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The Implications Of Milieu Upon Educational Administration

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THE IMPLICATIONS OF MILIEU UPON EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION

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Las Vegas

The Implications of Milieu Upon

Educational Administration

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education

in Educational Administration

by

Margaret Draper Cahoon

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THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The task of analyzing literature on factors related to administrative leadership was most overwhelming due to the proliferous nature of the subject. As a consequence, it became necessary to limit the factors for study. Those selected were considered crucial and relevant as they provided insight into concepts proven to be effective or feasible.

Consequently, two questions were selected for intense study:

What are the implications of changing administrative philosophies and theoretical veins upon administrative leadership?

Recognizing the great amount of bureaucratization of educational agencies, an ancillary question has been included in the study: Does the literature suggest a separate type of leader for bureaucracies?

It was the intention of the writer to discern answers to both of the above questions on administrative leadership and hopefully lead to a suggestion of the desired type of administrative leadership needed within the framework of a contemporary milieu.

Statement of the Problem

It was the purpose of this study to seek an answer to the following questions:

1. What are the implications of changing milieu upon administrative leadership?

2. Ancillary to the above, does the literature suggest a separate type of administrative leadership for bureaucratic organizations?

Significance of the Problem

The significance of the problem lay in the fact that leadership could not be considered static. Instead, it took place in an ever-changing milieu. It was felt that what was considered acceptable or "right" leadership yesterday could not be considered so today. It was therefore necessary to understand the implications of the changing milieu upon leadership.

Additionally, such an historical analysis would help explain past and present influences upon educational administration and possibly help us anticipate and understand the needed administrative style of the future. As educators, it was relevant to utilize the contributions of history to understand more about our systems, practices and approaches.

Little has remained stable in today's world, and consequently, perceptions of what was important changed as trends and data changed. Fox substantiated this point by stating that:

> It is a relatively recent development to place educational developments and changes into their social, economic and historical contexts. The psychological and sociological aspects of education change were not considered part of the universe of fact and data of educational history as recently as the 1950's . . . . Politics is just beginning to be included in the universe of information needed to understand educational events and economics still is not (10, 1969, p. 409-410).

Assumptions

There were numerous assumptions that were made in regards to this study:

1. Administration occured within a particular setting or milieu. The results of a number of studies showed that leadership "does not occur in a vacuum but at a particular time and place and under a particular set of circumstances (31, 1974, p. 25)."

2. Knowledge of administration has grown continuously. Leader behavior was not fixed, but amended itself as knowledge increased.

3. Every group needed a leader. This person played an active part in the development and maintenance of roles and goal attainment. A group was not effective without a leader.

4. What was in vogue had a tremendous influencing impact on leadership behavior.

5. Many of our agencies have become more bureaucratized.

Chapter II

This chapter included a chronological review of administrative
philosophies and theoretical veins ranging from the classical era to the
present day contingency theories. Upon examination of the past and
present influences upon educational administration, the writer explored
the characteristics of bureaucratic agencies in an attempt to determine
the extent to which they required a different type of leader from those
examined in the chronological review.

According to Stogdill, there were eleven evolving classifica-
tions of leadership -- each contributing to a better understanding of
the concept. These classifications were as follows. Leadership was
viewed as

        1. a focus of group processes.
        2. personality and its effects.
        3. the art of influencing.
        4. the art of inducing compliance.
        5. an act or behavior.
        6. a form of persuation.
        7. a power relations.
        8. an instrument of goal achievement.
        9. an effect of interaction.
       10. a differentiated role.
       11. the initiation of structure (37, 1974, p. 7-15).

Newell included a statement by Cartwright and Zander that seemed
to summarize thinking regarding leadership. Leadership was

    viewed as the performance of those acts which help the group
    achieve its preferred outcomes. Such acts may be termed group
    functions. More specifically, leadership consists of such
    actions by group members as those which aid in setting group
    goals, moving the group toward its goals, improving the quality
    of the interactions among the members, building the cohesive-

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> ness of the group, and making resources available to the
> group. In principle, leadership may be performed by one
> or many members of the group . . . . Groups differ from
> one another in a variety of ways, and the actions required
> for the achievement of valued states of one group may be
> quite different from those of another. The nature of leader-
> ship and the traits of leaders will accordingly be different
> from group to group (28, 1978, p. 222).

The brief summaries above did not do full justice to their ideas
as they were more complex than has been indicated here. They did point
out, however, that we have a great deal to learn about leadership.

The eventual outcome of this study was to identify the desired
type of leadership within an organization. Through the ages, man had
attempted to identify the various types of leadership. Plato, for
instance, proposed three types of leaders: (1) the philosopher-states-
man who would rule the republic with reason and justice, (2) the mili-
tary commander to defend the state and enforce its will, and (3) the
businessman to provide for the needs of the citizens.

Bogardus, a modern leadership theorist, suggested there were
four types of leaders: (1) the autocratic type who rose to the top in a
large organization, (2) the democratic type who spoke on behalf of the
group, (3) the executive type who was selected because of his ability
to get things done, and (4) the reflective intellectual who had diffi-
culty acquiring supporters.

Sanderson and Nafe proposed four leadership types also: (1) the
static leader who influenced the thoughts of others, (2) the executive
leader who used power and position, (3) the professional leader who
stimulated the potential of his subordinates, and (4) the group leaders
who represented the interests of the group.

Kencheloe defined a leadership type as the prophet -- someone

who rose to the call, usually a crisis of his own making. He had great ability to secure the interest and support of his following.

Levine named four leadership types: the charismatic, the organizational, the intellectual, and the informal leader. Haiman found that five types of leaders were neede in a democracy: the executive, the judge, the advocate, the expert, and the discussion leader.

Weber proposed three types of legitimate authority, each being associated with a specific type of leadership: the bureaucratic leader who was supported by legal authority and operated in rational grounds; the patrimonial form functioned with a staff of relatives rather than hierarchial officials and was supported by tradition; and the charismatic leader who functioned with a staff of disciples and thrived on heroism.

