CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
A theoretical framework is used in research to outline possible courses of action or to present a preferred approach to a systematic analysis of the problem. The framework is built from a set of concepts linked to a planned or existing system of methods, behaviours, functions, relationships, and objects. A conceptual framework might, in computing terms, be thought of as a relational model. It helps us to understand, explain, predict, and control the reality. The future will be something like the past.

The present study is aimed to investigate the existing different aspects of management in teacher education programmes of colleges of education affiliated to the Mahatma Gandhi University, Kottayam.

The investigator has gone into some theoretical analysis, which is closely associated with teacher education and its management aspects. The investigator reviewed and expressed the theoretical studies, which led into the concepts of the related investigational issue. The chapter is broadly divided into four major sections as:

I. Theoretical bases of academic management.

II. Theoretical bases of leadership styles.

III. Theoretical bases of self-acceptance

IV. Theoretical bases of student satisfaction.
3.1. THEORETICAL BASES OF ACADEMIC MANAGEMENT

3.1.1. Theories on Management

Management is the act of directing and controlling a group of people for the purpose of coordinating and harmonizing the group towards accomplishing a task or mission beyond the scope of individual effort. It encompasses the deployment and manipulation of various resources such as, human, financial, technological and natural resources. The term also refers to the person or people who perform the act of management. The various functions of management are planning, organizing, leading, motivating and controlling.

Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933), defined management as “the art of getting things done through people”. One can also think of management functionally, as the action of measuring a quantity on a regular basis and of adjusting some initial plan; or as the actions taken to reach one’s intended goal. This applies even in situations where planning does not take place. From this perspective, Frenchman Henri Fayol considers management to consist of five functions: planning, organizing, leading, coordinating and controlling. Traditional or classical management focuses on efficiency and includes bureaucratic, scientific and administrative management.

In Bureaucratic Management, Max Weber (1864-1920) relies on a rational set of structuring guidelines, such as rules and procedures, hierarchy, and a clear division of labour. Bureaucracies are founded on legal or rational authority, which is based on law, procedures, rules, and so on. Positional authority of a superior over a subordinate stems from legal authority. Efficiency in bureaucracies comes from:
a. clearly defined and specialized functions;

b. use of legal authority;

c. hierarchical form;

d. written rules and procedures;

e. technically trained bureaucrats;

f. appointment to positions based on technical expertise;

g. promotions based on competence;

h. clearly defined career paths.

Scientific management (Frederick Taylor, 1911) focuses on worker and machine relationships. Organizational productivity can be increased by increasing the efficiency of production processes. The efficiency perspective is concerned with creating jobs that economise on time, human energy, and other productive resources. Jobs are designed so that each worker has a specified, well-controlled task that can be performed as instructed. Specific procedures and methods for each job must be followed with no exceptions.

Henry Gantt (1861-1919) developed the Gantt chart, which is used for scheduling multiple overlapping tasks over a time period. He focused on motivational schemes, emphasizing the greater effectiveness of rewards for good work (rather than penalties for poor work). He developed a pay incentive system with a guaranteed minimum wage and bonus systems for people on fixed wages.
Also, Gantt focused on the importance of the qualities of leadership and management skills in building effective industrial organizations.

Administrative management emphasizes the manager and the functions of management. Henri Fayol (1841-1925) developed a framework for studying management. His five functions of managers were plan, organize, command, coordinate, and control. His fourteen principles of management included division of work, authority and responsibility, discipline, unity of command, unity of direction, subordination of individual interests to general interests, remuneration of personnel, centralization, scalar chain, order, equity, stability of tenure of personnel, initiative, and esprit de corps (union is strength).

Chester Barnard (1886-1961) developed the concepts of Strategic Planning and the Acceptance Theory of Authority. Strategic planning is the formulation of major plans or strategies, which guide the organization in pursuit of major objectives. Barnard taught that the three top functions of the executive were to:

a. establish and maintain an effective communication system,

b. hire and retain effective personnel, and

c. motivate those personnel.

Acceptance Theory of Authority states that managers only have as much authority as employees allow them to have. The acceptance theory of authority suggests that authority flows downward but depends on acceptance by the subordinate. The acceptance of authority depends on four conditions:

a. Employees must understand what the manager wants them to do.
b. Employees must be able to comply with the directive.

c. Employees must think that the directive is in keeping with organizational objectives.

d. Employees must think that the directive is not contrary to their personal goals.

Barnard believed that each person has a zone of indifference or a range within each individual in which he or she would willingly accept orders without consciously questioning authority. It was up to the organization to provide sufficient inducements to broaden each employee’s zone of indifference so that the manager’s orders would be obeyed.

Behavioral or human relations management emerged in the 1920s and dealt with the human aspects of organizations. It has been referred to as the neoclassical school because it was initially a reaction to the shortcomings of the classical approaches to management.

