

Chapter II

Review of Related Literature

Introduction

The question of measures of either school effectiveness or principal effectiveness is a complex one. In their excellent discussion of methodological issues in studying effective schools, Rowan, Bossert, and Dwyer (1983) say, 'Past research has defined school effectiveness narrowly as instructional effectiveness and has measured this construct using standardized achievement tests. This approach ignores the variety of school goals and yields measures of school effectiveness that are in valid and unreliable'. The question of principal effectiveness is even more complex than that of school effectiveness, for the scientific community has yet to develop either the theory or the research methodology to trace the impact of managerial actions on organizational productivity. In the case of schools, a multitude of other factors intervene between the actions of the principal and any measures of school effectiveness.

While there is no single, commonly agreed upon definition of effective principals, both researchers and practitioners generally identify effective principals partially on the basis of organizational performance most commonly indicated by student achievement scores and partially on the basis of less tangible or

reputational factors. Because of variations in demographics, resources, and environment, there is no absolute achievement standard that can be applied. The intangibles may include superintendent's ranking, community satisfaction, staff attendance, turn over, and satisfaction. Despite the lack of a single, performance based definition for principal effectiveness, there is often agreement among the various sources that certain principals are effective; not only do students in their schools perform well academically, but members of their school communities feel a common sense of purpose and a positive response to what is occurring in their schools.

In negotiating the path from research to policy or from research to practice, there are numerous cautions to be invoked along the way. Much of the research has been at the elementary level; care is necessary in applying the findings to larger and more complex secondary schools. There are multiple methodological problems involving sample selection and research design. Most of the studies are cross sectional and correlational. They look at a particular school at a particular point in time, but they lack the methodological rigour to support statements of causality.

Educational Administration

The word administration is derived from the Latin root 'minister'. Minister means service. Service means the work which

is inscribed to the good of others. On the other hand, the simplest meaning of administration is to get the work done by a process of democratic authority with rules and regulations including sufficient control. Therefore, administration is a machinery through which any organisation or institution is managed. It is a means or set up for a smooth and efficient working of a political government or of an educational structure. So, administration is a machinery dealing with groups of people politically, socially or educationally.

In order to have various connotations of the term 'administration', it may be relevant to present a few definitions of it.

According to Meber, (1947)

'administration is the performance of the executive duties of an institution. Administration implies knowledge and proficiency in all the executive activities necessary for the optimum functioning of the school.'

Ordway Tead (1951) views administration as the art of getting things done. He gives a definition which not only explains administration but also leads towards the understanding of what is good or poor administration. He says,

'administration is conceived as the necessary

activity of the individuals (executives) in an organisation, who are charged with ordinary forwarding, facilitating the associated efforts of a group of individual's brought together to realisation of defined purposes.'

But Russel T. Gregg (1957) in his article on administration in the 'Encyclopydia of Educational Research' goes further and considers that educational administration is also concerned with the growth of adults. He says,

'Educational administration is the process of utilizing appropriate materials in such a way as to promote effectively the development of human qualities.'

American Association of School Administration (1963) describes.

'administration as the sum total of processes through which appropriate human and material resources are made available and made effective for accomplishing the purposes of an enterprise.'

In fact, educational administration includes everything regarding the efficient functioning of the educational institutions securing the highest benefit to the greatest number through an adoption of practical measures. It interprets and classifies the

functions and the activities of an educational programme in fruitful relationships and harmonies.

In short, the purpose of educational administration is to facilitate teaching and learning.

Ben M. Harris (1963) says,

'...administration becomes the function characterised by those activities which are neither remote by nor directly related to pupils or instruction, but which tends to give unity to the entire operation by being something related to all functional areas.'

Mukherjee (1963) thinks that -

'Educational administration is concerned with the management of the things as well as with human relationships.'

Simon (1966) describes, 'administration in the ordinary sense as an art of getting things done.' This art involves two aspects that is the actual doing and more importantly, the things which are required to be done. The actual doing refers to the activities of the administrators towards the performance of the task which may be labelled as administrative task but more important than this is the process of decision which leads to these activities.

Educational administration has a few individual marking of its own. According to the Encyclopydia of Education (1979), it is a process concerned with the overall direction and support of the schools. It includes the immediate leadership of principals and the specialized skills of the other staff members all under the general control of the Director of School Education of the state."

Originally leadership was thought of in terms of the direction or command of the group by its most able member. As Chandrakanta says,

"...although there is no single accepted definition of administration, there is general agreement that it is concerned with the dealing and coordinating of the activities of groups of people."

Administration takes place in an organization. The organization is activated by the decisions of the persons who are members of the organization. In this way the doings in the organization are influenced by the decisions of the members. The 'decision' is a very important ingredient in the smooth functioning of an organization. John D. Millet (1978) states,

"administration involves activities and processes which require specialized efforts and sophistication. These have frequently been identified as including such activities as planning, programing, budgeting, staffing, construction, supply-

ing, servicing and evaluating and such processes as leadership, organization, communication and coordination."

It is generally admitted that, administration is the most important part of the organization for achieving the objectives and aims at educational organization, and is necessary to help a system through which the work can be done along with some controls, checks and balances. To get the work in education done means establishing the educational administrative structure and its machinery. The machinery includes various steps, planning, budgeting, organization, direction, coordination and evaluation.

Administration includes both a task dimension and a human dimension; that means, there is the work of organization. Educational administration concerns the growth and development of people. It includes leadership. To make effective improvement of the structural and functional system of an educational institution, careful development of the organization is necessary. Leadership is an important criterion for maintenance and improvement of the quality of staff and organization. With out a good leader the staff and organization cannot be developed. So, educational administration concerns the growth and development of people.

Administration as an Art

Administration generally deals with human materials at all levels. Therefore, an administrator has to deal with human beings individually or collectively, whatever kind they may be. So, here lies the peculiarity and difficulty of this art. It is a known fact that human nature is complex and reactive. So, it becomes difficult to manipulate human beings as they are not always teachable. They are very often resistant to change. The successful administrator has skills which are not codified in text books, but are uncoded art. Therefore, the only sure way to learn administration is by being an administrator.

One view is that good administrators are born. Administrators like poets, authors, artists, learn this art by a method of trial and error largely. In other words, an administrator has to be a learner all his life. There may be some broad principles of administration but there are no thumb-rule methods which are applicable for all and at all levels. The administrator when comes to deal with individuals in their collective aspects, very few rules are available to guide him. He has, in fact to depend on the principle of tactfulness. However, recent developments and many studies on administration tend to show that successful administrators today need more than inborn personality traits to manage modern complex organization. Educational administrator has to deal with human material all along the line. That is why, he

has to preserve some qualities which brought him into prominence as a teacher. This gives him the basis for academic authority which is an essential ingredient of leadership in educational situations.

Administration as a Science

To talk of the science of administration means to emphasize the study and use of the relevant theories and techniques of administration in the understanding and solution of practical administrative issues and problems. According to Culbertson (1965),

"The assumption underlying the science of administration consists of a body of knowledge about making and implementing of decisions by those who have the responsibility for a total organization or for an important division, programme or function within it and modes of inquiry which can add to this body of knowledge."

Frederick Taylor (1911), Follett and Mary Parker (1924), Henri Fayol (1935), Elton Mayo (1946) and Chester Barnard (1948) treated administration as a scientific management. In scientific administration emphasis is on organizational structure and the formal relationship of personnel to obtain efficiency in operation.

Luther Gulick and L. Urwick (1937) suggested the administrator to answer the question, 'What is the work of the chief executive? What does he do?' The answer is POSDCORB. POSDCORB is, of course, 'acronym' designed to call attention to the various functional elements of the work of a chief executive because 'administration' and 'management' have lost all specific content. POSDCORB stands for the following activities:

Planning, that is, working out in broad outline the things that need to be done and devising the methods for doing them to accomplish the purpose set for the enterprise;

Organizing, that is the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work sub-divisions are arranged, defined and co-ordinated for the defined objective;

Staffing, that is the whole personnel function of bringing in and training the staff and maintaining favourable conditions of work;

Directing, that is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the leader of the enterprise;

Co-ordinating, that is the all important duty of interrelating the various parts of work;

Reporting, that is keeping those to whom the executive is responsible informed as to what is going on, which thus includes keeping himself and his subordinates

informed through records, research and inspection;
Budgeting, that is with all that goes with budgeting in
the form of fiscal planning, accounting and control.

This statement of the work of a chief executive is adapted from the functional analysis elaborated by Henri Fayol (1938) in his 'Industrial and General Administration'. It is assumed that those who know administration intimately will find in this analysis a valid and helpful pattern, to which each of the major activities and duties of any chief executive can be fitted.

If these seven elements may be accepted as the major duties of the chief executive, it follows that they may be separately organized as subdivisions of the executive's functions or roles. The need for such subdivision depends entirely on the size and complexity of the enterprise. In the largest enterprise, particularly where the chief executive is as a matter of fact unable to do the work that is thrown upon him, it may be presumed that one or more parts of POSDCORB should be sub-organized.