Stogdill, in his book Handbook of Leadership, noted that recent researchers no longer paid much attention to the persuasive, intellectual, and representative types of leaders. Instead, they focused primarily on two types: authoritarian and democratic. In fact these types acquired new names. The authoritarian was called task-oriented or structured and the democratic was called the person-oriented or considerate (37, 1974, p. 27).

In any case, because growth of organizations was increasing and bureaucratizing, data was used, whether it was past or present, to learn what type of leadership was needed in today's complex society.

In a recent issue of Time magazine emphasis was given to the topic of leadership. The article began with a quote from Ortego y Gasset that summed up the dilemma we face in today's organizations:

> Before long there will be heard througout the planet a
> formidable cry, rising like the howling of innumerable dogs

to the stars, asking for someone or something to take
command (<u>38</u>, 1979, p. 24).

President Carter, whose own leadership inadequacies were used
to describe the inadequacies of many of today's leaders, was faulted for
lacking "the sheer exuberance of power," for not lighting up the room
when he enters, and for not exercising power in a subtle manner.

Of concern were the seeming lack of good leaders and the unwill-
ingness of America to be led, stated <u>Time</u>. This led to the conclusion
that "Americans have been historically disorderly in their response to
leadership: A Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia had its counter-
point in a Whiskey Rebellion in the backwoods. The nation's tradition
has been a contradictory mixture of the docility and revolt."

<u>Time</u> then asked the question, "Does all this mean that the
talent for leadership has abruptly disappeared from the American genes?"
The answer was an emphatic "absolutely not" because the reasons for our
current leadership problems lie deeper. "Societies may not always get
the leadership they deserve and need, but they get a leadership that re-
flects the nature of the nation's power and the condition of its follow-
ers." <u>Time</u> went on to say that these followers "have become too often
touchy, reluctant and irritable pessimistic" because there are no charis-
matic leaders like Roosevelt, Gandhi, and Churchill today and also be-
cause the government had not been fulfilling the promises for which they
has assumed responsibility. The problem was compounded because consti-
tuants may have been as knowledgeable as their leaders (<u>39</u>, 1979, p. 27).

It therefore because evident that "some underlying concensus about
common direction is necessary, and that is now difficult to locate (<u>39</u>,
1979, p. 28)."

Classical

Taking consideration of historical landmarks, we included the man who was looked upon as the master theoretician of bureaucracy -- Max Weber. His toeory appeared at the turn of the century.

Weber was a German sociologist who first fully developed a theory of bureaucracy. As Bennis pointed out, the bureaucratic model was the result of a distaste for "personal subjugation, nepotism, cruelty, emotional vicissitudes, and subjective judgment (3, 1966, p. 4-5)." Such frailities were freely practiced during the early days of the Industrial Revolution. In the same vein, it was felt that the theory evolved out of Weber's experience in the German army as well as the growth of German industrial organizations.

Out of his impressions and feelings came "an apparatus of abstract depersonalization, a system that would rationally dispense solutions without the friction of subjective coloring and human error." In other words, personality, irrationality, and unpredictability were not allowed to enter into the decision-making process. Instead, roles were "institutionalized, and reinforced by legal tradition, rationality, and predictability were sought for in order to eliminate chaos and unanticipated consequences, and technical competence rather than arbitrary whims were emphasized (3, 1966, p. 5)."

In short, Weber believed an organization could and "should function as a single mechanism (28, 1978, p. 121)."

As he observed the industrial, military, and political organizations, he found the elements of bureaucracy listed below:

1. a division of labor based on functional specialization.
2. a well-defined hierarchy of authority.
3. a system of rules covering the rights and duties of employees.
4. a system of procedures for dealing with work situations.
5. impersonality of interpersonal relations.
6. Promotion and selection based on technical competence (3, 1966, p. 5).

Writing about the same time as Weber was Frederick Taylor, an American engineer who, because he was credited with advancing "the professionalization of management," became known as the "father of scientific management (3, 1966, p. 66)." Using the principles of scientific management, he "hoped to maximize the output of workers (6, 1977-78, p. 1)."

It was Taylor's feeling according to Campbell, that the behavior of workers could and should be analyzed by focusing on such points as (1) time and motion, (2) pay on a piece rate basis, (3) the separation of planning and performance, (4) scientific testing methods, and (5) improved coordination among workers due to strict management control. It became obvious that Taylor's main concern was for productivity.

There was one major difference between Taylor and Weber. The former "stressed the impersonal rationality of measurement" while Weber "emphasized the legal domination of 'role' or position in a series of hierarchies (2, 1966, p. 66-67)."

At the time in organizational history, the human dimension was not considered or understood. Organizations were considered to be "predesignated, omniscient machines, and any deviation from prediction was probably occassioned by the fact that man is regrettably unpredictable and unstable or by outright engineering inadequacies (2, 1966, p. 67)." It could be said that when there was a conflict between the man and the organization, the man was rarely favored.

Further insights into organizational theory was offered by Henri Fayol who focused his attention on the top manager and his responsibili- ties. It was Fayol who contributed the now renowned elements of manage- ment: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. He strongly felt that "administrators in both industry and government could make their organizations more efficient (6, 1977-78, p. 1)."

Another influential contributor to organizational theory was Luther Gulick -- a man Campbell felt was "a kind of transitional person between industrial management and the views that were to follow (6, 1977- 78, p. 2)." Gulcik's offering came in the form of his well-known mnemonic device POSDCORB (planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting (28, 1978, p. 122).

In these classical theories, the organization reigned supreme in any conflict that arose between the administration and the worker. As was stated by Bennis, "the only road to efficiency and productivity was to surrender man's needs to the service of the bloodless machine (2, 1966, p. 67)."

