not allow room for the principal to work differently, ie. assigned personnel, detailed regulations for school attendance, subject matters, curriculum and books, examinations, promotion of pupils, duties of assistant principals, functioning of committees etc.

2. Factors which allow personal autonomous approach can be divided in two kinds: a) internal; principal's personal factors, and b) external; school factors.

10.2.1. **Principal's Personal Factors**

(The personal or idiographic dimension according to Getzels - Guba model Chapter 1, Part I, p.16)

1. His verbal ability. His ability to persuade and to communicate.
2. His intelligence.
3. His learning style (How he learns).
4. His teaching style (How he teaches).
5. His self confidence.
6. His self respect.
7. His enthusiasm.
8. His needs (Maslow's Hierarchy Model and Herzberg's Hygiene Theory - Chapter 6, Part I).
9. His experiences.
10. His studies (included postgraduate studies).
11. His philosophy about education.
12. His philosophy about teachers (Theory X and Theory Y of McGregor - Chapter 6, Part I).
13. His philosophy about effectiveness.
14. His ability to adjust.
15. His ability in decision making.
16. His ability to understand others.
17. His emotional maturity.
18. His managerial skills.
19. His leadership skills (As they are expressed by Stogdill - Chapter 3, Part I).
20. His behaviour towards others (Assistant principals, teachers, clerical staff, pupils, parents).

10.2.2. School's Factors (External Factors) or Situational Factors

(The Normative or Nomothetic dimension according to Getzels-Guba model, Chapter 1, Part I, p.14).

1. The size of the school which influences good organization and successful cooperation with the staff and the pupils.
2. The synthesis of the staff; if they are experienced teachers or not, self motivated for their work and group oriented.
3. The personality of the assistant principals and of the clerks. Formal groups and informal groups. If they have positive attitudes towards people and their job.
4. The school building; how the school is built. This influences the functioning of the school, since it can help or prevent school activities, communication, school discipline and pastoral care.
5. The parents and the community in general. How they value the work of the school, the degree of cooperation with the school and their provision towards the attainment of the targets of the school.

10.3. ADMINISTRATIVE MODELS IN CYPRUS

I have in the secondary schools of Cyprus 31 years of service. Seventeen (17) from them as a teacher and 14 as Assistant Principal (including 3 of Assistant Principal Coordinator). I have worked with 14 principals. All of them were more or less well educated, liked the school which they administered and their pupils. They were also interested in the promotion and development of school's work.

But, since they were different personalities, the school functioned differently, according to their way of thinking and approach. Getzel and Guba define personality as the dynamic organization within the individual containing need dispositions that govern idiosyncratic reactions to the environment... Since no two persons have exactly the same motivational system, personalities are unique; hence variety in behaviour is the rule, not the exception. "Although people occupy roles and positions in the school, they are not simply actors devoid of unique needs.

No two teachers, administrators or students in the same situation behave exactly the same way. They have different personalities and needs that are reflected in their behaviour. Individuals shape the roles they occupy with their own style of "behaviour" (Getzels-Guba model, Chapter 1, Part I, pp. 16-20). Although most of them especially the elder ones had no background in theories of administrative models they incidentally acted according to the models of administrative theories (Chapter 3, Part I).

Using, apart from my own experience, my contacts with many colleagues, attending seminars and taking part in many discussions along with principals and having also in mind the results of interviews with a sample of principals, I came to the conclusion that principals of secondary education in Cyprus can be classified not very strictly in the following types of style models (1):

1. The "Solicitous". Administration is based on good relations.
2. The "Passive Political". Administration is based on the traditional way.
3. The "Assertive" or "Task oriented".
4. The "Administrative" or "The Middle Way" model.
5. The "Motivational - Problem Solving". Administration with emphasis in active participation.

-
1. The characterizations which are given to each model are in accordance with the characterizations which are used in the book of K.B.Everard and Geoffrey Morris "**Effective School Management**", London, Harper and Row Publishers, 1986, pp. 18-20.

The most common model of administration is the administration of the "middle way", the "Administrative". In only rare cases one can see completely failed administration, "Passive Political". In many other cases one can see that kind of administration which stresses the need for active participation, "Motivational - Problem solving".

1. **Administration based on good relations; "Solicitous" (people oriented).**

In this case the basic aim of the principal is the creation of good relations among the teachers and the establishment of a pleasant atmosphere which inspires feelings of security. Sometimes the effectiveness of the subordinates is ignored in order to secure good relations.

The principal gives less emphasis on task. He cares more about people, wants to be pleasant, and to be liked and avoids open conflict. If the school is "happy", that is all that matters. The principal is always helpful, because he/she is concerned principally about relationships.

2. **Failed Administration, "Passive - Political"**

The principal is interested only to ascertain that the traditional way is followed. Effectiveness and good relations are in conflict. The principal tries not to get involved in the conflict. His lack of interferences leads to bad human relations as well as to bad results and failure of the educational work.

The principal has hindsight, is subjective, rejects suggestion, wants to do things his own way. He/she blames others for problems in school. He/she is incapable of delegation. He/she resists change. He/she doesn't do more than is required.

Fortunately this type of principal is very rare.

3. **Scientific approach in administration, "Assertive" ("Task oriented")**
Good relations are ignored and high performance of the subordinates is stressed. The most important aim of the principal is to secure success in the aims which are set, by exercising severe planning and continuous follow up and inspection of the work. His/her continuous efforts is to secure the highest possible performance of the subordinates for attaining the aims of the service. He/she doesn't worry too much about other people's feelings or opinions. He/she wants things done his or her way, is aggressive if challenged.
4. **Administration of the "middle way", "Administrative"**
The basic aim of the principal is to secure a balance among high performance and good relations. He/she is happy when he finds a middle way which will secure a logical level of attainment without destroying the morale of the subordinates. He maintains the existing system. He is steady. He is conscientious rather than creative or innovative.
5. **Administration with emphasis in active participation "Motivational - Problem solving"**
High performance and needs of the subordinates are harmonized. The basic aim of the principal is to succeed in attaining high performance introducing condition for active participation of the subordinates, i.e. for using their ideas and skills.

He has "situational sensitivity" and "style flexibility", he knows to suit his behaviour to circumstances and individuals.

He helps staff members to find solutions to poor performance. He knows how to monitor action plans. He involves staff in decisions which affect them. He takes decisions as and when needed.

He acts, accepts responsibility. He is objective. He listens and responds, he propose solutions, he sees opportunities, he has breadth of vision. He learns, he faces up to problems. He has foresight.

10.3.1. Administrative Models - Some Comments

1. **Solicitous, people oriented principal**

This type coincides with the principal 1.9 style - Count Club Management -according to the Managerial Grid III of Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton (Chapter 3, Part I, pp.66-69). It also emphasizes - by chance - the theories of Mary Parker Follet, Elton Mayo, F.J. Roethlisberger and W.J. Dickson who have proved with their studies that the building up of good relations has very positive results in the effectiveness of the job (Chapter 2, Part I, pp.40-41). He/she is liked by everybody, but there is always a kind of dissatisfaction from the part of those of the teachers who have a strong need of achievement, because a basic disadvantage of this kind of administration is that there is a slackness, a looseness and not good organization. Everybody does almost whatever he/she likes and the school's work depends on the teachers' goodwill to do their job.

The solicitous, people oriented principal believes that when teachers are allowed to perform their work without his inspection, they appreciate the man who shows trust in them and they perform better in order to live up to the principals expectations and the trust he shows.

Thus, they follow the following line of thought: Since the teachers of their school have personal needs, a good principal has to satisfy their needs as much as possible; the teachers could be happy in this way, and happy teachers perform better.

It is evident that according to the theories of Maslow and Herzberg these views are correct as far as the willingness of the teacher for work is concerned. This was also the view of two principals - one rural and one urban - at the interviews (See Chapter 9, Part II, p.167).

In reality, a number of teachers respond in this way, especially those who are characterized by responsibility. Another group of teachers, though, it has been observed that when they realize that the principal is always satisfying their wishes do not behave in this way. They are interested in satisfying their own personal needs only and they are inevitably not be doing their best to achieve success in the aims and objectives of the school. The situation is even worse if the principal does not seem to be interested in implementing the objectives of the school or he does not set down clear objectives for the implementation of which teacher and principal should try.

If the principal does not check the behaviour of the teachers and especially any frequent absences and insufficient teaching, then the conscientious teachers may feel that their efforts are in vain.

As A. Phylactou, Director of Secondary Education, in a seminar has said (2) "the message which is given, when teachers and pupils are frequently absent is that the work of the school is not important".

One of the duties of a good principal is to guide the teachers in cases where personal or family needs are opposed to school needs. On the one hand he must help the teachers as individuals to satisfy their own needs but on the other hand to help the school to satisfy its own.

According to Halpin's findings, emerging from the Ohio State University researches (Chapter 3, Part I, pp.57-58) "school administrators generally are most effective when they score high on both dimensions of leader behaviour: to ignore consideration reduces the satisfaction of the subordinates and to neglect initiation of structure limits the effectiveness of the school".

-
1. A. K. Phylactou, "The Role of the Coordinator Assistant Principal in Secondary Schools", in the **Bulletin of the Assistant Principals' Association** (Nicosia), 1994, p.66.

The solicitous, people oriented principal values inevitably school work lower than the personal or family needs of the teachers. He behaves mostly as a sensitive human being rather than as a sensible principal. Of course there are cases where a principal must see the teacher as a human being, especially when he faces severe problems. This type of principal, however, behaves always so in order to have good relations with all teachers. As a consequence the school's functioning is most probably affected.

Principals of this type tend sometimes to form small groups of teachers which gradually develop to a kind of "clique". Teachers who are good in public relations try to approach the principal and gradually a number of them are always around him.

Of course there is no harm in exercising public relations. But sometimes these groups keep the principal away from the other teachers and they become his source of information about everything that goes on in the school: about attitudes and capabilities of other teachers, about possible problems, about relations with the community, etc. They manage to influence him to a great extent, in a way which creates obstacles in the relation of the principal to the other members of the personnel.

The line of communication is, thus, hindered and all information reaches the principal through the group which is always near him. One may easily assume that such information cannot always be accurate or representative of the truth.

Principals of this category usually act out of a desire to have also good relations with pupils in order to be popular among them. They are ready repeatedly to forgive any kind of pupils' misbehaviour, believing that in response the pupils will gradually come to themselves.

It seems that things are rather different and most pupils would not appreciate the principal's approach; on the contrary, they would take advantage of it. At the end the lack of discipline hinders the work of the school. The relations of the assistant principals and the teachers are also influenced because of the principal's attitude towards the pupils.

The results of the principal's behaviour are reflected on the quality and the level of the work done in the school and the whole climate of the school, especially on the morale and the ethos. There are not constant rules which must be followed by everybody.

2. **Failed Administration, Passive - political principal**

Another type of principal is the one who is efficient/ competent in his subject of teaching but bad or not so good in human relations and administration generally. He has been promoted because he has been good in his work as a teacher, but as a leader is not successful.

This is one who in the theories of the models of principals follows 1.1 style -impoverished management (Chapter 3, Part I, p.68). He is usually in his office and he is not aware of what happens in the school. He believes that since there are regulations for everything, things should go smoothly without any problems. For this reason such principal knows all the regulations (by heart) and therein seeks answers for all the problems of the school. He tries to diminish the problems by ignoring the frequent absence and the lack of discipline by teachers and pupils. Thus, the problems get more complicated and sometimes even dangerous.

He asks nobody for advice. He thinks that is useless to ask for other people's opinion and he wants everything to be done by his own way. However, he does not set clear goals for the school work, he waits everything to be done automatically.

So the school work depends on the whole on the assistant principals and how they understand their role. If they do not take initiatives in the everyday functioning of the school and they simply wait for guidelines by the principal, many aspects of the school work will remain problematic.