In 1950, Sears published the first of the administrative works which feature the process of administrative decision-making. Acknowledging his debt to Fayol and Gulick, Sears visualized the process of administration as consisting of planning, organization, direction, coordination and control, a list closely paralleling that of Fayol. The concept was further enlarged by several

writers in school administration, who subsequently clarified and simplified the 'alphabetical' conceptions surrounding administration as a process.

In 1961, Griffiths and Heapill published a study which outlined the process in terms of what has become known as the scientific process of problem-solving. Table 1 contains some of the comparative views held by writers in the field on the subject of administration as a process.

Table 1 : COMPARATIVE VIEWS OF ADMINISTRATION AS A PROCESS

Viewer	FEWAL	GILICK AND URWICK	SEARS	GRESS	GRIFFITH AND KEPPHILL	CAMPBELL, CORBALLY AND ROSEVEAR
Date	1930	1937	1939	1957	1961	1962
Work reported in	Administration Industrielle et Générale	Papers on The Science of Administration	The Nature of the Administrative Process	"The Administra- tive Process"	Administrative Performance and Personality	Introduction to Educa- tional Administration
Elements of the Adm- Process	Planning	Planning	Planning	Decision-making	Recognizing a Problem	Decision making
	Organizing	Organizing	Organizing	Planning	Preparing to clarify the problem	Programming
	Commanding	Staffing	Direction	Organizing	Initiating work in preparation	Stimulating
	Coordinating	Directing	Coordinating	Communicating	Organizing & judging facts, opinions, and situations	Coordinating
	Controlling	Coordinating	Control	Influencing	Selection alterna- tives	Appraising
		Reporting Budgeting		Coordinating Evaluating	Decisions and acting	

Ananda W.P. Gurnee (1963) is of the opinion that,

'The application of modern management techniques of educational administration is not without difficulties. One of the difficulties is that modern management techniques cannot be applied to education alone, education being a part of public administration.'

However, whether administration is a science or an art is often a subject of debate. Science refers to a systematised body of knowledge. It studies causes and effects, relationships and attempts to make generalisations in the form of scientific principles or laws. It describes objectively and avoids vague judgments as good or bad. In short, science is like a light house that gives light to the ships to find out their own way but does not indicate the direction in which they should go. On the otherhand, art refers to the skill of handling facts. So, it is concerned with ways and means of achieving a given objective. It may be said, 'if science is knowledge, then art is action'.

Administration as a Science or an Art?

Administration is a science because it could be approached in a scientific way. Theories and techniques of administration are studied day-by-day. The educators and researchers try to find out the solution of practical administrative issues and problems,

which helps develop insights into the administrative process, and paves the way for further study to arrive at more dependable relationships.

Administration is also considered an art because it deals with human materials individually or collectively. The successful administrator has skills which are not codified in book, but are uncoded art. Through judicious use of knowledge and skills to deal with human beings, one could be effective administrator. He may acquire this through experience in action situation in which he makes conscious efforts for self-learning.

In order to understand the administration of an organization in the right perspective and to facilitate its scientific analysis a model can be designed with the specific objectives of obtaining a theoretical frame work. The theoretical frame work combines three parts of effective school administrator. They are administrative abilities, administrative behaviours and personal attributes and other variables as conceptualize in Chapter 1.

Administrative Competencies

The administrative competencies for effective school administrator are designed in paradigm pattern and also studied to develop theories. Some of them are discussed in this chapter. However, the present research will stress on administrative



competencies into two parts: administrative abilities and administrative behaviours as components of administrative competencies.

In view of the constitutional rights everybody expects democratic behaviour from competent school administrators ensuring dynamic and stimulating leadership. Therefore, in a school situation the administrator can function competently, if he (1) has the ability to tackle the various tasks effectively and (2) has the knowledge of the tasks to be performed by him and is capable of identifying specific activities to be carried out for the successful completion of various tasks. These two components are referred to as administrative abilities and administrative behaviours respectively. As these two components would enable an administrator to do his work effectively, that is, achieving maximum results in less time with ease or taking accurate decisions or getting best solution to the problems in less time with ease would represent the competencies for the school administrators.

Halpin's Paradigm

As against the competency concept, Andrew Halpin designed a paradigm for the study of administrator behaviours. He attempted to develop a theory based on description of how administrators do behave.

Halpin defines administration as human activity which has four components (a) task (b) the formal organization (c) the work group or groups (d) the leader or leaders.

Halpin's organization composed of leader and group members. So for leader, goal achievement might be more important, while for the group members, it is the social need satisfaction. However, the leaders behaviour should be structured as to achieve both for goal achievement and for maintenance.

There is a potential conflict between leaders and group members, the one emphasizing the nomothetic dimension and the other the ideographic dimension of the institutional activity. According to Halpin the formal group has two variables: (1) responsibility variables to the work one is expected to do; (2) formal interaction variable indicating the persons with whom one is expected to work. They indicate the group dimensions of efficiency and morale.

The leader is defined as that member of the organization who is formally charged with responsibility for the organizational accomplishment. Every leader has three responsibilities: (a) as a group leader (b) as a decision maker (c) as a subordinate to his superordinates.

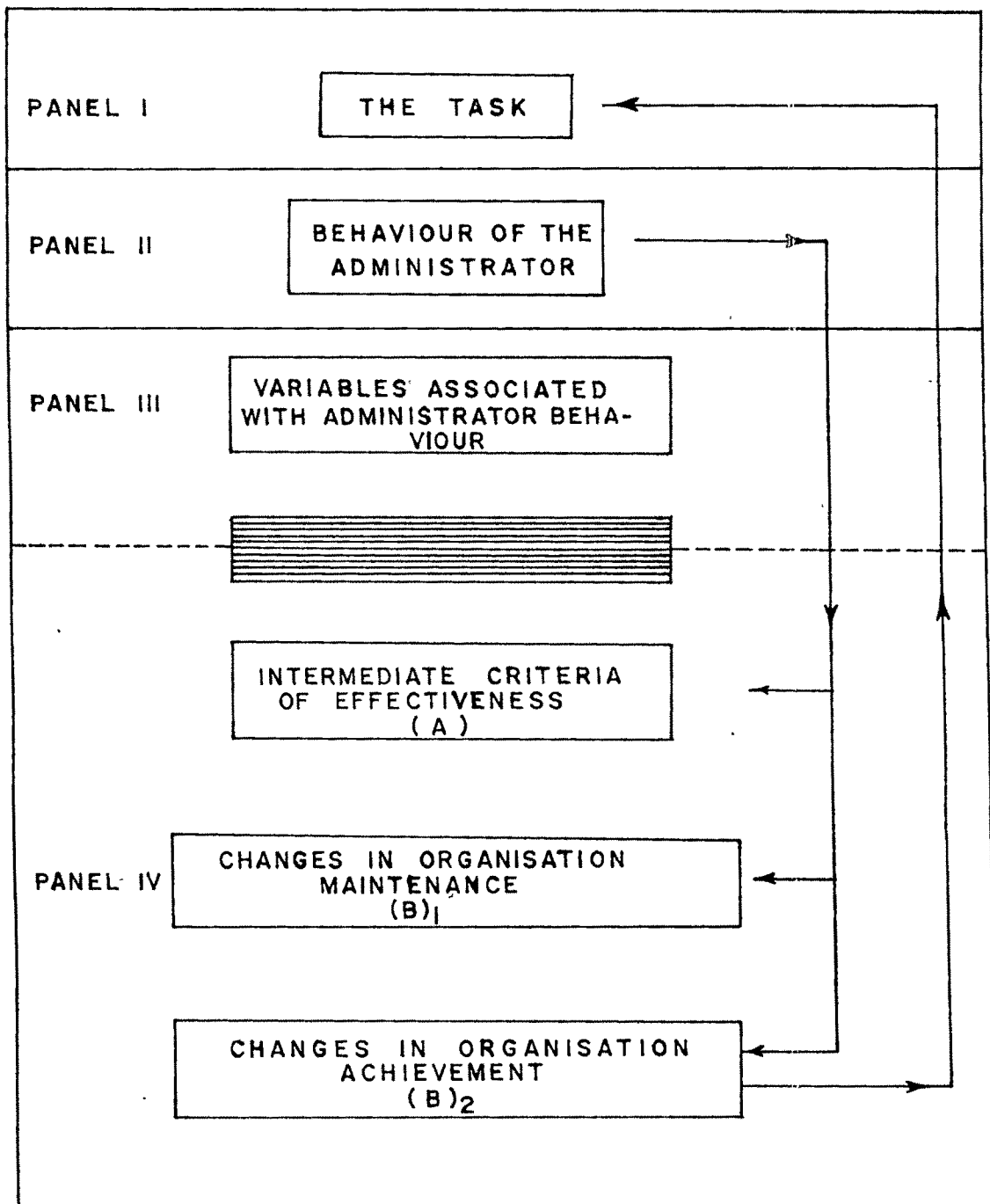


Figure 3 : HALPIN'S PARADIGM : Condensed Version of the Paradigm. Note that there is no direct connection between Panels III and IV.