The era of classical or scientific management theory was summar- ized as follows. The theorists advocated division of labor so that each worker became highly proficient in his assigned task. In addition, "the organization . is structured according to a plan that organizes all the small, specialized steps into a pattern, thus assuring that the total task of the organization will be accomplished." These.these theorists relied on tight control and supervision along each step of the hierarchy so that all remained coordinated. There was a pyramidal design to the organizational diagram to facilitate communication. Here, motivation

was an uncomplicated concept in that it was felt that people would work

for an organization simply because they needed the money. The imprint

of such an organization was evident to all (29, 1970, p. 46-47).

Neo-Classical

It was Mary Parker Follett who was credited with considering

the role human behavior had in organizational operations. She

> viewed organization as a dynamic system of human relation-
> ships in which integration, both between the individual and
> the organization, and among the various parts of the organ-
> ization, as a prime requisite for a successful enterprise
> (28, 1978, p. 122).

In addition, she felt that "the process of production was as

important for the welfare of society as the product of production (28,

1978, p. 122)."

It was Follett who initiated what became the Human Relations

period. Also included as contributors during this era (1938-1950) were

such theorists as Mayo, Roethlesberger, B rnard, Likert, Lewin, Moreno,

and Rogers.

These people were the first to be cognizant of such unantici-

pated consequences as "workers' feelings, attitudes, beliefs, percep-

tions, ideas and sentiments" and constructed a model that focused on the

belief that "man can be motivated to work more productively on the basis

of fulfilling certain social and psychological needs (2, 1966, p. 67-8)."

Illustrating this point, findings of several theorists follow.

First, Mayo and Roethlesberger. Through their experiments at the Western

Electric Plant they found that "economic and mechanistic approaches to

human relations in industry were inadequate." They started out testing

how worker production was affected by changing the quality of illumina-

tion at the plant. It was discovered that wages and physical conditions did not dictate a particular level of employee productivity. Instead, the researchers found that this employee productivity increased simply because the workers felt that they were playing an important part in the experiment.

Thus began the belief that good leadership exhibited democratic rather than authoritarian behaviors and emphasis was placed on employees rather than production.

The contributions of Follett, Mayo, and Roethlesberger pointed to the belief that an organization had dual dimensions: the task and the human.

Chester Barnard's concepts of effectiveness and efficiency illustrated this duality. According to him, "effectiveness related to the achievement of organizational goals, and efficiency related to the satisfaction of individual motives (28, 1978, p. 123)." In addition, he further contributed to the human relations period of organizational theory be being among the first to "note that formal organizations have informal structures that cannot be ignored (6, 1977-78, p. 2)."

Likert was also credited with helping humanize and democratize mammoth organizations. He found that there were four systems of organizations: (1) exploitative authoritative, (2) benevolent authoritative, (3) consultive, and (4) participative and that the most effective organization was one that was participative. "In this view, great faith could be placed in workers, and their participation would do much to increase the productivity of an organization (6, 1977-78, p. 2)."

Owens summarized the human relations or neo-classical era with four discoveries credited to Mayo:

1. The output of the worker -- hence, the output of the
   organization -- is determined more by his social
   capacity than his physical capacity.

2. Money is only one motivation for working in an or-
   ganization; there are other, and perhaps more im-
   portant, rewards that the worker seeks.

3. Highly specialized division of labor is not the
   most likely way of maximizing the efficiency of an
   organization.

4. Individual workers react to the organization -- its
   hierarchy, its rules, and its reward system -- not as
   individuals, but as members of groups (2, 1966, p. 48-9).

Since 1950, a number of theorists have attempted to reconcile
unsubstantiated theories as well as other debris in the form of over-
statements. Bennis called these authors Revisionists because of their
efforts to revise "the nature, unsubstantiated and unrealistic aspects
of the human relations period without sacrificing its radical departure
from traditional theory (3. 1966, p. 69)."

Surprisingly, Likert was considered to be a Revisionist. This
was because he realized that his original theory that productivity strong-
ly corresponded with morale was more a wish than a reality. The follow-
ing quote substantiated this:

> On the basis of the study I did in 1937, I believed that
> morale and productivity were positively related; that the
> higher the morale, the higher the production. Substantial re-
> search findings have since shown that this relationship is
> much too simple (3, 1966, p. 69).

This dilemma was well illustrated in the case of the Non-Linear
Systems, Inc. of San Diego. The company changed its organizational ap-
proach over to the human relations model in the early 60's by eliminating
such practices as assembly lines and time clocks. Although the business
was initially successful, the acclaim proved to be premature as the com-
pany was unable to weather the business slump. The president then had

to return to the classical approach to regain profits. He commented,

"I have lost sight of the purpose of business, which is not to develop

new theories of management."

His new-found awareness pointed to the fact that this theory,

like the classical design, can generate excesses. As Hicks and Gullett

stated,

> the model builders forgot that the behavioral system in an
> organization is part of several larger systems, such as the
> technological system and the economic system. If decisions
> are made in terms of only the behavioral system, the situa-
> tion becomes unbalanced and the same kinds of rigidities
> develop that the classicists caused (19, 1975, p. 424).

Modern Theories

To remedy the imbalance mentioned above, the open systems ap-

proach became prevalent. This, as suggested by Hicks and Gullett, was

"the design emphasis of the future because it escapes narrow perspec-

tives that have restricted earlier approaches." Even though the approach

was humanistic, it was more comprehensive because it took into account

the varied and emotional needs of the employees as well as such situa-

tional factors as technology and economics.

The open systems approach was a facet of the social systems

theory. The closed system approach was also included in the social system

theory but because it was independent of its environment, and because

a school was not, it was not dealt with here. Hence, the school was

termed an open system because of its input-output relationship with its

environment (29, 1970, p. 52).

Besides the input-output relationship, there were other char-

acteristics that distinguished the open systems approach. These were

offered by Daniel E. Griffiths.