Systems analysis emerged in 1940. This viewpoint uses systems concepts and quantitative approaches from mathematics, statistics, engineering, and other related fields to solve problems. Managers find optimal solutions to management problems by using scientific analysis, which is closely associated with the systems approach to management. A system is an interrelated and interdependent set of elements functioning as a whole. It is an open system that interacts with its environment. It is composed of inputs from the environment (material or human resources), transformation processes of inputs to finished goods (technological and managerial processes), outputs of those finished goods into the environment
(products or services), and feedback (reactions from the environment). Subsystems are systems within a broader system. Interdependent subsystems (such as production, finance, and human resources) work toward synergy in an attempt to accomplish an organizational goal that could not otherwise be accomplished by a single subsystem. Systems develop synergy. This is a condition in which the combined and coordinated actions of the parts of a system achieve more than all the parts could have achieved acting independently. Entropy is the process that leads to decline. A system management approach is given below:

A Representative Diagram of System Management Approach

![Figure 3.1](image)

In the mid-1960s, the Contingency View of Management or Situational Approach emerged. This view emphasizes the fit between organization processes and the characteristics of the situation. It calls for fitting the structure of the organization to various possible or chance events. It questions the use of universal management practices and advocates using traditional, behavioral, and systems viewpoints independently or in combination to deal with various circumstances. The contingency approach assumes that managerial behavior is dependent on a
A management system describes the organization and the set of significant interacting institutions and forces in the organization's complex and rapidly changing environment that affect its ability to serve its customers. The firm must continuously monitor and adapt to the environment if it is to survive and prosper. Disturbances in the environment may spell profound threats or new opportunities for the firm. The successful firm will identify, appraise, and respond to the various opportunities and threats in its environment. Environmental forces create challenges and opportunities for the organization. Managers must react and adapt to changes in their internal and external environment. Globalization is an example of an opportunity for an organization. Improving technologies, such as transportation and communications, have enabled companies to expand into global or worldwide markets. Globalization affects how organizations are managed. Managers must learn to deal effectively with multiple cultures and political systems in the midst of rapidly changing markets and technology. They must be able to anticipate this changing environment and develop the vision and competencies at all levels in their organizations to embrace this dynamic future.

In the context of globalisation new management viewpoints are emerging. Quality management emphasizes achieving customer satisfaction by providing high quality goods and services. Total quality management principles are given priority by reengineering the organization redesigns the processes that are crucial to customer satisfaction. The total quality management and globalisation has
modeled new dimensions of management. The following diagram provides new perspectives.

**A Representative Diagram of New Dimensions of Management**

![Diagram of New Dimensions of Management](image)

Figure 3.2

At present the teacher education programmes compete to enhance the quality of programmes through implementing total quality management techniques. The efforts include the application of the modern management principles that are adopted in the field of industrial production and management strategies.

### 3.1.2. Theories on Academic Management

Educational management as a field of study and practice was derived from management principles first applied to industry and commerce. Theory
development largely involved the application of industrial models to educational settings. As the subject became established as an academic field in its own right, its theorists and practitioners began to develop alternative models based on their observation of, and experience in, schools and colleges.

By the 21st century the main theories have either been developed in the educational context or have been adapted from industrial models to meet the specific requirements of schools and colleges. Educational management has progressed from being a new field dependent upon ideas developed in other settings to become an established field with its own theories and research.

There is no single all-embracing theory of educational management. In part this reflects the astonishing diversity of educational institutions, ranging from small rural elementary schools to very large universities and colleges. It relates also to the varied nature of the problems encountered in schools and colleges, which require different approaches and solutions. Above all, it reflects the multifaceted nature of theory in education and the social sciences: “Students of educational management who turn to organisational theory for guidance in their attempt to understand and manage educational institutions will not find a single, universally applicable theory but a multiplicity of theoretical approaches each jealously guarded by a particular epistemic community” (Ribbins, 1985).

The existence of several different perspectives creates what Bolman and Deal (1997) describe as “conceptual pluralism: a jangling discord of multiple voices.” Each theory has something to offer in explaining behaviour and events in educational institutions. The perspectives favoured by managers, explicitly or implicitly, inevitably influence or determine decision-making.
Griffiths (1997) provides strong arguments to underpin his advocacy of “theoretical pluralism.” “The basic idea is that all problems cannot be studied fruitfully using a single theory. Some problems are large and complex and no single theory is capable of encompassing them, while others, although seemingly simple and straightforward, can be better understood through the use of multiple theories . . . particular theories are appropriate to certain problems, but not others”.

Educational management is a field of study and practice concerned with the operation of educational organizations. Bush, (2003) stated that educational management has to be centrally concerned with the purpose or aims of education. These purposes or goals provide the crucial sense of direction to underpin the management of educational institutions. Unless this link between purpose and management is clear and close, there is a danger of “managerialism . . . a stress on procedures at the expense of educational purpose and values” (Bush, 1999). “Management possesses no super-ordinate goals or values of its own. The pursuit of efficiency may be the mission statement of management – but this is efficiency in the achievement of objectives which others define” (Newman and Amp; Clarke, 1994).

Arthur W. Chickering and Zelda F. Gamson (1987) put forth Seven Principles for Good Practice in Education based on research on good teaching and learning in colleges and universities.

a. Encourages contacts between students and faculty.

b. Develops reciprocity and cooperation among students.

c. Uses active learning techniques.
d. Gives prompt feedback.

e. Emphasizes time on task.

f. Communicates high expectations.

g. Respects diverse talents and ways of learning.

3.1.3. Management of Teacher Education

Institutions of teacher education are always under pressure to become more efficient and effective. Many attempted to adopt new management systems and processes that were originally designed to meet the requirements of more efficient business or governmental organizations. Nicklin, (1995) observed that "a person would be hard pressed these days to find a college that doesn't claim to be evaluating or reshaping itself through one of these approaches".

Hirshberg (1992) focuses on instructional improvement, subject-area knowledge and faculty enthusiasm as the interrelated bases of better community college teaching. The continuing rapid growth of knowledge and, in particular, the exponential expansion of the technical information base requires that in the same way that colleges update their physical plant and equipment, they also must continuously renew and revitalize their ‘intellectual assets.’

The American Federation of Teachers Professional Development Guidelines (1995) note that while educational reforms depend on professional development traditional staff development efforts have failed, because:

a. professional development experiences are not deep enough, varied enough or well-enough supported,
b. school policy and organization are at odds with new theory,

c. individual and/or collective employee concerns are ignored, and

d. fads and new doctrinal approaches are accepted without full understanding or consideration of their implications.

