Chapter - 1
CHAPTER- 1

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1 INTRODUCTION:

To man, the art of life is more important than mere living. The fundamental basis to distinguish human race from other lower order of life is not in the physical form but in the physical function. The human mind can attain to the level of maturity to probe the deepest secrets of nature, to unravel the profound mysteries of life and to interpret things even that remain beyond the sense of perception. Not only that, human being can regulate his life by knowledge based reasoning and outlook. And the practical application of man’s knowledge for the advancement of individual and social welfare is the characteristic feature of civilized life.

Education is the process of individual development from helpless infancy to self-governing maturity. Another privilege of human civilization is to preserve its intellectual, moral, aesthetic and spiritual strength carrying forward generation to generation through different agencies of formal and non-formal class. A school is such a formal agency which consolidates the strength of human civilization and mentions its continuity for the guarantee of its betterment. It is a dynamic organization which is devised with the
objective to create and to administer an environment for the development of knowledge, habit, character, interest, efficiency and ability of its pupils in such a manner that each of them is likely to find his position and to use his place for shaping, strengthening and uplifting his individuality as well as his society towards a nobler progressiveness.

As one of the graded segment of formal education system, the emergence of Higher Secondary Schools in the shape of truly educational institute “For All” makes one of the most significant developments sociologically as well as educationally. This segment of school education is expected to cater to aspiration of pupils both as a terminal stage leading them to employment market and as the foundation for higher studies. To comply with the trend of globalization of interest, Higher Secondary Education is also expected to respond to innovations in information and communication technology, development in various fields of human knowledge and entrepreneurial quality concerns.

The success of any kind of educational or any other institution depends, in a large measure, upon the personnel apparently engaged in its administration. An administration is required to accomplish organizational goals or objectives. It is a process of management of working with and through individuals and groups and other resources (such as assets, equipment, capital and technology) to accomplish the organizational goals. A Higher secondary school has complexities inherent in its very structure and functions today. All its components concern together in the shaping adolescent young for their well adjusted, emotionally stable and
efficient membership of the society. But a widely quoted saying is “as is the principal, so is the school.” The principal, as the designated head, are the most significant personnel who manipulate all other elements of a school’s ecosystem contemplating to ensure the achievement of maximum objectives of his institution. So it is advisable to say that the environment of a school reflects the administrative effectiveness of its principal because the reputation of school and the position that it holds in a community is very much in harmony with the nature and quality of its principal’s administration.

The dictionary defines administration as “management of affairs”. F. Morstein Marx (1946) of the opinion that Administration is a determined action taken in pursuit of conscious purpose. It is a systematic ordering of affairs and calculated use of resources aimed at making those things happen which one wants to happen and foretelling everything to the contrary.” The practical aspect of administration is always concerned with the process of decision as well as with the process of collective action promising the purpose of an organization. Hence, in the simplest terms, administration is a service activity through which the objectives of an institution may be effectively accomplished. In the recent past there has been growing realization that:

“Administration is susceptible to empirical research. It is not entirely a common sense, fly by the seat of the paints art which can only be passed on from practitioner to practitioner; it can be studied using the tools of behaviour sciences. These tools
include concept and theories of human behaviour, research design, statistical insights, computers and the logic of this mode of inquiry (Newell: 1978)."

The above said postulate offers a number of efforts to investigate into the area of school administration to contribute to necessary prerequisite for developing a disciplined body of knowledge to guide a process of administration to more effective and efficient form. Effective performance is the result of predictable, planned action that can be learnt and applied by someone in any organization anywhere. Educational process and administration do not exist in a vacuum. They owe their existence to a political, sociological, economical, cultural and psychological frame of references. Entirely concerned with human process, the educational administration is considered as a process of influencing people in the organization to implement strategies and achieve goals. It may always be defined in terms of an individual's traits, leadership behaviour, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perception, influence over followers, influence on task goals, influence on organizational culture and managerial styles. So it is highly influenced by the interrelated factors and forces operating within and outside the institution, as the ground of a social system, as well as the personality, attitude, outlooks, loyalties, satisfaction, values, interest, adjustment etc. of the administrator.

A proper identification of effective administrators envisages that those factors and forces be understood and their specific contribution be determined to define the need of their action, to
believe in what they were doing, to inspire others and, in spite of odds, changed the word to fulfill their organizational commitment. Such an attempt would make it possible to experiment with administrators so that they work a little better than what they were performing earlier. Therefore, in the present study, it is to be tried to establish relationship between work values and adjustment of principals and their administrative effectiveness.

1.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK:

Present era is in the midst of political, economical and technological revolutions that are sweeping the globe. Enduring the rapidly changing world, organizations are needed to be deeply aware of their sense of purpose. Such organizations have to declare their responsibilities towards society as well as the nation evincing the justification for their survival.

The fundamental purpose of administration is to create values as perceived by the follower(s) concern with the institution directly or indirectly. Drucker (1954) believed that administration is pictured as action oriented and the activities of administrators are to perform for desirable changes and accomplishment of institutional goals through a group process. Administration is nothing less than the whole organization is purposely in action. It is the force which leads an organization towards a predetermined goal. It is a facilitating mechanism to reach to an expected end for which the institution is established.

In fact, the administration is a purposive behaviour on the
part of its participants. It is not unlike a playacting. The task of a
good actor is to know and play his role. The effectiveness of the
performance will depend on the effectiveness of his role and the
effectiveness with which it is expected to be played. The structure of
this content includes the explanation and analytic schemes of the
anatomy of principals' administrative effectiveness within the
framework of their work values and their adjustment.

1.2-1. NATURE OF PRINCIPAL'S ADMINISTRATION:

A school administration is more concerned with human
relationship. It is defined as, in a large part, "the influencing of one
group of human beings, the pupils, to grow towards defined
objective, utilizing a second group of human beings, the teachers,
as agents, and operating in a setting of a third group of human
beings, the public, variously concerned with both objective and with
means to achieve them, (Mort & Ross: 1956). Hence, educational
administration is a process of integrating the efforts of personnel
and of utilizing appropriate materials in such a way as to promote
effectively the development of human qualities. Basically, the
purpose of school administration is to bring pupils and teachers
under such conditions as to achieve a sound and efficient
educational ends. School improvement is the single most important
business of a school administration including all the service
activities through which the objective of the educational process
may be effectively realized.

In the context of the total school operation, Haris (1963)
categorizes the school activities in two sorts-learning and teaching activities as the central goals of the operation. Focusing upon both the activities, school process is divided in two major dimensions-instruction related and pupil related. Instruction related dimension consists of teaching that implies behaviours related to instruction where as pupil related dimension includes learning that implies the learner. This two dimensional grid suggests five functional areas into the framework of the entire educational operation:

- The teaching function is the instructional behaviours which are central to the primary purposes of the school operation.

- The special service function is the behaviours that are highly pupil related but indirectly instruction related. Activities of counselors, psychologists, recreation leaders, coaches etc. are included in this area.

- The management function is the behaviours that are indirectly related to instruction and remotely related to the pupil. Many activities of school board members, custodians, district officers etc. are included in this area.

- The supervision function is the behaviours that are highly instruction related but only remotely related to pupils.

The general administration function area is unique behaviours which fall in center positions along the instruction and pupil related dimensions.

Administration becomes the function characterized by those activities which are neither remotely nor directly related to
pupils or instruction but which tend to give unity to the entire operation by being somewhat related to all functional areas. This is not to suggest that administrators are not appropriately engaged in endeavors that are directly instruction and pupils related but are highly engaged in both types of endeavors. They often tend to engage in all the function areas of the school operation.

Every educational institution requires a pattern of administration to propel, to maintain and to sustain it on an even keel, to stir it through often uncharted problem-zones and to keep it prepared and energized in the context of fast changing society. It is the process by which a school uses to ensure that all students are achieving at higher level. There is no assurance that mere presence of enough money, quality personnel or sufficient physical resources will yield excellence, but a most significant force is needed to translate all the potentials into realities and that is the administration of principal.

Chitra Naik (1966) promulgates that “being an instrument of social service rather than a bureaucratic machine, a principal is more than an official punctilious about administrative routine; He is an educational leader, guiding and directing a sacred undertaking. So the subject matter of school administration is merely not a thing of ideal beauty.” Being an apparent school administrator, a principal is crucial to the development and maintenance of effective school. Richardson et. al. (1989) suggested that a principal must lead toward educational achievement, must be a person who makes instructional quality the top priority of the school, and must be able to bring that vision to realization.

Far from being self-contained isolated system, schools are
nested organizations; each has multiple connections with its environment. In addition to the teachers, ministerial staff and students inside a school building, it includes parents, community members, district personnel and other external entities that affect instructional process. A principal’s role is unique in relation to many occupational roles in that it spans the boundary between internal and external environments. In spite of the executive head of the school, a principal, today, has to perform the assignments in context of multiple reform agendas. These reforms, coming from local, states and national sources, increase the complexity of the principal’s role by forcing the principal to focus on the demand that each source is making.

Thus, a principal’s role is multifaceted and continually transforming to include new demands. The principal of today and tomorrow faces continuously changing environment. The fast changing political, socio-cultural, economical, and globalization forces, influencing our life-pattern so dramatically, are in turn having dramatic impact on all aspects of the organizational behaviour, community relations, curriculum and the very nature of Instructional process. An important ingredient for the success of principals operating in this dynamic setting is that they bring to the position a solid foundational base that will give them perspective about the changing society.

All administrative behaviours involve conscious or unconscious selection of particular action out of all those which are physically possible to the actor and to those persons over whom he exercise influence and authority. Simon (1961) considered the term
“selection” as the product of a complex chain of activities called “planning” or “design” activities for smooth and effective running of an organization towards its organizational goal. Davies (1950) is given credit for developing a classical three-dimensional concept of school administration i.e. the role in relation to the job of principals, the social setting for the job and the person relates to both. Analyzing the work within a social system on the basis of Davies concept, a principal should play his administrative role into two categories: that are managerial emphasis and educational leadership. For the subject matter of students’ conduct, time management, budgeting, supervision of personnel, and regulation of policy in the school system, a principal’s role is expected to be in managerial style, where as for the subject matter of program facilitation, articulating visions, school-community facilitation and diluting problems which are obtained through clinical supervision of the school system, he has to act like an educational leader.

Discriminating management and leadership Hersey and Blanchard (1996) stated that management and leadership are often thought of as one end of the same thing. But there is an important distinction between the two concepts:

- Leadership is a broader concept that the management.
- Management is thought of as a special kind of leadership in which the achievement of organizational goals is paramount.

They suggested that the key difference between the two concepts, therefore, lies in the word ‘organization’. Leadership occurs any time one attempts to influence the behaviour of an
individual of group, regardless of the reason. It may be for one's own goals or for those of others and they may or may not be congruent with organizational goals; but the achievement of organizational goals or objectives through leadership is management.

Boyer (1983) opined that the emphasis on the principal as a leader may have added a new dimension to the traditional distinction between the dual role of principal as educator and principal as administrator. Moorthy (1992) separates managerial functions of a principal into the arias of planning, organizing, motivating and controlling; Instructional leadership functions involve all the beliefs, values, decisions, strategies and tactics that a principal use to generate instructional effectiveness in the school. Managers focus on "running a smooth ship", instructional leaders focus on instruction and learning. A principal's role suggests strategies and activities that a principal might use to lead the school organization through the process of improving student achievements as per the demands of social and national system. Although the role of the principal as an educational leader is pivotal in developing an effective school, principals can not be effective leader if they are not good manager; hence, both the roles are supporting, not as isolated entities.

In a soundly organized school system, professional responsibility and authority are vested in a principal of the school as the responsible administrative and supervisory head of the system. Being an executive head of the school like organization, a single concept is conventionally expected that a principal needs to
be an ideal principal. This idealized view of the principal's role ignores both the importance that context plays and the dynamic qualities and unique work values of the individual principal. School characteristics, such as size and level, teacher differences in terms of experience, teaching performance and participating capabilities as well as demographic characteristics of the larger community, its different cultural values, social characteristics (e.g., socioeconomic status and social problems) and different nature of district supervision can affect or constrain sometime the performances of a principal. In the changing context and roles of the principals and the importance of self understanding, it may be concluded that a principal must be prepared to face a world of:

- Decentralized school structures.
- Increasing and changing environmental boundaries and roles.
- Less homogenous schools.
- A market-driven view of education.
- Closer and influential contacts within community.

Instead of an ideal portrait of the principalities, a school administrator needs to be a gallery of desirable portraits. Although an idealized view of the principalship is both impossible and inappropriate, there are some things that good principals know and do. First, good principals understand the importance of context for the performance of their role. Second, good principals understand themselves, their values, skills and knowledge. Third, good principals fulfill their roles in ways that focus on what is best for the organization and students; (Hausman, Charls S., Crow, Gary M., Sperry, David: 2000).
It is obvious after reviewing the literature that there are almost as many definitions of administration as there are writers and scholars in the field. But a common thread that appears in this definition is that the job of an administrator is to make the organization perform contemplating to accomplish the organizational goal or objectives within a social system.

Considering as a social process, (Fig. 1.1), Gatzels, Lipham and Campbell (1968) assume that administration always functions in an interpersonal way and as a part of large social system. The social system is conceived in terms of two major dimensions which are conceptually interrelating. The first is 'Institutional Dimension'
that defines on account of 'Roles and Expectations' that will fulfill the goals of the system. It is "Nomothetic" dimension. Another is 'Personal Dimension' which is influenced by the personality and need disposition of individuals. The observed behaviour of an individual in the organization is based on interaction between the institutional and personal dimensions.