1. Open systems tend to maintain themselves in steady states. A steady state is characterized by a constant ratio being maintained among the components of the system. A burning candle is often used as an example of a steady state. Upon being lighted the flame is small, but it rapidly grows to its normal size and maintains the size as long as the candle and its environment exist.

2. Open systems are self-regulating. In the illustration above, a sudden draft will cause the flame to flicker, but with the cessation of the draft the flame regains its normal characteristics.

3. Open systems display equifinality; that is, identical results can be obtained from different initial conditions.

4. Open systems maintain their steady states, in part, through the dynamic interplay of subsystems operating as functional processes. This means that the various parts of the system function without persistent conflict that can be neither resolved nor regulated.

5. Open systems maintain their steady states, in part, through feedback processes. In general, feedback refers to that portion of the output which is fed back to the input and affects succeeding outputs (29, 1970, p. 52-53).

In summary, it was observed that an organization functioning with such an approach "responds to inputs of energy and stimuli from its environment and it affects its environment with its output." It was felt that "the use of systems theory can lead to a search for more precise delineation of the boundaries which mark the limits of the organization (29. 1970, p. 53)."

Such a theory was also useful in analyzing the factors that were responsible for influencing the behavior of the organization's participants. Getzels and Guba were two people who described an organization as a social system. Their models were widely used in educational administration. These were illustrated in Figures 1 and 2.

```
        ,>Institution ——————>Role————>Expectation ⟍
Social  ↗          ⇡            ⇡            ⇡          ⟍↘
System⟍           ⋮            ⋮            ⋮         Observed
       ↘>Individual———>Personality——> Need-          Behavior
                                       Disposition
```

Figure 1

```
       ↗Ethos————————> Mores——————>Values
      ⁄   ⇡              ⇡            ⇡
     ⁄  Institution——>Role————>Expectations⟍
    ⁄     ⇡              ⇡            ⇡        ⟍↘
Social——>Group————> Climate———>Intentions——>Observed
System    ⇡              ⇡            ⇡        Behavior
    ⟍  Individual——>Personality—>Need-Dispostion⁄↗
     ↘↘   ⇡              ⇡            ⇡
       Organism————> Constitution——>Potentialities
```
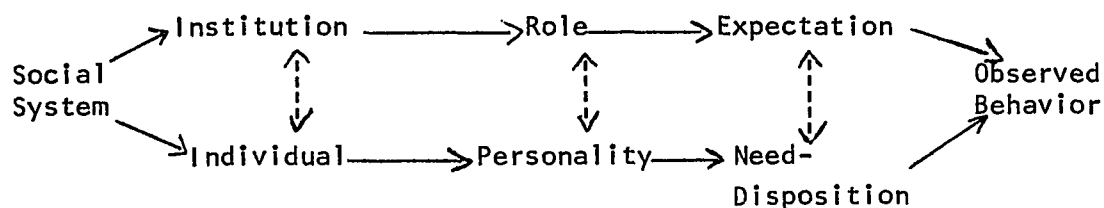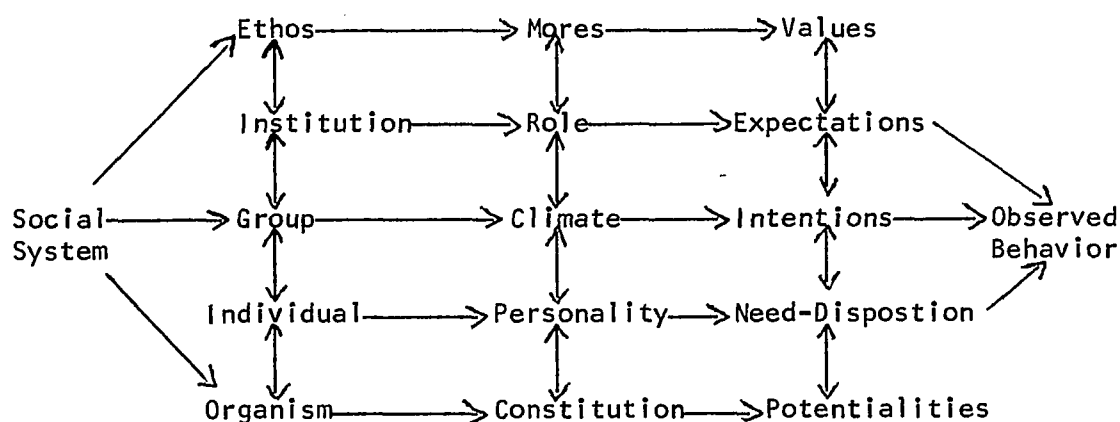
Figure 2

The models illustrated that there were behavioral aspects for each role in the organizational structure. In addition,

> every one in the social system (including the role incumbent) is an observer of others and thus has certain perceptions and expectations of those other roles. For example, no one in the system -- teacher, parent, superintendent, custodian, or other referent -- has the same expectations of the role of the principal as any other member of the system (29, 1970, p. 53).

The models also showed the integrative manner in which ideas of the cultural, institutional, group, and individual factors relate to one another. It was this process of integration and interaction that brought about change.

Consequently, the models helped us see that our organizations were not always in equilibrium, but that they were in constant "dynam-

ic disequilibrium" instead. The models presented an image in terms of

"what the complexity and conflict suggest about the modifications that

have to be made in the goals, expectations, needs and selective percep-

tions" of the participants (43, 1971, p. 24-25).

The systems theory was used to evaluate organizational perfor-

mance by dealing wiht the "operating relationships that must exist for

the organizations to function" rather than dealing solely with goals.

This made us aware of the necessity for giving serious concern to the

basic "social system needs of the organization as a prior condition for

effectiveness (29, 1970, p. 56)."

Philip Selznick gave five such needs for the social systems

model:

1. The security of the organization as a whole in rela-
   tion to social forces in its environment.
2. The stability of the lines of authority and communi-
   cation.
3. The stability of informal relations within the or-
   ganization.
4. The continuity of policy and the sources of its
   determination.
5. A homogeneity of outlook with respect to the mean-
   ing and role of the organization (29, 1970, p. 56).