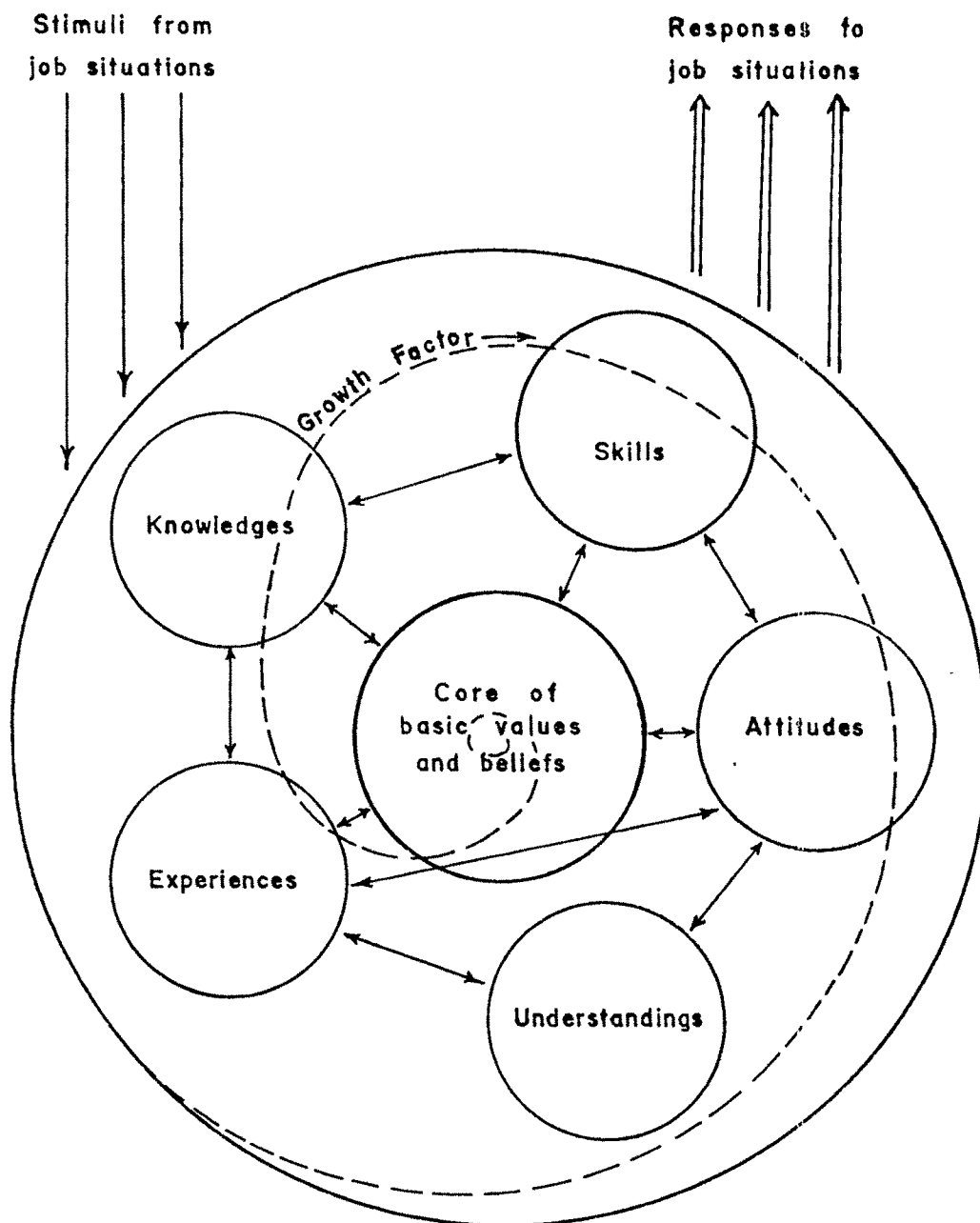
Source : Theory and Research in Administration, Toronto, Ontario, 1969.

Halpin in envisaging these responsibilities to the school administrator, accepts the hierarchy principle in administrative organization for realizing goals like Taylor (1911), Weber (1947) and Getzels (1958).

Halpin Paradigm using these concepts provides an analytical frame of the leader behaviour. The paradigm is first elaborated in four panels separately. Later, the four panels are linked together to give an integrated picture of the model.

Competencies as a Constellation of Interacting Factors

We may conceive of competence as a constellation of factors. 'Constellation' is used to describe the phenomenon because, although it is a collection of elements, it has a cohesive unity which allows it to be thought of as an entity. It is made up of elements and relationships between elements, yet the integration is so complete that each element is modified and becomes something different because of its position within the total organisatic constellation-competence.



TOTAL PERSONALITY OF THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

Figure 4 : Competence as a Constellation of Interacting Factors.

Source : Improving Competence in Educational Administration (New York : 1956).

Figure 4 portrays diagrammatically the make-up and relationships of the items in this constellation. The diagram is analogous to the physical scientist's description of the atom, with its particles, energy levels, and interactions and interdependencies. At the center is the nucleus or core of basic beliefs, values, and purposes held by the individual. The core is a very stable element; it can be changed only with difficulty, and such modification is a slow process. As the nucleus of a school administrator's behaviour pattern, this core can be thought of as the individual's personality. Since it changes slowly, he may be recognized as the same person from day to day and from year to year. It is true that powerful emotional shocks, such as occur in a religious 'conversion', may change this basic nuclear structure, but such radical and rapid changes are the exception rather than the rule.

The SSCPEA Competency Pattern

One of the more comprehensive competency patterns is to be found in an instrument developed by members of the Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (SSCPEA). The SSCPEA began its work in 1951. This group assembled to make plans for a study of preparation programs in educational administration in various cooperating institutions in the southern area. Their primary concern centered around attempts to reach preliminary common agreements on the competencies needed by educational

administrators and on specific ways and means of achieving these competencies.

Thus the ESCPEA competency pattern integrates three important elements into its plan for describing and investigating competence: (1) competence reflected in job analysis to reveal the 'critical tasks' involved; (2) the 'know-how' or equipment needed to perform the critical tasks; (3) 'theory' to furnish guidelines and framework, and to ensure consistency.

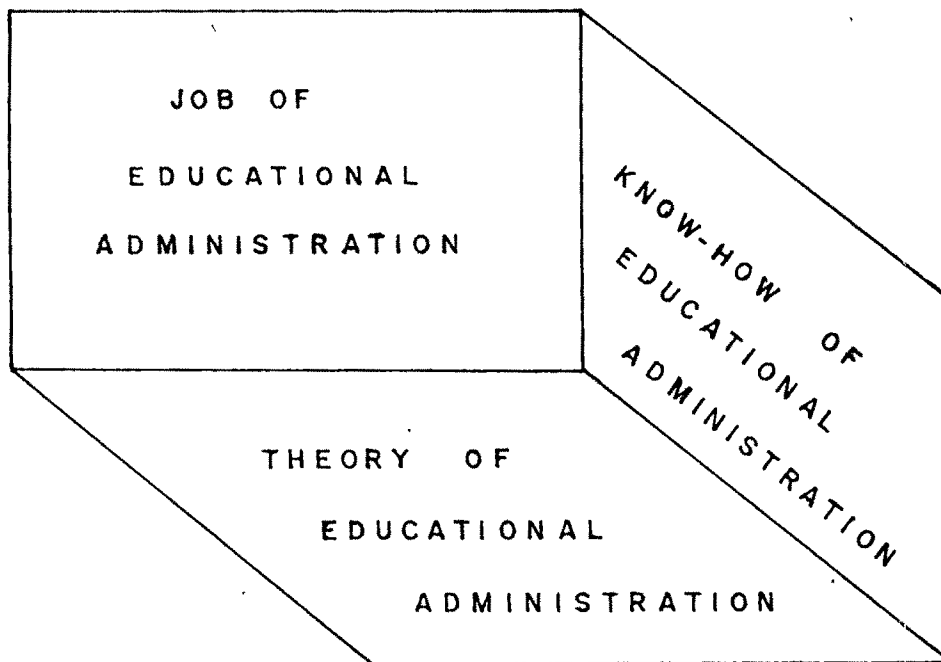


Figure 5 : The Job of Educational Administration in Relation to Its Theory and Know-how.

Source : Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, Tentative Progress Report on Planning for the Study of Preparation Programs in Educational Administration (Nashville : SSCPEA, 1952).

Figure 5 shows these three essential elements of the competency pattern in appropriate interrelationships. The job is central, and evaluation of competencies is in terms of job performance. Theory is portrayed as the base of the pattern and is considered essential since all performance is, consciously or unconsciously, carried on in terms of some theory. Remembering the assumption that "a workable competency pattern can have but a single theory", we recognize that theory provides the guideposts and evaluative criteria needed to ensure consistency and logic throughout the pattern. The job tasks and the necessary know-how must not contradict the basic theory. As seen in Figure 6 the job comprises the body of the pattern. It is composed of the things to be done and is supported by and reflected in the know-how essential to their doing.