The most effective administrator is the person who uses his energies to accomplish desired results. Administration is focus on action and implementation. Leadership, change, implementation, and results: these are the operative words for the new world order. They become, as never before, core influences on an organizational environment, thus profoundly affecting the administration of effective organization. However, it is clear that No one administrator can manage alone. Considering the administration as a social process, Ichak Adizes (1976) argues that it take several to perform the organizational process adequately; Several people to perform roles which seem to be in conflict some time, but really are complimentary. There should be individuals who process the entrepreneurial, innovational and integrating qualities which can guide an organization to new direction. There should be an administrator who can translate all the new action into operative system which should produce effective results. And there should be performers who can put the system into action and example for efficient operation.

Harsey and Scott (1984) recognize administration as a purposive role within social system comprised of many interrelated subsystem, (Fig. 1.2), only one of which is a Human or Social
subsystem. The others could include an Administrative or Structural subsystem, an Informational or Decision making subsystem and an Economical or technological subsystem within the organization. The informational or decision making subsystem emphasizes key decision and their informational or needs to keep the system going. The main concern of the economical or technological subsystem is the work to be done and the cost effectiveness of that work within the specific goals of an organization.

![Diagram of interrelated sub-systems]

**Fig. 1.2: The Interrelated Sub-Systems of an Organization.**

Although, the focus of the human/social system is on the motivation and needs of the members of the organization and on the leadership provided or required. It should be emphasized that within a system approach. There is a clear understanding that changes in one subsystem affect changes in other parts of the total system. At the same time the internal management of an organization can not ignore the needs and pressures from the external environment.
1.2-3. ADMINISTRATIVE EFFECTIVENESS:

Newell (1978) is of the opinion that administration is justified only to the extent that it contributes to the capacity of organization to fulfill its primary mission. In the field of education, administration is justified only as it contributes to the capacity of the school to help children and youth to grow towards responsible adulthood.

Over the years with the development of a sense of professionalism, consciousness for a high quality performance is going on. One of the most important issues facing the applied behavioural science is that of human capability of gaining outcome in terms of the quality and quantity of work through which the definition and the identification of an organization is recognized. There seems to be an increasing awareness even in the Indian educational scenario about the administrative effectiveness of principals.

Good (1959) defines administrative effectiveness as “the extent to which satisfactory results have been produced through control, directions and management exercised by the executive authority: the satisfactory results shall be judged in terms of the objectives of each of the activity.”

Halpin (1959) identified two separate dimensions of leadership behaviour in an ‘initiating structure’ refers to the leader’s behaviour in delineating the relationship between the self and the members of the work group and endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communications, and methods of procedure. ‘Consideration’ refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the
relationship between the leader and the members of the staff. He suggested that when a leader receives from his or her colleagues high scores on both the dimensions, that the leader is considered to be very effective.

Guba and Bidwell (1957) have explained that “effectiveness is a function of the congruence of expectations and behaviour.” Gatzel, Lipham and Campbell (1968) also hold the similar opinion that “effectiveness is, then, a measure of the concordance of the role behaviour and the role expectations.” The same behaviour may be held effective at one time and ineffective at another time by a same administrator, depending on the role expectation applies to his role behaviour. However, judgment of effectiveness or ineffectiveness is impossible to interpret unless both the role expectations being applied and observations of the role behaviour are known. Since effectiveness in a role depends on the degree to which behaviour confirms to the expectations, so effectiveness can not be forthcoming if the expectations are inconsistent. In assessing effectiveness, sometimes the measurement of behaviour alone is insufficient; the criterion must be behaviour related to the expectations held by the rater.

An organizational outcome concerns with both effectiveness and efficiency. Efficiency is the extent to which organization the observed social behaviours that congruent with the need disposition of the individual and satisfaction in terms of the model (Fig. 1.3), which is the extent to which institutional role expectations are congruent with the personal need of disposition. Barnard (1964) considered about that “effectiveness related to the
accomplishment of cooperative purpose, which is social and nonpersonal in character; and efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives and is personal in character." As Peter Drucker (1973), a founding father of management theory, wrote, "Effectiveness is the foundation of success where as efficiency is a minimum condition for survival after success has been achieved. Efficiency is concerned with doing things right. Effectiveness is doing the things right."

![Diagram](image)

**Fig. 1.3:** Relation of Role Expectation and Need Disposition to Effectiveness, Efficiency and Satisfaction.

Considering an organization as a social system, Bass (1960) adapted a clear distinction between successful and effective administration (Fig. 1.4). He gave a term 'attempted leadership' meant for an attempt by an individual to have some effect on the behaviour of another. This 'attempted leadership' within an organization can be successful or unsuccessful in producing desired response. A basic responsibility of an administrator in any type of organization is to get work done, with and through people as the personnel or workers, so, their success is measured by the output of the group they lead.
He viewed that "Success has to do with how the individual or the group behaves within an organization. On the other hand, effectiveness describes the internal state, or predisposition, of an individual or a group, and thus it is attitudinal in nature. Administrators who are interested only in success tend to emphasize their power and use close supervision. Effective individuals, however, will also depend on personal power and use more general supervision. Position power tends to be delegated down through the organization; whereas personal power is generated upward from below through follower acceptance."

This successful and effective framework is a way of evaluating the response to a specific behavioural event. Summarizing the Bass's views, it may be stated that administrators could be successful, but ineffective, having only a short-lived
influence over the behaviour of others, where as if administrators are both successful and effective, there influence tends to lead to long run outcome and organizational development. In administration, the difference between successful and effectiveness often explained why many administrators can get a satisfactory level of output only when they are right there looking over their subordinates' shoulders. But such output declined and often appear as horseplay.

1.3. FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO ADMINISTRATIVE EFFECTIVENESS:

With the development of the science of human behaviour, it is probably more meaningful to point out not of causes of behaviour but of factors that may affect behaviour. Kurt Lewin's (1946) gave the fundamental equation of human behaviour: \( B = f (P \Rightarrow E) \); where as 'B' represents for individual behaviour, 'f' means "a function of", 'P' is the person and 'E' is the environment (or some authors used 'S' to denote situation instead of 'E'). Then Lewin suggests that "behaviour is the function of something both inside the person and outside the person in a particular environment or the situation".

Giving useful implications for selecting administrators, Lipham (1962), hypothesized that effective school's principals would tend to rank higher than ineffective principals on certain measures of personality variables as active drive, achievement drive, mobility drive, social ability, feeling of security and emotional control.

Drucker(1970) has provided five such habits of the mind that have to be acquired to be an effective executive. In his opinion
effective executives know where their time goes. They work systematically at managing the little of their time that can be brought under their control. They focus on outward contribution, that is, they gear their efforts to gain results rather than to work. They build on their own strengths and the strengths of others and situations. They do not start out with the things they can't do. They concentrate on the few major areas where superior performances will produce outstanding results. Finally, they make effective decisions.

Gilbert (1974) found that effective principals display many characteristics such as welfare of students, maintaining high personal standards, more orientation towards people, fairness, sense of humor and knowledge.

Campbell, Bridges and Nystrand (1977) are of the opinion that perception of others, of self, values and beliefs, personal and prestige traits, sex, age etc. are the factors that contribute to the administrative behaviour. The nature of abilities and motives which the administrator attributes to the people with whom he works can influence his actions and reactions in a variety of ways. His assumption can affect how he defines his role, how he deals with the people who break organizational rules and how he approaches the task of introducing change for organizational improvement. Secondly, how an administrator perceives himself, his role influences, his thought and action in various ways. He makes certain assumptions about what controls his behaviours, about his abilities to act as a casual agent for the behaviour of others. Values and belief also, particularly determine person behaviour as they
contribute important premises which guide and direct actions. Similarly, the personal and prestige traits influence the behaviour of an administrator.

Sergiovanni (1977) gives three sets of inputs of forces that have a pronounced effect on educational decision making, administrative effectiveness and subsequent school success:

1. Forces within the administrator.
2. Forces in the human system.
3. Forces in the environment.

Administrative behaviour is largely influenced by assumptions with school executives hold for themselves, their subordinates and for human nature itself. Thus, beliefs which school executives hold about school and society, educational goals, school management, authority and organizational forces within the administrator affect their administrative behaviour. The importance of linking administration and ethics is evidenced by the fact that schools are basically human organization. As such, facts in the human system: needs, wants, aspiration, hops and beliefs of teachers, students and administrators are modifiers of administrative behaviour and decision making. Moreover, the forces in the environment which are potential influence of educational decision making and a administrative effectiveness include structural characteristics of the organization which contribute to its mode of operation.

Reddin (1967) discussed that the environment in an
organization generally consists of the leader, that leader's follower(s), supervisor(s), Job demands, associates, organization itself, and situational variables such as socio-culture (Fig. 1.5).

![Diagram of interacting components of an organization](image)

**Fig. 1.5: Interacting Components of an Organization.**

The situational approach to administration is built on the concept that effectiveness results from an administrator's using a behavioural style that is appropriate to the demands of the environment. Though, the components of the situation can vary in different environmental settings yet the key for managers and leaders is to diagnose their environment.

Parry (1978) reached the conclusion that perceptiveness, intelligence, organizing ability, professional experience, specific
interest, social adaptability, commitment and drive, emotional stability and security, relation with teachers, decision making skill etc. are the qualities in administrator that make him work effectively.

Hersey, Blanchard and Johanson (2005) advocated that each of these environmental variables can be viewed as having two major factors: style and expectation; (Table 1.6).

![Table 1.6: Interaction of Components' Style and Expectation.](image)

Thus the effectiveness is the factorial of both the factors of all the components of an organization except the job demands. They defined the style of a leader is the consistent behaviour patterns that he use when he is working with and through other people, as perceived by those people; where as expectations are the perceptions of appropriate behaviour for one’s own role or position or one’s perception of the roles of others within the organization.

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Miskel (1976) established that principal's effectiveness is a multidimensional concept that includes three components: The first is innovation effort, the second is perceptual evaluation by subordinates and the third is perceptual evaluation of superordinates. Hence 'the effectiveness' is always affected by the potential influence of situational factors and it varies with differing requirements as the school conditions change.

Cooper (1979) suggested that fundamentally the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of work or organizational behaviour is determined by the interaction of the individual and his environment or as Lofgust (1969) labels it, 'the Person-Environment Fit'. He viewed that the individual in an organization has a number of environmental influences acting upon him. Among them the two factors are broad ones. First, the wider society or culture place an enormous foundational role, albeit more indirectly the attitudes and values imbued towards life in general and work in particular, standard of appropriate behaviours and the values of corporal life and the like. Second, the culture and structure of the particular organization the individual works in, have an even greater impact on him during working hours, its norms and values, level of support and trust, opportunity for autonomy and self expression and so forth. There are four other more direct environmental factors that affect the individual at work: the jobs, the technological aspects of work, inter personal relation at work, and other career development prospects. Non of the environmental factors influence behaviour in a linear fashion, the extent and nature of their impact depends on characteristics of the individual concerned as well his personality
predisposition, adaptability or stress proneness, decision making style, career concept and social skill.

It should be concluded that the effective framework is a way of evaluating the responses to behaviours including many different leadership and managerial events performed by an administrator. But the aforesaid discussion indicates that effectiveness in administration is determined by a number of factors whether these belong to the ‘inside’ or ‘outside’ of an administrator or an organization. Likert (1967) classified all the determining factors under three categories of variables which are useful in discussing effectiveness over time:

a. Casual Variables - These are the independent variables including those factors that influence the course of developments within an organization and its results on accomplishments. These variables can be altered with the need of general business conditions by the organization and its management. Administrative or leadership style; skills and behaviour; managerial decisions; and the policies and structure of the organization are the examples of the casual variables.

b. Intervening Variables - According to Likert, these variables represent the current condition of the internal state of the organization and are directly affected by casual variables. They are reflected in the organizational commitment; Motivation and morale of the members and their skills in leadership; communications; conflict resolution; decision making; and problem solving.
c. **End Result Variables** - Earnings, turnover, net profit etc. are the type of end result variables. These are output variables and are dependent in nature. Such variables reflect the degree of achievements of the organization. Many researchers talk about effectiveness as output variables. Fiedler (1967) for example, evaluated “leader effectiveness in terms of group performance on the group’s primary assign task.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Casual Variable</th>
<th>Intervening Variable</th>
<th>Output Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership strategies, Skills, and Style.</td>
<td>Commitment to Objectives, Motivation and Morale of Members.</td>
<td>Production (Output).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Earnings.</td>
</tr>
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Going through the Likert model, the table - 1.7 refers to the illustrated relationship among the three categories of variables as casual variable acting upon the intervening variables and creating output variables.

The empirical literatures tend to reveals that several common forces and factors may be identified as the determinants
of principals' administrative effectiveness such as personality traits, skill, style, technocratic pattern, educational experience, values, perception, personal and contextual factors etc.; But these are not only the factors; rather there may be a number of them which need to be identified empirically to provide the supportive information to individuals related with the field of schools' administration. Among such determinants there seem to be work values and adjustment of principals.

1.3-1.1 WORK VALUES:

Society is the sum of social structures and functions that establishes safeguards and transmits an ordered and systematized pattern of ethos, beliefs, relations and behaviours. Mukerjee(1956) asserted that society is the sum of the social structures and functions through which man orients himself to the three dimensions of his environment:- ecological, psychosocial, and moral; and fulfils his basic requirements of sustenance, status and value fulfillment. He defined Social relationship, within a society, as attitudes and behaviours of human being towards one another as presented and governed by their common goals and values. Regarding this sense, an institution may be defined as more organized formal and enduring social relationships and behaviour that fulfil certain common and stable goals and values of persons.

Mukerjee (1956) sighted "a society as an organization and accumulation of values. Values may be defined as socially approved desires and goals that are internalized through the process of
conditioning, learning or socialization and are become subjective preferences, standards and aspiration. He conceived that *ecologically*, society is a *region* for the biological values of sustenance and continuity; *economically*, society is *Class* for the choice and satisfaction of divisible limited values; *sociologically*, society is an *institution* for the satisfaction of social goals and values of communication, control and status. Basically all human relations and behaviours are by their very nature of values which are sought, cared for, preferred or avoided in, of and for persons. The significance of values is to regulate the reorganization and satisfaction of the basic impulses and desires of human beings in congruence with their social life for their selective development and evolution. This is the process of transformation of their egocentric, immediate and fluctuating needs into enduring mental sets”.