In response, the AFT guidelines represent a reformist focus on content knowledge, pedagogy, student instruction, and faculty involvement in the developmental process.

The success of the two-day Georgia conference was attributed to a number of key elements (Jackson and Simpson, 1986), including:

a. co-option of senior faculty and support staff in planning,

b. participation of all elements in agenda-setting,

c. the use of presenters and facilitators drawn from within the institution,

d. the identification of follow-up activities,

e. the involvement of spouses, and

f. an emphasis on thorough organization.

A report on a faculty renewal program hosted by Leland Stanford University endorses a broad approach to faculty development which includes “relationships between what instructors teach, what they think about when they teach, what they think about themselves personally and professionally, what they think about their institution and finally, how this relates to classroom practice”
(Menges et al, 1988). The Stanford program was comprised mostly of brief annual summer workshops established to give post-secondary faculty members from throughout the country an opportunity to revitalize scholarly commitment through contact, study and discussion.

Research observations of some of the workshops showed a clear need for emotionally supportive activities, and feature numerous faculty descriptions of demoralizing professional situations arising from increased teaching hours and other additional responsibilities. The conclusion was that development efforts “need to foster emotional renewal” alongside disciplinary and pedagogical development, and the Stanford program has attempted to further this process by holding reunions for the workshop groups (Menges et al, 1988).

Hanoch McCarty’s (1993) professional growth strategy is similarly about ‘addressing human needs,’ in which she refers to ‘nine building blocks of self-esteem’ in working with burned-out faculty: safety, identity, connectedness, power, meaningfulness, risk-taking, models and mentors, counseling and fun; individuals who can successfully address these needs gain confidence and are more likely to behave in motivated, productive and creative ways. In this view, suitably designed developmental workshops and faculty retreats are those, which promote such personally restorative concepts and take a holistic approach to faculty renewal.

Another, complementary approach is the use of teaching portfolios. While teaching portfolios are often required in assessment for promotion or in performance appraisals, they also can be used to individualize faculty development efforts, and to inspire personal renewal and greater positive
motivation (Murray, 1994), through providing a better understanding of one’s own accomplishments and the patterns revealed by such collections. Teaching portfolios also help to maintain institutional memory, and by documenting events and responses to change in the experience of individual careers, can provide a cumulative source of guidance for those struggling to manage current difficulties.

In facilitating faculty renewal, colleges can promote individual growth, scholarly enthusiasm, and a renewed interest in knowledge and teaching. Improving the professional environment and creating a more capable and confident faculty will be reflected in better community college instruction, a revitalized institutional culture and increased public respect and support.

Ultimately, faculty renewal enriches the institution and will produce better students who know more, and can learn more, and community colleges can make no better investment than rebuilding their ‘intellectual assets’ through programs of faculty renewal and professional development.

3.1.4. Management of Teacher Education in India

The professional preparation of teachers has been recognized to be crucial for the qualitative improvement of education since the 1960s. The Kothari Commission, 1964-66, in particular noted the need for teacher education to be “…brought into the mainstream of the academic life of the Universities on the one hand and of school life and educational developments on the other.” It is indeed a matter of concern that teacher education institutes continue to exist as insular organizations even within the University system where many are located. Recognising ‘quality’ as the essence of a programme of teacher education, the Commission recommended the introduction of “integrated courses of general and
professional education in Universities...with greater scope for self-study and discussion...and...a comprehensive programme of internship.”

Subsequently the Chattopadhyaya Committee Report of the National Commission on Teachers (1983-85), envisioned the New Teacher as one who communicates to pupils “...the importance of and the feeling for national integrity and unity; the need for a scientific attitude; a commitment to excellence in standards of work and action and a concern for society.” The Commission observed that “...what obtains in the majority of our Teaching Colleges and Training Institutes is woefully inadequate...” “If teacher education is to be made relevant to the roles and responsibilities of the New Teacher, the minimum length of training for a Secondary teacher...should be five years following the completion of class 12.” Reiterating the need “...to enable general and professional education to be pursued concurrently”, the Commission recommends that “...to begin with we may have an integrated four year programme which should be developed carefully...it may also be possible for some of the existing colleges of Science and Arts to introduce an Education Department along with their other programmes allowing for a section of their students to opt for teacher education.” The Chattopadhyaya Commission recommended a four-year integrated course for the secondary as well as the elementary teacher.

Kalra (1992) has advocated that teachers should be taught what they are supposed to teach and in this regard points like analysis of content and identification of concepts, listing instructional objectives and behavioural outcomes, selection and development of learning activities matching with the developmental stages of learner, maintaining of ecology of classroom, preparation
of low cost improved apparatus and preparation and use of multi media materials should be discussed in details.

The National Policy of Education (NPE 1986/92) recognized that “...teachers should have the freedom to innovate, to devise appropriate methods of communication and activities relevant to the needs of and capabilities of and the concerns of the community.” The policy further states that “...teacher education is a continuous process, and its pre-service and in-service components are inseparable. As the first step, the system of teacher education will be overhauled.” The Acharya Ramamurti Committee (1990) in its review of the NPE 1986 observed that an internship model for teacher training should be adopted because “...the internship model is firmly based on the primary value of actual field experience in a realistic situation, on the development of teaching skills by practice over a period of time.”

The Yashpal Committee Report (1993) on Learning without Burden noted that “...inadequate programmes of teacher preparation lead to unsatisfactory quality of learning in schools. ...The content of the programme should be restructured to ensure its relevance to the changing needs of school education. The emphasis in these programmes should be on enabling the trainees to acquire the ability for self-learning and independent thinking.”