Owens stated that the "new administration is very much involved in

the behavior of people in organizational settings" and that whatever was

new in the new administration was best viewed as a combination of the

classical concepts of those who emphasized structure of organizations

and the human relations concepts which had received strong emphasis in

the 1940's (29, 1970, p. 11-12).

In this phase of administrative beliefs, there were no recipes

for "how to succeed in administration." Instead

it gives promise of equipping administrators to understand their
organizational environment in greater depth than previously.

If their promise is kept, the new administration would appear
to be better adapted to a world which is changing with bewilder-
ing speed, so fast, in fact, that we cannot reasonably forecast
the problems and the circumstances that students now beginning
their study of educational administration will face at the
height of their careers (29, 1970, p. 12).

Proponents of this view of administration subscribed to four

beliefs as presented by Owens:

1. Administration is comprised of specialized knowledge,
   skills, and understandings which are different from
   the activities being administered. This indicates an
   awareness that has been long in coming -- that educa-
   tional administration shares numerous commonalities
   with other types of administration: business, medical,
   public, etc.

2. The practice of administration, in the 'new' sense, is
   based on a realistic view of organizations as they
   actually exist. Here, the administrator must become
   sensitized to the realities of his organizational en-
   vironment by exploring the concepts and principles of
   a number of theories.

3. The scientific foundations of the 'new administration'
   are in the behavioral sciences. It is suggested that
   'in an effort to understand the true nature of the
   problems of adminstering educational organizations,
   the insights of disciplines such as psychology, sociolo-
   gy, anthropology, and political science' be explored.

4. Change is inevitable in educational administration, and
   innovation is urgently needed. Here, school adminis-
   trators are urged to seek fresh new horizons by becom-
   ing more adaptable and skillful in understanding the
   nature of change (29, 1970, p. 12-13).

Ownes went on to say that "educational administration was affect-

ed very little by the evolution of administration as a field of study un-

til the middle of this century . . . ."

Van Miller concurred by stating that

A lot of the study of administration has been a matter of look-
ing backward or sideways at what was done or what is being done.
It is striking to contemplate how much administrative experience
has been exchanged and how little has been studied scientifically.
The current excitement arises from the fact that within recent

years educational administration has become a field of study
and of development as well as a vocation (41, 1965, p. 544-45).

This "current excitement" mentioned above caused Owens to observe
that "the year 1950 may well be the turning point in the development of
educational administration in our time (29,1970, p. 16)."

Owens offered several relevant comments that summarized the pro-
gress and goals of current administrative theory:

> The goal of present administrative theory is the development
> of conceptual frameworks through which we may systemize and
> integrate our knowledge of the various types of administration.

> The reader willfind that to a surprising extent Barnard an-
> ticipated many of the currently accepted theories and that
> much of what is presently known or theorized about adminis-
> tration has been contributed by workers in many fields, es-
> pecially the behavioral sciences. Progress has depended
> upon a constant dialogue involving researchers, theorists,
> and practitioners as they continue to raise questions, seek
> answers, and test theories (29, 1970, p. 15).

The nine characteristics of modern theory were stated as follows:

First, the viewpoint of an organizational system. Modern theory
viewed it as a system comprised of four elements: input, output, feed-
back, and environment.

Second, modern theory also placed emphasis on the "dynamic pro-
cess of interaction that occurred within the structure of an organization."
This was in direct contrast with the static structure of the classical
period. The appropriate amount of structure remained a necessity, but
did not serve as a condition for successful interaction. Thus, as
Hicks and Gullett stated, "modern theory does not replace structure; it
simply adds an emphasis on the process of interaction that occurs within
the structure (19, 1975, p. 213-214)."

Third, modern theory sought to understand the large system and
its component parts -- the micro and macro so to speak. It sought "an

integrated wholeness of organization at every level" and because of this had an advantage over classical theory "which implicitly assumed identity of objectives (19, 1975, p. 216)."

A fourth characteristic of modern,theory lay in the fact that an act could be motivated by more than one desire. "Organizations are assumed to exist because their participants expect to satisfy some objectives through them." This aspect of modern theory coincided with the neo-classical era and was in contrast with the classical.

Fifth, as opposed to classical theory's certainty and unconditional feeling that organizational performance could be improved if management principles were followed, modern theory recognized all the variables at play. It was therefore said that modern theory was probabilistic because it issued few predictive statements without using such phrases as "may be," and "usually."

Sixth, modern theory was multidisciplinary in that it drew concepts and techniques from such fields as economics, ecology, etc. There was an attempt to "provide an integrative synthesis of the pertinent parts of all fields in developing a general theory of organizations and management."

Seventh, modern theory was descriptive in that it sought to describe the characteristics of management and organization. Some earlier theories were prescriptive and suggested what should, must, or ought to be. In contrast, "modern theorists strive to understand organizational phenomena and leave the choice of objectives and methods to the individual."

Eighth, "modern theory tends to assume an event is caused by numerous factors that are themselves interrelated and interdependent;

this contrasts with the tendency of older theories to assume simple, single-factor causation."

Lastly, modern theorists believed that "if the organization is to remain viable . . . in its environment, it must continually adapt to the changing requirements of the environment." In short, modern theory viewed the organization as adaptive (19, 1975, p. 213-17).

Thus, modern theory was considered to be a "general theory of organization and management, integrating classical and neo-classical with contemporary concepts. This is done by viewing an organization as a dynamic process that occurs within and, in general, is controlled by a structure (19, 1975, p. 220)."

Contingency Theories

Hicks and Gullett revealed that the current "move toward a more open systems approach is producing a swing towards contingency or situational designs in the 1970's." They stated that this was the design emphasis of the future because it escaped narrow perspectives that had restricted earlier approaches. It still had a strong humanistic leaning, but it was a more complete way of looking at organizations as it "inclines all situational factors including the technology and economic environment (19, 1975, p. 425)."