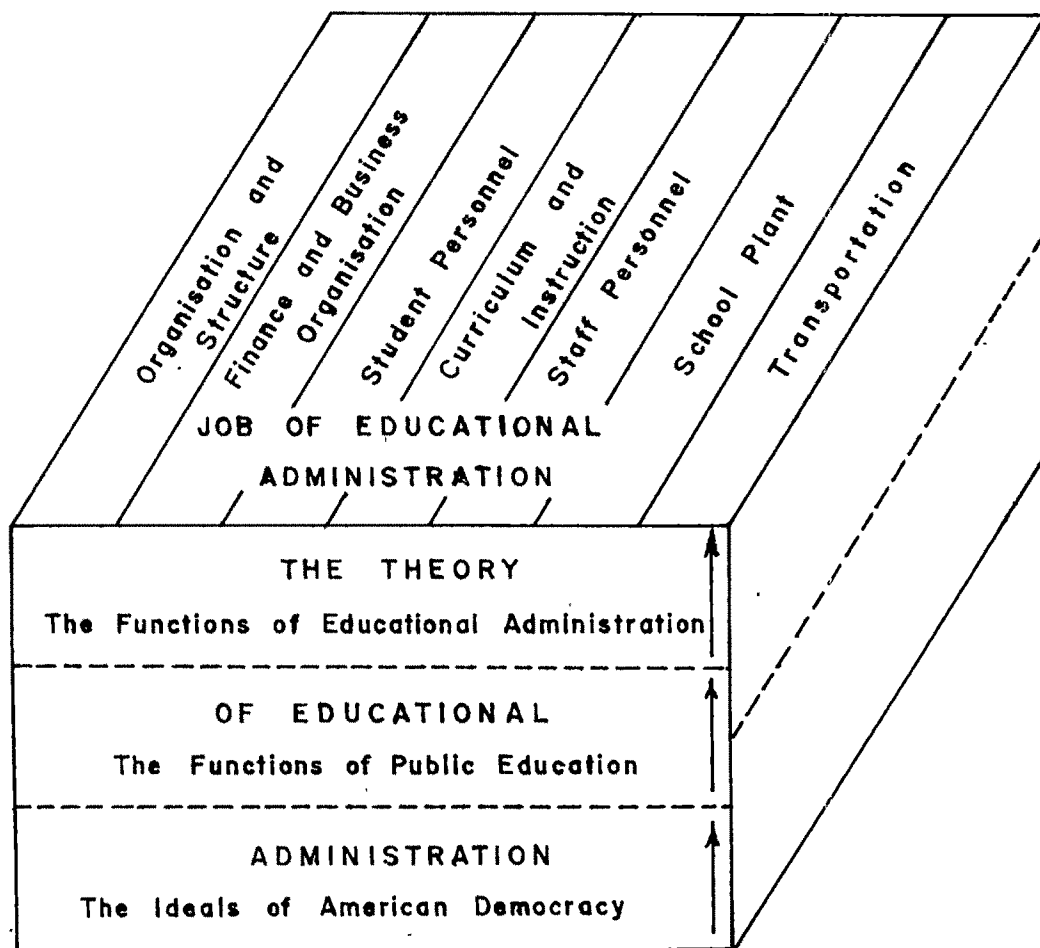


Figure 6 : The Job of Educational Administration in Relation to Its Theory.

Source : Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, Tentative Progress Report on Planning for the Study of Preparation Programs in Educational Administration (Nashville : SSCPEA, 1952).

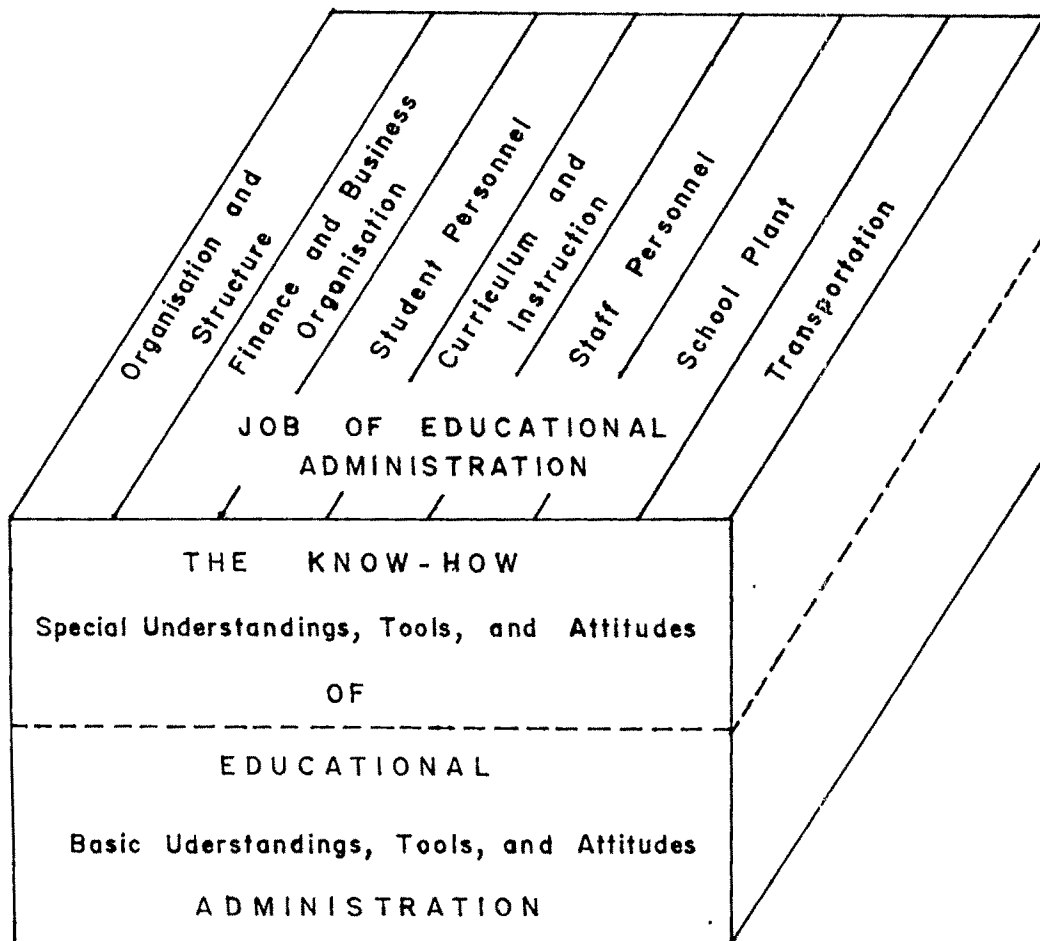


Figure 7 : The Job of Educational Administration in Relation to Its Know-how.

Source : Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, Tentative Progress Report in Planning for the Study of Preparation Programs in Educational Administration (Nashville : SSCPEA, 1952).

Figure 6 and 7 show an expansion of the theory and know-how concepts as they relate directly to the job of educational administration.

Starting with the theory of Educational Administration as presented in Figure 6, three subdivisions are offered which form a progression toward the Job of Educational Administration; i.e., The Ideals of American Democracy, The Functions of Public Education, and The Functions of Educational Administration.

That is, each theoretical assumption that is made regarding the nature of public education, and the nature of educational administration, finds its cue from the original and basic assumption having to do with the democratic nature of the culture. Thus, in the pictorial concept of the competency pattern the foundation is formed upon the postulates of democracy. It is assumed that these postulates are widely accepted in the culture and in reality are the basis for all human relationships within the society. This assures a common ancestry for educational administration functions and all the other varied functions and activities which make up the society. Specificity is achieved as the basic theory is focused to reveal the functions of public education and finally concentrated upon the job under consideration, i.e., the job of educational administration.

Effective principals

One recent study looks specifically at the competencies that distinguish high-performing from average-performing elementary and secondary school principals, using student achievement as the primary criterion of principal effectiveness (Huff, Lake, & Schaalaan 1982). Dividing the competencies into four clusters, researchers found six 'basic' competencies common to all principals in the study and eight 'optimal' competencies that seemed to distinguish acceptable performance from excellent performance. The basic competencies included commitment to school mission (purpose and direction cluster); concern for image of school, staff, students; participatory management style; tactical adaptability (consensus management cluster); coaching skills; and firmness in enforcing quality standards (quality enhancement cluster).

Of the eight competencies distinguishing more effective principals, four were in the cognitive skills cluster. More importantly, there were no competencies from this cognitive cluster that were common to all principals. Clearly, this is an area where carefully designed training could improve effectiveness. The cognitive competencies identified were monitoring, ability to recognize patterns, perceptual objectivity, analytical ability. This suggests that effective principals optimize their many daily interactions by using these to collect information. They are

objective in their perceptions and interpretations and are able to see patterns in data collected over a period of time and from a variety of sources. With relatively accurate and complete information, they use their analytic skills to match needs and resources, to weigh conflicting demands and expectations, and to balance priorities. As a result of their analyses, they develop action plans strategies to implement them. Then, in the course of their daily interactions and informal inter changes around the school, they monitor to see that their plans are moving according to schedule. They apply pressure where appropriate and modify when necessary.