In the preface of Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education of National council of teacher education (NCTE, 1986) emphasised that the curricular and co curricular activities, its actual transactional modalities, examination system, management processes and its ethos need to be the main thrust areas of teacher education programmes. It is expected that a student teacher
undertake several practical activities, which facilitate instruction as also those that relate to management. Relevant to teaching and learning, the intending teacher develops competencies, like identification of support material, skills in preparation of indigenous and low-cost materials, judicious choice and utilisation of material for enhancing the learning and use of community resources for education. The likely activities may include preparation of an inventory of community resources, instructional material, development of software and use of hardware. The teacher-trainee also gets acquainted with the techniques of diagnosis, remediation, guidance and counselling, classroom interaction inclusive of understanding of context variables implicit in the process of teaching and learning, knowledge of educational rules and regulations/laws, in addition to maintenance of cumulative and comprehensive evaluation records, maintenance of school records and is conscious of professional accountability and ethics. It is hoped that most of the activities will be undertaken by the teacher trainee during the internship period of a reasonable duration. Some of these activities will have to be integrated with practice teaching. For meaningful organisation of practical work pre-internship stage may be utilised for demonstration lessons, lectures, simulation, role-playing, microteaching etc.

Management aims at deriving maximum benefits from the given inputs. The scarce means and resources, which can be alternatively deployed for improving teacher education, have to be carefully utilised. The Framework points out that the system of educational management needs to be more dynamic and forward looking to realize the objectives mentioned below:
a. To ensure continuous and ongoing professional growth of teachers and teacher educators

b. To provide and ensure freedom to institutions of teacher education, to experiment with innovative ideas and practices.

c. To advocate the case that, a certain percentage of the budget for teacher education research and development may be earmarked.

d. To advocate for creation of a separate cadre for teacher education in the state.

e. To establish linkage between teacher education and manpower planning,

f. To curtail wastage and non-academic expenditure in teacher education and to ensure optimal and profitable utilization of resources available for teacher education,

g. To improve the quality of teacher education by making it more functional at all levels and for all stages,

h. To provide and use ICT facilities.

i. To create collaborative links between agencies for the renewal of curriculum, preparation of syllabus, production of textbooks and other reading materials teaching aids and media support.

j. To promote international collaboration by way of frequent exchange of ideas, personnel, and research findings.
The management system including the personnel involved needs a new perceptive vision to adjust with the new situations. Educational changes are part of social change. Transformation at the both levels should occur simultaneously. Since the curriculum frame recommends more democratization of the education system, democratic inputs are more necessary in its management for which the training of the present educational managers and administrators is necessary. Reconsideration of the management structures at various levels should receive priority in the light of the changes suggested in this curriculum framework.

The National Curriculum Framework (NCF), 2005 presents a fresh vision and a new discourse on key contemporary educational issues. We now need to define the path that can be taken to empower individual teachers who can then empower learners. The critical link that binds the curriculum and the teaching learning environment together is the teacher. The professional need to review the teacher education curriculum also emerges from the long ossification of a national education system that continues to view teachers as “dispensers of information” and children as “passive recipients” of an “education” that is sought to be “delivered” in four-walled classrooms with little or no scope to develop critical thinking and understanding. To remove and minimize the existing deficiencies of teacher education and to meet the demand of new challenges, the Draft highlighted the following functions of teacher education institutions:

a. To provide qualified faculty, adequate infrastructure and learning resources, including print material, off-line IT material and computers as per prevalent NCTE norms for quality transaction of its teacher education programme;
b. To promote corporate institutional life based on values and ideals enshrined in the Indian Constitution for all stakeholders in the institution, including students, faculty and non-teaching staff;

c. To create all necessary resources and use these for institutional planning with mid-term appraisal for quality improvement of the teacher education institution;

d. To function as a nodal agency for networking community and its schools with the teacher education institute and use their resources for improving and enriching its teacher education programme;

e. To promote and strengthen action research and faculty research projects;

f. To organize on-campus and off-campus professional development activities and programmes for its faculty and the faculty of other teacher education institutes and school teachers in the network of schools attached to the institutes;

g. To make its teacher education programmes school-based along with a rigorous theoretical base; vibrant and collaborative between schools and the teacher education institute.

3.2. THEORETICAL BASES OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is generally perceived as what one does when taking charge. The term “leadership” connotes position, power and a role that includes title and formal authority. The leader is set apart from those who are led, elevated by station, power and ultimate responsibility.
Leadership is the ability and readiness to inspire guide and direct or manage others goods. Leadership is the interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process towards the attainment of a specific goal or goals. It is a n influence, a positive influencing act, directing a group and making a difference among groups.

Leaders are agents of change as persons whose acts affect other people more than other people affect them. A leader affects the group by initiating action, facilitating communication, establishing structure and implementing his own philosophy in the manner in which he leads.

Leaders meant to lead the followers their methods and manners of leading have to be precise and appropriate. They must have the capacity to project themselves in actions with competence and confidence. Various theories have been put forth on leadership.

Shaw, 1981, defined leadership as an influence process, which is directed towards goal achievement. A leader then is a member of a group who influences the group’s progress towards a goal. A group can have one leader or the influence process can be distributed across several members each of whom may be a leader responsible for a different group goal or goals oriented function.

Interaction theory considers leadership as a group function. Leadership is expected to emerge in a group as part of a more diffused differentiation of roles by which group goals are attained and to try to satisfy their individual group invested in this theory. There are lots of “Pull and Push” aspects in leadership phenomena. In Pull type of leadership there is someone in the first place and
others follow. In the Push type of leadership there are some who dominates and others who submit.