This situation will inevitably influence many teachers and their enthusiasm in performing their duty. The same with pupils; they most probably feel the lack of administration and they will accordingly form their behaviour.

The atmosphere of the school depends to a great extent on the behaviour of the principal. In schools with this type of principal many problems are created. Fortunately this type is very rare.

This type of principal follows a kind of traditional monocratic bureaucratic concept (see Chapter 2, Part I, pp.28-29) in organization and administration of the school, without having the necessary abilities for the system, and without considering the time and the conditions of his school.

3. Scientific approach in administration, Assertive, Task oriented principal.

This third type of principal is the one who is mostly or rather exclusively interested in the results of the school work and is not interested in the teachers or the pupils themselves.

He believes that the success of the pupils in their lessons is the only criterion for a good school. Thus, he presses both teachers and pupils to work hard. He does not like the absence of teachers and he does not want to hear their excuses.

He has a lot of characteristics which many researchers attribute to the type of principal who belongs to 9.1 style - Authority, obedience (Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, "The Managerial Grid", Chapter 3, Part I, p.68). He acts also to a great extent according to the managerial point of view of Frederick W. Taylor, Henri Fayol and Luther Gulick (Chapter 2, Part I, pp.37-39). This style was advocated by three principals during the interviews, one from rural school and two from urban schools. They said that the main task of the principal is to promote learning and success to the goals which are set (Chapter 9, Part II, p.167).

This principal looks after the coordination of the work, and his efforts are always aimed at fulfilling the high objectives which he himself sets for the school. He usually does not ask for suggestions by the assistant principals or the teachers and, thus, the personnel is not only disappointed but also alienated by this lack of involvement in the management of the school. They feel that their own personality is ignored by the principal and their personal needs are totally neglected.

The result of this situation is a lack of proper communication, enthusiasm and high morale, things which in turn affect the teachers effectiveness. According to the theories of communication "the school's administrator must create conditions that allow people to say what they really mean and to be heard.... Feedback must be specific, it must depend on trust within the group and must be an expression of wanting to help" (John Anderson "Giving and Receiving Feedback", Chapter 4, Part I, p.89).

With this type of principal neither the conditions exist always, nor the necessary trust from the part of many teachers for a sincere feedback. The principal attributes this behaviour to the lack of the necessary enthusiasm and to laziness and the whole atmosphere becomes oppressive (McGregor. Theory X, Chapter 6, Part I, pp.116-117).

However, the ambitious teachers can work better with this type of principal, because they can devote themselves to their job and they do not feel the need to be appreciated by the principal like others. In some situations these teachers can even cooperate productively with the principal, in cases where the principal suggests innovations or new methods; the ambitious teachers have the chance to satisfy firstly themselves and secondly the aims of the school.

In general, this type of principal is not very successful not only due to his distrustfulness and fear of people, but also because of his belief that people do not want to work unless they are forced to and that they are by nature lazy, therefore, he should check every step they make.

This approach creates anxiety and insecurity. Teachers do not feel very happy working with this type of principal. In such a school climate the chances for productive work are few and the feelings towards the principal and the school as a consequence are mostly negative.

Again the assistant principals are the only people who can contribute towards the improvement of the situation. Depending on their own needs and personalities they may help the teachers to surpass their problems of communication and relations with the principal, accept the situation as it is, and work for the success of the school work.

4. Administrative principal, of the "middle way".

Another type of principal is the one who is interested in the school work as well as the human relations but in the usual traditional manner, without any special objectives.

He resembles the principal of 5.5 style - Organization Man Management of the Managerial Grid which has been mentioned before.

This style was advocated by five principals during the interviews (one of the rural school, one of semi-rural school and three of urban schools) because according to what they have said both orientations - human relations, task significance - are equally important, the one facilitates the other and they cannot be separated from each other (Chapter 9, Part II, p.167). From those five principals though, some more successful belong to the model which will be examined later in dealing with administration with emphasis in active participation Motivational - Problem Solving Principal.

Since this type of principal accepts the traditional way of administration he does not ask for innovations or new methods and approaches, and his demands from the teachers, that he trusts to a certain extent, are not many. He sets goals which are easily realized and he offers freedom of action to the teachers. He does not prevent them from testing any new method or approach but he does not encourage them to do so, simply because he is conservative and dislikes changes. He avoids testing/experimenting and prefers the traditional and safe, already used for years way. He is interested in school work but he does not press people very much. He trusts the assistant principals and he expects them to be responsible for discipline and absence of teachers and pupils.

The atmosphere of the school is calm and everyone can work without much supervision or help. Most of the teachers in schools with this kind of principal work without any special effort, since even moderate results are acceptable by the principal.

This type of principal satisfies most of the teachers: there is, however, a number of them who have ambitions and visions for education and who need encouragement in order to proceed and be distinguished and who cannot be satisfied with this kind of behaviour. Suggestion and comments in every day work especially for something new are not always accepted by the principal; Thus, in most situations teachers limit their work to the known and usual standards.

The fact that this type of principal is satisfied even with moderate results and is not pushing for more effort makes him liked by teachers and pupils especially because he usually tries to develop good human relations. This type is the usual traditional principal in the secondary schools of Cyprus. The majority of principals work along these lines and according to this model.

5. Administration with emphasis in active participation

Motivational - Problem - solving principal

Recently in Cyprus due to the amendments in the Regulations and the democratic orientation of education another type can be found in our secondary schools. This is the type of principal who tries to have excellent results in school work and at the same time tries to develop as much as possible excellent human relations with his subordinates.

This is the type who has almost all the characteristics which in The Managerial Grid of Blake and Mouton the 9.9 style follows - Team Management. He acts in many issues according with the emerging pluralistic collegial concept (Chapter 2, Part I, pp.33-35).

This type of principal does not think of the school as a personal but as a cooperative enterprise. He tries from the beginning of the school year to delegate responsibilities very carefully. He promotes discussions among all members of the personnel in order to set the school goals and the necessary means for achieving them. His power rests with the acceptance and trust of his subordinates. He encourages all those who want to undertake initiative and he shows his trust to the capability and responsibility of his subordinates.

This cooperative approach in organization makes discussion of many arguments possible when a problem arises. Everything is explained and misunderstandings are avoided. Channels of communication are open in two ways from top to bottom and inversely, and thus, all are informed about goals, objectives, means, procedures etc. of the school work. This situation helps also everybody to feel responsible, because everybody is involved and has a say in decision taking.

The atmosphere of the school is calm, and the climate helpful for productive work; there is no stress or anxiety, at least on high levels, since everybody feels that when there is a problem it will be confronted cooperatively. The suggestions and guidelines by the principal are very important especially by new teachers who are encouraged to develop their capacities and skills as much as possible.

In a climate like this the organization and planning of work is done in a more flexible and, in some cases, informal way. There is no inflexibility of roles and the delay of bureaucracy is reduced.

The greater characteristic of a school which is administered by a principal of this type is that many opinions are heard, many suggestions are discussed in the decision making. Committees and all groups feel that they work in a free, democratic and productive environment.

The office of the principal is usually open to everyone who needs either advice or information or even to discuss something, ie. a problem. Due to the fact that communication is exercised effectively and the principal is always informed about the problems of the school he manages to prevent misunderstandings among teachers. He respects all the members of the personnel, he acknowledges the skills of each one of them and he expects them to work according to their experience and capacities. He follows by chance or consciously McGregor's Theory Y (Chapter 6, Part I, p.116).

He usually knows the teachers not only as professionals but also as individuals and, thus, he presses or helps each one accordingly.

This type of principal is very much liked by those teachers whose achievement drives are very strong. They find in his face the perfect leader. But he is also liked and respected almost by everybody, because he does not neglect anything. Everybody works with him with a good mood and the results are excellent.

In conclusion it is necessary to mention one further criterion. In spite of all the differences the above types of principal have, there is something common in all of them. They all emphasise discipline. Independently from what qualifications the teachers have, all principals without exception, consider as good teachers only those of them who basically can keep discipline among students.

10.4. COMMUNICATION

Communication is, as I mentioned in Chapter 4, Part I, a difficult procedure, and *Joan Dean* states "the work of an organization is only as good as its communication" (1). No other principle of administration can work successfully without communication, because it is part of leadership as well as of decision making and motivation. It is communication that provides all the answers to the problem confronting educational administration.

The basic source of information is the principal: he is the one who knows -or at least he is deemed to know - better the aims and objectives of education and his job is to make them known to the teachers. Information is transferred from the Ministry to the Principals either by circulars or by meetings of the Principals with the Inspectors, mainly with the Inspector General and the District Inspector. Information at the beginning of the school year has to do with clear and detailed guidelines about the way schools should function, the policy which is going to be followed and the academic objective of the school year.

The principals and the Director of Secondary Education have regular meetings during the year, where the principals have the opportunity to receive the necessary information from the Ministry, to discuss and exchange views with the Director on various issues, general as well as specific.

All the information material which is conveyed to the principals is transferred to teachers and students. As for the communication in the schools this can be classified according to the theories (Chapter 4, Part I, p.74) either one-way communication or two-ways communication.

1. Joan Dean, *Managing the Secondary School*, 2nd ed. (Educational Management Series, London, 1993), p. 169.

One way communication is when the principal conveys information about the organization, gives job instruction, specific task directives and gives information (or examples) just to assist the teachers in understanding their task (job rationale). In these cases there are no questions about the usefulness of certain measure or counter proposals. Similarly as far as the students are concerned with announcements made to them either written or in the school assemblies.

The fact is, though, that the two-ways communication is used in the majority of cases. These include:

meetings of the principal

- a. with the assistant principals,
- b. with the Administrative Council,
- c. with the Central Students' Council,
- d. with the teaching staff.

Two ways communication also functions between assistant principals and teachers: this can be noticed in the meetings of various committees and in the meetings of the coordinator assistant principals with teachers of their speciality, where information is given and views are expressed for task coordination.

Two ways coordination is either downward or upward: It is horizontal among persons of the same level e.g. among assistant principals.

Even though one way communication is shorter than the other, it is not as effective as the two ways communication. In the staff meetings as well as in the work of the committees a number of teachers have questions about many aspects of the issues discussed and, thus, the principal or the assistant principals have to answer them in order to make information understandable. Being attacked with too many questions may be stressful for the principals, but they have the chance to get feedback and to be sure that the messages conveyed have been comprehended.

It seems that one of the safest and most effective ways of conveying information to teachers and students, and which is something that most of the principals do is to analytically explain all the information in written form and consequently in meetings or assemblies explain orally the content of the written material: thus, the view of *A. Dale and Jr. Level* (Chapter 4, Part I, p.79) about the effectiveness of this way of communication - written and oral-is obviously sound.

Today successful communication in the large schools of the towns in Cyprus is very hard to achieve, due to the number of students and teachers: the number of students is between 700 to 1.000 and of teachers 60 to 80. Thus, as far as the downward communication is concerned it often happens that some of the teachers do not receive the message, either because they are busy in the school yard for pastoral duties or because they work in another school on that day. If the message is put on the announcement board, a number of teachers may not notice it at all, if they do not receive it orally, especially when this is written in more than one page.

As for the students the easiest way to be informed about something is when the principal announces the information in the assemblies, where again some of the information is missed, because a number of students do not pay the necessary attention. The best and safest way for the students to receive these messages is the personal contact in class and written messages which can be carried also to their parents. The principals according to the type and the content of the message choose what suits each case better.

As far as the upward communication one can say that due to the democratic atmosphere which prevails in schools most of the teachers express themselves freely and a lot of information, suggestion, comments, opinions, reach the principal. Of course, not all of them act this way due to the several reasons, as I mentioned earlier.

Generally speaking, at meetings, some teachers, students and parents do not want or do not dare to express views contradicting those of the principal and, thus, they prefer to express their views when they are not around: there is also a number of people who react negatively whatever the issue might be, because they are used to do so.