The other competencies identified for the high-performing principals were sense of control, persuasiveness, commitment to quality, and focused involvement in change. Taken together, these eight optimal competencies suggest that high-performing principals are distinguished from average performers by their strong sense of themselves as leaders, their focused involvement in change, and their highly developed analytic skills.

Through further analysis of this and other studies, as well as data from three principal assessment centers, Croghan, Lake, and Schroder (1983) developed a comprehensive set of definitions and behavioral descriptions of high-performing principals and basic competencies of principals, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 : COMPETENCIES OF AVERAGE AND HIGH-PERFORMING PRINCIPALS

Cluster	Competencies	
	Basic	High-performing
Purpose and direction	Commitment to school mission	Proactive orientation Decisiveness
Cognitive skills		Interpersonal search Information search Concept formation Conceptual flexibility
Consensus management	Concern for image Tactical adaptability	Managing interaction Persuasiveness
Quality enhancement	Developmental orientation	Achievement motivation Management control
Organisation	Delegation	Organization ability
Communication	Written Communication	Self-presentation

Management behaviours

Effective principals are resourceful managers. They use their discretion to identify and develop resources for their schools and manage these resources to reflect and support their own agendas. Their personal visions guide them in setting priorities. So they are not consumed by the organizational maintenance requirements of their jobs. For example, in the 1978 NASBP survey of high school principals, the subset of 60 effective principals came much closer to using their time as they thought they should than did the randomly selected principals (Gorton & McIntyre 1978).

Effective principals seem to satisfy organizational maintenance demands either by using small portions of personal time and energy or by capitalizing on the capability of other personnel (Blumberg & Greenfield 1985). By identifying the strengths in their staffs, they provide learning opportunities and developmental experiences while simultaneously accomplishing necessary functions, developing human resources, and freeing their own time to concentrate on high-priority activities.

Newberg & Glatthorn, n.d.; Yukl (1982) suggest the validity of Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitutes for leadership model. Substitutes for leadership include any characteristics of subordinates, task, or organization that ensure subordinates will

clearly understand their roles, know-how to do the work, be highly motivated, and be satisfied with the job. These substitutes make leader behaviour redundant. By intuitively applying this theory, effective principals may make decisions about where to use their own limited personal resources, time, and attention.

Persell (1982) identified four recurring management features that characterize effective principals—creating order and discipline, marshaling resources, using time well, and evaluating results. Creating order and discipline are aspects of school climate. Effective principals take responsibility for creating an orderly, fair, and consistent work environment in their schools (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare 1978). They set standards of high expectations and a tone of respect for teachers and students. Effective principals cultivate good learning conditions by managing the 'psychic ambience' of the school community, setting schedules, managing building maintenance, regulating movement in the building, obtaining instructional materials, and serving as a buffer between teachers and parents. They create a system for administering discipline in the school and serve as a concrete representation of the authority behind rules (Morris et al.1981).

Boyatzis's Theory

Boyatzis offers a definition of effective job performance:

Effective performance of a job is the attainment of specific result (i.e. outcomes) required by the job through specific actions while maintaining or being consistent with policies, procedures, and conditions of the organizational environment.

Thus, three elements are encapsulated and drawn together:

Specific actions (which implies personal characteristics or abilities);
specific outcomes required by the job;
consistency with the organizational environment.

Effective action, then, occurs when these three elements are consistent.

This model suggests that when two of the components are congruent, there is an increased likelihood that effective performance will occur. However, in order to achieve consistently effective performance, all three components must fit together. Figure 8 depicts these relationships.

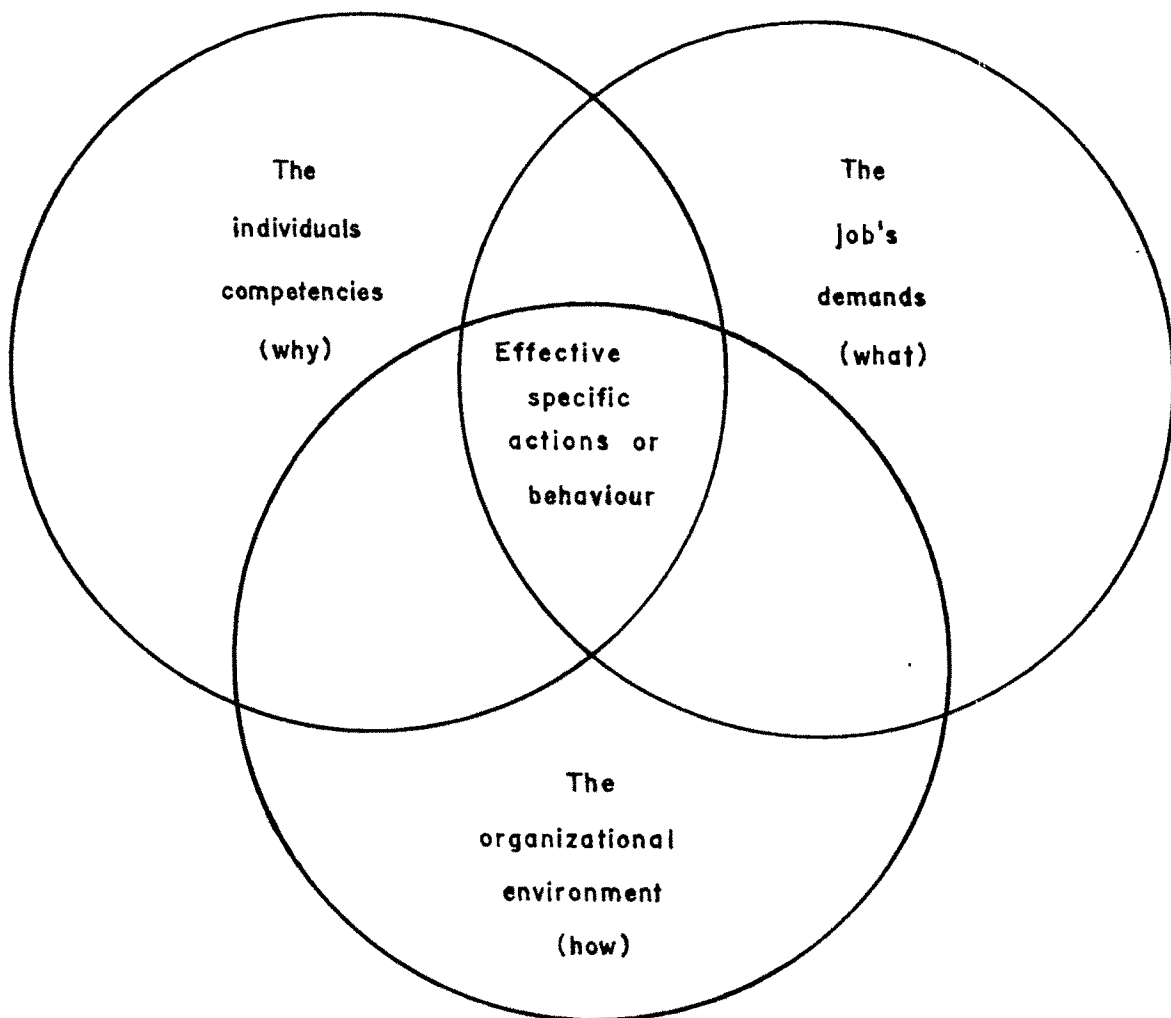


Figure 8 : Interactive Model of Management Competence.

Source : Boyatzis's Theory, Educational Manager :
A Literature Synthesis. (Hot Topic Series, 1984-85)

Another way of looking at this model would allow us to see the job demands to what a person in the job is expected to do. The organizational environment points to some aspects of how the job is to be done. The individual's competencies component reveals what a person is capable of doing. It suggests why the person may act in a certain way.

The job's demands for managers —the what—is described by Boyatzis in terms of five functional requirements: planning, organizing, controlling, motivation, and coordinating. Job demands may be described more specifically in terms of tasks: selecting, hiring, evaluating staff, for example. Finally, management jobs may be defined in terms of roles as Mintzberg has done. He states that managers perform administrative roles, instrumental roles (line responsibilities), integrative roles (staff responsibilities), or responsibilities roles. Generally speaking, the job of specific manager includes aspects of many—if not most—of these functions, tasks, and roles.

The organizational environment is composed of the goals of the organization, its policies, its procedures, and the ways in which it responds to pressure from other competing or complementary organizations. In public sector organizations, the partisan nature of other (often controlling) organizations will influence how the organization operates, as will the values and expectations of the community.