Classical theory asserts those particular individuals are naturally endowed with characteristic that costs them to strand out from the many others. On the basis of the theory, leaders are endowed with insight and unusual foresight by virtue of which they bring social and intellectual changes in the society. Nature brings such intelligent people into society and it is their responsibility to lead their society.

According to time theory leadership behaviour is a function of the given social situation. In each society, at a particular time, there are needs, aspirations and problem, which have to be fulfilled.

In psychoanalytic theory, psychologists have advanced their own theory on leadership behaviour. They treat leaders as father figures for the individual member.

3.2.1. Types of Leadership

According to Walter 1963, there are three types of leaders.

a. The democratic leader.

b. Laissez-faire leader.

c. The authoritarian leader.

The democratic leader serves as the agent of the group. He seeks to evoke the maximum involvement and participation of every member in-group objectives.
The democratic leader seeks to spread responsibility rather than to concentrate all power in his hands. He seeks to reduce intra group tension and conflict.

The Laissez-faire leader plays a rather passive role. He gives complete freedom to each member to take decisions of his own with regard to the role he has to play in the group. The Laissez-faire leaders do not attempt to control the group and to impose any kind of restriction on it.

The authoritarian leader alone determines policies of the group; he alone makes major plans; he alone fully knows the succession of future steps in the group’s activities; he alone dictates the activities of the members and the pattern of inter relations among the members; he alone serves as the ultimate agent and judge as the purveyor of rewards and punishments. (Walter Kolessik.B., 196)

Newcomb, Turner and Converse, 1969, found the following leadership behaviours facilitate interpersonal relationship and participation.

a. Providing warmth and friendliness.

b. Conciliating, resolving and conflict relieving.

c. Providing personal help, counsel and encouragement.

d. Showing understanding and tolerance of different points of view and

e. Showing farness and impartiality.

Managerial leadership assumes that the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks and behaviours and that if these functions are carried out competently the work of others in the organisation will be facilitated. Most
approaches to managerial leadership also assume that the behaviour of organisational members is largely rational. Authority and influence are allocated to formal positions in proportion to the status of those positions in the organisational hierarchy. (Leithwood et al, 1999)

3.2.2. Educational Leadership and Management

Leadership and management need to be given equal prominence if schools are to operate effectively and achieve their objectives. “Leading and managing are distinct, but both are important. The challenge of modern organisations requires the objective perspective of the manager as well as the flashes of vision and commitment wise leadership provides” (Bolman and Deal, 1997).

Leadership and management are often regarded as essentially practical activities. Practitioners and policy-makers tend to be dismissive of theories and concepts for their alleged remoteness from the “real” school situation. Willower (1980) asserts, “The application of theories by practicing administrators is a difficult and problematic undertaking. Indeed, it is clear that theories are simply not used very much in the realm of practice.” This comment suggests that theory and practice are regarded as separate aspects of educational leadership and management. Academics develop and refine theory while managers engage in practice. In short, there is a theory/practice divide, or “gap” (English, 2002).

Theories tend to be normative in that they reflect beliefs about the nature of educational institutions and the behaviour of individuals within them. Simkins (1999) stresses the importance of distinguishing between descriptive and normative uses of theory. “This is a distinction which is often not clearly made. The former are those which attempt to describe the nature of organisations and
how they work and, sometimes, to explain why they are as they are. The latter, in contrast, attempt to prescribe how organisations should or might be managed to achieve particular outcomes more effectively”.

Dressler’s (2001) review of leadership shows the significance of managerial leadership: “Traditionally, the principal’s role has been clearly focused on management responsibilities”. Managerial leadership is focused on managing existing activities successfully rather than visioning a better future for the school.

The principal is expected to adopt participative leadership strategies. Heroic models of leadership are inappropriate when influence and power are widely distributed within the institution. “The collegial leader is at most a “first among equals” in an academic organisation supposedly run by professional experts . . . the collegial leader is not so much a star standing alone as the developer of consensus among the professionals who must share the burden of the decision.” (Baldridge et al, 1978)

Transformational leadership assumes that leaders and staff have shared values and common interests (Bush, 2003), the leadership model most relevant to collegiality is “participative leadership,” which “assumes that the decision-making processes of the group ought to be the central focus of the group”

Sergiovanni (1984) claims that a participative approach succeeds in “bonding” staff together and in easing the pressures on school principals. “The burdens of leadership will be less if leadership functions and roles are shared and if the concept of leadership density were to emerge as a viable replacement for principal leadership”.
Transactional Leadership model most closely aligned with political models. “Transactional leadership is leadership in which relationships with teachers are based upon an exchange for some valued resource. To the teacher, interaction between administrators and teachers is usually episodic, short-lived and limited to the exchange transaction” (Miller and Miller, 2001).

The notion of post-modern leadership aligns closely with the principles of subjective models. Keough and Tobin (2001) says that “current postmodern culture celebrates the multiplicity of subjective truths as defined by experience and revels in the loss of absolute authority.” They identify several key features of postmodernism (Keough and Tobin, 2001):

Leaders have the main responsibility for generating and sustaining culture and communicating core values and beliefs both within the organization and to external stakeholders. Principals have their own values and beliefs arising from many years of successful professional practice. They are also expected to embody the culture of the school or college. Schein (1997) argues that cultures spring primarily from the beliefs, values and assumptions of founders of organizations. However, it should be noted that cultural change is difficult and problematic. Hargreaves (1999) claims that “most people’s beliefs, attitudes and values are far more resistant to change than leaders typically allow”.