Thus, the principal gets a lot of information, but of course not all the information he could get: as a result he cannot have always the right feedback about his work in the school.

On the whole, communication functions satisfactorily and there is no block of information in our schools as some of the theories (Chapter 4, Part I) maintain.

All the procedures of communication are indeed very democratic and, thus, apart from those messages of a confidential nature, all the other flow to all directions. Even though there is a clear hierarchy, nothing can prevent a student or teacher from visiting the principal and speak with him face-to-face. Of course this particular procedure depends on the personality of the principal (look Chapter 4, Part I, for personal factors for communication p.76-77).

The best way of communication can be seen in the behaviour of the principal as he was described in Chapter 10.3, Part II, p.194-195 "Motivational problem Solving principal". Due to his democratic behaviour his interest for good human relations and for the development of the objectives of education, he informs all interested parties with a variety of ways and at the same time he receives information easily. This type of principal gives from the beginning definite official lines of plans and policies, which are short and direct as possible, defines clearly the responsibilities of different members of staff, gives on time to everyone important information quickly, clearly and fully and does not allow space for misunderstanding through informal loops.

Every activity is a form of communication: the arrangement of the environment, the appearance of the principal, his/her movements, his tone of voice, the kind of language he/she uses. He/she cares about all these in order to convey the correct message.

He goes around the school and, thus, he communicates not only with the teaching and clerical staff of the school, but also with the students. In this way he has a direct view of what happens in the school. He cannot cause stress or agony and his friendly approach makes everybody feel free to contact him and express themselves.

Thus, there is a flow of opinion and information about a variety of issues. The principal's office is always open for cooperation and communication. Everyone feels that they are welcomed in a friendly environment for an exchange of views, explanation of guidelines or for seeking help.

It is worth noticing here that there are cases when this behaviour of the principal causes some problems, because if his office is always "open", he cannot find the time to concentrate on the everyday issues of the school.

Where the principal is the type of administrator who emphasizes human relations - solicitous - people oriented principal, Chapter 10.3, Part II, p.186-189 - information flows freely, especially among people who are near him.

The principal's office is almost always "occupied" by the same people whose company he likes most. Other members of the staff do not visit him often and, thus, the information, he receives is not complete and one can say that it is one sided information, since the feedback he has is the one he gets from people of his close environment.

The other members do not see any purpose to visit him and inform him about school affairs and especially about some deficiencies of the system, because they fear that the principal will not accept their opinion and the only thing they will achieve is creating a bad picture. There is also a number of people who do not visit the principal because they do not care to help him, since they believe that he has all the necessary information from the sources he prefers.

This type of principal visits the school yard often, because he likes to be among people. He communicates with the students, he learns a lot, but he sometimes causes unacceptable behaviour by the students, because they misunderstand him, ie. they take advantage of his friendly behaviour.

As for the principal who is assertive, task oriented (Chapter 10.3, Part II, p.190-192) he has some problems in communication. He is considered to be strict (austere), he is not liked very much and, thus, neither teachers nor students approach him. As a result he does not have the necessary information. Only a small number of people communicate with him, because the others are either afraid of him or do not feel comfortable with him. Communication is hindered and he hears the opinions of the people who happen to be near him. He is the type who stresses more the written rather than the personal communication (oral, face-to-face).

The worst communication exists with the principal who is always alone in his office and who tries hard to apply the regulations, the passive-political principal (Chapter 10.3, Part II, pp.189-190). He communicates neither with the teachers nor with the students. In most of the cases he does not really know what actually happens in the school and due to his mistrust (suspicion) he does not inform or communicate with people. The teachers usually cooperate only with the assistant principals and they do not feel the necessity to communicate with him, because they believe that he actually cannot help them in any case. 202

The situation is even worse when there are frictions between him and some teachers; in some cases, no communication exists and the given information is not usually right.

The contact with teachers, students and parents is exercised only formally in assemblies, meetings, written messages, letters to parents, telephone calls, announcements on boards. Personal contact with teachers and students exists only in their formal meetings. Informal communication is rare.

In this case as well as in some cases of the other types of principals which have been mentioned, there is basically downward communication. Upward communication is more difficult, because people do not speak easily in every occasion about themselves or others, about organizational policies and practices, what needs to be done and how it should be done.

The information which reaches the teachers, the students, and the parents in every occasion independently of the type of the principal, is the guidelines which are sent by the Ministry of Education and Culture. The principals have to convey this information in the official meetings, which take place regularly. The guidelines are explained and given in written form. Sometimes the reaction of the teachers and students towards these guidelines depend on the type of the principal and the way he explains them.

Apart from formal communication another kind of communication in secondary schools of Cyprus is the informal one. As it was mentioned in Chapter 4, Part I, pp.84-85, this kind of information is very effective. During tea breaks and other times when teachers do not have classes, people in schools have the chance to discuss several issues related to lessons, students' attainment, problems and difficulties.

Thus, in small groups the principal has the chance to learn a lot of things about the school, to see the reaction of the teaching staff to his policy on school functioning. This information can reach the principal rather easily, in informal meetings over a cup of coffee. Of course we refer here to the principal who is not always sitting in his office.

The same thing happens when the principal visits classes, when a teacher is away. He, then, has the chance to communicate with students in a direct contact and he sometimes gets important but not always objective information. The principal can also get information from the parents or other people who visit the school; he can use this information to solve various problems, and to improve the school goals.

A special skill is, however, required to find the truth in the information a principal would get from these contacts. Truth is not always clear and experience is needed in order to be able to make proper use of this information.

This kind of information needs special care, because it has a personal character and the risk that the same attitude towards certain issues always is imminent, due to the fact that the source of information is the same.

Another risk is that information about students or teachers happens to be inaccurate some times. There are occasions in which teachers are hard working, but because they do not seem to be active, they are not of high esteem by the principal or they are sometimes misunderstood due to wrong information conveyed by their colleagues. The principals usually converse a lot with the talkative and extrovert and they miss the quieter, who do not put themselves forward. They should check occasionally whether the informal discussion covers a full range of people.

In Cyprus, a small place, people like to get information for people or situations, but since information is conveyed from one person to the other in informal loops (ways) there is the danger of inaccuracy. Another danger is when people express their views and opinions in the way they believe that the principal wants to hear them or inform him about these things that they want him to know and not about others. All these have to be filtered. The problem is that some principals rely extremely on this informal communication.

10.4.1. Some General Comments

It seems that people who work together for a long time can communicate better. They feel confidence with and trust each other better and there are fewer misunderstandings. Of course in Cyprus due to teachers' moving from one school to another this cannot always happen.

As it is mentioned in the theory of communication (Chapter 4, Part I, pp.73-74) in practice there are cases when messages are received incorrectly by teachers, students, parents, because there are people who do not have the same communication skills in order to decode the messages correctly. This is especially the case between teachers and students. Some students due to their age and knowledge do not communicate correctly with their teachers: as a result they do not trust each other. The same sometimes happens with parents and teachers.

In Cyprus parents are on the whole overprotective and for this reason when there are behavioural problems without hearing both sides (teacher-students), they come to school aggressive towards teachers and, thus, they cause problems. In such cases the principal's or the assistant principal's personal contact with the parent can solve misunderstandings and put things in order.

Information about students can be found on their cards, which are kept by the Secretariat of the school, the term records, the general and special records, which contain a lot of information for students, like their progress in each subject, their conduct, their family situation, all these data can be used by all teachers, assistant principals and the principal.

There are, however, pieces of information which can be described as secret, especially in matters of health or having to do with students' family. In such cases the principal has to decide how he is going to use such an information in order to help students and not harm them. Such an information are conveyed usually to the Counselling Office, which undertakes the task to help a student on the basis of these data.

According to what has been said until now, the most valuable information is used by the reasonable principal who is well organized, acts on time, makes the right delegation of duties, estimates time, and active properly, is friendly with people, approaches people and is approached easily, and, thus, communication is not blocked but flows efficiently to all directions. This kind of behaviour by the principal creates the proper atmosphere during meetings in order to encourage everybody to express their views and comments without sarcasm or aggressive attitude by any one. A number of our principals tend to be suspicious towards teachers who suggest completely new ways of confronting problems or teachers who find mistakes in their policy. It is understandable for the principals to like hearing good comments, but reality is sometimes different and only different views from their own can help principals find the truth either in other people's opinions or in the middle.

When a teacher understands that every time he suggests something new or criticizes something, displeases the principal, he will, at the end, stop doing so, even though his contribution is needed; furthermore, a system which is effective in one academic year with particular teachers and students may not be effective in the following year. Teachers and especially new ones in the school should feel free to express their opinions to the principals in order to find the best way of action.

Communication faces problems in another area also; that of committees. Committees are usually called together during the breaks. The members are informed about the meetings with written announcements. Due to the size, however, of some of our schools not all the members are informed in time. The possibility always exist that some of the teachers may not notice it unless they are personally informed. If they are informed many days before the meetings, some of them may forget about it and, thus, they need to be reminded some time before the meeting, in order to discuss an issue.

10.4.2. Effective Communication

It seems that we can conclude from the above that no communication system ensures that people actually absorb what is offered to them. Drawing on my experience as well as on the interviews of the principals there are some things which make people more receptive. They are most likely to take in communication when:

1. It is personal, i.e. addressed to them.
2. It fulfils a need or rouses an interest. A strong interest can sometimes be used as a lead to other information.
3. It is seen to give power or status.
4. They identify with the organization, when they care about the organization from which it comes.
5. The presentation is right, short and direct as possible.
6. The source is respected. The status and personal standing of the person communicating is important.
7. The context predisposes the listener to be receptive. The communication is best when all the conditions are good. Not illegible writing, for example, or discomfort at a meeting, and not giving too many pieces of communication at once (2).

Communication is in fact a fundamental process in educational administration; the principal must acquire several techniques to be able to measure and to improve it at both the individual and the organizational levels.

2. Joan Dean, *op. cit.*, pp.178-179.

10.5. DECISION MAKING

There are five decision-making bodies in the secondary schools in Cyprus: 1) The principal, 2) The principal together with the assistant principals, 3) The Administrative Council, 4) The Teachers' Council, and 5) The Central Students' Council. According to the regulations the Teachers' Council or Teaching Staff is the most powerful decision-making body. The regulations that govern our centralized system stipulate the issues/matters for which the several bodies are responsible. Many of the everyday issues and minor problems, however, cannot be dealt with accordingly as the existing regulations do not provide for them; this is the reason why there is a variety of procedures in the decision-making process in each school.

Major problems are confronted according to the regulations as the writer has already stated in Chapter 9, Part II, p.173, for example, decisions about the students', promotion from one grade to the next and the characterization of the students' conduct are exclusively the work of the teaching staff; the same with the most severe punishment which is fifteen days of suspension from the school. It is obvious that the regulations provide that decisions for the major issues of a school are taken by the teaching staff. Thus, all teachers are required to get involved in decision-making. This practice gives decisions a prestige and at the same time makes all teachers feel responsible for the decision and bound for its implication. This is exactly the procedure which G.E. Swanson characterized as the "parliamentarian arrangement" (See Chapter 5, Part I, p.104).

Apart from these major issues for which the regulations are clear that the responsibility rests with the teaching staff, there are some other issues which can be sometimes considered as serious as the forementioned and for which the principal has to decide if they must be transferred to the teaching staff. Thus, this is another reason for the existing differences among schools in the decision-making process.

In order to eliminate or minimize such differences for achieving a common decision-making process it is imperative that principals of secondary schools meet once a month together with the Director of Secondary Education. In such meetings problems and issues that are faced by all schools of the district are discussed and a common practice for confronting them is decided.

The practices are then discussed and explained in each school by the teaching staff; sometimes some of the practices are slightly changed in order to satisfy strong opposition by the teaching staff.