Conceptualization of values does remain a difficult issue after studying the literature. Many authors and researchers use the concept of values assuming an intuitive understanding of it. One precious strand of thought is woven by a well recognized social psychologist, Rokeach (1973), who defined values as enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. Values are the principles or standards that are held in high esteem by an individual and are related to all aspects of one’s personal and work life. These are the ideals that guide or qualify the personal conducts, interaction with others and involvement in the career of an individual. These are the deeply held beliefs about how the world work (or ought to work) and do’s and don’ts of life
with others directing and inspiring all the individual endeavors. They are strengthening of people's choices, the reason why they take their jobs, work hard, and choose to cooperate rather than fight. In organizational point of view, they are the underpinnings of personal drives that may synthesize the attitudes of individual towards the success of his social system.

Classification of Values:
Values may be classified by several authors in different ways -

a. Spranger(1964) gave six fundamental classes of values :
   i. Theoretical or Intellectual values.
   ii. Economical or Practical values.
   iii. Aesthetic values.
   iv. Social or Altruistic values.
   v. Political or Power seeking values.
   vi. Religious or Mystical values.

b. Mukerjee(1965) divided values into two basic classes :
   i. Intrinsic or Transcendent values- These are abstract values inculcated during the development and expansion of an individual's mind and his social life into the continuous process of his social interactions.
   ii. Instrumental or Existential values- These are the values inculcated for satisfaction, protection and improvement of the
intrinsic values of an individual into the continuous process of his social interactions.

c Seneca College of Applied Arts and Technology (2005) has classified values in four categories:

i. Personal values - These include all the principle values that define one as an individual and determine how the individual face the world and relate with people such as honesty, freedom from inner conflict, self-esteem, reliability, caring, courage, creativity, friendliness, equality, honour, independence, integrity, and trust etc.

ii. Cultural values - These are the principles that sustain connections with one’s cultural roots. They help one to feel connected to a larger community of people with similar backgrounds. It includes celebration of diversity, ethnic roots, practice of faith and customs, tradition, linguistic ties, national ties, regional ties etc.

iii. Social values - These are the principles that indicate how one relate meaningfully to others in social situations, including altruism, diversity, eco-consciousness, equality, fairness, family closeness, lovingness, morality, reliability etc.

iv. Work values - reflect all the principles that guide one’s behaviour in professional contexts. They determine what kind of attitude an individual has and define how he works and how he relates to his coworkers, bosses, and clients within an
organizational system. They also reveal one’s organizing potential for advancement and organizational commitment.

Collins and Porras (1994), and Blanchard and O’Connor (1997) consider the alignment or harmony of personal and organizational values and goals are the most important challenge for leaders and managers of organizations. Hence, work values are personal aspects of work that are important to a person’s satisfaction. It refers to how one expects or feels within an organization from or about the work itself and the contribution it makes to society. Though an organization or institution permits stable expectations to be formed by each member of its group but no pattern of organizational behaviours might survive, of course, that did not provide in some manner for the satiation of the stimuli of work values of its members because the pattern of human motives is often more nearly a stimulus-response pattern.

It is to be said that values are traits or qualities having intrinsic worth and enduring perspectives of what is fundamentally right or wrong (Rokeach: 1973), then the work values represent the same perspectives in the work settings (Timothy and Bretz: 1992). Falding (1965) considered work values as a sub set of social values, where as, some authors use the term ‘job attributes’ to indicate work values (Alison et.al: 2000).

**Dimensions of Work values:**

Several authors and research workers have made their studies, focused on the different dimensions of work values on the
basis of individual pattern of organizational behaviours. Some differentiations are:-

a. Berting and Sitter (1971) give the dimensions of work values as:
   i. Egocentric.
   ii. Sociocentric.

b. Van der Perre (1996) used the distinction of work values as:
   i. Intrinsic and egocentric.
   ii. Intrinsic and sociocentric.
   iii. Extrinsic and egocentric.
   iv. Extrinsic and sociocentric.

c. Pareek et al. (1998) gives a number of dimensions of work may be identified for understanding the work values of managers. Some of these include the opportunity the work offers for a person to:
   i. Be creative.
   ii. Earn money.
   iii. Take challenges.
   iv. Serve others.
   v. Have good working conditions.
   vi. Enjoy prestige and status.
   vii. Have good colleagues.
   viii. Have a stable and secure job.
   ix. Be independent.
   x. Do academic work.
   xi. Do rural work. Etc.
**d.** Hofstede (2004) identified a work related values' framework that has four dimensions:

i. **Power distance** - It is expressed through the attitude to human inequality and relationships to superior and inferior in any organizational hierarchy.

ii. **Uncertainty avoidance** - It is the tolerance for uncertainty that determines choices and ritual to cope with it in social structures and belief systems.

iii. **Individualism** - It is the relationship between the individual and the collectivity, especially in the way individuals choose to live and work together.

iv. **Polarization** - It is the extent to which differences such as masculinity or femininity have implications for social organization and the organizations of beliefs.

**e.** O*NET (2004) defines six broad work values, each made up of several specific needs (Table - 1.8):

i. **Achievement.**

ii. **Independence.**

iii. **Relationships.**

iv. **Recognition.**

v. **Working Conditions.**

vi. **Support.**
Table - 1.8: O*Net’s Six Categories of Work values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work values</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Occupations that satisfy this work value are results oriented and allow employees to use their strongest abilities, giving them a feeling of accomplishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>Occupations that satisfy this work value allow the employees to work their own and make decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Occupations that satisfy this work value allow employees to provide service to others and work with co-workers in a friendly non-competitive environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Occupations that satisfy this work value offer advancement, potential for leadership, and are often considered prestigious.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working-Conditions</td>
<td>Occupations that satisfy this work value offer job security and good working conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Occupations that satisfy this work value offer supportive management that stands behind employees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

f. Bryan (2004) divided work values (Table- 1.9) as:

i. Intrinsic work values- these are the values that relate to a specific personal interest in the activities of the work itself, or the benefits that the work contributes to society such as creativity, friendliness, autonomy etc.

ii. Extrinsic work values - These relate to the favourable conditions that accompany an occupational choice, such as physical setting, earning potential and other external features.
Table - 1.9: Bryan's Classification of Work values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WORK VALUES</th>
<th>EXPLANATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help Society.</td>
<td>Do something which contributes to improving the world we live in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Contact.</td>
<td>Have a lot of day to day contact with the public.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with Others.</td>
<td>Work as a team member toward common goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make Decisions.</td>
<td>Have the power to decide courses of action and policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence People.</td>
<td>Be in a position to influence the attitudes or options of other people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity.</td>
<td>Have the opportunity to create new programs, materials, structures....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic.</td>
<td>Participate in studying or appreciating the beauty of things, ideas....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision.</td>
<td>Have a job in which one is directly responsible for the work of others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision Work.</td>
<td>Works in situations where attention to detail and accuracy are important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stability.</td>
<td>Have a work routine and job duties that are largely predictable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security.</td>
<td>Be assured of keeping ones job and receiving satisfactory compensation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement.</td>
<td>Experience a high degree of excitement in the course of a job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adventure.</td>
<td>Have work duties which require frequent risk-taking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence.</td>
<td>Be able to determine the nature of work without significant direction of others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time freedom.</td>
<td>Be able to work according to own schedule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Gain.</td>
<td>Have a high likelihood of achieving a very great monetary rewards for work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition.</td>
<td>Be publicly recognized for the high quality of work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.3-1.2 ORGANIZATIONAL IMPACT OF WORK VALUES:

Organizations are groups of people, with ideas and capable resources, working towards common goals. The purpose of an organizational function to make the best use of the organizational
resources to achieve its goals. Considering an Organization, as a social system, it is said to be more like people than the machines. Whether articulated or not, all organizations, including schools, have a collective set of their members' work values which may define the significance of organization and determine its effectiveness because they form the foundation of individual's organizational behaviors during the execution of the functions of management. They may be the determinant onomatopoeia leading to define the degree of role behaviour of an individual in the gaining of output through his organizational performance. The study of work values is a classic research theme that has drawn interest from organizational study and management in context of social, economical and psychological perspective. It is linked to the assumption that work values are related to organizational performance.

A more deterministic conception, given by an eminent social psychologist Rokeach (1973) that values are a collection of options in a phenomenological world in which individuals have to give meaning to their action. This emphatic thought obliges to think that the selection and adaptation in behavioural trends of members within an organization possessing a folder of its own values system is regulated by their own value system. The 'Recursive model' of Lesthaeghe and Moors (2000) viewed that:

- **a** Values contribute at the micro level to making choices and at macro level to altering social structure.
- **b** Values are themselves subject to adaptation given earlier
choices or structural transformations.

The interest in work values seems to stem on the terms of two different aspects (compare Norris: 2003):

a An organization need to attract qualified and competent workers in order to perform. Employers therefore need to take account of the work values of potential workers in order to attract these workers.

b Work values are related to job satisfaction and commitment, therefore, organization need to monitor whether the job environment is in balance with the work values of workers or not.

Knowledge about work values is the preference of work forces within an organizational system that makes a principal enabled to design the planning and strategies for the effective achievement of the organizational goals. A good fit between the aspirations of the job seekers or job doer and the job will enhance the output of an organization because the output is the resultant of two forces applied into an organization i.e. the work values of work forces and the job or the organizational values itself.

Herzberg (1966) recognized the existence of the extrinsic and intrinsic work values that discussed above. He suggested that intrinsic work values have to do with the job itself: People are motivated to do the attributed job because of getting satisfaction to perform; and extrinsic work values lie outside the job: in that case someone works for the money or the security the job provides. In
other words, fulfillments of the extrinsic work values satisfy them by external incentives or rewards. He also suggested that the intrinsic aspects work as motivators because people derive satisfaction from it, whereas extrinsic aspects can be seen as hygiene factors because people get dissatisfied when they are lacking or insufficient.

A managers’ approach to management will reflect their work values, in respect of their related organization. Pareek et. al. (1998) mentioned that work values are the worth or excellence ascribed to a particular aspect of work in the managers’ interaction with that work. A manager who prefers academic work may be good as training managers, whereas managers who want to be creative might be resourceful in rural and development department. Managers who prefer service may do well in public services whereas managers who prefer independence should join organizations that offer autonomy and freedom. Thus knowledge of his own work values may help a manager in choosing a job that is congruent with his values.

The above mentioned empirical tradition of researches and associated literatures on values evidently tend to emphasize the role of work values in directing and regulating the individual’s participating behaviours in to his organizational process. Within an organized social system every person has a different mental program, based on his work values oriented patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting. The effects of these differences have many practical implications for those who work within an organization. So, at the heart of effective organizational management and leadership behaviours, recognition of the need to define the work values of administrator may not be denied.
1.3-2.1 PSYCHOLOGY OF ADJUSTMENT:

Biologically, there is a word 'adaptation' (L. ad → towards; apt → adjust) meant for any physical, mental, physiological, or biochemical modification in a living being which makes it more fit to cope with the particular conditions of its environment. According to evolutionary theory, any anatomical structure, physical process, psychological process, or behaviour that makes an organism more fit to survive in comparison to other members of the same species is viewed as adaptive traits. Among the whole animal kingdom, human beings have the highest capacities to adapt to the situation of geographical or social environment. The environment, as per the evolutionary theory, contributes to the refinement of traits and is the arena in which most sort terms goals are achieved; However, one's degree of adaptation is relative; no absolute measure exists (Sadock and Sadock: 1999).

A biologist use the term adaptation, its meaning is usually synonymous with adjustment (Sadock and Sadock: 1999). So in psychology, adjustment, like adaptation in biology, refers to an individual's relationship with his environment - the way he attempts to achieve harmony between his own drives and desires and the demands or restrains of the environment (Morris: 1976). It is the process of adaptation by which a living being reorganizes its behaviours to maintain a balance between its needs and the circumstances with which it has to interact. It is a state in which the needs of the one hand and the claims of the environment on the other hand are fully satisfied or the process by which this
harmonious relationship can be attained (Eysneck et.al: 1992).

Adjustment is a life long process starting from the birth of a child and that need to be taking place at every moment of life. The person who makes full use of his occupational and social capacities with his sound disposition of mind, may be called as well adjusted in his social set up. It may be said that adjustment develop the general attitude of an individual that is exposed out from his balanced reaction to the expectations and pressures of the social environment imposed upon him within a well defined social system of an organization. Sometimes, The expectations may be internal of the individual himself that come under conflict with the contextual expectations and resultantly make adjustment a complicated process for the individual; these complications, at the condition of failure to refine himself, lead the individual to the problems of mental health like maladjustment, discontent, emotional conflict, proneness, irritation, stress and tension, frustration, depression, or other psychiatric disorders or abnormalities. Such disorders occur more frequently among persons raised in adverse environment, and persons who have experienced such environments often fail to refine traits essential for social navigation in ways that optimize the achievement especially of their sort term goals. Social hierarchies influence social options and other's expectations of one's behaviour. One's position in a hierarchy not only correlates with the type of information one receives and the benefits that accrue from social participation, but also with the frequency of disorders. The types of social information (negative versus positive ) have a direct impact on physiological and psychological states, and repeated negative
information can trigger the onset of signs and symptoms where as repeated positive information can reduce their intensity (Sadock and Sadock: 1999).

A mentally healthy individual is one who is free from mental ailments and he can establish constructive relationship with others coping himself with his life demands or expectation even in a restraining environment of his society. In terms of mental health, the concept of adjustment has over the years been a subject of discussion among psychiatrists, psychologist and other social scientist because of its complexive nature of reciprocal behaviour of an individual in a social system. Comparing to Menninger (1945), mental health is the adjustment of human beings to each other with a maximum of effectiveness and happiness. Hilgard (1957) conceptualized that a person having good mental health is an adjusted person. This statement means an adjustment is a state of mental health or of being conductive to harmonious and effective living (compare Bonny: 1960).