Hughes and Flowers described the contingency model in the following way:

> Contingency management, for example, means that job enrichment should be applied with the realization that some employees do not want their jobs enriched. Some prefer easier and more routine work. Some are troubled by challenge. Others prefer a friendly situation and are not much concerned about job content. Each person and situation is different. Many organizations have policies and procedures that reflect a single value system based on the belief that all employees want the

same work environment and fringe benefits consequently, these
firms are not able to adjust situationally to different condi-
tions (21, 1973, p. 16).

Figure 3 below illustrated the development of the contingency

approach.
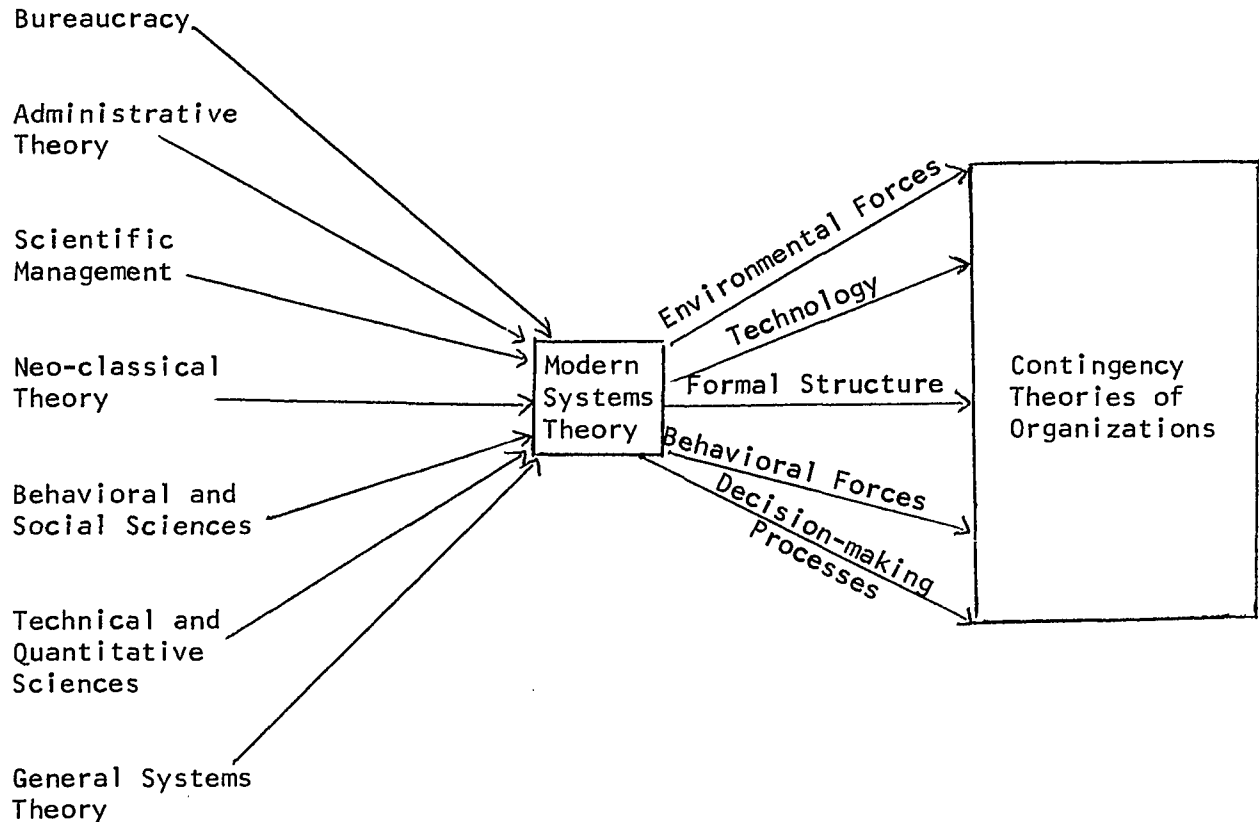
Figure 3

Development of Theories of Organizations and Management

Woodward was an early contributor to the contingency design as a
result of her study of one hundred English firms in 1965. She found that
the "effective form of organization varied according to the firm's tech-
nology. Mass production was more successful with classical design,
whereas unit and process production were more successful when they used

humanistic designs (19, 1975, p. 425)."

Fiedler was credited with providing the name of the contingency approach as he studied leadership. He found that

> an effective leadership pattern is dependent on the inter-
> action of a number of variables, including task structure and
> leadership position power. Gnerally, a more classical approach
> is effective when conditions are substantially more favorable
> or unfavorable for the leader, but a more behavioral approach
> is better in the intermediate zone of favorability. The inter-
> mediate conditions are the ones that are most common in organ-
> izations (19, 1975, p. 425-26).

One drawback to Fiedler's model was that it implied that there were only two basic styles of leadership -- task oriented and relation-ship oriented. Because of this limitation, Hersey and Blanchard follow-ed with a model that depicted four basic leadership types that were re-lated to task behavior and relationship behavior as an individual's style of leadership involves a combination of these behaviors.

This realization was succeeded by William J. Redden who found that an effectivenss strand should be considered since leader effective-ness depended "on how their leadership style interrelates with the situa-tion in which they operated (18, 1977, p. 104)."

It was found that "in certain stable environments, the classical forms tend to be more effective. In changing environments the opposite is true. More humanistic forms are required to permit organizations to respond effectively to their unstable environment." This finding popu-larized the contingency approach (19, 1975, p. 426).

Bureaucracies

In an attempt to determine whether or not bureaucracies required a different type of leader from those described in the theories presented

in the previous pages, it was necessary to review the characteristics, flaws, and benefits of a bureaucracy.