3.2.3. Educational Leadership

A leader is one who is capable of exerting his influence on others to a greater extent than others can influence him. This requires on his part, ability for intelligent observation of the behaviour trends of members, capacity for coordinating their efforts and motivating them to achieve group goals.
Three types of educational leaders are:

a. The educational statesman.

b. The teacher

c. The administrator.

The educational statesman is concerned with presenting the facts objectively and persuading others to veer sound to his points of view by the clear expression of his opinion and by appealing to their rationality.

The teacher adopts the method persuasion. This method may be adopted in the beginning which may be changed if the situation demands.

The educational administrator has to run the organization and decide on the means of influence, which he has to adopt, the group forces that operate and other situational factors.

3.2.4. Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership means, "those action that a principal takes or delegates to other, to promote growth in student learning."

According to Greenfield (1987), instructional leadership denotes "actions undertaken with the intention of developing productive and satisfying working environment for teachers and desirable learning conditions and outcomes for children."
The following three core ideas relate to the instructional leadership role of the principal and are closely tied to the characteristics and behaviour of the effective principals.

a. Effective principals hold an image or vision of what they want to accomplish.

b. The vision guides principals in managing and leading their institutions.

c. Effective principals focus their activities on instruction and the classroom performance of teachers.

Duke’s (1987), vision of instructional leadership, which derives in parts from recent research on institutional effectiveness, is tied directly to a vision of teaching excellence. He stressed that the relationship between instructional leadership and teaching excellence is characterized by continuing interaction, each influencing the other clearly. Teachers and senior personal both have important functions to perform. Duke’s book is a model of instructional leadership, involving seven key functions, listed in given figure: two of the key function, coordination and trouble shooting, cut across all of the other five, that is teacher supervision and development, leader evaluation, instructional management and support, resource management and quality control.

3.3. THEORETICAL BASES OF SELF-ACCEPTANCE

Self-acceptance is defined as affirmation or acceptance of self in spite of weaknesses or deficiencies. Although this term has been often understood in a common sense way, researchers have defined it formally in terms of positive and negative self-concepts. According to Shepard (1979), self-acceptance refers to an
individual’s satisfaction or happiness with himself, and is thought to be necessary for good mental health. Self-acceptance involves self-understanding, a realistic, albeit subjective, awareness of one’s strengths and weaknesses. It results in an individual’s feeling about himself that he is of “unique worth”.

Self-Acceptance refers to clients as they are, with the symptomology they present, which can be conveyed through active listening, reflective responses, tone of voice, facial expression and body language (Donner, 1994).

In clinical psychology and positive psychology, self-acceptance is considered the prerequisite for change to occur. It can be achieved by stopping criticizing and solving the defects of one’s self, and then accepting them to be existing within one’s self. That is, tolerating oneself to be imperfect in some parts.

According to Wayne Dyer “Self-acceptance means liking the entire physical you, and eliminating those cultural impositions to be proper or to merely tolerate your body when it behaves other than in a cosmetic fashion.”

Western psychological experts note that “although relatively little is known about self-esteem, it is generally considered to be a highly favorable personal attribute,” while the lack of self-esteem is seen as “one of the basic warning signs of a dysfunctional personality,” and as a root of many different sorts of mental illnesses and social problems.

On the other hand, the Buddhist tradition seems to view self-esteem, self-acceptance, and self-love as causes of much suffering. While Western psychotherapists often try to help our patients to “feel better about themselves,” Buddhist masters often seem to encourage us to feel worse about ourselves.
Gecas and Burke’s reference reflected appraisal process that suggests humans, especially children, have a natural “need to be mirrored” or validated if they are to develop self-acceptance (Kohut, 1977).

Yet, this does not always occur in the lives of children and they instead develop their own internal mirror. In other words, if the social process fails, one turns to the inner processes to aid in the emergence of self.

Maslow took this idea and created his now famous hierarchy of needs. The physiological need, safety and security needs, love and belonging needs, esteem needs and self actualization needs. The Hierarchy of Needs according to Maslow is described in the figure given below:

A Representative Diagram of Hierarchy of Needs of Maslow

![Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Diagram](image)

Figure 3.3
The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, fame, glory, recognition, attention, reputation, appreciation, dignity, even dominance. The higher form involves the need for self-respect, including such feelings as confidence, competence, achievement, mastery, independence, and freedom.

Rogers (1961), for whom self acceptance occupies a central role in his theories of therapy and personality, observed that “as a client moves toward being able to accept his own experiences, he also moves toward the acceptance of others”. There is considerable research support for a positive relation between favorableness of self-evaluation and evaluation of others.

Theoretical significance and practical implications of a relation between self-acceptance and acceptance of others for psychotherapy, child-rearing, and, in fact, the welfare of human society, it is surprising that the relation has not been subjected to more careful analytic scrutiny. A moment’s reflection suggests that the relation is not as simple as it first may seem.

Why should self-acceptance be related to acceptance of others? According to humanistic psychologists, it is a natural condition for humans to be accepting of others, a condition that is interfered with when people are turned against themselves by social conditions. It follows from this reasoning that, to the extent that people are pleased with themselves, they will tend to have positive regard for others. An alternative hypothesis is that there is no general tendency for people to be positive to others, but there is a tendency for people to regard others with whom they identify in similar terms as they regard themselves. Accordingly, to the extent that people have positive attitudes toward themselves, they will view
others with whom they identify in positive terms, but will not have positive attitudes toward those with whom they do not identify. From this viewpoint, the reason that a positive relation commonly has been found between self-ratings and ratings of others is that the others have been people with whom the raters, to some extent, identify.