The third component of Boyatzis' model concerns the individual's competencies. He comments that Klesp (1980) defines a job competency as 'an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance in a job'. As an underlying characteristic, the competency may be thought of as a motive, a trait, a skill, an aspect of one's social role, or a body of knowledge. The first four of these terms are defined below because they are used in quite specific ways.

social role : the person's perception of a set of social norms for behaviour in the social groups/organizations to which he or she belongs.

skill: the ability to demonstrate a system and a sequence of behaviour functionally related to attaining a performance goal.

motive: recurrent concern for a goal, state or condition, appearing in fantasy which directs, drives, and selects behaviour of the individual (McClelland, 1971).

trait: dispositional or characteristic way in which a person responds to an equivalent set of stimuli (McClelland, 1951).

Boyatzis reasons out that because job competencies are underlying characteristics, they can be said to be generic. A generic characteristic may be seen in many different forms of

behavior, or a variety of actions. These actions, however, do not have a specific one-to-one relationship with the competency because of the mediating influence of the context provided by the demands of the job and the particular organizational context. This insight helps to explain why a manager may be extremely effective in one part of the organization but, when moved to another, may be barely able to survive. A person's set of competencies are the sum of what he/she can do, not necessarily what is actually done in a given situation.

Moreover, different levels of competency exist. For example, efficiency orientation represents a concern with doing something better. At the motive level, this efficiency orientation is the need for achievement. The motive occurs in conscious or unconscious thought as images of performing against a standard of excellence or doing something unique. The social role of this person is probably an innovator. The skills associated with this competence include goal setting, planning, and organizing resources efficiently. The important notion here is that these three levels all relate to the competence efficiency orientation. It should be noted that Boyatzis found no competence working at all four levels.

For Boyatzis, then, a model of management competency has two dimensions: types and levels. The model describes the types of competency. An influence competency is associated with specific

actions: having an impact on others, convincing them to perform some action, inspiring them. A planning competency includes goal setting, assessing risk, and developing action plans for achieving the goal.

The second dimension of the model describes the levels of each competency. Planning, for example, is related to a need to achieve. At the skill level, planning may be evident in the individual's ability to state a series of actions that would lead to achievement of a goal.

Table 3 : THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FUNCTIONS AND COMPETENCY CLUSTERS (BOYATZIS)

Function	Task	Relevant Competency Cluster
Planning	1. Determining the goals of the organisation	Competencies in the goal and action management cluster
	2. Establishing plans of action for achieving those goals	
	3. Determining how the plan should be accomplished	
	4. Communicating this to others	Competencies in the leadership cluster
Organizing	1. Determining what people and resources are required to accomplish the plan	Competencies in the goal and action management cluster

Table 3 : (Continued)

Function	Task	Revelant Competency Cluster
	2. Determining how these people and resources should be structured to do it 3. Establishing the standards of performance 4. Communicating this to others	Competencies in the leadership cluster Competencies in the human resource management cluster
Controlling	1. Monitoring performance of individuals and groups 2. Providing feedback to individuals and groups 3. Rewarding or disciplining based on performance	Competencies in the goal and action management cluster Competencies in directing subordinates cluster and human resource management cluster
Motivating	1. Building commitment, identity, pride, and spirit in the orgainsation 2. Stimulating an interest in work 3. Developing capability in subordinates	Competencies in the human resource management cluster and the leadership cluster Competencies in the directing subordinates cluster
Coordinating	1. Stimulating cooperation among department, division, and	Competencies in the human resource management cluster

Table 3 : (Continued)

Function	Task	Relevant Competency Cluster
	other work groups	and the focus on other cluster
2. Negotiating resolution of	conflicts and differences	Competencies in the leadership cluster
3. Representing the organisation	to outside groups	

What is the main idea for the framework?

The main idea for the framework comes from the combination of Halpin's Paradigm, SSCPEN's pattern and Boyatzis's Theory. Halpin defined the leader as the member of the organization who is charged with responsibility for the organizational accomplishment, and he has three responsibilities: (a) as a group leader (b) as a decision maker (c) as a subordinate to his superordinates. His paradigm using these concepts provides an analytical frame of the leader behaviour in four panels which are linked together. The SSCPEN's pattern integrated three important elements into its plan for describing and investigating competence: (1) competence reflected in job analysis to reveal the 'critical tasks'; (2) the 'know-how' needed to perform the critical tasks; (3) 'theory' to furnish guidelines and framework, and to ensure consistency.

Boyatzis's theory offered a definition of effective job performance that three elements are encapsulated and drawn together. Those three elements are: (1) the job's demand; (2) the organizational environment; (3) the individual competencies. Though the conceptual framework is combination, but those three ideas are almost the same. So, the investigator applied the interactive model of Boyatzis's theory to be the conceptual framework, but the three elements for effective specific action are changed to be: (1) administrative abilities (2) administrative behaviours (3) personal attributes and variables. In the modified version, the two constitutes of the competencies are (1) and (2) administrative behaviours. The third dimension of the present framework is the personal attributes and other variables which may influence the competencies represented in (1) and (2) above such as training, experience, academic qualification, school size etc. As the purpose of the investigation is not only to identify and measure the competencies, but also to develop valid criteria for the selection and promotion of the primary school administrators, all the three dimensions in an interactive and integrated manner from essential ingredients of the framework for the present investigation.

Administrative System of Primary Education in Thailand

The reform of primary education administration in 1980 has brought about a considerable change in the administrative structure

of primary education in Thailand. It manifests, in particular, the Government's attempt to strike a right balance between the decentralization of administrative powers to the local level on the one hand and the control of the central government on the other. From past experience in which neither the centralized administration between 1948-1966 nor the delegation of administrative powers to the local authorities in the past 26 years has proven effective as administrative bases for tackling the problems in primary education management. The authorities have adapted a new administrative structure combining both factors supported by a compact and more representative structural network right from the national level through to the local level.

The new administrative system differs from its predecessor where the power of decision-making lay solely in the persons of Director-General at the central government level, or with the Governors of Educational Chief Officers in the provinces, mainly in its decision-making process which is channelled through the committees formed at its four levels of administration, i.e., the national, provincial, district and school-cluster levels. At each level, the committee comprises representation from various categories of people who are either directly involved in primary education management or are considered capable of contributing to primary education development in their own right, e.g., government officials of related agencies, elected representatives of primary school teachers and resource persons.

The representation is designed to guarantee involvement of all parties concerned, thus ensuring a well-balanced decision-making process at each level.

The major asset of the new administrative system lies in the more realistic and well-distributed decentralization of administrative powers as well as in the balanced decision-making process at each level. Aimed at achieving greater relevance, economy, efficiency, equity and quality in primary education management, the committee at each level is entrusted with functions deemed appropriate and suited to the nature and scope of the responsibilities. Thus, the role of the committee at each level differs to a certain extent on areas of emphasis in activities.

<u>level</u>	<u>area of emphasis</u>
national	formulation of national primary education policies and development plans, budget allocation, standard-setting concerning academic requirement, school buildings and expenditures, and appointment of Directors of Provincial and Bangkok Metropolitan Primary Education.
provincial	consideration and approval of all activities undertaken in the province concerning implementation

of policies and plans, budget allocation, academic and personnel matters.

district co-ordination of all activities undertaken in the district, recommendation and provision of basic information concerning workplans, budgetary, academic and personnel matters for submission to the provincial authorities for consideration and approval.

school-cluster mutual co-operation and support, both physical and intellectual, for the improvement and effective operation of all activities of the schools in the cluster, submission of recommendations concerning workplans, budgetary, academic and personnel matters to the district authorities.

Each committee is served by its corresponding secretariat assigned to the central government, in the provinces, districts or school-clusters, depending on the level of the committee.

Administrative structure is depicted in Figure 9.