Psychologists also differ in their ideas of what constitutes effective adjustment. Some base their evaluation on an individual's ability to live according to social norms; others suggest that a well adjusted person enjoy the difficulties and ambiguities of life - rather than avoiding them by confirming. He should able to accept challenges and to feel pain and confusion. Confident of his ability to deal with problems in a realistic and mature way. Flexibility, spontaneity, and creativity are considered as the sign of healthy adjustment. Still other psychologists suggest that the well adjusted person has learnt to balance conformity and non conformity, self
control and spontaneity. He should able to let himself go, but also able to control himself in situation where acting on his impulses would be damaging. He is able to change when society demands it, but also to change society when these seem the better course. One explanation of this flexibility is that the person is realistic in his appraisal of the world around him and of his own needs and capabilities; He knows his strength and admits his weakness. As a result, he has chosen a role in life that is in harmony with his own self, and he does not feel that his action is against his values in order to (Morris: 1976).

Mechanism of Adjustment

The adjustment mechanism may be defined as "any habitual method of overcoming blocks or impediments for reaching goals and satisfying motives, relieving frustration and maintaining equilibrium." Psychologists have interpreted the mechanism of adjustment from different point of views. In condition of conflict or pressure that occurs between internal needs and external demands, there may be three alternatives (Chohan: 2005)-

- Ones, the individual may inhibit or modify his internal need or demand.
- Second, he can alter the environment, and can satisfy his demands.
- Third alternative is that he can use some mental mechanism to escape from the conflicting situation and may be able to maintain the balance of his personality.
Morris (1976) distinguishes between two general types of adjustment:

- **Direct Coping** - It refers to any action a person takes to alter an uncomfortable situation. When his needs or desires are frustrated, he attempts to remove the obstacles between himself and his goals, or he gives up his goals. Similarly, when he is threatened, he tries to eliminate the source of fear - either by attacking it or by escaping.

- **Defensive Coping** - It refers to the different ways people convince themselves that they are not really threatened, that they did not really want something they could not get. A form of self-deception, defensive coping is characteristic of internal, often unconscious conflicts. It is too threatening that a person feels unable to bring a problem to the surface and deal with it directly. In self-defense, he avoids the conflict.

Adjustment mechanisms are almost inferred by different psychologist from the behaviour of individuals as the protective orientation. Piaget (1952) has studied the adjusting process from different angles. He used the term ‘accommodation’ and ‘assimilation’ to represent the alternation of oneself or environment as a means of adjustment. A person, who carries his values and standard of conduct without any change and maintained these in spite of major changes in the social climate, is called ‘assimilator’. The man, who takes his standard from social context and changes his beliefs in accordance with the altered values of the society, is called ‘accommodator’.
1.3-2.2 ORGANIZATIONAL IMPACT OF ADJUSTMENT:

On the basis of social philosophy, organizations consist of groups of people with ideas, values and resources, working towards common goals. Groups may be defined as “orderly social relationships and behaviours of associated persons that emerge out of the integration and fulfillment of their common goals and values” (Mukergee: 1965). The organization may be considered as a social system in equilibrium, which receives contributions in the form of money or effort, and offers inducements in return for these contributions. These inducements include the organizational goal itself, conservation and growth of the organization, and incentives unrelated to these two.

Most organizations are oriented around some goal or objective which provides the purpose towards which the organizational decisions and activities are directed. Simon (1961) is of the view that if the goal is relatively tangible, like any economical or industrial enterprises, it is usually not too difficult to assess the contribution of such organization; but it may has a considerable controversy in assessment of ideological organizations which goal is less tangible. Thompson (1960) describes several types of organizations with unique problems of conflict. Even in an ‘ideological’ organization such as church, school or political group, the giant enterprise or the local enterprise, all may have a similar nature of problems like the inevitability of changes and the conflicts, cross pressures of values and interests, and system dislocations. The approaches for proper dealing with these problems
need to assume the ‘adjustment with turbulence’.

However, analyzing a behaviour in any type of organizational setting and the interaction between personal needs and the needs of the organization, Parsons (1949) deals with the parallel existence of two sets of factors which interact to produce the behaviour of the person; the problem and situation are seen as ‘institutional’ factors and ‘psychological’ factors comprise of personality and other as aspects of personal need. He viewed that the uniformities of human behaviour must be analyzed in terms of the structure of motivational forces on the one hand, and that of the situation in which they operate, on the other.

Work follows us every where when the computer is just a fingertip away and the cell-phone is in our pocket. Adjustment of an individual within the organization may be defined as the general conscious or habitual mobilization of his energy, when confronted with any work or demand. It may be the positive and creative mental response against any stressor that induces a change in the individual’s ongoing physiological and psychological functioning. Tripathi(2006) observed four kinds of organizational demands causes stress in the workplace:

a Physical demands: includes inadequate lighting, poor working conditions, uncomfortable furniture and temperature.

b Task demands: consist of over job load, repetition, frequency of changes, undue expectations.

c Role demands: conflict or ambiguity about the role.

d Interpersonal demands: working for abrasive boss or having to
function under passive leadership.

The way, an individual attempts to adapt to his physical organizational situation and to establish congruency between his own motives, values, and desires and the contextual expectations and constraints placed on him by his organizational system, is one of the basic element of his organizational commitment. The essentiality of an institution, composed of uncomfortable environment, is the vocational adjustment of workers for appropriate production or output. Utilizing an interactive approach, the “Theory of Work Adjustment” or “theory of person-environment fit”, given by Swanson and Fouad (1999) focuses on two sets of common dimensions to evaluate occupational fit:

- An individual’s ability in relation to his job.
- An individual’s needs and work values in relation to the awards available on the job.

Role conflicts, comparing benefits, conflicts between individual and organizational values, interpersonal relationship, changing contextual variables, economical status and family demands, social dignity and expectations etc. are the affecting factors contributing to the capabilities of a person in terms of adjustment. Morris (1976) considers that an individual who faces a situation in which he feels unable to cope often begins to feel tense and uncomfortable. Stress describe situations in which a person feels threatened, frustrated, or in conflict, and his reactions to such situations. The level of stress is very important to define the
individual performances because people may not perform as per the demands when they are upset.

There are considerable evidences that most human resources are affected from the work related maladjustment, stress or poor mental health in their organizational environment, the cost of which for a nation, and particularly organizations, is appeared to be very high day by day. The British Heart Foundation Coronary Group reported that the mental health charity estimated that between thirty to forty percent of all sickness absence from work was attributable to mental and emotional ailments, resulting forty million working days per year lost to the Britain’s economy, (compare Cartwright and Cooper: 1997).

Sociologists presume that there are organizing principles of social life, that these principals can be uncovered by systematic observation, and that the social forces underlying these principals influence both organizational and individual actions. Their studies include the fact that in an organization, role performances of an individual are related with functional impairments within both, his institutional ecosystem and his work roles; And for proper and committed functions of an institution like social structure can be positively associated with the adjustment and satisfaction of all the members organizing along with the institutional goals instead of their variations on the basis of sex, age, class of status, values, culture, and demographic determinants (Sadock and Sadock: 1999).

Kuppuswamy (2004) viewed that adjustment results in happiness and satisfaction because it implies that emotional
conflicts and tensions have been resolved. Though a happy and satisfied worker may not be observed as a good achiever but evidence indicates that adjustment-achievement relationship is a determinant to the level of his job performance. It is obvious that adjustment is a prerequisite in almost all the endeavors whether these are entrepreneurial or administrative. Adjustment, as an achievement, means how effectively and efficiently an individual can perform his duties to achieve the goals in his institutional circumstances, (compare Chauhan: 2005).

1.4 REVIEW OF LITERATURE:

The 21st century will be the century of mind. But the mind is the man’s last unconquered frontier. Mankind is paying a steep price failing to learn about mind on the race for success and effectiveness. Work values are the motives to gain satisfaction within an organizational culture.

Effective performance rarely happens by accident. It is the result of predictable, planned actions that can be learned and applied as a principle of administration by almost anyone in any organization anywhere. The study of school principals is one of the most frequent occupations of authors and researchers in the field of educational administration including their leadership and managerial effectiveness. It happens because the principalship is a
role played by different actors in a multitude of settings and, as such, a multitude of different behaviours is enacted. Most of the studies on principal’s administrative effectiveness are categorized in two compartments —

➢ One in which the competencies, qualities and skills, which are required by him for his effective administration have been identified.

➢ Others in which factors contributing to the administrative effectiveness of principals have been studies.

For the researcher's proposed work, efforts of a comprehensive and detailed review of related studies in journals, dissertations abstracts and other written and published materials may be classified into three parts:

1. Studies related to administrative effectiveness including leadership and managerial facets of a school administrator.

2. Studies related to Work values.

3. Studies related to Adjustment.

I.4-1 Studies related to administrative effectiveness:

Administration continues to be recognized as a complex enterprise in which an administrator has to perform a variety of role for the effective functions of his organizational structure. In educational organization there is an assumption that school
administrators should have to play the role of leaders and the role of managers. "One expects both the leadership and management from the same individual; and this idea may arise from 'districts and schools' structures where superintendents and principals are the primary administrators. Nevertheless, while one can distinguish management from leadership conceptually, in reality he often find the two roles coexisting in the same positions and the same person", (Manasse: 1986).

The effectiveness of in school administration is vital to school success. For over forty years, the developing body of research on effective schools has consistently pointed to the part played effectively and efficiently by responsible, assertive, and visible school level administratorship in school success. Such studies used to reflect the essential characteristic features and abilities of school administrators that contribute to enhancement of their professional effectiveness for school success in fast changing society. Related to the context of double role of principals in school system, all the studies may be categorized with following levels:

a. Administrative Effectiveness.

b. Leadership Effectiveness.

c. Managerial Effectiveness.

a. Administrative Effectiveness.

The job of principals in the school system requires a variety of competencies, efficiencies, qualities, personality traits, and covers a wide range of situational climates to perform their
responsibilities and to deal with the problems during a typical day. There are some studies of variables and factors under particular heads which gives rise the vision for principals' effectiveness.

The Competencies and Qualities:

The competencies, abilities and qualities of in-school administration are very essential to school success which may have got identified from the studies related to such variables:

Alberto (1970), Kusel (1977) and Cawthon (1979) attempted through their studies to recognize the competencies and qualities required by the public school principals. Though the studies were similar in pattern but they arrived at different conclusions. Kausel found that effective principal is one who is respected by parents, by their teachers and by their students; having the physical stamina and strength and is able to deal with political situations. On the other hand Alberto and Cawthon identified some common competencies for effective principals such as effective planning, organizing and evaluating in terms of administration, skills in human relations, personal skills and qualification; while Alberto adds some other skills too to be needed for an effectiveness in school administration such as skill in instruction, organization and structure, problem solving, coordinating ability and community relations.

Applying questionnaire and interview technique Dempsey (1973), Gilbert (1974) and Espalin (1977) identified the characteristics, skills and competencies of primary school principals, but they differ in their conclusions. Dempsey
emphasized on implementation of change and resolving the disciplinary problems and to the relationship with students; whereas Espalin's gave stress on human and technical skills and also to the planning and organizing to achieve the goals and objectives of institution. While Gilbert found that effective principals display many characteristics such as welfare of students, maintaining high personal standards, more orientation about pupils, fairness, sense of humor and knowledge. Moreover they allow their staff initiation, decision and actions and provide leadership to the staff in determining objectives and school needs.

Smith (1974) and Haroldson (1975) selected out some competencies and functions, effective and ineffective behaviours of elementary school principals but through different procedure. Haroldson applied the observation technique and Smith adopted the analysis and synthesis technique for their studies. Some of the findings are common and suggest that facilitating mutual communication, stimulating personal and professional growth and development of staff relationship with parents and students, providing, instructional leadership are essential qualities for effective school administrators. Their statements also suggested that effective actions of principals should have positive relationship with superintendents staff, understanding between home and school, supporting teachers, incorporating combined judgments, conducting in a professional manner, building organization, unity and cooperation within staff, working towards the continuous development of educational profession, promoting positive working, demonstrating competencies in school organization and maintaining
desirable student behaviour patterns.

Parry (1978) administered 'George A. Kally's Reportory Test', a clinical projective device for collecting data from superintendent and effective rated principals on the competencies for administrative effectiveness. He reached at the conclusion that superintendent rated perceptiveness, intelligence, organizing ability, professional experience, specific interest, social adaptability, commitment and drive and emotional security as essential qualities for principals. A parallel study was done by Turkington (1978) on junior secondary school principals using a questionnaire consisting of 121 statements divided in to five competency arias. He reached on the views that teacher- principal interaction competency involving teachers in the policy decisions of a school are generally rated first while community- school relations competency were not recognized by all and non - personal task oriented competency are rated least important.

A few studies were conducted on the same type of problem but at different level by taking a different sample and by applying different instruments and techniques. At secondary level, the studies were conducted by Podraza (1975) by administering an instrument consisting of eighty eight items, arranged in to four categories, to all the students; by Deros (1976) who applied an instrument consisting of sixty items divided in to twelve categories of competencies to high school principals; and by Dellap (1976) with the help of questionnaire of twenty items administered to the professors and high school principals. Podraza, in his study, found that most students considered the areas of behaviour as the
legitimate state to the matters of discipline as well as interpersonal relation and co-curricular activities. Delapp arrived at the conclusion that high school principals generally feel the need for greater competency in communication skills in dealing with students, teachers and the various public, legal aspects of school administration, conflict resolution and democratic supervision. Derros found the personal administration, community services and relations, pupil control, evaluation and planning of educational programme, development of curriculum and instruction, research and development, counseling and guidance, financial management, policy development, school plant organization and control were rated as essential qualities for effective administration. The result of such studies reveal that the application of different tools and techniques in different types of research method and design give different results.