The weekly meetings of the principal with the assistant principals or with the Administrative Council deal with everyday issues, such as organization, discipline, activities, curriculum and material. If it is considered necessary, the teaching staff is asked to make suggestions before the final decision is taken in a non-regular meeting.

Such meetings are not functioning in the same way in all schools; some principals never ask the Administrative Council to be activated. They simply cooperate with the assistant principals and mostly with the administrative ones or with some of them, according to the subject they face.

In the committees' meetings principals do not usually participate. These meetings are presided by the assistant principals and decisions are taken by all. Of course, as in all meetings, the personality of those who preside them have a lot to do with the way the committees function and take decisions. Authoritative assistant principals will insist on their view, whereas democratic assistant principals will allow the majority of the members to reach a decision.

According to the regulations two students can participate in each committee; this never happens or almost never happens. Teachers do not easily accept students to participate in the decision-making process, because students are not considered to have the necessary knowledge or to be discreet when this is necessary.

Here too, as in all the other issues, the principal does not follow any model as prescribed in the theories of decision-making. They mainly follow procedures which are set by the regulations and, thus, similar issues and problems are not always handled in the same standard manner. The principal listens to any problems or comments the assistant principals have to make and, thus, completes the matters to be further discussed either at the Administrative Council or at the teachers' meeting. These issues have usually to do with problems identified by the principal, the assistant principals, the teachers, the students or their parents and problems of everyday nature, like students' attainment, conduct, discipline, or organization of activities (festivities, excursions etc.).

An announcement for the regular meetings and the issues for discussion is usually placed on the announcement board a week before. The emergency and in particular the committees' meetings are announced one or two days before. In all meetings teachers who have specific information on the subject either because of experience, knowledge or personal involvement are asked to provide such information during the meeting. The procedure which is then followed is a fairly democratic one. The issue is presented to the teaching staff by the principal, or an assistant principal or a teacher. All teachers who know something about the issue are asked to give information, express their view and elaborate on it and then a consensus is reached. If there are disagreements, a decision is taken by the majority.

This in practice sometimes causes problems, because teachers would continue discussing the matter informally - often after the meeting - and a climate of tension is not rare in such cases. If the issues do not allow for an immediate decision, a committee under an assistant principal is asked to examine the issue and make suggestions; sometimes such a committee will be asked to reach a decision on the particular matter themselves. It is evident that the procedures theoretically are democratic; however, the human factor is again here very important.

As it has already been said the principals follow their own way of thinking. According to the Theories of Leadership (Chapter 3, Part I, pp.66-69 and Chapter 10.3, Part II, pp.183-185), principals can be differentiated in five basic categories and between these categories in a great number of others.

In Chapter 10.3, Part II, the principals of Cyprus were classified in five corresponding categories. As a matter of fact, where indeed the types of principals clearly distinguish from one another is in the decision-making procedure.

1. The first type is that of the "**Motivational - Problem Solving Principal**" who is very democratic and tries to reach a collective decision in all important issues. All teachers are involved in serious issues and, thus, they are made coresponsible in the implication of the decision. The principal knows when and whom he is going to involve in each issue - those who are related with the matter or they have the necessary experience and ability to help in each case. In this way the decision to be taken is not only the best possible one, but also the other members of the staff do not complain that they are neglected, or that their opinion is not taken into account.

The principal gives the chance to teachers to express themselves freely and without reservations, and he avoids irony or attacks, when they disagree with him. He seems to respect all the members of the staff in the same degree. This type of principal is obliged and accepts sometimes decisions or follow a policy with which he does not agree, when the teaching staff votes for it. He is always trying - to the degree he can do so - to reach correct decisions and is ready to undertake his responsibility.

2. The **pseudodemocratic** is another type of a persuasive principal; his usual practice is to convince separately before hand each one of those who can influence the teaching staff and basically the assistant principals. He, thus, prepares the climate before the meeting so that his opinions and policy prevail.

3. The type of principal who enjoys public relations, **people oriented "solicitous"** - indeed follows real democratic procedures. The problem with this kind of principal is that he may, sometimes, overdo it, because in his effort to satisfy all the teachers he asks the staff to decide for almost everything; thus, the teachers suffer sometimes from the great number of meetings.

He wastes time and energy for issues not always important and which smaller groups could solve more easily and in a shorter time. He sometimes pretends that he does not see the problems and hopes that time will solve them, because he does not want to annoy or upset people. He usually takes decisions that do not affect his popularity, decisions which satisfy for a short time but which, sometimes, have bad implications later.

4. The type of principal who is **task oriented** - "**assertive**" is interested basically in reaching the most correct decision, the one which serves the school's goals. He is usually under stress, and anxious to provide enough information in the meetings so as to avoid the possibility of the estimations taking place. In some cases he takes decisions alone and informs the assistant principals first and the staff later about his decision and he asks for their agreement. In many cases he succeeds in that but in others he is faced with disagreement and tension.

However, this does not mean that he is always imposing his authority. He suffers when other opinions than his own prevail.

If the principal is not democratically behaving he intervenes in the procedure of the implication of the decision in order to differentiate it and make it similar to his suggestions.

5. This type of principal, the **isolated "passive-political"** presents also the issues to the assistant principals as well as to the teaching staff; but he presents them in such a way that he invokes reaction and conflict between him and the teachers or between the teachers. He sometimes uses such a behaviour that he insults the teachers - unconsciously most of the times - if they express different opinion or an innovative suggestion. Thus, during meetings, some teachers express their opinion and are ready to confront him and others remain silent out of fear of having a conflict with him.

For many issues he decides alone, because he believes, that in the meetings time is wasted and he, as a principal, can decide or take initiative.

There are problems whose existence he does not even notice and sometimes if he does realize they exist, he neglects them believing that they can be solved by themselves without interference in an attempt to avoid taking the wrong decision.

6. This type of **"middle way", "administrative"** principal follows the procedures which are provided by the regulations. He is generally a democrat, does not interfere in decision-making and he lets decisions be reached normally. He is not annoyed if some of the decisions do not match his beliefs. He justifies it that this is what democracy demands and, thus, he avoids internal conflicts.

After thirty years of experience in secondary schools the author of this work can argue that the principals in secondary schools do not follow a particular model in the process of decision-making. As much as they tend to follow one model or another they also act in a different manner sometimes and outside the borders of the particular model. Often it is not their fault. They delegate the task of taking decisions on various issues to others - e.g. the assistant principals who work with the group of either their committees or their specialization. This kind of delegation causes a number of problems in the whole process, some of which develop in conflicts among the staff.

One should also bear in mind the location of the school; in small rural areas the principal with one assistant principal and inexperienced personnel - usually inexperienced teachers are appointed in rural schools - has a lot of things to do by himself and he may impose his authority as there are no experienced teachers who can influence the decision-taking, react to the principal's views or counter suggest solutions.

Therefore, almost whatever the principal suggests will be accepted.

In the large urban schools among the staff there are experienced teachers who have a lot of suggestions about all affairs and sometimes they express themselves very dynamically. As far as the inexperienced teachers in these large schools, one can say that they feel more safe being between so many others to express their opinions and reactions.

10.5.1. Factors Affecting Decisions

There are many factors that affect decision-making: One can refer first to the general philosophy of the principal as far as education is concerned: the whole climate prevailing in the school about the levels of attainment of the students, the discipline and the necessary measures for it, derive from the principal's ideas about education.

Secondly, the assistant principals' philosophy is important, especially in the field of discipline, since this area falls completely under their own responsibility. Thirdly, the mentality of the teachers as well as that of the parents and students is also very important. Cyprus is a small country and people know each other and, thus, many parents may be friends, acquaintances or relatives with a number of teachers; this fact creates a lot of problems in the process of decision-making, especially in the areas of promotion, degrees, discipline and characterization of conduct.

There are many outside interferences that make things difficult. School is a social system which not only affects but is also affected itself, no matter how much it resists it, by all external reaction (Chapter 1, Part I).

Therefore the views of Getzels and Guba are verified that "Social Systems are open systems. There are exchanges between the system and the environment. Schools are affected by outside forces...". I would like to stress the mentality of the majority of the teachers, because as it is mentioned in Chapter 1, Part I, "The School as a Social System", p.20 "as individuals interact in a work group emergent patterns of social life develop, that is, the group develops its own informal practices, values, norms and social relations".

It is with such values, norms, practices and social relations that a principal has to work in order to complete his task. And unfortunately he cannot always agree with them. Let us think of a newly appointed principal in a school, who wants to proceed to make some innovations, because a number of things do not function according to his views and philosophy of education; one can be sure that he will feel a great resistance by the informal groups which are very powerful. Sudden innovations lead in most of the cases to conflicts. The system needs slow and methodical approach in every kind of innovation in order to reach a consensus on the teachers' part, otherwise once the conflict starts, many problems will continuously arise.

In the process of decision making the area where the school is situated is important. Many decisions depend on the socioeconomic condition of the parents and their expectations as far as the school work is concerned. Due to the many economic problems which the State of Cyprus has, especially after the Turkish invasion of 1974, many economic burdens of the school are undertaken by the Parents' Committees.

Thus, decisions about economic aid to the school depend on the expectations of parents and of course their own economic condition. The theory however, mentioned in Chapter I, Part I, pp.19-20, is again verified: "all the elements and interactions within the system are constrained by important demands from the environment. The environment provides resources, values, technology, demands ... all of which place constraints and opportunities on organizational action... In spite of attempts by the school to isolate itself, it remains open to community, state, and national forces".

Some Comments

Whichever method the principals use in the decision making process, they all believe that it is a democratic method. There are often many weaknesses, however, behind this democratic method. There are principals who seem to be democrats, because they do not want to take the responsibility for a decision; therefore, their fear of taking responsibility leads to group decisions and the consequent covering by it. When this method is used extensively, it creates the impression that the principal is not actually needed, since he needs the permission of the teachers for every activity. As a consequence teachers become more demanding and they do not appreciate or value the principal. This happens in some large schools with many experienced teachers and not dynamic enough principals. One needs to add here that a number of young teachers seem sometimes to believe that they have more rights than obligations and see their profession as a means of making money only, whereas before teachers used to regard themselves as performing service in the community.

A recent phenomenon which derives from the above mentioned mentality is the following: many decisions are taken by the teaching staff but when it comes to the implementation of the decision, teachers expect the principal or the assistant principals to do it; thus, principals and assistant principals become sometimes the people who perform a task decided by the personnel. This is another dimension of the decision making procedure. As the situation is in some schools, the teaching staff spends a lot of time to decide and at the same time the teachers sometimes form the belief that they have more rights than they actually possess according to the regulations and tend to forget their relative obligations.

This is also a reason for conflicts among the staff. Thus, the principal needs a lot of ability to take into account all the factors before he proceeds towards any kind of action; he needs to have the ability to know and understand the mentality of the particular people of his school, the particular conditions and situations of the cases under examination, the way he will collect the necessary information, as well as the role he has to play in the whole process of decision making. He should also have self-control and face each problem rationally. Apart from these, the ability to foresee all possible consequences of his decisions is essential.

There is always the possibility of wrong decisions being taken despite the democratic process of decision making, due to bad or incomplete information or inconsideration of some important factors. In this case, as in all other cases, the responsibility rests with the principal and not the teaching staff.

Having in mind all the above, one can understand the difficulty of taking the right decisions, decisions which not only accord with the aims and objectives of education but satisfy people as well - teachers, parents and students. It is really very difficult for a principal to succeed in this, especially today when people are over-demanding and are not easily satisfied. Furthermore, the principal has been deprived of many powers that he used to possess, under the regulations. On the other hand he has to satisfy, no matter how he works, so many people with so many different mentalities, who need a variety of approaches in order to be motivated and work effectively. This is what the next and last Chapter of this study attempts to consider.