3.4. THEORETICAL BASES OF STUDENT SATISFACTION

Satisfaction is mostly related to the need fulfillment. Maslows theory on hierarchy of needs is based on the factors such as Self-fulfillment, Esteem, Social, Safety, and Physiological. If a lower need is satisfied, the next higher one becomes dominant. Higher-order needs provide greatest motivation. Different people may have different priorities.

ERG theory of Clayton P. Alderfer (1969) is about subjective states of satisfaction and desire. According to this theory there are 3 primary categories of human needs:

a. existence needs – need for material and energy exchange,

b. relatedness needs – transactions with human environment, process of sharing or mutuality,

c. growth needs – people make creative or productive efforts for themselves.

The structure of Clayton Alderfer’s ERG theory is given below:
A Representative Diagram of Clayton Alderfer’s ERG Theory

Figure 3.4

The Expectancy theory of Victor Vroom (1964) value, instrumentality (belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another), expectancy (probability that action or effort will lead to an outcome) and Strength of expectations may be based on past experiences is the motivational factors towards the goal satisfaction. Motivation is only likely when a clearly perceived relationship exists between performance and an outcome that is seen as a means of satisfying needs.

A Representative Diagram of Expectancy theory of Victor Vroom

Figure 3.5
Porter and Lawler (1973) explain two factors determining the effort people put into their jobs: value of rewards to individuals in so far as they satisfy their needs and probability that rewards depend on effort, as perceived by individuals, their expectation about relationships between effort and reward.

The Goal theory of Latham and Locke (1990) is in different opinion. Motivation and performance are higher when individuals are set specific goals. Goals have to be difficult but accepted. Participation in goal setting is important – goals need to be agreed as long as they are accepted – demanding goals lead to better performance than easy goals.

Students’ satisfaction with their educational experience, similar to customer satisfaction, is the result of a complex set of factors. Understanding what those factors are and how they combine to influence satisfaction is critical to educators who believe that student satisfaction in addition to learning is a desired outcome of their efforts. One of the factors that are likely to influence a student’s satisfaction in a course is his or her expectation. Students come into a given course with many preconceived notions about what will be covered, whether the course will be difficult, whether the lectures will be interesting.

Educators are concerned with satisfaction as an outcome of their endeavors will find it necessary to examine the role played by student expectations. Although existing research has identified many influences on student satisfaction with various aspects of their education, the role of student expectations has received little attention.

Satisfaction measures that include the student’s level of satisfaction with the total undergraduate experience, as well as with specific aspects of that
experience, such as the quality of instruction, contacts with faculty and fellow students, curriculum, college administration, and facilities (Astin, 1993).

The most important predictors of students' satisfaction with institution are students' feeling that they are treated fairly, that they feel safe and that they believe that teachers are supportive. The findings suggest that, in health promotion interventions, attention needs not only to be given to classroom teaching materials but also to the quality of a student's institutional experience and the quality of the relationship with the teachers.

The ARCS model of Keller, J.M. (1987) explains the student satisfaction can be maintained through:

a. Learning must be rewarding or satisfying in some way, whether it is from a sense of achievement, praise from a higher-up, or mere entertainment.

b. Make the learner feel as though the skill is useful or beneficial by providing opportunities to use newly acquired knowledge in a real setting.

c. Provide feedback and reinforcement. When learners appreciate the results, they will be motivated to learn. Satisfaction is based upon motivation, which can be intrinsic or extrinsic.

d. Do not patronize the learner by over-rewarding easy tasks.

Students' perceptions of and experiences in the educational institutions influence the development of their self-esteem, self-perception and health behaviours. In turn, these issues affect the students' present and future health and well-being (Hurrelmann et al., 1995). Although the school is not the only
formative influence on children and adolescents, it provides direct access to young people for educational programs and is in itself an environment, which is amenable to intervention—with or without reference to other major influences on health status such as families, peers and the media.

Those students who dislike school are also those most likely to be failing academically, and those at greatest risk of adopting unhealthy behaviours, exhibiting psychosomatic problems and experiencing reduced quality of life (Nutbeam et al., 1993). Students who are not very satisfied with school are more likely to be alienated from school and to find arenas where they can rebel against the authority of school.

Research focusing on the determinants of students’ satisfaction with educational institutions is scarce. This concept has mainly been dealt with as a predictor of academic achievement. In general, students’ satisfaction with educational institutions may be regarded as being mainly dependent on personal characteristics such as sociability and positive values regarding academic achievement (Covington and Beery, 1976), and social characteristics of family, peer and institutional environments (Perry et al., 1993). As students spend a major part of their active time in school, the school environment may be considered as the key arena for interventions aimed at enhancing well-being at school. In order to develop effective interventions, more knowledge is needed about how satisfaction with educational institution is associated with various features of the school environment.

Characteristics associated with a positive view of educational institutions are student participation in and responsibility for the school life, and a good
relationship with teachers (Millstein et al, 1993; Cabello and Terrel, 1994; Voelkl, 1995).

Efficient and caring classrooms have discipline and structure (Rutter, 1980). Lack of order can result in insecurity among students and harassment in the classroom. By keeping classroom management in an non-authoritarian mode, the students can experience that regulation of behaviour is also a way to care for them as individuals and the class as a group (Kottkamp and Mulhern, 1987; Lunenburg and Schmidt, 1989).

The job demands placed on students largely concern evaluating academic performance. In their managerial position teachers play a vital role in making clear what the demands are, as well as how the student is expected to fulfill these demands. If the student believes that the teacher expects more than he/she feels capable of achieving, they are likely to experience stress (Steptoe, 1991; Perryet al., 1993). Increased levels of stress may in turn result in a lower degree of satisfaction with school (Mackay and Cox, 1978).