Harp (1972) and Austin (1974) conducted their study through survey method employing a jury of superintendents, principals, teachers, college professors and school board members. As the technique was similar, most of the competencies identified by both were identical such as knowledge of curriculum, skill in instructional process and technique, skill in school financial and business management. However, there are some other competencies which were not common in their studies, such as dependability, emotional stability, drives, moral fitness, skill in public relation, scholarship, intelligence, significance of personal value system, health and physical fitness and innovative behaviour recognized by Harp; and organization and administration,
equipment, supplies and communication facilities recognized by Austin as factors for effective school administrators.

Wilber (1974) and Yglesias (1978) examined secondary school principals to determine the administrative competencies and arrived at the conclusion that planning and establishing instructional goals and curriculum, managing change in school operation staff and community participation in decision making, interpreting the school programme to the community, adapting the school programme to a changing society, evaluating the curriculum and other programme designed to help students and teachers to let them to gain their potential (Wilber); and human relation skills, communication skills, competence in rules and regulations, sincerity, high attainment, public relation skills and public orientation were the important qualities in competent school administrator.

Rother (1981) conducted a study to identify competencies essential for high school principals by employing an instrument consisting of seventy competencies to be rated by principals, teachers, superintendent and school board members. On the basis of findings, he arrived at the conclusions that the competencies related to human relations were considered to be more important then the competencies related to organizational management. In addition, all respondent groups ideally placed great emphasis upon those competencies related to the instructional process while in the real situation they acknowledged that those competencies did not always receive the attention of the principals they deserve. The single most important concern registered by all respondent groups
was pupil control. Maintaining order, providing discipline and minimizing disruption were given the highest priority. The competencies related to research development projects, student activities and auxiliary services were considered least important by the respondent groups.

Using competency based curriculum model developed by Lioyed E. Mccleary and Kenneth E. McIntyre, Lyons (1979) found that the respondents indicated that all of the forty four competencies were important for a secondary school principals at his beginning. The thirty five of the competencies should be acquired at the application level, eight at the understanding level, and that one be acquired at the familiarity level of proficiency. Thirty one competencies be acquired through experience in the position and three during pre service course work.

Several qualities were said to be essential for the effective principalship by Prascher (1975). He identified effective and ineffective administrative behaviour exhibited by high school principals through applying critical incident technique and arrived at the conclusion that the principals’ listening to others point of view, courageous, acting quickly, supporting teachers in concern with areas were regarded as effective while reluctant to make decisions, not using proper technique, not stressing teaching technique, not providing necessary leadership were considered as ineffective principals.

A study of, Green (1981) and later on Schmitz (1982) revealed that competencies and characteristics were significant at 0.5 level of significance. They found that principals and superintendents
devote more time to professional growth and those principals more involved in civic organization tend to perceive those competencies as more important than other administrators. Some of competencies were found to be more essential such as ability to interpret, review and revise school policy, an interest in the continuation of professional growth and successful experience in selection and implementation of educational priorities.

In addition to increasing corporate performance, membership in a team benefits, competencies and their excellent manipulation are the need of organizational success. Thus, a brief account of such studies exhibit that all there researcher have undertaken the investigations to determine the quality of competencies required by principals to be got furnished with the characteristics to perform their administrative job efficiently and effectively.

**Personal and Situational Factors:**

Competencies alone are not responsible for effective administration for the effectiveness of principalship but some attempt were also made to associate other factors those contribute to the principal’s administrative effectiveness.

Studies conducted regarding sex as the factor for effective administration; Lipham (1960), Schutz (1961) and Hemphill et.al. (1962) reveal that males and females do not differ in how they are rated by either superiors or subordinates. Similarly Gross and Herriott (1965) reported in a major study of the elementary principalship that sex was unrelated to executive professional
leadership in connection of upgrading the performance of the staff.

The evidences regarding the contribution of principal's age to his effectiveness are less clear. Lipham (1960) and Hemphill et. al. (1962) found little relationship between age and successful performance of the principal's duties. But Gross and Herriott (1965) on the other hand, concluded that older principals provide less executive professional leadership than younger ones do. Gross and Herriott also observed a trend which suggests that the younger a principal is act the time of his first appointment to the principalship, the stronger his subsequent professional leadership is likely to be. Holsclaw (1967) like Gross and Herriott found in his study that younger principals were rated by their superiors as well as subordinates as more effective than the older ones. So, the studies regarding the age and administrative effectiveness exhibited the contradictory results but also defined the younger principals as the more effective in their administration than the older principals.

Walker (1977) studied to relate the administrative effectiveness with academic preparation, professional experience and authoritarian personality and found no significant relationship between the authoritarian personality of principals and administrative effectiveness. Number of years of administrative experience was negatively related to the administrative decision making but was positively related to communication ability and composite score rating of administrative effectiveness. He also found some results similar to previous studies that age was negatively related to the communication ability, educational leadership, general administrative behaviour of principals and administrative
effectiveness. Where as Humanitarian practices were positively related to the principal's general administrative behaviour, decision making and his administrative effectiveness.

Regarding the impact of personality of an individual on his performances, some of the researchers have studied the relationship between personality traits and principal administrative effectiveness. The most comprehensive study was conducted by Hemphill et.al. (1962). In their investigation, each of 232 principals responded to in-basket interaction, teacher evaluation and other problems while serving as principal in a standard simulated work situation. Measure of cognitive abilities, Knowledge, personality, interest and values, biographical data, and evaluation by the superiors and teachers from actual work situations were also obtained. Through analysis of data two general factors were found to differentiate principals in their administration performance in the simulated situations, i.e. value of work accomplished in a given time and emphasis placed either on preparing for future decisions or on immediate acting upon problems.

A slightly different study was conducted by Nazzari (1971) on certain personality characteristics and four administrative performance factors consisting of participation of teachers in decision making, social support, egalitarian relationship with teachers, and managerial support of teachers. Through his study on a sample of seventy six principals he found no co-relational association between selected personality characteristics of elementary school principals and the administrative performance factors of sharing in decision making and so on.
An attempt was made by Roger (1971) to find out the relationship between certain personality factors and behavioural characteristics of principals and arrived at his conclusion that certain behavioural characteristics and the personality factors, emotional maturity and enthusiasm appeared to be related. On the other hand, Martine (1975) got contradictory results through his study that personality variables on the sixteen personality factors are not powerful enough to adequately distinguish between varying personality structure of effective and ineffective administrators.

Witten (1979) attempted to relate personality traits and administrative behaviour through administered 'A Survey of Administrative Functional Efficiency' of Leslie et.al. to elementary school principals. He found personality traits as predictors of elementary school principals' efficiency on selected administrative function and identified different personality traits for each administrative functional efficiency as planning, organizing, decision making, coordination, research, budgeting, etc.

Northatt (1969) and Russel (1973) investigated the relationship of ideographic characteristics to administrative style or effectiveness. Both of them used different technique and reached at different conclusions. Northatt related some problem attack behaviour with the perceived effectiveness and ideographic characteristics. He found no common relationship among three sets of variables to exist but an examination of significant correlation coefficient product, fifteen common relationship configurations. On the other hand Russell used the Getzels-Guba model which explains the behaviour as a function of the dynamic interaction between
ideographic and nomothetic dimensions as the basic theoretical framework for the investigation. He used observation technique as well as questionnaire to study twenty elementary principals. It was revealed by the study that significant relationship existed between selected ideographic variables and observed administrative style of principal.

Klein (1979) conducted a study on the principal in Georgia, in which critical incidents observed and reported by supervising teachers were used to formulate 187- critical requirements for the principalship and grouped by common elements in to five areas such as providing physical environment, maintaining emotional environment, developing and maintaining a positive relationship between the school and community, demonstrating professional leadership in the implementation of instructional programme and in administration of local system, individual, school, state and federal policies. He found that the highest percent of effective behaviours were reported in the area of instructional supervision. The sex, age, training and experience were found to be significantly related to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the behaviours.

Finding of a study of the characteristics of innovative educational administrators in respect of their effectiveness, Chauha (1983) reached at the conclusion that such principals were willing to participate in community affair, possessed risk taking behaviour, had self confidence, ability to recall and was willing to expose himself to interpersonal communication. They were self reliant, honest, enthusiastic, self disciplined, open minded, an initiator, emotional, accurate and judicious in approach. They could evaluate
themselves in comparison to other, had a sense of equality and
faith in voluntary cooperative action, had self understanding,
appreciative attitude, ability to convince and ability to represent and
to express his views and could mobilize human resources. An
innovative principal's traits for his effectiveness are to take
intelligent decisions, to reason, to analyze and to solve problems. He
should has the characteristical specialty of promptness, effective
execution ability, a positive attitude towards profession, responsiveness
to knowledge, a desire to serve people.

Evaluating performances of administrators, situational
factors are as significant as the personal. These factors determine
the road to results- to successful and effective performance. A study
was conducted by Stogdill (1948) to examine the influence of
situational variables on the leadership: He found that research in
the field of educational administration pointed to success as being,
In large part, a function of situational circumstances. Laidiq (1968)
and Mansfield (1974) conducted a similar study on the elementary
school principals to examine the relationship of situational and
personal variables to the administrative effectiveness. Situational
and personal variables were found to be about equally effective in
predicting the content of the principal's behaviour, such as the
result of Laidiq on his investigation revealed that the administrative
behaviour of principals was related to certain aspects of their
position. The magnitude of some relationship indicate that a
situational knowledge could be useful in the prediction of
administrative behaviour.

In the study on situational variables concerned with the
secondary school principals, Ronalds (1971) investigated that pupil
control index was most influential predictor, socio - economical index and the leader mobility factors were less influential while the school size index, the teacher professionalism and the self actualization index and the reader maturity factors were moderately influential predictors of the behaviour. Similarly, in a study on elementary principals, Whorton (1971) found that student and teacher ratio was the most influential situational variable and the district size was a strong predictor in some instance of administrative behaviour. The comparison was made of the subjects from the study indicated that the elementary school principals were influenced more by situational variables than were the secondary school principals.

Miskel (1977) analyzed that principal’s effectiveness is contingent upon individual style and situational components. His study rest upon Fiedler Vide Supra Contingency Model with the basic promise, group or organizational effectiveness is based on two interacting variables, the teacher motivational hierarchy towards fellow workers and favorableness of situation. The model has extensively validated that performance depends upon style and situation. The study support this theory and concluded that motivation, risk and demonstrated promise also should be used in future investigation.

To find out the relationship of school climate with principal effectiveness and teachers’ satisfaction, a randomly selected sample of ninety five schools was studied by Sharma (1975) using Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). From the findings he concluded that both, principal’s effectiveness and teacher satisfaction were significantly and positively related to school climate. Willis (1978) studied with the help of getting the
guiding framework from Getzel-Guba Model of behaviour, attained the conclusion that administrative behaviour depends on the size of staff, the personality types of principals, the facilities, the expectation of the staff and administration and other factors. These factors all interact in an intricate and enigmatic way to bring about administrative behaviour. He inferred that the administrative behaviour is, therefore, a combination of a number of determining factors which is often unpredictable from one situation to another.

b. Leadership Effectiveness.

Yoki and Vanfleet (1998) viewed leadership as a process that includes the task objective and strategies of a group or organization. In other word, they define leadership as influencing people in the organization to implement strategies and achieve objectives. At the leadership part of a principal in his school system, the leadership of a principal and his decisions is considered to determine the effectiveness of a school.

As the principal becomes a key player in a school system. Even if this approach is collaborative in nature, the leadership taken by the principal is pivotal in his school. In order to become an effective instructional leader, a principal must lead towards educational achievement, must be a person who make instructional quality at the top priority of the school and must be able to bring that vision to realization (Richardson et.al: 1989). The term Instructional leadership clearly defines the primary role of a principal in the quest for the excellence in education. It
encompasses "those action that a principal takes or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning and comprises the task of defining the purpose of schooling, setting school wide goals, providing the resources needed for learning to occur, supervising and evaluating teachers, coordinating staff development programmes and creating collegial relationships with and among teachers (Wildy and Dimmock : 1993).

There are several studies conducted on administrative effectiveness in terms of leadership behaviour of principals. Dheerakul (1972), Schwartz (1976), Indelicato (1978) and Schneider (1978) made an attempt to relate the leadership behaviour of principals with their sex, age, experience, qualification, background, dogmatism, interpersonal value orientation, school and district size and so on. All of them conducted their studies on principals but arrived at contradictory conclusions. Dheerakul and Schwartz got significant relationship of demographic variables to leadership behaviour but the findings of Indelicato and Schneider indicated no significant relationship between the leadership behaviour and sex, age, principal's personality orientation, and administrative experience. Given the results of these studies and current research in contingency management there appear to be a need to examine the skills of administrator possesses and uses.

Personality characteristics were related to leadership behaviour of principals in the study of Sullivan (1971), Wennergren (1973), Ranhosky (1978) and Meloney (1979). They arrived at the conclusions similar to those found in the studies related to administrative behaviour and effectiveness. Sullivan found that the personality needs of junior college chief administrators were related
to both the organizational climate and their leader behaviour. Winnergren found conscientiousness, high intelligence and warm heatedness followed by factor B, factor A and factor Q respectively, relaxed as the most significant predictors of administrative achievement; where as he found no significant relationship of sex, age, years of experience etc. to leadership effectiveness. Meloney in his study found warmth and stability as important characteristics for leadership effectiveness of women principals. Moreover personality characteristics consistent with an effective leadership personality profile were emotional maturity, determination, self assurance, self efficiency, self control and composure. On the other hand, the study of Ranhosky was slightly different from other researchers in the sense that he desired to see the influence of personality on the way of perception of teachers. He concluded that personality was the variable that influenced the way, teachers and principals perceived the leadership behaviour of assistant principals. However, all the studies provide evidences that personality characteristics of principals have some effect on their behaviour and effectiveness.