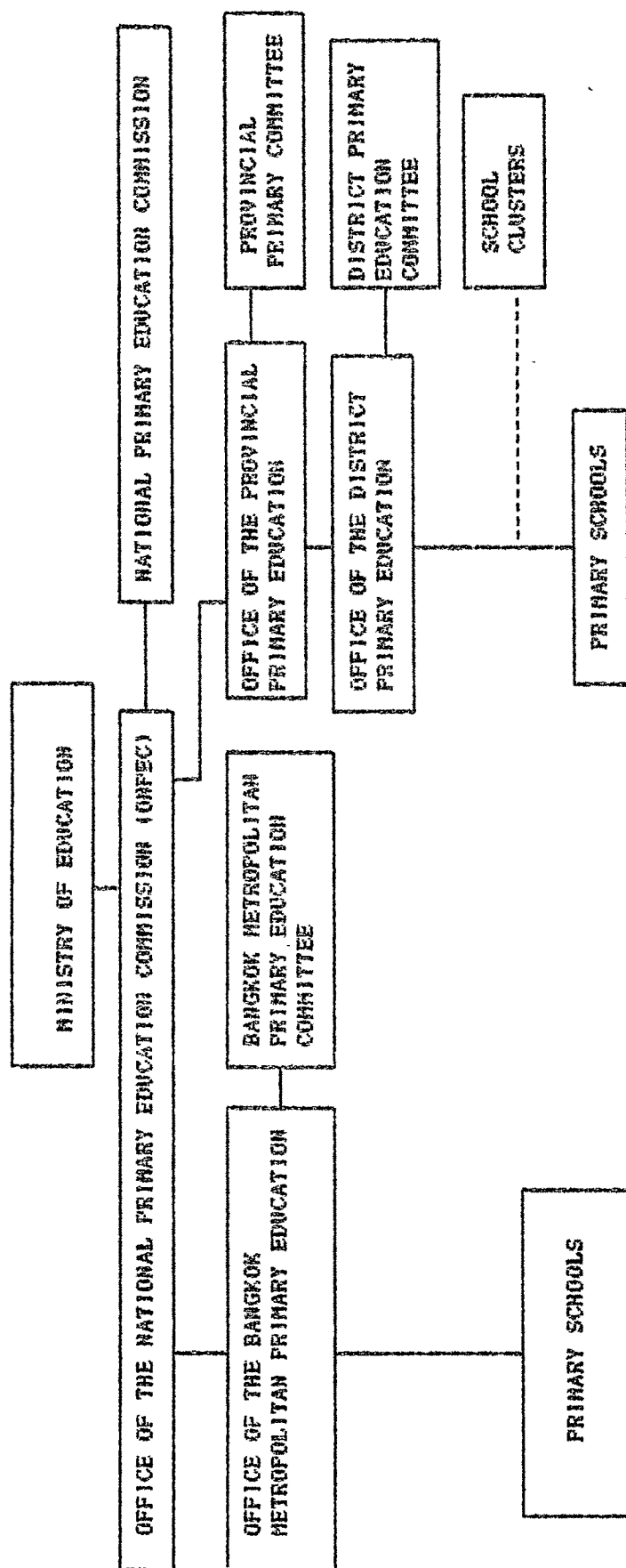


Figure 9 : Administrative Structure of Primary Education in Thailand.

Source : Primary Education in Thailand, Office of the National Primary Education Commission, Ministry of Education, 1994.

**Criteria for Selection and Promotion of the School Administrator
Under the Office of the National Primary Education Commission
B.E.2533 (1989)**

1. Principle. There are three parts for the selection process.

1.1 Written Examination

1.2 Work and Experience Appraisalment

1.3 Short Course Training

2. Qualifications. They are separated into two groups.

2.1 The candidates for head-master and principal have to be approved by the Provincial Primary Education Committee (PPEC).

2.2 The candidate for director has to be approved by the National Primary Education Commission (NPEC) and he has to have administrative experience in line with at least one of the following:

2.2.1 Head-Master, Assistant Principal, Principal of Assistance Director.

2.2.2 Supervisor

2.2.3 Administrative Educator

3. Curriculum and Appraisalment for Selection. (500 marks)

3.1 Written Examination (250 marks)

3.1.1 General Knowledge in Education (100 marks)

3.1.2 Administrative Knowledge for school

**Administrators in Academic Affairs, Personnel,
Pupil Activities, Management and Finance,**

**Facilities, School Community Relations and
Curriculum. (100 marks)**

3.1.3 Education Laws and School Regulations (50 marks)

3.2 Work and Experience Appraisalment (100 marks)

3.2.1 Present Administrative Position	20 marks
3.2.2 Administrative Experience	10 marks
3.2.3 Teaching Experience	10 marks
3.2.4 Educational Qualification	10 marks
3.2.5 Experience Before Achieving Position	10 marks
3.2.6 Honours Conferred	10 marks
3.2.7 Special Recognition Achieved	10 marks
3.2.8 Education development Achieved	20 marks

(School Size)

3.3 Short Course Training- At the Center of Education

Execute Institution (150 marks)

3.3.1 Intensive Training (100 marks)

3.3.2 Behaviour Appraisalment (50 marks)

4. Promotion. The candidate's score from the written examination, work and experience appraisalment and short course training will be tallied and merit list prepared accordingly. The candidates get promoted as per the rank order in the list.

Indian Studies

Mahajan J.M. (1979) found that most of the principals (1) fail to play an effective leadership role in the academic field in

the schools due to limited time and energy (2) lack of proper knowledge of concept of supervision and cooperation from the teachers. (3) ignore helping and guiding teachers in the area of subject content and teaching methodology (4) have failed to win confidence of the teachers.

Motilal Sharma (1973) found negative correlation between leadership behaviour of the head-master and psychological hindrance, head-master's effectiveness and psychological hindrance.

Darji (1975) investigated leadership behaviour of secondary school principals in relation to academic status of schools, determined on the basis of SSC examination results. The majority of high academic status schools had principals manifesting HH (High High) pattern of leadership behaviour, whereas the majority of principals of schools having low academic status manifested LH (Low High) and LL patterns of leadership behaviour. However, relationship between the academic status of the school and either of the leadership behaviour dimensions was statistically nonsignificant.

Pandya (1975) found that effective leader behaviour is significantly related to effectiveness of supervisory practice and openness of climate of secondary school.

Mahant (1978) found that if the principal is to provide

leadership to his colleagues in educational matters, two changes should invariably occur. Firstly, they should generate a 'We' feeling instead of 'I' kind of management; secondly, there should be two way flow of communication where orders are handed down from the principal to teachers and understanding and feedback from the subordinates to the superiors are to be provided.

Rajeevalochana (1981) found in her doctoral thesis that (i) there is close relationship among the four types of administrator leadership behaviours (HH, HL, LH and LL) and the three types of organisational climate of schools (High, Average, Low) because t^2 is significant at 0.01 level; (ii) there is a significant difference between teachers ratings of principals on the 'Administrator Behaviour Description Scale' and achievements of supervision work. The correlation coefficient 'r' is positive indicating that the HH pattern of administrator's behaviour is related to high achievements and the LL pattern related to low achievements; t^2 is significant at perception of principals on the Administrator Behaviour Description Scale (ABDS) and teacher's perceptions of principals on the S.N.S. (Ideal expectations). The mean test values show differences but ' t^2 ' is not significant at 0.05 level.

Hamota Das (1983) had studied the administrative behaviour of secondary school principals in relation to selected school variables. She found that:

- (1) the administrative tasks which the secondary school principals often perform are only moderately effective in their performances.
- (2) the secondary school principals perform their administrative tasks pertaining to student personnel and staff personnel more frequently and effectively than their administrative tasks pertaining to instruction and Board's Policies and Operations.
- (3) the secondary school principals perform their administrative tasks pertaining to student personnel more frequently and effectively than those pertaining to staff personnel.
- (4) the secondary school principals perform their administrative tasks pertaining to instruction more frequently and effectively than the administrative tasks pertaining to Board's Policies and Operations.

Nibenita Das (1986) studied the administrator's behaviour in secondary school in Bangladesh. The sample is 54 school principals. With reference to the effectiveness of administrator's behaviour, the variables showed the differences depending upon some of their biographical characteristics. Major findings of the study were: (a) no difference between male and female administrator's behaviour, (b) age is not a factor influencing the leadership pattern, (c) the length of experience does not influence the administrator's leadership behaviour and (d) the differences

between qualification and training is not significant.

Buch (1971) came to a conclusion that administrators and researchers would get the cooperation of an army of teachers, facilitating experiment-based research which would be action oriented and focused on problems related to the renewal of the educational system with a view to making it relevant and efficient.

Studies from Other Countries

Tipayarat Anan (1985) studied to determine the perceived importance of the competencies for Pattani elementary school teachers and compared the perceptions of Pattani elementary school principals according to the demographic characteristics of Pattani elementary schools regarding the competencies. The population consisted of all the 280 elementary school principals of nine rural districts in Pattani, southern Thailand. The questionnaire concerning professional competencies developed by Miller (1981) was used. The instrument consisted of 44 competencies grouped into six sections: program planning, curriculum planning, instruction, community relations, community agencies and community education programs. The response rate was 95 percent. The researcher found that all competencies were perceived high and moderate. No competency was rated low by any group of principals. All null hypotheses which stated that there were no significant differences among the responses of principals when grouped on the basis of

general demographic variables were confirmed. The response of the principals did not have significant differences for the following general demographic characteristics of Pattani elementary schools; districts, principal's sex, principal's age, principal's degree, principal's administrative experience, principal's community, education theory experience, number of teachers in school, teacher sex proportion in school, Buddhist-Thai and Muslim-Thai teacher proportion in school, teacher degree proportion in school, school-community activity programs in school.

Atugonu (1985) sought to (1) develop a list of critical competencies needed for the secondary school principalship in Nigeria and (2) determine if significant differences existed between the perceptions of secondary school principals and teachers regarding these competencies. Twenty randomly selected secondary school principals and 228 randomly selected secondary teachers from Aba education zone served as the population. The secondary school principals and teachers perceived competencies needed by the secondary school principals differently in the administrative operational area of administration and organisation, improvement of instruction, and staff personnel services. The secondary school principals and teachers had the same perceptions on competencies needed by the secondary school principals in the administrative operational areas of student personnel service, financial and physical resource management, and school community relations. The secondary school principals and teachers with consistently high

rankings of all the 36 competencies between essential and absolutely essential expressed that a critical need existed for principals to be competent in the six administrative areas.