Our study was prefaced by the statement that "we live in an organized world and the world is full of organizations (33, 1979, p. 41)." We considered the fact that we begin our lives in a hospital -- a large medical organization, and graduate to other large organizations such as schools and eventually to business and government. We also realized that some of these organizations were as large as small towns and even nations (5, 1974, p. 1).

Organizations based on bureaucracy were in existence for thousands of years as evidenced by the reference in the Old Testament about leaders of tens and leaders of hundreds. Hicks and Gullett recognized the leaders of the Egyptian, Chinese, and Roman Empires. Because organizations were a part of our lives and history, it was impossible to envision

> human organizations without structure, without stability, and
> without order. Chaos prevails. To overcome what otherwise
> would be utter confusion - to give his organization (and thus
> also in large measure himself) structure, stability, and
> order - man has created bureaucracy (19, 1975, p. 127).

Bureaucracies were found in many of our organizations -- political, religious, economic, military, and educational to name a few.

The actual study of them did not begin until just recently, however. Hicks and Gullett suggested the formation and study of bureaucracy sprang from our intricate modern civilization. They explained that a single man in charge of an ancient army was able to solely extend his authority completely and / directly to each man under him "because the entire battlefield was within range of a man's voice and vision and because tactics were for the most part executed by the entire army in

unison (36, 1944, p. 19-20).

This picture painted a vivid contrast to our modern warfare operations "where thousands of highly technical specialists often combine air, naval, and land and space forces through highly complex command and supply hierarchies (19, 1975, p. 127)."

Characteristics

The characteristics of the bureaucracy as they related to administrative leadership were revealed through the question, "What are the implications of bureaucracy upon administrative leadership?"

Hierarchy

1. In a bureaucracy, the broad objectives of an organization are broken down into sub-objectives.
2. Tasks to accomplish these objectives are likewise broken down according to specialization to the smallest possible unit.
3. Similarly, power and authority are delegated downward.
4. All officials and their subordinates are accountable to their highest official "at the top of the pyramidal hierarchy."
5. Each position has complete jurisdiction over an area.
6. The entire organization functions according to an "unbroken, ordered, and clearly defined hierarchy."
7. Each position's area of authority "is totally defined and mutually exclusive (19, 1975, p. 129).

Professional Aspects of Employment

1. There is free selection of specialists based upon technical qualifications.
2. Skills are acquired via training and experience.
3. An official takes an "impersonal, formalistic orientation in dealing with others in the execution of his formal duties."
4. An individual is subject to authority and control.
5. The worker must "live within the broader regulations of the organization and must not damage the organization in his contacts with society."

6. Pay is by "fixed salary and is determined by the de-
mands of the job, not by the person's abilities (19,
1975, p. 130).

Career Aspects

1. "The work is a career with tenure and pension rights."
2. Advancements are based on seniority and accomplishments
as determined by judgment of superiors.
3. "Dismissal is only for objective cause (19, 1975, p. 130)."

Rules, Regulations, and Procedures

1. "Behavior is subject to systematic discipline and con-
trol."
2. Decisions are based on "a consistent system of abstract
rules, regulations, and procedures."
3. Objective rationality and impersonality and routiniza-
tion are strived for.
4. Files and records are kept.
5. "The use of coercion and power is strictly limited
based on organizational regulations (19, 1975, p. 131)."

Legal Authority and Power

1. "Authority and power rest in the institution or office."
2. The power does not personally belong to an office holder;
instead, it belongs to the office.
3. "Because the office holder has been selected on his
technical ability, he wields his influence because of
his expertise. The highest official is an exception;
he may hold power through elections, appropriation,
or succession (19, 1975, p. 131)."

Typically, an organization used some, but not all, of these ele-
ments. It was said that an organization was only partly bureaucratic;
the degree of bureaucracy was dependent upon the extent to which it con-
tained the components listed above.

The functions of bureaucracy were also explored by Hicks and
Gullett. Thus,

Functions

Specialization. It was said that bureaucracy was a "means of coping with complexity, which it converts into relative simplicity with each position." Bureaucracy allowed a person an opportunity to specialize in an area where he was most competent.

Structure. This function provided for logical relationships among activities. It also allowed "for the limitations of an individual in that it limits the scope of one's work to the span of his competence (19, 1975, p. 136).

Predictability and Stability. These functions came about via rules, regulations, and structure. Bureaucracy provided certainty -- an element that is strongly preferred over uncertainty by employees and students.

Rationality. Bureaucracies brought rationality to an organization whereby "judgments are made according to objective and generally agreed-upon criteria -- not by caprice, whim, or patronage." The authors went on to say that

> the uniqueness of a rational organization is that in it the consideration is simply who can do the work best, judged upon impersonal (rational) grounds. It makes no difference in a rational organization what friendships, extra-vocational personal qualities, or kinships a person may have (19, 1975, p. 137).

Technical Competence. It was felt that

> bureaucracy contributes to democracy by its emphasis on technical competence as the sole basis for gaining and holding a job. Patronage, favoritism, tradition, and other arbitrary bases have no effect; one's ability counts for everything. Because the opportunity to train, apply, and be selected for

a job is open to every citizen, a significant degree of
democracy is achieved (19, 1975, p. 138).

A variety of theories illustrated the "growing belief that ef-

fectiveness in bureaucracy should be evaluated on human as well as

economic criteria. Social satisfaction and personal growth of employees

must be considered, as well as the productivity and profit of the organ-

ization (3, 1966, p. 9)."

This point was best demonstrated by Max Weber himself when he

began finding flaws in the system that he practically immortalized.