The study of Patelt (1983) implied that there was a positive relationship between the two dimensions of leadership behaviour of the school principal, viz. initiating structure and consideration. The principals of the schools manifested mostly the high consideration (HH) and low consideration (LL) patterns of leadership behaviour leaving middle positions sufficiently vacant. The HH pattern of leadership behaviour was associated with open climates; where as the LL pattern of leadership behaviour was associated with closed climate. There were significant mean differences between leaders'
self perception and faculty perception of his actual leadership behaviour and he found that morales of teachers increased when the actual leadership behaviour of a leader approximated the desired behaviour as perceived by teachers who scored highest on professional development under the principals manifested the HH pattern of leadership.

Pandey (1985), Nasreen (1986) and Jayajothi (1992) conducted their study aiming at to determine the relationship between leadership behaviour pattern and school climate in terms of teachers’ morales. In her study Pandey found that a positive and significant relationship between the initiating structure dimension as well as the consideration dimension of leadership behaviour and esprit, psychophysical hindrances, controls production emphasis and humanized thrust dimensions of organizational climate; and teachers’ morale also exhibited the positive and significant relationship with both dimensions and the other variables. Nasreen in her study found that high desirable leadership behaviour of the principals generated a higher degree of conformity and normalcy in the teachers while low desirable leadership behaviour of principals caused a low degree of conformity and normalcy in them. The initiating structure style of principals’ leadership behaviour appeared to be significantly related to conformity and normalcy factors of teachers’ self concept. The initiating structure and consideration styles of principals’ leadership behaviour was also found significantly related with teachers’ job satisfaction. In her study on central schools, Jayajothi reached at the conclusions that the open climate related to the perception of leadership behaviour of principals by the teachers and the autonomous climate least
relationship. She found that sex was not a discriminator of perception of school climate.

Hoy and Brown (1988) finds that instructional leadership characteristics for effectiveness parallel with the two dimensions and the most effective leader's behaviour is strong in both initiating structure and consideration. Effective school leaders are task and people oriented and the teachers responded more favourably to principals with "a leader style that combines both structure and consideration. Kohan's (1989) analysis of data concerning superintendents' style also supports the findings of effective leaders being high performances in the effective leadership dimensions of initiating structures and consideration.

The success of a school in accomplishing goals depends upon the ability of the head to lead staff members. Leadership style is crucial, in that the style of leadership of the principal and his decisions will determine the success of the school. According to Moshal (1998), the more common functions of leadership are: motivating staff members, boosting morale, supporting functions, satisfying the needs of members, accomplishing common goals, representing members, creating confidence, implementing change and resolving conflicts.

Attempt were also made through empirical studies that principals' leadership could be determined too by evaluating their approach towards professional development of their teachers in terms of students' instructional achievement. Heck, Larsen and Marcoulides (1990) construed from their study that instructional leadership has been found to be a significant factors itself in facilitating, improving and promoting the academic progress of
students; and the effectiveness of instructional leaders as a "multidimensional construct" which consist of characteristics such as high expectations of students and teachers, an emphasis on instruction, provision of professional development, and use of data to evaluate students' progress among others. The leadership effectiveness of school principals is also determined by their capability of professional development of teachers to build school capacity. Goldring and Pasternak (1994) described with regard to research on school leadership which includes comparable trends in student achievement that principals can affect achievement indirectly by establishing a mission or set of goals and building school wide commitment to them as well as instructional quality as the outcome of a school can strengthen by the effective leadership of a principal who creates internal structures and conditions that promote teacher learning. Such actions include establishing regular meeting times for teams of teachers to plan instruction and reflect on their practice, aligning school wide professional development activities with school goals, promoting social interest among staff members.

Corcoran and Goertz (1995) concluded that by shaping school conditions and teaching practices through principals' own beliefs and actions regarding teacher's professional development are the prominent way for their effectiveness. Such school leaders can connect their school to sources of professional development that concentrate on instruction and student outcome, that provide opportunities for feedback and assistance in teacher' classroom, and that are sustained and continuous. Hallinger and Heck's (1996) advance research study revealed that the principalship as the
school leaders affect student achievement indirectly through their influence on school organizational conditions and instructional quality; And to gain effective output, Individual teacher competency must be allowed to exercise in an organized collaborative enterprises and principal work with teachers to establish shared goals to exhibit share commitment for the maximal student-learning

Youngs and King (2002) made an attempt to build on extent literature from empirical studies on principal leadership by conceptualizing links between school leadership, professional development, and school capacity. Their analysis has implications for principal efforts to use professional development to build school capacity as well as future research on the relationship among principal leadership, school organizational conditions, and student achievement. They concluded that effective principals can sustain high levels of capacity by establishing trust, creating structures that promote teacher learning, and either (a) connecting their faculties to external expertise or (b) helping teachers generate reforms internally.

A leadership also requires vision. “Vision includes the development, transmission and implementation of an image of a desirable future; It is the force that provides meaning and purpose to the work of an organization. Vision is the force of which moulds meaning and thus, sharing of a leader’s vision may differentiate true leaders from mere managers (Manasse: 1986). Leithwood and Montgomery (1984) and Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) studied the importance of principals having a vision in terms of ‘mission’ and ‘goal oriented’ about their school effectiveness. Leithwood and Montgomery found that goals are the long term aspirations held by
principals for work in their schools and no other dimension of principal behaviour is more consistently linked to school improvement by current empirical research than goals. Similarly, Blumberg and Greenfield reached at the conclusions that effective principals seem to be highly goal oriented and to have a keen sense of goal clarity.

The role of women as instructional leaders is highlighted in the research of Highsmith and Rallis (1986) who found that as a group of women are more likely to evidence behaviour associated with effective leadership. The result of their study showed that women spend more time on educational program improvement activities than do males. They are more attuned to curriculum issues, instructional leadership, teachers concerns, parents' involvement, staff development, collaborative planning strategies and community building. Ultimately, they concluded that women are more likely to possess characteristics associated with effective leadership and effective schooling.

Some Literatures also prescribed the instructional leadership behaviours for the fast changing society in future. Smylie and Conyers (1991) concluded that teaching has become a complex, dynamic, interactive, intellectual activity but not a practice that can be prescribed or standardized. In order to meet the rapidly changing needs of the students, teachers must be given the authority to make appropriate instructional decisions. They are the instructional experts. Therefore, the basis for school leadership must include teachers and parents, as well as the principal, in the role of problem finding and problem identification, a process currently referred to as 'transformational leadership. So the effective principal become the
leader of leaders, those who encourage and develop instruction leadership provides for learning and working with others.

Fullan (1991) agreed with the holistic view of the principal’s role and expanded the holistic definition of leadership and management to be: an active, collaborative form of leadership where the principal works with teachers to shape the school as a workplace in relation to shared goals, teachers collaboration, teacher learning opportunities, teacher certainty, teacher commitment, and student learning. He perceived the role of the principal, in model of the future, will be to encourage collaborative groupings of teachers to play a more central role in the instructional leadership of the school. This, however, will require active participation of the principal to facilitate change by motivating the staff and students, by reaching out to the community, and by continually improving the school. His mode of instructional leadership provides for learning and working with others - teachers, students, parents and community - to improve instructional quality and these assumptions inherent, here, is that effective leaders can manage and lead.

Effective leaders may also be evaluated on the ground of their communicating and listening capabilities. It is considered in related literatures that communicating and listening skills of principals becomes the basis for their ability to articulate a shared vision, and demonstrate that value the human resources of their peers and subordinates. Becker et.al. (1971) found that principals of outstanding schools “listen well to parents, teachers and pupils.” Foster (1985) discussion of leadership stresses the importance of communication as he stated that, “leadership is conditioned on
language." Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) found in their in-depth study of eight principals that, among the five characteristics they held in common one was "extremely well developed expressive abilities." Mazzarella and Grundy (1989) noted that "effective school leaders in particular, are good at communicating and they have the aptitude and skills to interact well with others." Moreover, Pitner and Ogawa (1989) found in their empirical study that the superintendents they studied considered the abilities to communicate with people as a requisite skill of their job; On other hand, in his study, Mahoney (1990) reported that as per their choices, many superintendents recommended, "be a good listeners because often people are not looking for instant comments or solutions; all they want is for someone to hear them out."

c. Managerial Effectiveness:

The consensus in the literature is that principals spend most of their time dealing with managerial issues. Although the role of principal as institutional leader is widely advocated by prominent educationists, yet it is seldom practiced. The principal role is still, primarily, that of manager. Stronge (1993) calculated that elementary school principals spent 62.2% of their time on managerial issues and 11% on instructional leadership issues, even after undergoing training or in-service for the role of instructional leader. Hallinger (1989) has already attributed this reality to the fact that there has been little or no provision for enhancing or supporting these new skills in the instructional leadership domain. Technical assistance, adjustment in role expectations, and policies
designed to support the use of these new knowledge and skills are, for the most part, lacking. Thus, the image of instructional leadership has become entrenched in the professional rhetoric but all too often is lacking in administrative practice.

Katz (1955) has recognized three essential areas of skills in managerial behaviour:

- **Technical Skill** - Ability to use knowledge, methods, techniques and equipment necessary for the performance of specific tasks; acquired from experience, education and training.

- **Human Skill** - Ability and judgment in working with and through people. This includes an understanding of motivation and an application of effective leadership.

- **Conceptual Skill** - Ability to understanding the complexities of the overall organization and where one's operation fits into the organization. This knowledge permits one to act according to the objectives of the total organization rather than only on the basis of the goals and needs of one's own immediate group.

Katz considered that the appropriate mix of these skills varies as an individual advances in management. As one advances from lower to higher level of organization, it tend to be needed proportionately less technical skill but more conceptual skill. However, the amount of technical and conceptual skills needed at these different levels of management varies; the area of human skill appears to be crucial at all levels.

A profile document on web site of the Ontario Institute for
studies in education at the University of Toronto, prepared from Dr. Paul Begley's (2004) publication on school leadership in Canada prescribed the role of Principal on the dimension of managership at the intermediate level in the following fields:

- Student Conduct - It encompasses the behaviour of strictly adherence to and enforcement the school discipline policy.

- Budget - This includes seeking input from staff in setting some budget properties.

- Supervision of Personnel - This consists of the incorporate aspects of formative (growth oriented) supervision into personnel appraisal practices.

- Regulations of Policy - It comprises demonstration of an awareness of Ministry and Board procedures, policies, regulations, and acts when these impact on the daily operations of the school.

- Time Management - This is the behaviour to aware of the need to identify priorities and to develop time management strategies.

Sequeira (1986) related principal's managerial styles and Achievement motivation to their institutional efficiency. His sample for the study comprised fifteen educational and fifteen industrial managers from randomly selected from a list of English medium schools and colleges of Benglore and industries which were rated as relatively efficient by a panel of experts. His tool was used to classify the sample into a 9.1 managerial style group representing those having high concern for production than for people, and a 1.9...
managerial style group representing those having low concern for production and high concern for people. He concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean n-arch. Scores of educational managers and industrial managers. He found a significant positive relationship between the 9.1- managerial style and high n-arch scores where as the mean n-arch. Score of 9.1-style managers was more than double the mean-arch. Score of the 1.9-style managers. Though, there was no significant difference between the dominant managerial styles of educational managers and those of industrial managers, yet the managers from both educational and industry who had higher n-arch. scores seemed to be more specific and clear in identifying their immediate and long terms goals.

The rules and regulative adherence of principals were studied by Newton (1986). He found that the principals of government schools were the best performer. Further, it was found that on the whole principals fared well with regard to following rules and regulations as well as maintenance of discipline in all school. He concluded that effective principals successfully dissolve disciplinary problems and gave advice to teachers in solving such problems. This could be due to the high awareness level to parents, awareness on the part of principals for projection a positive instructional image. The principals of government aided schools found it difficult to provide neat and clean environment. This could be attributed to the lack of adequate finance, inadequate in infrastructure facilities and lack of cooperation from the management. But, at the same time, within these constraints the
high performing principals motivated the students for better learning and educational achievement.

Joshi and Shriwastava (2001) conducted a study on managerial competencies of secondary school principals as educational managers and they reached at conclusions that though, the mean scores of teachers' perception was found to be less than the mean scores of principals' own perception, yet the principals of the government schools were the best performer because it was found that on the whole principals fared well with regard to following rules and regulations as well as maintenance of discipline in all schools. The high awareness level to the parents and awareness on the part of managers for projection a positive institutional image made a principal well performer. Their study implied that the principals of government aided schools founds it difficult to provide neat and clean environment which could be attributed to the lack of adequate finances, inadequate infra-structural facilities and lack of cooperation from their management; but at the same time they motivated the students for better learning within the constraints. The trend that emerges from the study indicated that the overall competencies of principals, i.e. of the government, private-unaided and government-aided schools in personal management are good. However, providing opportunities to the teachers for participation in decision making, the principals of private unaided schools were found to be more competent than the other two management types. Further, it was found that all principals make judicious use of financial resources and have knowledge of budgetary procedures; but principals of government
and government aided schools lacked competencies in conflict management which could be due to the certain privileges they enjoy in statuary terms from the government and the powerful role played by the teacher organizations. About the formation of school climate, Joshi and Sriwastava found that the principal of all three kinds of management performing with good level of competencies but the performance of the government school principals regarding the aria was found to be better than the other two management types. The teachers’ perception about their principals’ competency was lower than the principals’ own perception of the same but the private-unaided school teachers perceived that the principals actively involved staff and students in achieving goals and a clear vision for the future.