10.6. MOTIVATION

This chapter considers whether the theories expressed in the relevant Chapter of Part I (Chapter 6) can be applied in our system.

According to the principals' interviews it seems that they indeed do apply. The observations and comments made by the scholars mentioned in Chapter 6, Part I, are also observations and comments of our own teachers.

Starting by Maslow's theories "Need Hierarchy Model", the a' and b' level - basic physiological needs and security - are already the main motives towards choosing the teaching profession. It is a "public" profession which offers one a relatively good salary and good working conditions, esteemed and appreciated by our society. To start up with, therefore, the profession's position in our society is by itself the basic motivation.

The c' level - friendship, group acceptance and love - is the level that one may or may not find in a school. It depends on the people working there. Moreover, the principal of the school begins now to have a very important role to play. The size of our schools may be an advantage or a disadvantage. It may be a disadvantage because in the great number of people, one may be isolated and remain unnoticed by the principal, assistant principals or the other teachers. Moreover the principal may not get the opportunity, the time and chance to help somebody in need of his help and guidance.

On the contrary, it may be an advantage as one may choose among one's colleagues with which he or she will be friends, sharing the same needs and problems, enter a group and enjoy the feeling of belonging, of friendship, acceptance and the love of the colleagues within that group.

From what the teachers themselves say, this group belonging is more common in small schools and in particular in the rural schools; due to the small number of teachers in these schools, they have better opportunities to get to know one another and become friends. Furthermore, they share common, everyday difficulties of communicating.

Teachers who work in the same school for years are also close and share this love and collegial bond. Unfortunately this is not too common nowadays, due to the continuous transfers of teachers from one school to another.

The size of the School and motivation

Our schools are too large. In their majority, 65-80 teachers work in each school. This makes the task of the principal harder as it is difficult for him to watch each one individually and offer his support, because 65-80 people with different needs and problems require a particular way of approach.

Young teachers are sometimes very sensitive and when you try to approach them they dislike it, thinking that you are underestimating their abilities, and refuse to take the help offered to them.

It is even harder to approach old teachers with weaknesses, because when they themselves do not realize that they do have them, they do not accept criticism alone in good faith, and respond negatively, believing they are being ignored or treated unfairly.

Appointment of teachers to classes

Good teachers, or at least those who appear to be good are usually appointed to advanced classes. Thereby, the phenomenon appears that the weaker and less experienced teachers are appointed to the weakest and most problematic classes. Therefore, the former ones are supported and, thus, are satisfied, and the latter ones are being unfairly treated and inevitably are dissatisfied.

How is this policy justified?

The principals following this policy believe that the advanced classes must have the best teachers so as to achieve the best results. The other students who are weaker will not be too harmed by unexperienced or weak teachers.

The fourth and fifth level, i.e. satisfying esteem needs: promotion, influence, power, prestige and self actualization, is not easy to achieve.

Promotion is the reward for a life long effort and success in the profession. A service of over 20 years and good marking by the relevant inspector are necessary in order for a teacher to be promoted to the position of assistant principal and a service of over 28 years for the position of the principal.

As time goes by, the situation is getting harder due to the great number of candidates as opposed to the small number of required positions. Furthermore, because of the large number of prospective teachers and the correspondingly small number of positions, teachers are appointed at a relatively old age, as the system applied at present so demands.

Newly appointed teachers join the profession at a relatively old age (i.e. in their late 30s usually), and therefore have limited chances of getting promotions after successful hard work. This pace of rise in the profession works as an anti-motive for teachers. Thus, promotion as a motive for more productive work or for better performance at work is not that possible. Influence, power, prestige, self actualization will of course depend on a promotion which will certainly give weight and authority to a teacher's views and opinions and the feeling of success in his professional career.

In our schools teachers can of course nevertheless succeed in achieving power and influence when they manage to gain the respect not only of the rest of the teachers but also of their students by their knowledge and personality.

The principal will also contribute to this by the manner in which he will or will not show his respect to a teacher; for example, which classes, which subjects he will appoint him, which activities and which committees he will ask him to get involved in - although for the latter, teachers are almost free to choose themselves - or whether he respects his views at the teaching staff meetings. Moreover, how much not only formally but particularly informally he approaches the teacher or allows the teacher to approach him or to see him at his office and for how long.

Constant transfer of teachers from one school to the other makes the above, however, difficult to be accomplished by a teacher. It also makes it hard for the principal who must constantly seek for new people to co-operate with and means to get to know new people.

At this level there are of course those whose work is directed towards achieving self actualization instigated by internal motives such as ambition and the seeking of success and not being in need of much help by others (external motives). These are the people who feel the need to study and research and aim at their pupils' progress. They are satisfied not only through offering and by the success of their pupils but also by their good relations with the pupils and with their colleagues.

However, there are also those who need acknowledgement and reward for their efforts. Otherwise they get disappointed, their level of performance is reduced and this will inevitably affect pupils, and cause them disappointment too, as the general climate created by the teacher in the class, usually unconsciously, affects them.

In this kind of situation the principal must play an important role. He needs to find ways of reinforcing and encouraging teachers in order for them to keep their interest for work alive. He must inspire them and try to keep their morale high. He must, however, keep in mind while doing this that, according to Maslow's theory, satisfaction, esteem and self actualization are rarely complete, but these higher level needs continually motivate (Chapter 6, Part I, p.113).

While one may say with confidence that the first two or three levels of needs are being met to a great extent, the situation is hardly so as regards the last two:

promotion, power, prestige, self-actualization. These needs remain unmet to a considerable extent especially to those teachers who are appointed in the service for the last 15 years, due to the particular politicosocioeconomical circumstances in Cyprus, as has already been mentioned.

According to McGregor's theories (Chapter 6, Part I, pp. 116-117) the principal is again here called to make a difference. Those who follow a policy in line with the X Theory do not provide any help to teachers. On the contrary by closely watching them and by criticising or judging them strictly, they not only make the teachers feel disappointed but also causes them to lose confidence in themselves and be under stress and anxiety. Such feeling would destroy good human relations and lower the levels of goals.

On the other hand if the principal is the kind of person who believes and acts according to Theory Y, he encourages efforts of teachers, acknowledges the positive points of their unsuccessful efforts, shows trust and confidence to the person and allows them to act on their initiative, gives them time to show what they are worth and does not criticise them. In schools whose principals follow the above, the results are indeed very satisfactory. This realization cannot be, however, reinforced by any statistical figures, because there has not been such a survey in Cyprus, but due to the fact that the country is so small and people know each other more or less, it is easy for one to receive the information one requires by teachers and by pupils' parents.

Herzberg's Hygiene Theory is proved to be correct in its results, as one may detect by studying the system of Secondary Schools in Cyprus. Our centralized system is aimed at offering same working conditions to all teachers. Surely many such conditions are the same, as for example, money, status, security and policies, what Herzberg calls "hygiene factors", which are prerequisites for satisfaction.

However, there are other "hygiene factors" which are not the same in every school, such as administration management, working conditions and interpersonal relations.

Despite efforts to the contrary, it is impossible to achieve the same working conditions in every school. As mentioned in previous chapters, these depend on the area the school is situated, at the pupils' parents' social background and financial status, the parents' level of education and the size of the school. As regards of course the working hours and the number of pupils in each classroom, this is common in all schools - except in rural schools where the number of pupils is small.

The administration management is, however, characteristic of the particular principal, despite the decisions made at principals' meetings for common policy, as this reflects more than anything else, the principal's personality. The way the school functions and the kind of interpersonal relationships depends on the personality of the principal. Furthermore, the manner in which he organises the school activities, the way he delegates duties, i.e. putting the general and particular goals in an order and delegating work/duties to the appropriate people so that these - the goals - may be realised and in a manner so as to avoid conflict and dissatisfaction among the teachers, indicate how important the principal is in his school.

Additionally he should confront difficult situations and solve them, clear misunderstanding in such a way so as to avoid hurting people, without, however, affecting school work. The success of the principal's role depends on the manner in which he manages to handle these situations justly and impartially. Therefore, it is evident once again that the headmaster's role is very important and no doubt affects and determines the prerequisite factors towards teachers' satisfaction.

Herzberg believes, however, that the "motivators" or "satisfiers" are achievement, responsibility, recognition, advancement, work itself and personal growth. (Chapter 6, Part I, pp.118-119). This cannot be questioned. What is now the principal's role? Let us take each one at a time.

1. Achievement:

Whether a teacher will have a chance to show his abilities and knowledge depends to a large extent on the principal: on classes he gets the opportunity to teach, on the subjects, on the pupils, on the activities he is allowed to participate and on the encouragement he (the teacher) is given to involve himself in school activities.

2. Responsibility:

Again here, the freedom to act and apply different systems or methods or not to act freely and always follow traditional ways of teaching/behaving depends on the principal.

3. Recognition:

The recognition of an achievement or the acknowledgement of an effort and success or even the acknowledgement of an effort, despite it being unsuccessful in the end, is a necessary motivation which must be given by the principal.

4. Advancement, work itself and personal growth:

The role of the principal is rather limited in these last three "motivators", "satisfiers".

As far as "advancement" is concerned, the principal assess the work of each teacher at the end of the year in a report. The inspector may take this report in his own assessment of each teacher into account to a large or to a small extent or he may not take it into account at all. Nowadays, however, because of the implementation of more democratic procedures in our system, it is on rare occasions that an inspector does not take the principal's report on a teacher into account; however, the opinion formed of a teacher by the inspector himself is the one which carries more weight as compared to that of the principal. The inspector's assessment must be justified. There is no obligation, however, under the law to assume that the principal's report is correct and to follow it.

The same more or less applies for the "work itself" motivator. In this area, the role of the coordinator assistant principal is significant as he can have contacts with the teachers and assist them to build up their confidence in their work and to feel that there are many ways they can get satisfaction out of their work. The principal may also attempt to make teachers believe in the value of their scientific and social offering.

As regards "personal growth" the type of principal who studies, is knowledgeable and spends time discussing various matters with teachers may offer a lot towards it, i.e. by giving teachers a chance to listen and to discuss with him.

Moreover, he can influence people into reading books and try to implement new methods. In our schools many of the principals organise meetings with the teaching staff and discuss mainly educational matters. As far as matters of special subjects' teaching, they are undertaken by the Pedagogical Institute by organising specific seminars every year towards this end. The type of principal who is interested in teaching methodology and in assisting teachers, advises them to participate in the said seminars and sometimes, though rarely so, participates in them himself to set up an example.

When one examines the "Expectancy Theory" (motivation to behave in a certain way that appears to have the best chance of producing the desired rewards, Chapter 6, Part I, pp.124-125) as opposed to the Cyprus centralized system, one can detect how weak our system is in motivating teachers. The most valuable- important rewards a teacher can get, do not depend on the principal at all. Salaries are predetermined, raises are given at regular periods and promotions are determined by others (and after many years of service and especially for the post of the principal almost at the age of retirement).

Next to "The Expectancy Theory" one can place "The Goal Theory". The Ministry of Education sets the goals and plenty of the detailed explanation and instruction as to how they are to be implemented are given. It is only the by-goals, as to how in practice the goals set by the Ministry are to be achieved, that are set by the principal and the teachers of a school.

In any event the goals set are high and their achievement requires considerable effort and methodology (towards success) on behalf of the principal and teachers of a school. During such efforts the principal must encourage teachers and empower them, perform feedback so as to check if the method followed is working, if not, make the necessary amendments to it according to the teachers' comments and suggestions.

If the principal merely watches teachers from a distance without participating in their task there would be no enthusiasm, things would be done out of necessity and results would be poor, as can be seen in schools managed by principals belonging to categories, mentioned in Chapter 10, Part II.