Good relations with and social support from fellow students (colleagues) and the teachers (managers) may reduce experiences of stress as a consequence of discrepancies between needs, expectations and resources (Cohen and Syme, 1985; Steptoe, 1991). This might contribute to positive satisfaction with school despite poor academic ability because the student feels valued as an individual, and thus can maintain positive selfworth and self-esteem (Covington and Beery, 1976; Calabrese, 1987). Student’s relations with the teachers might be the most influential element in this association. If the students feel that they are cared for and are allowed to participate actively in discussions and planning of the
classroom program, poor academic performance may be a less important factor influencing negative perceptions of school (Calabrese, 1987).

The new millennium has forced change in many institutions, and teacher education is no exception. The newly incoming students indicate they prefer a different type of relationship with their college. Contemporary discussions of teacher education frequently overlook student satisfaction. Satisfaction covers the issues of students’ perceptions. According to Tinto’s theory of student departure, college students enter with initial dispositions and intentions about personal goals. The institution cannot be held accountable for this predisposed personality trait of the student. These commitments are modified and reformulated through extended encounters within the campus environment. Satisfying and rewarding encounters lead to greater integration and directly affect retention rates on college campuses (Pascarella and Terenzini, 1991).

Originally, satisfaction theories focused on preventing student dissatisfaction and attrition by explaining the relationship between students and the campus environment. The ecological theory of student satisfaction put emphasis on the fact that the campus environment influenced students’ assimilation and adaptation to the campus culture. Student discontent with campus life led to satisfaction models that individualized assessment to determine the fit of the student to the environment (Schmidt and Sedlacek, 1972).

In 1975, Nafziger, Holland, and Gottfredson stated that student-college congruency was a predictor of student satisfaction. These researchers noted the interaction between individual students and the environment led to identify specific factors that tied in to student satisfaction. Certain college characteristics,
such as faculty style of instruction, provided congruency between a student’s personality and institutional environment. Students reported high levels of satisfaction if their personalities were congruent with environment (Morstain, 1977). Faculty teaching styles congruency produced more satisfied students. Faculty input and involvement can directly affect the campus atmosphere. Faculty satisfaction spills over to student satisfaction. Research has shown, a positive association between academic achievement and hours per week spent talking with faculty outside of class (among other variables), and between retention (ultimately, degree completion) and a student-oriented faculty (Astin, 1993).

A variety of factors appear to influence student satisfaction. Factors fall into a variety of categories, most prominently personal factors related to the student and institutional factors related to the educational experience. In the first category for example, gender, temperament, preferred learning style (Brokaw, Kennedy, and Merz, 2004; Stokes, 2003), age, gender, employment (Fredericksen, Shea, and Pickett, 2000), and grade point average (Porter and Umbach, 2001) have all been found to be significant predictors of student satisfaction. Although not investigated to date, student expectations would be another example of a factor related to the student that is likely to play a role in satisfaction.

Institutional factors that have been found to influence student satisfaction include instructor teaching style (Dana, Brown, and Dodd, 2001), quality of instruction (DeBourgh, 2003; Lado, Cardone-Riportella, and Rivera-Torres, 2003), research emphasis of the school (Porter and Umbach, 2001), quality and promptness of feedback from instructor, clarity of expectations from instructor (Fredericksen et al., 2000), and class size (Krentler and Grudnitski, 2004).
Interaction with the instructor, interaction with classmates, and participation for example has all been found to affect student satisfaction (Fredericksen et al., 2000). Furthermore, students’ perceptions of instructor fairness, most likely influenced by both instructor action and by personal characteristics of the student, have also been found to be an important driver of student satisfaction (Desai et al., 2001).

CONCLUSION

From the overview of different concepts of the variables under investigation in this study, it is emerged that the management is an effective activity which produces the right kind of results according to the predetermined aims and objectives. Various theories of management theories emphasised proper human or behavioural relationships can make expected out puts from a process.

The theories on the management of academic activities pointed out that perfect attainment of the aims and objectives of the education determine the effectiveness of the academic management. In teacher education the management of academic activities focuses on professional growth of teachers. The teacher education programmes in India stress on the development of different components of teaching learning process especially the competency in teaching emphasising on preparation, presentation and evaluation.

The theoretical overviews on the management of teacher education emphasises on the need of examining the management aspects of teacher education programmes. It also points out that the need of effective educational leaders with effective leadership capacities.
The leadership theories pointed out the need of managerial leadership capacities with interpersonal and intra personal aspects. In educational situations different kinds of approaches are adopted by the educational leaders/heads. The integration of different models leadership is given more attention by the researchers and educational leaders.

In regard to the self acceptance, it is obvious that it is very much related to the personal needs or goals of individual. It is observed by the psychologists that the positive level of self acceptance of teachers definitely influence the self acceptance level of the students. It also leads to the satisfaction of the students. The theories on student satisfaction are very much related to the expectations of the students in their course of study. The institutional factors, the way of the management of the activities in the institution and the way of the interaction are most important reasons for the satisfaction of the students.

Thus from the theoretical overview, it can be concluded that teachers are arguably the most important group of professionals. Teacher education institutions have significant role in preparing highly potential professionally skilled teachers for the betterment of future generation. The quality of teacher education programmes depends upon the quality of academic programmes. The achievements of the goals of teacher education programmes are based cumulatively on quality management of academics, effective leadership with teacher educators’ self-acceptance and student satisfaction.

On the basis of the empirical researches and theoretical overview, the investigator formulated the methodology for the present study which is described in the next chapter.