Thus, administration to promote and implement instructional process has not been uniform. The work of principalship may be characterized by fragmentation and variety in between ‘shoulds and actuals’. All the studies regarding the field revealed that an individual who performs the effective role of principalship should cover a wide range of situations and requires a variety of skills, styles, competencies and qualities of administrators. He should have vision; develop a shared vision, promise to hold situational leadership, shared leadership and transformational leadership. The managerial effectiveness of principals is also guided by the criterion of skills, styles and competencies and the assessment of the managerial excellence of principals depends upon the appropriate mix of these criterions. A number of factors influence the criterion so as to the managerial
effectiveness of a principal. The quality of leadership and managerial functions of principals in terms of output of institutions awaits further empirical research that relate to the effectiveness of principals' activities because the knowledge gained are still fragmentary and the mega waves of change in word demand unlimited substitutions in role play of principalship.

1.4-2 Studies related to Work values:

Though, the impact of work values of an administrator can be observed in his efforts to create such an environment that contribute to the formation of a well organized group of individuals in the organization encouraging and promoting collaborative relationships, yet a very few studies were found out on the work-values as the variable affecting the organizational function. However, the study available is sufficient to provide the insight to work further in this particular area.

Goldthorpe et. al. (1967) classical study dealt from a social stratification perspective with the attitude of manual workers. The study concluded that manual and white collar workers differ in several dimensions. The attitude of a white collar worker is supposed to be an ‘organizational man’ oriented towards his organization and his career where as the manual worker is less interested in the job and more in money; hence the latter is more extrinsic and the former is more intrinsic oriented. Another traditional important difference they found is that the white collar workers has an individualistic orientation towards the future, i.e.
career, whereas the manual worker is less interested in his career and puts more emphasis on collectivistic industrial action. Based on empirical research, Goldthorpe et. al. put forward the idea that industrial attitudes of manual workers were converging with those of the middle class. The study shows that although the attitudes of manual workers had indeed changed, they still deferred substantially from middle class workers. One main finding was that manual workers did not subscribe to the intrinsic work values, instead of their work values can be described as instrumental.

Some researchers pointed out that the relationship between work values and work context is not one sided. It may be possible that the work values of a person, working as a member of an organization, are shaped by his work context, it may also be the other way round as people can choose a job and a work context accordance with to satisfy their work values. Crewson (1997), Karl and Sutton (1998), and Houston (2000) reported significantly different job values of public workers compared to private sector workers. Their studies suggest that public sector workers are more likely to place higher values on intrinsic work aspects including the desire to serve the public interest which can provide feeling of accomplishment, whereas private sector workers place higher values on extrinsic factors. The study of Karl and Sutton also suggested that work values are changing over time because of organizational changes. As a consequence of more favourable economic circumstances and the rising percentage of workers with post-secondary education, interesting work has become more important to workers.
In a recent study, Norris (2004) found that her data showed many similarities in work values of public and private sector workers. However, she pointed out some marked differences, which she related to the different work context in both sectors, especially the fact that private sectors workers seem to experience more independence and autonomy in their work. In contrast, “public sectors workers prove especially satisfied in experiencing work that contributed towards society or helped other people, far more so than the private sectors”. Taking account the effect of hierarchical position she assumed that work values of supervisors or managers in the public sector may differ from ‘ordinary’ employees.

Steijn and Smulders (2005) reached at the conclusion that health and educational workers, who can be seen as a special group of public workers, must clearly be differentiated from both public administration and private sector workers. This is true both for their work values and their work experiences. They found albeit small differences in work values between public sectors workers belong to public administration and health and educational organizations and Private sector workers. Moreover, their factor analysis suggested the existence of two different types of intrinsic job values i.e. direct intrinsic and future oriented. They found that public administration workers surprisingly score as lowest on the direct intrinsic work variable and highest on the future oriented one where as health and educational workers scores as highest on the direct intrinsic variable and ‘average’ on the future oriented intrinsic variable. They also score as highest on the variable measuring their
socio-centric work motivation. Comparing work values, in terms of autonomy, satisfaction with the income policy in the organization, satisfaction with the career policy, and the support experienced from colleagues, with an endless list of work experiences, they found that workers in the health and educational sector are comparatively worst off. Their analysis showed that differences in job satisfaction between the three categories are rather small and in first instance even insignificant; significant differences only arise when they perform a statistical analysis controlling for work values and work experiences. This suggests that given similar work values and work experiences, private, public administration and health and educational workers react differently with regard to their job satisfaction.

Managing of an effective organization depends largely upon the matching of organizational values with the work values of the administrator of that organization. The empirical studies of Falding (1965) and Holland (1976) have shown that work values affect occupational choice. Vroom (1966) has shown that the individuals make job choice consistent with their work goals. Lindsay and Knox (1984) arrived at the conclusion that educational attainment affects the work values. Pinder (1998) distinguished the extrinsic work values fulfill material and social needs and the intrinsic work values fulfill higher order needs such as growth, esteem, competence, self determination and self expression.

Positive relationship between education and intrinsic work values has been established in western as well as in Indian situations. Reddy and Reddy (2001) arranged a study on M.B.A.
students of University of Madras providing them a list of 27-selected items related to job attribute to measure the preferences of their relevance. They found that intrinsic work values are preferred as the most important in their job selections where as the extrinsic values of total pay, prestige and status and friendly and comfortable environment are considered as the second most important values and the least important work values are job security, convenient work place location, opportunities to travel and fringe benefits.

To determine personal variables related to the judged effectiveness of public school principals Lipham (1961) used some of the attitudinal instruments as well as Edward’s personal preference schedule together with interview. In his study, he found that effective principals in the large school system were inclined to engage in strong and purposeful activity, concerned with achieving success and positions of higher status, able to relate well to others and secure in their home and work environment.

Ecker (1968) administered the tools on a large sample of 117 principals and 2915 teachers to establish the relationship between values and administrative behaviour. But no significant relationship was found to exist between democratic-autocratic principals’ administrative behaviour and traditional-emergent principals’ value orientation. When the relationship between democratic-autocratic principals’ administrative behaviour and their personality was assessed the F-values were found too low to be considered significant. No significant difference in value orientation of the participating and nonparticipating principals was found to exist. Since, the result were established at a larger sample than in
the previous study, the results were more dependent.

Kumar (1986) studied on principals’ work values as one of the variable of their administrative effectiveness. The findings of the study reached at the conclusions that work values of the principals were found significantly related with their administrative effectiveness, in particular, power based and job-freedom based work values were found to be relevant aspects of effective administration. The study also found that the principals’ work values, attitudes towards teachers, students and ministerial staff, and self concept combined together were found to be significantly related with their administrative effectiveness.

Dimmock (1993) argued that effective schools’ research reveals that schools need a clear sense of purpose and have a strong individual sense of identity. The level of congruence between the value priorities of the system, the school community and the principal is a very important factor in defining effective schools. He suggested that when a principal’s value position is in serious opposition to the system or community view, leading and mediating a process of school development and vision creation cease to be options.

Quong (1999) find in a cross cultural comparative study that for the Australian school leaders, there are the top three values of i.- Teamwork, ii.- Dialogue, and iii.- Flexibility, with regards to the impact of decentralization. Principals need to hold those values that enable them to work collaboratively with parents and other staff in ways that have eroded the essential managerial nature of the head teacher of traditional school structures. On the
other hand, in marked contrast for the Filipino school leaders who have to lead very large schools with average size of over 2,000 students and in the main, without the support of an assistant principal, there are the top three values of i.- Intellectualism; ii.- Respect; and iii.- Innovation, signify a concern for strong directive and creative leadership. In this view, the leader is seen as someone who has lots of new ideas and ways of doing things that are different. The leader is able to develop and defend these ideas, policies and principles and is able at the same time, to win the respect of those who work for them.

The studies about work values revealed that these are the intrinsic traits or qualities of personnel, whether he is an administrator or a worker, which may serve as a base line for his actions and decision making. It may be said after reviewing the related studies that personnel's approach to his job will reflect his work values. These may also affect how that personnel views other people and groups, thus influencing interpersonal relationships within an organization as well as how he perceives situational variables that contribute to his organizational performances.

1.4-3 Studies related to Adjustment:

The studies of situational factors, that may create emotional and mental modification of personnel, have recently caught the attention. Several interdisciplinary interventions are currently under way to investigate the types of work place stress and job demands that potentiate the effect of environment unfit on
performance decrements. A few studies have been conducted with regard to the area related to the coping mechanism, or adjustment, especially about school administrators. There are some researchers who have related stress factors with job satisfaction while others with principals’ performance.

A review of literature indicates a variety of causing factors remain around the individual as well as the organizational facts and environment of a principal but adjustment in terms of good mental health of the principals themselves is essential for their ongoing professional growth and for creating a good emotional climate for an effective school. Seleye (1946) reported, a good relationship among the members of a group is a key factor in individual and organizational health. Margolis, Kroes and Quinn (1947) has found in their studies that lack of participation at work was a significant predictor of emotional strain and job-related stress, which was seen to be related to overall poor health, escapist drinking, depression, low self-esteem, absenteeism and plans to leave work. On other hand, Likewise, Kaplan (1959) recognized that the relation with teachers, parents, peers, superiors and status in the system are important factors that affect the mental health of a principal.

Chase and Guha (1955), Mehta (1969) and Lott (1978) identified the problems, stress and pressures confronting principals. Though the studies were of similar kind, each of them identified different types of problems and stress faced by principals. Chase and Guha’s study reported that out of 752 administrative problems identified in New Jersey as the result of an intervisitation programme, 128 dealt with teacher personnel, 116 with school
community relations, 75 with administrative and supervisory personnel, 43 with other personnel and 63 with the school board. In contrast, 87 dealt with management and 45 with budget and finance. The data for a similar intervisitation programme in Pennsylvania gave some what similar results. Mehta administered a questionnaire on the sample and identified problems such as shortage of teachers, indiscipline among staff members, methodical teaching, cooperation from teachers, ambiguity of role, higher qualification, low grade party politics of the locality, work load of official and supervisory jobs. School building, frequent transfers etc. On the other hand, Lott interviewed thirteen principals and found seven problem areas viz. curriculum, students, parents, community environment, school facilities, faculty and administration.

Baugh (1977) assessed the extent to which school administrators reported experiencing 13 symptoms of stress, the extent to which school administrators felt that 33 management practices were stress producing, 28 problems in education were stress producing and the 10 recommendations would be helpful in minimizing in eliminating stress. A 84 items instrument, school administrators stress survey was administered to 260 administrators and for this part of study, a response level by one third or more(33) of those reporting perceived stress was considered critical. Three symptoms of stress were reported above the critical level, three stress producing management practices were reported above the critical level, 23 stress producing problems in education were identified above the critical level and nine stress reducing recommendations were identified above the critical level.
In a study, Larson (1977) analyzed the sources of stress among elementary school administrators and found that the position of elementary school principal is characterized by work overload in regard to student discipline, records and reports, staff evaluation and supervision, curriculum and instruction. Moreover, the position of principal is characterized by task/role ambiguity in regards to curriculum and instruction and by substantial amount of stress in regard to social support, participation and utilization of abilities and the ten major conflict/problem areas that were identified throughout the literature were also stress.

Maclay (1979) determined how a sample of elementary school principals perceived the effects of constraints on their education leadership and to determine if there were personal variables that may have influenced the principals’ perception of the constraints. Based on the findings, the conclusion was that the elementary school principals in the sample did not perceive those constraints reported in the literature as having a major impact on educational leadership and that except for a limited number of cases, the personal variables of the principals had no effect on their perceptions of the constraints.

Swent (1979), Neidan (1979) and Schuetz (1980) tried to find out the sources of stress experienced by principals, but each of them identified different sources in his study. Swent found management of activities and time, interpersonal relation as high source of stress, as well as complying with rules and policies was perceived as a high stressor. More than 707 of their life stress resulted from their job and an inverse relationship existed between
perceived stress and the self-reported health status of the administrators. Neidan concluded in his study that the most common individuals are parents and teachers who exert pressures. At least, one-half of the pressures are concerned with placing more emphasis on the 3-R’s reducing the member of the night activities dismissing of teachers, and imposing of strict discipline. The most common means of exerting pressure was direct communication with respondent. On the other hand, Schuetz found that role-conflict and role-ambiguity, the size of school, tension, work overload, dissatisfaction with salary, working conditions, and responsibility for making decisions affecting others lives as sources of stress.

Muske (1979) in his study identified obstacles to effective school administration by sending a questionnaire, containing seven general categories and fifty five subcategories items to one sixty nine superintendents. He found seven general categories as ranked by superintendents- state obstacle, personnel obstacle, internal obstacle, community obstacle, indicial obstacle, federal obstacle and personal obstacle.

Gossett (1979) also conducted a study with the help of interviews and concluded that major causes of pressures and the principalship were authority, discipline, time, vandalism, expectation, drug abuse, school newspapers, and central office staff that is housed in the same building. In day to day operation of a building the principals must cope with the following forms of pressures, expectations, principal - teacher - student staff relation in terms of recognition, conflicting values and professional involvement.
The relationship of principals 'stress and job satisfaction' have also been studied. Price (1971), Peterson (1978) and Harigopal (1979) tried to seek relationship of stress factors and job satisfaction of principals and teachers but they arrived at contradictory conclusions. Price and Harigopal found similar results that stress factors are inversely related to the job satisfaction of principals i.e. the greater the degree of organizational stress in the school, the lower the job satisfaction. But the Peterson found quite contradictory results that stress factors and job satisfaction were positively related i.e. the greater the stress, the more job satisfaction.

Larson (1977) on the other hand, attempted to seek the interrelationships among personality characteristics, organizational stressors and selected stress reduction techniques. 400 principals were administered a 100 items questionnaire and respondents indicated the perceived degree of agreement on a 5-point rating scale. The relationship among four principal groups and 50-stress reduction techniques were analyzed by means of chi-square method. Elementary principals indicated a lower level of four selected organizational stressors and more willingness to recognize stress reduction techniques. Moreover, the principal respondents perceived the pool of 50-selected stress reduction techniques as having only modest relevance or effectiveness.