Sometimes teachers consider the goals set by the Ministry of Education as too high and react fearing that they are too difficult to meet or there is not enough time or means to achieve them. In such situations, the principal must analyse the goal and discuss it with the teachers so as to make it more understandable and, more importantly, acceptable to teachers.

Principal and teachers need to get organized in order to be able to achieve the set goals within the time limit and must find the means, at their disposal, to meet such goals and, furthermore, discover the methods to be followed considering their pupils' standards.

In these situations one can distinguish the competent principals of our schools who manage to change/affect teachers' opinions by their behaviour and ability to convince and with the teachers' help they work towards the general good of Education.

In our schools one can clearly see that it is indeed necessary for teachers to accept the goal; when the teachers are not convinced about a goal's value, they constantly complain and create problems in its materialisation. On the contrary, if they believe in it, no matter how much effort is required, they don't hesitate to make it. Therefore, it seems that A. Locke's "Goal Theory" is applicable in our country at this aspect too.

The theories mentioned offer many suggestions and techniques for improving administrative practices. What our principals can do is after studying them to apply the ones that are suitable in their case, and in particular to reward teachers by internal rewards, since it is not up to them to do so externally.

Complementary to the previous one is J. Richard Hackman and Greg R. Oldman "The Job Characteristic Model" Theory. It is no doubt a fact that the feeling of meaningfulness, the feeling of responsibility and the knowledge of results (through feedback) produce work motivation. This way, work effectiveness and job satisfaction are increased as well.

To conclude, it is, thus, evident that the principal's role in motivation is highly significant. The morale of teachers depends on him, the method towards meeting goals is to be set under his guidance, the results must be examined through feedback by himself, intrinsic rewards have to be created as reinforcements and incentives to the teachers for implementing the goals. What is therefore needed is for the principal to be aware of those methods and practical ways by which he can motivate teachers.

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this work was to examine:

1. How the performance of the role of secondary school principals could be improved, and

in particular:

2. To what extent can knowledge of the theories of administration by principals provide the necessary background and necessary frame of reference to respond to their duties more efficiently?

Part I of this work examined the theories of administration, those concepts of administration which can provide some insight into the Cyprus system, and can be usefully applied in understanding the administration of Cyprus schools, irrespective of the time they were published.

Part II after referring in brief to our educational system, described the authorities and responsibilities of the school principal, the assistant principal and the assistant principal coordinator. Reference was also made to a small scale research project and the results from interviews with a number of principals. The dimensions of administration relevant to secondary public schools in Cyprus (administrative models, communication, decision-making, motivation) were discussed.

Studying the theories and comparing the manner in which administration is practised in Cyprus educational system with them, one can draw the following conclusions:

1. Cyprus' educational system is highly centralized. Principals, teachers are appointed, posted, transferred and promoted by a central committee, the Educational Service Committee. The duties and responsibilities of principals are determined by the regulations and the monthly circulars. Thus, the principal cannot be involved in the educational policy, the determination of the aims and objectives of Education, which are set by the Ministry of Education and Culture.
2. Furthermore, the principal cannot innovate in organizational issues nor in curriculum development, books, examinations, promotion of pupils, appointments of teachers or other employees of the school. The staff of the school (assistant principals and teachers) is there (posted by others), and the principal is obliged to work with it - whether he likes it or not.
3. As the interviews with principals revealed, the principals are fairly satisfied with the existing practice of administration and assistance provided for them by the Ministry, although the regulations determining the functioning of schools hardly offer any opportunity for them to try innovations. Their contribution to the system and the decisions of the Ministry is given through means of suggestions - given in meetings, which may or may not be accepted.
4. The delegation of duties is exercised either according to the existing regulations or according to the traditional practice, which gives advantage to elder teachers (those who have more years in service).
5. Some of the personality characteristics are very important for the work of the principal. These characteristics are related to human relations, beliefs about other people, attitudes towards work, and one's ability to set and work for goals.

6. As for leadership style, communication and decision making, although most of the principals do not possess knowledge of the theories of administration, they incidentally act according to these theories.
7. Many principals believe that they can motivate students and teachers by their behaviour, by the provision of the necessary materials, by developing participation of teachers in the whole work of the school. Most of them, though, believe that their contribution to motivation is rather reduced (cannot be to a large extent), because the main responsibility for developing motivation rests with the Ministry's officials.
8. The way principals act, when compared to the theories of administration, allows one to say that most of them achieve satisfactory results, because they love their job and because of their strong willingness to help. However, they always act/react according to their previous experience rather than from theoretical knowledge. As already mentioned, out of 90 principals, only 5 had postgraduate studies in administration in 1994.
9. It is evident that the principal is very influential with his leadership style, his behaviour, his personal characteristics and his managerial skills (the internal factors which affect the functioning of the school). External factors, however, also affect school functioning:
 - a. The school (the size and location of a school may determine or affect good communication, discipline, and pastoral care).
 - b. The staff (formal and informal groups and their attitudes, especially the assistant principals).
 - c. The students and their parents (their socioeconomic status, their attitudes and values).

Having all the above in mind my conclusions are also based on the following:

- a. the political situation which remains unstable after the Turkish Invasion of 1974 and the abundance of problems that were created as a direct result,
- b. the european orientation of Cyprus and the need to face the challenges of the 21st century,
- c. the new type of school to begin its work experimentally the school year 1995-96,
- d. the age principals are at nowadays when they undertake for the first time the post of administering a school, and the fact that they have no opportunity to acquire experience,
- e. the age of newly appointed teachers,
- f. the conclusions of small scale researches showing that our teachers find it hard to cooperate with each other and do not admit easily their weaknesses or mistakes (see Chapter 8, Part II, p.157).
- g. our communities which are developing, more demanding and not always mature enough,
- h. the financial and housing problems,

I would conclude that not just people with strong personality should be appointed to the post of headmaster but also people with multi managerial skills, who consciously act toward the achievement of the goals set.

The future of today's education systems is their complexity, and multi-agency character. So administration requires responsiveness to specific matters to be more effective. The principals play a critical role in determining the character and success of a school. They are effective in managing schools to the extent they can create conditions for school effectiveness (1), including:

- a. A guiding philosophy or vision for the school, which gives meaning and value to the school's activities.
- b. A strategy for realizing the vision.
- c. Clear responsibilities for each group of stakeholders (teachers, administrators, students and community members).
- d. Participation of stakeholders in decision making.
- e. An active approach to learning in which students are given substantial responsibility for their own learning.
- f. Focused and clear objectives.
- g. High standards for behaviour and performance of all members; and
- h. Mobilization of needed resources.

1. Henry M. Levin, "Effective Schools in Comparative Focus," in Robert Arnove, Philip Altbach and Gail Kelly (eds), **Emergent Issues in Education: Comparative Perspectives** (Albany, N.Y., State University of New York Press, 1992).

Thus, I believe that the necessity for an in-service training programme for the principals is apparent. The following programme is given as an example of the type of course models of which might be offered (2):

1. Presentation and discussion of different models of leadership and management in Education.
2. Introduction to the relevant literature on the theory and practice of educational management and leadership.
3. Exploration of the essential skills of management and the qualities of leadership.
4. School development plans and staff development.
5. Evaluation and understanding of change in complex institutions.

As for the content of the courses they should include the following.

1. Education policy and the central concepts of the field.
2. Management, leadership and change in educational institutions.
3. Evaluation and assessment.
4. Analysing and interpreting educational research.
5. Essential skills in dealing with people.
6. The legislative framework of education.
7. Developing the school and the individual.
8. School and classroom effectiveness.
9. School Headship.
10. Fostering spiritual and moral development.
11. Contemporary issues and research in Education.
12. Comparative Education.
13. Other topics with special interest.

-
2. The Objectives for courses, the Content of courses and the Way to be met, are those offered to students in School of Education, Durham University, United Kingdom.

Ways with which these objectives can be met, can include:

1. Lecture presentation. The Pedagogical Institute is responsible for the in-service training of teachers of all levels. The lectures can either take place by the Pedagogical Institute personnel or by the Cyprus University professors or professors of Universities from abroad. An old policy of the Pedagogical Institute is to invite specialists from abroad. This may prove very fruitful in the present case.
2. Study of Literature.
3. Seminar Discussions.
4. Practical exercises.
5. Educational visits.
6. Case study material.

Regarding the time such a programme should be held, the writer is of the opinion that two half days per week for the period between Christmas and Easter holidays will not seriously affect the principal's job in their schools.

Each principal behaves according to his own personal, experiential theory (intuitive science (3)), which is based on his experiences with people and life. However, people, the whole world, change continuously and what seems good and beneficial today, tomorrow under different circumstances, in different place and time, proves to be lacking or wrong. "Reality is always changing over time in ways we could not predict" (4). "What I do depends on what my theory tells me about the world, not at how the world really is. But what happens next depends on how the world really is, not on how I believe it to be" (5).

3. Guy Claxton, **Live and Learn, An Introduction to the Psychology of Growth and Change in Everyday Life** (Harper and Row Publishers, London, 1984), p.13.

4. *Ibid.*, p. 18.

5. *Ibid.*, p. 17.

All theories, even the most scientific and successful, give answers to our questions, but they all have "foci and ranges of convenience" (6), the areas and ranges of knowledge, experiences and purposes for which they work. So they are inadequate, not limitless.

Thus, one should adjust each theory to current situations. Each theory teaches us how to do many things but their relevance with the reality, their applicability and appropriateness are not given; they have to be found out (7). "All the theories are devised for a purpose and the best is the one that helps you achieve that purpose most speedily, most effectively or with least effort" (8).

Theories are not the panacea for solving educational problems. Used, though, properly can give us reliable indication of how to get what we want in different circumstances. What we have to do is refine and modify what is known to meet changed circumstances: to pick up what is significant to us with increasing accuracy and reliability, the most fitting in the existing situation (9).

This study, on the whole, hardly exhausts the subject. More studies are needed, as the improvement of the principal's effectiveness and efficiency will consequently improve the effectiveness of the school, because the role of the principal, as shown by this study, is very important and a key determining factor for the success of Education.

6. *Ibid.*, p. 5.

7. *Ibid.*, p. 43.

8. *Ibid.*, p. 6.

9. *Ibid.*, pp. 41-42.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abbot, M.G. (1965), "Intervening Variables in Organizational Behavior," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, 1.
- Anderson, J. (1976), "Giving and Receiving Feedback," in Paul R. Lawrence, Louis B. Barnes, and Jay W. Lorsh (eds.) **Organizational Behavior and Administration**, Homewood, IL: Irwin, 103-111.
- Anderson, M.B.G., and Iwanicki, E.F. (1984), "Teacher Motivation and its Relationship to Burnout," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, 20, 109-132.
- Argyris, C. (1957), **Personality and Organizations**, New York: Harper and Row.
- Bakke E.W., and Argyris, C. (1954), **Organizational Structure and Dynamics**, New Haven, Labour and Management Centre, Yale University.
- Bales, R.F. (1954), "In Conference," **Harvard Business Review**, 32, 41-49.
- Barnard, C. (1972), **The Functions of the Executive**, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Barnette, B.G. (1984), "Subordinate Teacher Power in School Organizations," **Sociology of Education**, 57, 43-55.
- Beare, H., Caldwell, B. J., and Millikan, R.M. (1992), **Creating an Excellent School, Some New Management Techniques**, London: Routledge.
- Berlo, D.K. (1970), **The Process of Communication**, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Bidwell, C.E. (1965), "The School as a Formal Organization," in James G. March (ed.), **Handbook of Organization**, Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Blake, R.R., and Mouton, J.S. (1985), **The Managerial Grid III**, Houston TX. Gulf.