Jamerson (1985) investigated the possible relationships between principal effectiveness and personality, formal training in administration, and on-the-job experience. The population was principals of forty-six schools which were identified as 'exemplary' since the Arizona School Recognition Program was initiated in 1983. The investigator found the following results. The principals of Arizona exemplary schools perceive themselves to be operating most on the basis of their on-the-job experience over fifty percent of the time. Their teachers perceived them as relying most on their formal training. Certain tasks were approached with heavy reliance on personality, such as 'creating a positive work environment' (83%) and 'identifies and uses positive communications techniques' (74%). There were eight skills associated by a majority of the principals with experience, four with personality, and one with formal training. More experienced principals chose experience candidates more often than those who were less experienced. Women and elementary school principals relied slightly more on personality than men and secondary school principals.

Newkirk-Hoare (1985) studied to determine if consensus existed among educational practitioners and policy makers in Tennessee in

relation to the perceived importance of professional competencies for the elementary school principal; and, to identify those competencies which were perceived as most and least critical to the role of the elementary school principal. Data were gathered from 344 elementary school principals, school superintendents and chairpersons of the boards of education in Tennessee. Major findings of the study were: (1) elementary school principals, superintendents and chairpersons of the Boards of Education in Tennessee were not in agreement as to the importance of certain competencies related to the role of the elementary school principal; (2) the area of personnel administration was rated most often as the very high importance and the most critical area of administrative competence for the elementary school principal; (3) differences in the perceived importance of individual competencies for the elementary school principal were present relative to the geographic region of Tennessee in which the school district was located; (4) the year in which the school superintendent earned his or her highest academic degree and the institution of higher education attended significantly affected the value superintendents placed on certain competencies for the elementary school principal; (5) there was a major discrepancy among elementary principals as to the importance of their role as the leader of guidance and special educational services.

Yohn (1985) studied to determine which of the competencies needed by the junior high school principal are most critical as

perceived by California Junior high school principals. The priorities were grouped by : (a) size of school; (b) female or male principals; (c) age of principal; (d) principal's educational level, and (e) experience as a junior high school principal. The population included all California 7-8 principals of public schools with an A.D.A. of at least 185. The questionnaire was mailed to 399 principals and 282 were returned. All 45 competencies were considered important by the respondents. They dealt with the importance of communication, interaction with individuals and groups, strong leadership and motivation. The most critical competency area identified was to develop a discipline program that leads to responsible student behaviour. The least critical competencies dealt with budgeting, laws, external forces, and maintenance skills. Human relations ability was identified as the most critical competency category, followed closely by leadership and instructional leadership. All of the variables except age had a significant effect on at least one of the competency areas; however, the overall effect was minimal.

Yules (1985) studied to identify competencies needed by high school principals and assistant principals to effectively develop, supervise, monitor, and evaluate school-based special education programs. Competency statements were generated from the literature and validated by a panel of experts. The final instrument containing thirty competency statement in eight function areas was administered to Virginia high school principals and assistant

principals who were randomly selected from the Virginia Educational Directory. The findings of this study identified 'rules for disciplines', 'select personnel', 'implement due process', 'enable improvement of instruction', and 'implement programs according to regulations' as competency statements with the highest mean index of value. Principals identified the top priority statements as: 'evaluation for referred students', 'evaluate personnel', and 'implement programs according to regulations'. Assistant principals identified the top priority statements as 'promote positive attitudes', 'rule for discipline', and 'implement programs according to regulations'.

Carson (1986) studied to determine if the perceptions of 1984-85 Utah elementary school teachers related to the degree to which male and female principals perform administrative tasks in an effective and efficient manner differed depending on the sex of the principal. A further purpose was to determine if there are recognisable or discernible differences in the perception of job satisfaction and teacher/principal rapport depending on the sex of the teacher. The conclusion reached were: (1) sex does not make a difference when considering on the job competency; (2) when male teachers did not report 'equally well', they favoured male principals; (3) when female teachers did not report 'equally well', they favoured female principals; and (4) when not marking 'equally well', teachers generally preferred female principals in curriculum guidance, interpersonal relationships and public relations, and

they preferred male teachers in administrative capabilities and school discipline.

Fluth (1986) investigated and analysed the importance of competencies and related skills in the AASA 'Guidelines for the Preparation of School Administrators' as perceived by senior high school principals. The sample consisted 356 senior high school principals who were members of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. The following findings were arrived at; (1) the Guidelines were considered by the principals to be applicable to their success as administrators. Responses had means that ranged from 1.665 to 2.977, indicating a range from above 'of moderate importance' to 'of critical importance', (2) principals of 81 or more teachers exhibited more favourable responses to the Guidelines than principals of 1 to 40 teachers for the variables, 'Climate assessment methods and skill', 'Multi-cultural and ethnic understanding', 'Theories of cognitive development and the sequences/structuring of curricula', 'Development/application of valid and reliable performance indicators for instructional outcomes', (3) principals of schools with over 1,100 students exhibited more favourable responses to the Guidelines than principals of schools with 1-300 students for variables stated in findings number 2, and the variables: 'designing, implementing, and evaluating a school staff improvement program which utilizes mutual staff and student efforts to formulate and attain school goals', 'group process, interpersonal communication, and motivation

skills', 'conflict mediation and the skills to accept and cope with inherent controversies', 'planning futures methods to anticipate occupational trends and their educational implications', 'management of chance to enhance the mastery of educational goals', and 'using clinical supervision as a staff improvement strategy'.

Bayless (1987) investigated to determine which competencies mentioned in the Assembly Education Committee Report and California Senate Bill 813 were perceived by elementary school principals as being important. A questionnaire containing 37 competencies was developed in order to determine the importance and inclusion in the job description and inclusion in the evaluation instrument. The questionnaire was sent to 159 elementary school principals in the state of California; 149 questionnaires were returned. The researcher found that (1) ninety percent of the school districts have a formal job description, (2) elementary school principals had perceived that job descriptions included the competencies that are delineated in the Assembly Education Committee Report and California Senate Bill 813, (3) the major competencies were ranked according to importance as follows: (a) instructional program, (b) leadership, (c) political and cultural relations, (d) school management, (e) human relation and (f) self-awareness.

Sauter (1987) studied to determine as to where do secondary school administrators acquire competencies required for job performance, whether on the job or through program methodologies.

The sample consisted two-hundred and sixty-two Arizona secondary school administrators. The data included the following variables: position, sex, age, race, highest degree earned, administrative experience, classroom teaching experience, number of years in present position, type of school community, school district organisation, student school population, number of districts teachers, number of teachers in school and an indication where the competency levels of familiarity, understanding and application were acquired, whether in a university setting or through job experience in reference to thirty-five competencies identified for the study. Statistical tests revealed that the competency levels of familiarity and understanding were generally acquired in a university while the application level was acquired on job. When the levels were combined three competencies were acquired in a university setting or through program methodologies while thirty-two were acquired as the result of job experience. A significant difference was registered between male and female administrators with reference to competency acquisition in only four of the thirty-five competencies identified.

Conclusion

The studies on administrative theories, administrative competencies, criteria for the school administrator's appointment and other related variables, reviewed in this chapter, reveal that most of the review of literature to date have been on

administrative competencies, capabilities, behaviours and their relationship with the school administrator's characteristics.

On the other hand, there are some research studies on school administrative competencies and their relationship to the school tasks or other variables. In India, some researchers found that most of the school administrators lack proper knowledge and self confidence. The school administrator's administrative task behaviour is more effective than the administrative behaviours pertaining to Board Policies and Operations. They found no significant difference between academic status and leadership behaviours and also no difference for sex, age, experience, qualifications, training or psychological hindrances. In the western countries and Thailand, the researchers found that most of the teachers and school administrators were in agreement regarding administrative competencies. In some cases, the school administrators, superintendents and chairpersons of the board were not in agreement as to the importance of certain competencies related to the role of the elementary school administrators. As for the school administrators' demographic characteristics, most of the school administrators' responses did not show significant difference for sex, age, educational degree, administrative experience, educational theory experience, number of teachers in school, teacher sex proportion in schools, size of school. On the basis of the theoretical models and other conceptualisations presented in the review, the investigator has developed insights

which have helped in viewing the theoretical models in an integrated manner. This has led to the choice of the model accepted for the investigation, which is presented in chapter 1.

Also it is found that most studies have yielded relationships among variables related to school administrators' behaviour and those of other types. However, the studies leave a gap between the findings and their application to create educational practices. The present investigation is an attempt to fill in the gap by focusing the study on such relationships which can be utilised for developing the criteria for selection of school administrators and their professional development. The present investigation seeks its relevance in these two dimensions, as can be seen from the rationale given in chapter 1.

The next chapter deals with identification of administrative competencies and other methodological details for the execution of the investigation.