In some studies researchers had related organizational stress and professional performance to see the effect of stress on the performance. Clark (1974), Denny (1978), Tomlison (1979)and Allen(1980) tried to relate the stress factors an organizational
effectiveness and all of them arrived at similar conclusions that high stress was consistently related to lower performance rating particularly among those with high anxiety, low flexibility, high self esteem, low sociability and high research orientation.

As the organizational stress and environmental pressures influence the behaviour of any individual to a great extent, Ray and Magill (1977) and Gambel (1978) made their attempt to relate them to leadership authority and job satisfaction of principals consequently. But no particular authority bases were found to be related to high or low organizational stress in the school by Magill. On the other hand Gambel found that pressures from the educational environment were inversely related to the job satisfaction the high school principals experienced; he recommended in his study that the relationship among environmental pressures, job satisfaction and productivity be investigated.

The factors adaptability, general intelligence creativity, locus of controls manipulative tendency and mainly the leadership style have been related to leadership effectiveness by Peters (1975), Charlier (1977), Albright (1978) and Still (1980). Charlier and Still found no significant relationship between locus of control, leadership style, manipulative tendency, organizational climate on one hand and leadership effectiveness on the other hand. But contrary to those results other researchers found a significant relationship between and among leadership style, organizational climate, authoritarianism, creativity, general intelligence, adaptability and leadership effectiveness.
A study on the predictors of principals' administrative effectiveness, conducted by Agarwal (1983), revealed that overall adjustment of principal is the powerful predictor of their administrative effectiveness which is found to be related with their job satisfaction as well as to their administrative effectiveness. When the adjustment is studied in its different dimensions, she concluded that principals' adjustment to students and his ministerial staff is significantly related to their administrative effectiveness, whereas the correlations between their administrative effectiveness and adjustment with teacher, with management, with community, and with higher authority were not found to be significant. She concluded that principal's stress proneness, adjustment and job satisfaction combined together were found to be significant predictors of their administrative effectiveness, while only adjustment and job satisfaction were dropped their administrative effectiveness.

Michel (1996) found that first year administrators are faced with problems that are unique because of their transition in roles. In many situations, new administrators are poorly trained to assume their new roles. Similarly, Ricciardi (2000) found that overwhelming job demands and time constraints made job adjustment difficult for new administrators. She also found that volatile conflicts with faculty further hindered job adjustment.

Campbell and Williamson (1987), Doring (1993) and Friedman (1997) concluded in their studies that human resource management, time management, and relationship were general factors that contributed to stress in principals. Moreover, the
principal’s job itself has been reported in a variety of studies as characterized by constant interruption and dilemmas (Sametz: 1996); Lack of planning time, fragmentation of activities, and the burden of roles and regulations (Portin and Shen: 1998).

Some studies also reviewed on these issues pertaining to leadership for rural school contexts. In an earlier study Renihan (1985) revealed several significant constraints under which rural based principals’ work. These included inadequacies in available time for administration and supervision, problem of isolation, difficulties with community, conflicting demands, and local based politics, and feelings of ambiguity regarding the role. Further, Arnold (1995), in his study of principals’ effectiveness in small-rural schools, found that the most significant issues related to their efforts to run an effective school were community relationships and staff harmony. In regard to the former, he pointed to the lack of understanding of community values as an impediment to leadership, particularly when those values deviated significantly from those of the staff. On the matter of staff harmony, he noted that in small schools in particular, “the school can not afford to have a divided team” He found that the major constraints to the effectiveness of principals’ work in rural small schools were: (a.) Poor attitudes of parents; and (b.) Lack of time to exercise key leadership tasks. Likewise, Sigford (1998) has noted that school administrators are typically ill-prepared and ill-trained for the socio-emotional facets of their jobs. She added that, “The literature does not discuss the stages of change and grief that a person must complete successfully in order to remain and be successful in this position.”
The patterns of principal abrasive and abusive behaviours tend to dramatically, adversely and comprehensively affect the teachers' professional life. In addition, empirical research has generated a handful of models of mistreatment in the work setting. Ryan and Oestreich (1991) produced a model of abrasive (i.e. less harmful) and abusive (i.e. more harmful) including silence, glaring eye contact, abruptness, snubbing or ignoring, insults, blaming, discrediting, and discounting, controlling others aggressively, making threats about the job, yelling and shouting, making angry outbursts, and threatening physical harm. They contended that any behaviour may have greater impact on individuals depending on timing, place of occurrence, and level of reputation.

Indirect forms of principal mistreatment, as described by teachers in a study conducted by Neuman and Baron (1998), included nonverbal and verbal principal behaviours. This category of principal behaviours was considered generally less abusive as compared to level of the 2nd and 3rd category of behaviours and this finding is consistent with studies conducted with the general population. They constructed the three-factor model of workplace aggression, which includes expressions of hostility, expressions of hostility, obstructionism, and over aggression. Expressions of hostility include verbal and symbolic behaviours such as facial expressions, gestures, staring, dirty looks, silent treatment, ridicule, unfair evaluations, and gossip. Obstructionism refers to actions that are often passive aggressive in nature, such as with holding a resource or behaviour. Such examples are not returning phone calls, refusing to provide needed resources equipment, and failing to
warn an individual of imminent danger. Overt aggression, the third factor, refers to threat or acts of physical violence and theft of destruction of an individual's work equipment.

Further more, Keashly (1998) reported that the frequency of occurrence, timing, amount of negative effect, nature of the location in which mistreatment occurred; association with others, more severe behaviours constitutive of a pattern of abuse; and the generally hierarchical 'power over' nature of the principal-teacher relationship regarded as a factor consistently discussed in the workplace mistreatment literature, contributed considerably to the degree of harm teachers experienced from level-1 behaviours. According to him, the principal's level-1 behaviours were: (a.) include a discounting teachers’ thoughts, needs, and feelings; (b.) isolating and abandoning teachers; (c.) withholding resources and denying approval, opportunities, and credit to teachers; (d.) favoring 'select' teachers; and e. offensive personal conduct. He also developed the concept of emotional abuse that subsumes elements of the constructs. Emotional abuse emphasizes the “hostile verbal and non verbal behaviour directed at gaining compliance from others.” He identified a pattern of abuse behaviours that are unwanted by the target, behaviours that violate norms for appropriate conduct or an individual’s rights, behaviours that are intended to harm the target, (as perceived by the target), behaviours that results in harm to the target, and power differences between the abuser and the target of abuse.

Ashforth (1994) developed a model of the antecedents and effects of tyranny of subordinates. He contended that petty tyranny
is an interaction between subordinates’ predisposition (i.e. beliefs about organization, subordinates, and self and preferences for action) and situational facilitators (i.e. institutionalize values and norms, power, and stressors). He agreed that tyrannical management causes low leader endorsement and high frustrations, stress and resistance; high helplessness and work analysis; low self system and poor work performance; and low work unit cohesiveness. He emphasized that such effects would trigger a vicious circle that sustains that tyrannical behaviour. He also observed that the exercise of power may induce a manager to do the following: attribute subordinates’ success to him, develop an inflated sense of self-worth, create greater psychological distance from subordinates, and view subordinates as objects of manipulation.

Huber (2004) describe that as schools are embedded in their communities, and the country’s educational system, and this again in embedded in society, schools and their leaders have to react to cope with and to support economic and cultural changes and developments. Some times they even have to anticipate them, and some times to counteract the problems arising from some of these developments. Altered social environments at work and at home as well as a growing multi-cultural world based on the versatility of a pluralistic, post-modern and globalize society, result in an increase in complexity in many areas of daily life. The accumulation of knowledge, which is developing exponentially, and information market which is not easily manageable and which features and ever increasing supply of extracurricular information
opportunities, and a growing diversity and specialization of the working environment are further aspects of this radical change. He reported that additional stress within the range of tasks for school leadership is brought about by the changed structures of the education system, which inevitably strongly affect the individual school and therefore the role of school leadership as well. Tendencies towards decentralization, transferring more decision power from the system level to the school level, result in an extended independence of schools.

Other additional consideration is identified by McAdams (1998) in his analysis of the principal ‘shortage’ in the United States. Among these, he noted that the impact of democratic governance and the enhanced power of students, teachers and parents have steadily diminished the principal’s authority, despite the fact the principal is increasingly held accountable for student performance. According to him, this “middle management bind of responsibility without commensurate authority” leads many principals to increased frustration, increased stress and diminished job satisfaction.

Studies were also conducted on assistant principals in regards of their specific responsibilities in their school system. Everson (1976) studied to determine the specific responsibilities of the position made it stressful and create job dissatisfaction as a result of job pressure. He concluded that the assistant principal did not have any greater anxiety, psychometric disorders and greater job dissatisfaction than their principals or other comparison groups. Hartzell (1994) described several challenges for the first year
assistant principal. He found that the first year assistant principal has to deal with socialization to a new work environment, the interactive atmosphere of the administrative office, the tension between teachers and school administrators, learning the school organization, resolving conflict, and learning how to be in a secondary leadership position.

Some studies on the adjustment in terms of intrapsychic and action orientated coping mechanisms or strategies, which are also reviewed herewith. Swent (1983) found in his study of 953 administrators that approximately 66% of the sample used physiological stress reduction activities, 22% used cognitive or physiological strategies, and nearly 12% used interpersonal or organizational activities. He concluded that a variety of coping techniques are needed to assist individuals. Buettner (1999) in his study on rural principals found that principals use a number of coping mechanisms during the performance of their duties. Thirty seven of the listed 66 coping mechanisms were used somewhat or quite a bit the time. The remaining 29 coping mechanism recorded some degree of use, based upon the mean response. It was also found by him that some coping mechanisms were more effective than others in relieving the distress associated with a particular incident in the school. Thirty four of the 66 coping mechanisms were somewhat or quite effective. The remaining 32 coping mechanism recorded some degree of effectiveness based upon the mean response. Again, this clearly indicated that there were differences in the effectiveness of particular coping mechanisms as
The principal's own situational backgrounds also affect his job performances. Usmani (1988) reached at conclusion that Socio-Economical background was inversely related to principal's effectiveness where as professional attainment, attitude towards teaching, socio- economical status, economical, political and social value contribute to principal effectiveness. Likewise, Taj (1992) covered 192 secondary school heads for his study and interpreted his collecting data as the educational qualification, attitude towards profession, job satisfaction and personal and social adequacy were found to be significant related to the administrative behaviour of school heads.

A principals has to face a stormy wave of change so as to proliferation of expectations for his role, multiplicity of tasks, work intensity and the consequent time pressures of the job, parental awareness, and interference of community politics on one hand and shortage of time, dwindling allocation of resources, escapist tendency of higher authorities or government in providing support, rewards and compensations on other. Each principal has his own family and social environments, emotional stabilities, mental strength, intelligence other personality factors and work values, on the basis of which he may deal with the influence of his work situations and circumstances. After reviewing all those studies conducted in the field of adjustment, however, one would probably concur with that being a school administrator, a principal has to confront with a moderately stressful combination of events and
circumstances at every moment and to bring new in any role adds additional stress.

1.5 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

The pivotal and effective role of the school principal for the improvement of schools has been corroborated by findings of empirical efforts for the last decades, mostly in abroad and a few in Indian contexts. Scrutiny of the available literatures in the area of administrative effectiveness of principals reveals that a number of studies have been conducted pertaining to competencies required by principals for effective administration as well as pertaining to the factors contributing to the administrative effectiveness. These studies have contributed a lot in the field of educational administration by identifying a number of competencies for effective administration and by analyzing the factors that contribute to and predict the effectiveness.

Studies related about the field of work values and adjustment has also been conducted in the past but such studies are very few, especially, in the field of school administration. The literatures related to the work values revealed that these may be one of the intrinsic force that defines the job related attitude and commitment of a worker accordance with the degree of satisfaction he gets in his organizational situation. Though, even these very few studies about work values have been conducted either on industrial workers and industrial managers or on the vision of business
management in terms of participation of personnel in productivity or profit, yet they provide evidences for a principal's administration on account of both its leadership and managerial effectiveness.

The review of the available studies indicates that the principals of most of the educational institutions and particularly those of higher secondary schools in Chhattishgarh and even in India have to face so many administrative problems with regard to their work of principalship. Each of them may have his own set of specific issues and concerns associated with the principalship and moreover, a issue of 'isolation' which prompted Sigford (1998) to pose the question, as a title to one of her chapters: Why is it So Quiet in the Teachers’ Lounge? However, comparing and contrasting 'shoulds and actuals', it may be concluded that the tasks placed on principals are demanding, varied, and far-reaching because principals in India have encountered considerable turmoil in recent years. Not to speak of so many but he always has top six priorities involve working with students, teachers, colleagues, community, management and higher authorities. This diversity puts a tremendous amount of pressure and potentially conflicting expectations on school principals, and above all, the principals feel many a time that each of these areas should be emphasized and that is why, they are putting a tremendous amount of pressure, stress, conflict and sometime depression on themselves.

Today-school needs a professional school administrators, especially in higher secondary level, who may be described as firm and purposeful, sharing leadership responsibilities, having diagnostic leadership characters, involvement in and knowledge
about what goes on in the classroom, and above all he should always be ready to refine himself as well as his school. The choice of the present study is entitled as,—

“A Study of Principals’ Administrative Effectiveness in relation to their Work values and Adjustment in Higher Secondary Schools of Chhattisgarh,”

inspired by the consideration that evidences collected through this study must be of some help in developing insight into the basic factors and forces that contribute to the administrative effectiveness of principals in their higher secondary schools. It is an effort to verify, if the work values and adjustment contribute any thing to administrative effectiveness of higher secondary school’s principals. It is proposed, under this study, to investigate in to the relationships that might be existing between principals’ work values and adjustment, and their administrative effectiveness to help those who need to develop an understanding of how to use the field of applied science of administrative behaviour for enhancement of their effective professionalism with linking their observations.