- Blau, P.M., and Scott, W.R. (1962), **Formal Organizations: A Comparative Approach**, San Francisco: Chandler.
- Bolman, L.G., and Deal, T.E. (1984), **Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations**, San Francisco: Jossey - Bass.
- Bowers, D.G., and Seashore, S.E. (1966), "Predicting Organizational Effectiveness with a Four - Factor Theory of Leadership," **Administrative Science Quarterly**, 11, 238 - 264.
- Braybrook, D., and Lindblom, C.E. (1963), **The Strategy of Decision**, New York:Free Press.
- Bridges, E.M. (1967), "A Model for Shared Decision Making in the School Principalsip," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, 3, 49-61.
- Bridges, E.M. (1964), "Teacher Participation in Decision Making," **Administrator's Notebook**, 12, 1-4.
- Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler E.E.III, and Weick, K.E., Jr. (1970), **Managerial Behavior, Performance, and Effectiveness**, New York: McGraw Hill.
- Campbell, J.P., and Pritchard, R.D. (1976), "Motivation Theory in Industrial and Organizational Psychology," in Marvin D. Dunnette (ed.) **Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology**, Chicago: Rand McNally, 63-130.
- Capmfield, W.L. (1965), "Motivating the Professional Employee," **Personnel Journal**, 44, 425-428, 442.
- Cartledge, N. and Knerr, C.S. (1970), "Studies of the Relationship between Satisfaction, Goal - Setting, and Performance," **Organizational Behavior and Human Performance**, 5, 135-139.
- Chisolm, G. B., Washington, R., and Thibodeaux, M. (1980), "Job Motivation and the Need Fulfillment Deficiencies of Educators." (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston).

- Claxton, G. (1984), **Live and Learn, An Introduction to the Psychology of Growth and Change in Everyday Life**, London: Harper and Row.
- Coch, L., and French, J.R.P., Jr. (1948), "Overcoming Resistance to Change," **Human Relations**, 1, 512 - 532.
- Cubberly, E.P. (1916), **Public School Administration**, Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Daft, R.L., and Lengel, H. (1984), "Information Richness: A new Approach to Managerial Behavior and Organization Design," **Research in Organizational Behavior**, 6, 191 - 233.
- Deci, E.L. (1975), **Intrinsic Motivation**, New York: Plenum.
- Drucker, P. (1954), **The Practice of Management**, New York: Harper and Row.
- Etzioni, A. (1964), **Modern Organizations**, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice - Hall.
- Everard, K.B., and Morris, G. (1985), **Effective School Management**, London: Harper and Row.
- Fayol, H. (1949), **General and Industrial Management**, trans. Constance Storrs, London: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1967), **A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness**, New York: McGraw - Hill.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1971), **Leadership**, New York: General Learning Press.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1976), "The Leadership Game: Matching the Man to the Situation," **Organizational Dynamics**, 7, 6-16.
- Fiedler, F.E., and Chemers, M.M. (1984), **Improving Leadership Effectiveness**, (2nd ed.) New York: Wiley.

- Fleishman, E.A. (1973), "Twenty Years of Consideration and Structure," in Fleishman and James G. Hunt (eds.), **Current Developments in the Study of Leadership**, Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Galbraith, J., and Cummings, L.L. (1967), "An Empirical Investigation of the Motivational Determinants of Task Performance: Interactive Effects Between Instrumentality - Valence and Motivation - Ability," **Organization Behavior and Human Performance**, 2, 237 - 257.
- Getzels, J.W., and Guba E.G. (1957), "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," **School Review**, 65, 423 - 441.
- Getzels, J.W., Lipham, J.M., and Campbell, R.F. (1968), **Educational Administration as a Social Process: Theory, Research and Practice**, New York: Harper and Row.
- Gerth, H.H., and Mills, C.W. (eds.) (1946), **From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology**, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Gibson, J.L., Ivancevich J.M., and Donnelly, J.H., Jr. (1976), **Organizations: Behavior, Structure and Processes**, rev. ed., Dallas, TX: Business Publications.
- Grace, G. (1995), **School Leadership: Beyond Education Management, An Essay in Policy Scholarship**, The Falmer Press.
- Guetzkow, H. (1965), "Communication in Organizations," in James G. March (ed.) **Handbook of Organizations**, Chicago: Rand McNally, 534 - 573.
- Gulick, L., and Urwick, L. (eds.) (1937), **Papers on the Science of Administration**, New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University.
- Hackman, J.R., and Lawler E.E.III (1971), "Employee Reactions to Job Characteristics," **Journal of Applied Psychology Monograph**, 55, 259-286.
- Hackman, J.R., and Oldham, G.R. (1975), "Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey," **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 60, 159-170.

- Hackman, J.R., and Oldham, G.R. (1976), "Motivation Through the Design of Work: A Test of a Theory," **Organizational Behavior and Human Performance**, 16, 250 - 279.
- Hackman, J.R., and Oldham, G.R. (1980), **Work Redesign**, Reading, MA: Addison - Wesley.
- Hall, A.D., and Fagen, R.E. (1956), "Definition of a System," **General Systems: The Yearbook of the Society for General Systems Research**, 1.
- Halpin, A.W. (1956), **The Leader Behavior of School Superintendents**, Columbus, OH: College of Education: Ohio State University.
- Halpin, A.W. (1958), **Administrative Theory in Education**, Chicago, Midwest Administrative Center: University of Chicago.
- Halpin, A.W., and Croft, D.B. (1963), "The Organizational Climate of Schools," **Administrators Note Book**, 2, No.7.
- Halpin, A.W. (1966), **Theory and Research in Administration**, New York: Macmillan.
- Herrick, H.S. (1973), "The Relationship of Organizational Structure to Teacher Motivation in Multiunit and Non-multiunit Elementary Schools," **Technical Report No. 322**; Madison, WI: Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, The University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, ERIC Document ED 101442.
- Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K.H. (1982), **Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources**, (4th ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice - Hall.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., and Snyderman, B. (1959), **The Motivation to Work**, New York: Wiley.
- Hodgkinson, C. (1991), **Educational Leadership, The Moral Art**, New York: State University of New York Press.

- House, R.J. and Baetz, M.L. (1979), "Leadership: Some Empirical Generalizations and New Research Directions," **Research in Organizational behavior**, 1, 341 - 423.
- House, R.J., and Mitchell, T.R. (1974), "Path - Goal Theory and Leadership," **Journal of Contemporary Business**, 3, 81-97.
- Hoy, W.K., and Miskel, C.G. (1987), **Educational Administration, Theory, Research and Practice**, (3rd ed.) New York: Random House.
- Janis, I.L., and Mann, L. (1977), **Decision Making: A Psychological Analysis of Conflict, Choice and Commitment**, New York: Free Press.
- Janis, I.L. (1985), "Sources of Error in Strategic Decision Making," in Johannes M. Pennings and Associates, **Organizational Strategy and Change**, San Fransisco: Jossey - Bass, 157 - 197.
- Jones, A. (1988), **Leadership for Tomorrow's Schools**, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Katz, D., and Kahn, R. (1978), **The Social Psychology of Organizations**, (2nd ed.), New York: Wiley.
- Katz, D., Maccoby, N. and Morse, N. (1950), **Productivity, Supervision, and Morale in an Office Situation**, Detroit: Darel.
- Kemp, R., and Nathan M. (1990), **Middle Management in Schools. A Survival Guide**, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Knezewich, S.J. (1969), **Administration of Public Education**, New York: Harper and Row.
- Koontz, H., O'Donnell, C., and Weihrich, H. (1980), **Management**, New York: McGraw.
- Landers T., and Myers J.G., (1977), **Essentials of School Management**, Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders.

- Latham, G. P., and Yukl, G.A. (1975), "A Review of Research on the Application of Goal Setting in Organizations," **Academy of Management Journal**, 18, 824-845.
- Level, D.A., Jr. (1972), "Communication Effectiveness: Method and Situation," **Journal of Business Communication**, 9, 19-25.
- Levin, H.M. (1992), "Effective Schools in Comparative Focus," in Robert Arnove, Philip Altbach and Gail Kelly (eds) **Emergent Issues in Education: Comparative Perspectives**, Albany NY: State University of New York Press.
- Lewis, P.V. (1975), **Organizational Communications: The Essence of Effective Management**, Columbus, OH: Grid.
- Lindblom, C.E. (1959), "The Science of Muddling Through," **Public Administrative Review**, 19, 79-99.
- Lindblom, C.E. (1968), **The Policy - Making Process**, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice - Hall.
- Linton, R. (1936), **The Study of Man**, New York: Appleton - Century - Crofts.
- Lipham, J.M. (1964), " Leadership and Administration," in Daniel Griffiths (ed.), **Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education**, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Litterer, J.A. (1969), **Organizations: Systems, Control, and Adaptation**. Vol.2, (2nd ed.), New York: Wiley.
- Locke, E.A. (1968), "Toward a Theory of Task Motivation and Incentives," **Organizational Behavior and Human Performance**, 3, 157 - 189.
- Locke, E.A., and Schneiger, D.M. (1979), "Participation in Decision Making: One More Look," **Research in Organizational Behavior**, 1, 265-339.
- Lowe, R. (1989), **The Changing Secondary School**, London: Falmer Press.

- Maslow, A.H. (1970), **Motivation and Personality**, (2nd ed.) New York: Harper and Row.
- Maslow, A.H. (1943), "A Theory of Human Motivation," **Psychological Review**, 50, 370-396.
- Mayo, E. (1933), **The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization**, New York: Mackmillan.
- McGregor, D. (1960), **The Human Side of Enterprise**, New York: McGraw Hill.
- Merton, R. (1969), "The Social Nature of Leadership," **American Journal of Nursing**, 69, 2614 - 2618.
- Metcalf, H.C., and Urwick, L. (1941), **Dynamic Administration: The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follet**, New York: Harper and Row (Mary Parker Follet, **Creative Experience**, London: Longmans Green).
- Miner, J.B. (1980), **Theories of Organizational Behavior**, Hinsdale, IL: Dryden.
- Miskel, C., De Frain, J., and Wilcox, K. (1980), "A Test of Expectancy Work Motivation Theory in Educational Organizations," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, 16, 70-92.
- Miskel, C., McDonald, D., and Bloom, S. (1983), "Structural and Expectancy Linkages within Schools and Organizational Effectiveness," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, 19, 49-82.
- Mitchell, D.E., Ortiz, F.I., and Mitchel, T.K. (1982), "Executive Summary," **Controlling the Impact of Rewards and Incentives on Teacher Task Performance**, Washington, DC: National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, Grant NIE-G-80-0154.
- Morphet, E.L., Johns, R.L., and Reller, T.L. (1967), **Educational Organization and Administration, Concepts, Practices, and Issues**, (2nd ed.) Englewoods Cliffs, NJ:Prentice Hall.
- Mortimore, P., and Mortimore, J. (1991), **The Secondary Head, Roles, Responsibilities and Reflections**, London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

- Musgrove, F. (1995), "Patterns of Power and Authority in English Education," in Gerald Grace, **School Leadership: Beyond Education Management, An Essay in Policy Scholarship**, The Falmer Press.
- Myers, R.B. (1954), "The Development and Implications of a Conception for Leadership Education," (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), University of Florida, in W.K. Hoy and C.G. Miskel **Educational Administration, Theory, Research and Practice**, (3rd ed.) New York: Random House.
- Nadler, D.A. (1979), "The Effects of Feedback on Task Group Behavior: A Review of the Experimental Research," **Organizational Behavior and Human Performance**, 23, 309- 338.
- Nadler, D.A., and Tushman, M.L. (1983), " A General Diagnostic Model for Organizational Behavior Applying a Congruence Perspective," in J.R. Hackam, E.E. Lawler III, and L.W. Porter (eds.), **Perspectives on Behavior in Organizations**, New York: McGraw - Hill.
- Odiorne, G.S. (1965), **Management by Objectives: A System of Managerial Leadership**, New York: Pitman.
- Odiorne, G.S. (1969), **Management Decisions by Objectives**, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice - Hall.
- Olsen, M.E. (1968), **The Process of Social Organization**, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Parsons, T. (1960), **Structure and Process in Modern Society**, New York: Free Press.
- Papanastasiou, K. (1990), **Unpublished Research of the Pedagogical Institute**, Nicosia Cyprus.
- Pavliades, A. (1986), "Education," in **Megali Kypriaki Encyclopedia**, V, p.33.
- Persianis, P. (1994), "The Role of the Coordinator Assistant Principal in the Development of the Personnel," in the **Bulletin of the Assistant Principals' Association**, pp.34-35.

- Phylactou, A.K. (1994), "The Role of the Coordinator Assistant Principal in Secondary Schools," in the **Bulletin of the Assistant Principals' Association**, Nicosia, p.66.
- Porter, L.W. (1962), "Job Attitudes in Management: I. Perceived Defficiencies in Need Fulfillment as a Function of Job Level," **Journal of Applied Psychology**, 46, 375-384.
- Porter, L.W., and Roberts, K.H. (1976), "Communication in Organizations," in Marvin D.Dunnette (ed.) **Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology**, Chicago: Rand McNally 1533-1589.
- Rebore, R.W. (1991), **Personnel Administration in Education, A Management Approach**, (3rd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Redding, W.C. (1972), **Communication Within the Organization**, West Lafayette, IN: Purdue Research Council.
- Roethlisberger, F.J., and Dickson, W.J. (1939), **Management and the Worker**, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Saxe, R.W. (1980), **Educational Administration, Today: An Introduction**, California, University of Toledo, Berkeley.
- Schein, E.H. (1965), **Organizational Psychology**, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice - Hall.
- Schmidt, G. (1976), "Job Satisfaction Among Secondary School Administrators," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, 12, 68-86.
- Scott, W.R. (1983), "Introduction: From Technology to Environment," in John M. Meyer and W. Richard Scott (eds), **Organizational Environments: Ritual and Rationality**, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Sergiovanni, T. (1967), "Factors Which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers," **Journal of Educational Administration**, 5, 66-82.
- Simon, H. (1957), **Administrative Behavior**, (2nd ed.) New York: Free Press.

- Steers, R.M., and Porter, L.W. (1979), **Motivation and Work Behavior**, (2nd ed.) New York: McGraw - Hill.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1948), "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," **Journal of Psychology**, 25, 35-71.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1963), **Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII**, Columbus, OH: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1974), **Handbook of Leadership**, New York: Free Press.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1981), "Traits of Leadership: A Follow up to 1970," in Bernard M. Bass (ed.) **Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership**, New York : Free Press.
- Swanson, G.E. (1959), "The Effectiveness of Decision-Making Groups," **Adult Leadership**, 8, 48-52.
- Taylor, F.W. (1947), **The Principles of Scientific Management**, New York: Harper.
- Taylor, F.W. (1911), **Shop Management**, New York: Harper and Row.
- Thayer, L.O. (1961), **Administrative Communication**, Homewood, IL: Irwin
- Thody, A. (1992), **Moving to Management, School Governors in the 1990s**, London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Thompson, V. (1961), **Modern Organization**, New York: Alfred Knopf, Inc.
- Thompson, V. (1965), "Bureaucracy and Innovation," **Administrative Quarterly**, 10, No 1.
- Trusty, F.M., and Sergiovanni, T.J. (1966), "Perceived Need Deficiencies of Teachers and Administrators: A Proposal for Restructuring Teacher Roles," **Educational Administration Quarterly**, 2, 168-180.

Vroom, V. (1964), **Work and Motivation**, New York: Wiley.

Vroom, V.H., and Yetton, P.W. (1973), **Leadership and Decision-Making**, Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Vroom, V.H. (1976), "Leadership," in Marvin D. Dunnette (ed.) **Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology**, Chicago: Rand McNally, 1527 - 1551.

Waller, W. (1932), **The Sociology of Teaching**, New York: Wiley.

Warwick, D. (1994), "School Organization in Pakistan: Administration, Management, or Leadership?" in UNESCO'S Education Sector's **Education Brief No. 2**, Cambridge, Mass. Harvard Institute for International Development.

Weber, M. (1947), **The Theory of Social and Economic Organizations**, Talcott Parsons (ed.), A.M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons (trans.), New York: Free Press.

West, M., and Ainscow, M. (1991), **Managing School Development, A Practical Guide**, London: David Fulton Publishers.

White, R.K., and Lippitt, R.O. (1960), **Autocracy and Democracy: An Experimental Inquiry**, New York: Harper and Row.

APPENDIX

Edited version of the interviews with the secondary school principals. Each letter A, B, C, etc. refers to one of the participants.

- Q. 1. ***Do you believe that the leader is born or made?***
- B. Yes, one is born a leader. A leader needs to have characteristics which are not taught; You either have them or you do not: Intelligence, patience, insistence...
- C. Yes, one is born a leader. The role of a principal is very demanding. There are many innate abilities which one needs. How can one who is weak and coward become a leader?
- A. Many of the qualities needed can be taught; how to behave to other people, how to respect people and their opinions, regardless of whether you agree with them or not.
- I. Many things can be taught; how to set goals and implement them, how to make choices, to delegate duties, to cooperate, to approach people. Some have this innate ability - to approach people. However, ... people can be taught how to be more sociable.
- G. ... confidence can be taught, even speaking ability is cultivated and developed. Many things can be taught.
- Q. 2. ***How important are the particular circumstances of the school, i.e. how much do they influence the effectiveness of the principal?***
- J. The community in which a school is situated has a large effect on work undertaken in the school ...

D. Most of the parents are not educated people; they are good people but they do not know how to behave to their children or how to cooperate with the school. We regularly invite/ask them to come to school to discuss their children's problems but they never come for various reasons ... Those who do come, put sometimes the blame on teachers and create more problems. It is not easy to communicate with them.

I. I was appointed to this school. I expected to face a normal school. This is huge! It is a Gymnasium and it has 1.000 pupils. There are not enough classrooms for all of them. We are constantly moving classrooms from room to room. I can never be sure of what is happening in the entire school ...

D. Most of the staff are inexperienced, newly appointed teachers, with the exception of the two assistant principals. However, they are not experienced administrators, so I have all the burden of the work...

Q. 3 ***Task oriented or social oriented?***

G. The work of the school is above all. That is why we are paid.

I. Everything depends on good human relations.

E. The work of the school is above all. Good human relations make it easier.

Q. 4 ***Behaviour towards the assistant principals and the teachers (the same or different?)***

E. The assistant principals are the people I can depend on. They are the more hard-working members of the staff; it would be unfair for me not to differentiate them from the others.

I. I try to be polite to all; I think highly of the assistant principals. They are experienced and efficient and greatly contribute to the difficult task of administering the school. Because they have been in this school for some years now, they know how to deal with certain issues better than I do.

J. ... The assistant principals I work with this year are very competent and they are my closest associates ...

C. The assistant principal in my school is inexperienced; Of course I differentiate him from the others, but I have to carry most of the work load due to his inexperience.

Q. 5. ***Conflicts in school***

B. My school is very small ... actually ... no problems.

C. What kind of problems and fractions/conflicts can a small school like mine have? Not many and not that serious ... When in rare occasions a problem appears I deal with it myself or with the teachers and the pupils together.

J. The assistant principals deal with the conflicts between the pupils. Seldom do I need to interfere when the case is a serious one. The same applies for teachers. If there is a serious conflict between them ... I invite the interested parties in my office, we discuss and solve the dispute ...

Q. 6. ***Delegation of duties.***

H. The delegation of duties is made according to the existing regulations. Our system, as you know, is centralized.

G. ... the elder in the service teachers and the more experienced have the priority ...

Q. 7. ***How the committees work***

E. I want to know what happens in the committees. I watch them step by step. After all I am the one who is responsible for whatever happens in school.

B. The committees work according to my instructions. The assistant principal in charge informs me accordingly.

D. ... my approval is needed for the kind of contacts and the amount of money needed.

Q. 8. ***Acceptance of new ideas of administration***

J. I follow the practices which the Ministry of Education has instructed.

G. I manage to put new ideas into practice; since we set our internal aims and objectives, apart from those of the Ministry of Education, there are opportunities for a school to present its own "personality".

H. When I have willing associates I also have the opportunity to try new approaches or procedures. However, this does not occur often.

Q. 9. ***The centralized system***

D. The regulations are very detailed and there are not opportunities for innovations.

H. No, there are no opportunities for innovations. Everything, books, teachers, material ... have nothing to do with the principal.

- I. Since we set our own internal aims/objectives apart from those of the Ministry there are opportunities for a school to present its own "personality".
 - A. The socioeconomic background of the pupils is the main reason which differentiates a school from the others.
- Q. 10. ***Contribution to the system***
- H. The only ways we have to contribute to the system are our monthly meetings and our meetings with the Director of Secondary Education.
 - C. The only ways we have to contribute to the system are some suggestions we make at our meetings ...
 - D. We make suggestions ... but nobody accepts them.
- Q. 11. ***The functioning of the school***
- A. Everything is done by cooperation ...
 - H. The cooperation with the assistant principals mainly enables me to know what is going on in the school.
 - G. I check the way of how the school functions by cooperation with the assistant principals, the counsellor of the school and the meetings of the staff, as well as through the records with the pupils' grades.
 - I. Due to the fact that my school is very large I cannot have a clear picture of what is happening by my own. I get information for many things from the assistant principals or the teachers ...

Q. 12. ***Decision - making process***

- B. I decide about everything. I am the only one responsible for what is happening in the school. After all everybody here is new in this work. Of course the serious problems are dealt with in the staff meetings. My opinion, however, is always taken into great consideration.

- D. All issues determined by the regulations are discussed in staff meetings. All other issues are examined by myself and the assistant principals.

- F. There are cases in which I alone decide what is going to be done. In others the decision is taken both by the assistant principals and myself or the staff and myself. It depends on the case.

- E. I am the one who decides; I would not be considered much of a principal if I was not able to pass my own ideas in the decisions ...

- H. The regulations are very clear; everything is done according to them.

Q. 13 ***Decision - making and morale of the staff***

- A. The staff involvement in the decision-making procedure is very important and it certainly improves the morale. Their views are taken into consideration, something which is appreciated and makes them feel more responsible.

- G. New teachers have a lot to learn at the same time also a lot to offer.

- I. Of course the involvement of the staff in the decision-making procedure helps them to understand the way the school is functioning and to improve their attitude towards offering in the school work.
 - H. Teachers who want to offer and work volunteer their help.
 - E. Teachers want their opinion to be considered.
Who is responsible, though, if something goes wrong?
- Q. 14. ***Communication***
- H. Communication is also exercised according to regulations. There are regular meetings with the assistant principals, the staff, the students. For everyday communication there are announcements on the boards ...
 - J. According to regulations ... I speak to teachers and pupils. I often have meetings with the parents ...
 - G. Parents are informed about the progress and conduct of their children through the reports and the personal contacts ... there are occasions when we call them or send them, on serious cases, informative letters.
 - I. The informal communication is sometimes more effective. Teachers speak more freely and in a more personal level.
 - E. My office is always open for all ...
 - F. I am trying to keep a "safety distance"; man cannot depend on something that one expresses informally.

Q. 15 *Motivation of teachers*

- A. Good human relations help the work of the school.
- E. Good human relations are the key for success.
- J. You need to show them that you respect them in order for them to work.
- D. "The right man in the right place" is very important for effective results.
- G. People work; there are, however, plenty of deficiencies; not enough laboratories or classrooms, the school is large, the number of pupils in each class is large ...
- F. How can I give them incentives? Principals do not have real authority. I have nothing to do with promotions, salaries ...
The only thing I can do is a good report at the end of the year.
- I. Of course teachers are more interested in the school affairs when you delegate responsibilities or allow them to take initiatives.