Even though he considered bureaucracy inescapable, he also felt that it

would "strangle the spirit of capitalism or the enterprenuerial attitude

(3, 1966, p. 6)." The quote below illustrated this point:

> It is horrible to think that the wourld could one day be
> filled with nothing but those little cogs, little men cling-
> ing to little jobs and striving towards bigger ones - a
> state of affairs which is to be seen once more, as in the
> Egyptian records, playing an ever-increasing part in the
> spirit of our present administrative system, and especially
> of its offsprings, the students. This passion for bureau-
> cracy . . . is enough to drive one to despair. It is as if
> in politics . . . we were deliberately to become men who need
> order and nothing but order, who become nervous and cowardly
> if for one moment this order wavers, and helpless if they are
> torn away from their total incorporation in it. That the
> world should know no men but these; it is such an evolution
> that we are already caught up in it, and the great question
> is therefore not how we can promote and hasten it, but what can
> we oppose to this machinery in order to keep a portion of
> mankind free from this parcelling out of the soul from this
> supreme mastery of the bureaucractic way of life (3, 1966, p. 6-7).

Flaws

Actually detecting the flaws in the bureaucratic model was quite

simple as we all experienced them first hand. Bennis listed several ex-

amples:

1. Bosses without technical competence and underlings
   with it.
2. Arbitrary and zany rules.
3. An underworld (or informal) organization that sub-
   verts or even replaces the formal apparatus.
4. Confusion and conflict among roles.
5. Cruel treatment of subordinates, based not upon ra-
   tional grounds, but upon inhumane grounds (3, 1966, p. 5).

He stated that most people, either periodically or constantly,

tolerate bureaucracy with a chip on their shoulders because of "its

theoretical confusion and contradictions," and because of its inefficiency

and sometime unethical practices. The following list identified several

additional criticisms about the bureaucratic model:

1. Bureaucracy does not adequately allow for personal
   growth and the development of mature personalities.
2. It develops conformity and group think.
3. It does not take into consideration the "informal
   organization" and the emergent and unanticipated problems.
4. Its systems of control and authority are hopelessly
   outdated.
5. It had no adequate judicial process.
6. It does not possess adequate means for resolving
   differences and conflicts among ranks and, most
   particularly, among functional groups.
7. Communication (and innovative ideas) are thwarted
   or distorted because of hierarchial divisions.
8. The full human resources of bureaucracy are not
   being utilized because of mistrust, fear of repri-
   sals, etc.
9. It cannot assimilate the influx of new technology
   or scientists entering the organization.
10. It will modify the personality structure such that
    man will become and reflect the dull, gray, condi-
    tioned "organization man (3, 1966, p. 5-6)."

In conjunction with this Owens remarked that bureaucracies "have

not universally achieved high levels of efficiency." Although it was

said that ideal bureaucratic organizations do exist, structuring these

ideal situations in practice may be difficult mainly because bureaucrats

had a tendency to make the rules more important than the problems they

were designed to solve -- consequently allowing red tape to dominate.

Owens remarked that "specialization can reach the point where we encounter ritualistic behavior, which leads to the old run-around (29, 1970, p. 59)."

Hicks and Gullett, even though concerned with the number of unintended or unanticipated consequences (or dysfunctions) associated with bureaucracy, felt that the functions of bureaucracies were often gained only at the price of a number of dysfunctions as they were inherent in the bureaucratic model (19, 1975, p. 143).

Argyris stated that:

> formal organizations may have built into their design the seeds for many non-productive, dysfunctional, energy-consuming activities at all levels which tend to result in organizational rigidity, organizational defensiveness, and intergroup conflict, as well as less effective decision-making processes . . . . In short, organizations have a built-in tendency toward ineffectiveness or disorganization (1, 1968, p. 314).

In this same vein, Thomson characterized bureaucratic dysfunctions as bureaupathologies -- a disease of bureaucracy (38, 1961, p. 152).

This researcher found the list of flaws or dysfunctions to be endless. The ones considered the most important were selected for review.

Rigidity. Critics of bureaucracy stated that this type of organization was "non-adaptive and thus in conflict with the basic adaptability laws of nature." Because of this, an executive, for example, hid behind a strict interpretation of a regulation and as a result, avoided responsibility. Such an organization, when faced with innovation, failed to see that it could help the organization evolve and adapt. It also failed to see that adherence to rules eventually led to its own obsolesence (19, 1975, p. 145).

Impersonality. It was felt that in a bureaucracy "persons tend to be seen as inert . . . and not as developing, emotional, unique humans;" that the human being is seen as a means rather than an end; and that relationships are secondary. Here a worker "is expected to perform roles in his mediated relationships with offices of the bureaucracy." The end result can be a production of "change in personality, standard operating procedures, and the like (19, 1975, p. 145)."

Displacement of Objectives. This was a term used to refer to the bureaucrat's tendency to overlook the organization's goals because he was concentrating on the objectives of his subunit rather than the over-all objectives of the organization. Hicks and Gullett remarked that

> the organizationally rational purpose of a sub-system (for example, rules, routines, and procedures) is to contribute to higher-level objectives. Units or persons fail in their organizational purpose if they work for personal objectives or objectives of their sub-units without adequate relationships to overall objectives (19, 1975, p. 146).

Debureaucratization. This dysfunction was the reverse of displacement of objectives. Here, "the goals and activities of the bureaucracy are subverted in favor of the goals and interests of outside groups." In extreme situations, these functions may even be taken over by outside groups (19, 1975, p. 61)."

Limitations of Categorization. Compartmentalization of activities as well as persons were needed if a bureaucracy was to meet its requirements of coordination and specialization. Bureaucrats fail to recognize the fact that "an adaptive world can never be completely or finally categorized." Instead a person was confined only to his assign-

ed department and even if he had expertise in a related department, his input was not sought nor utilized in the event that it was expressed (19, 1975, p. 148).

Self-perpetuation and Empire Building. As Bendix stated, "once it is fully established, bureaucracy is among those social structures which are hardest to destroy," even though its usefulness is outlived (2, 1945, p. 205). He found that bureaucracies are all powerful and incapable of deciding how that power should be used.

Hicks and Gullett stated that the same power that a bureaucrat required to do his work in a professional environment could be used by him to perpetuate his job or department beyond its useful life (19, 1975, p. 148).

It was revealed that bureaucrats used their experience and knowledge to maintain or even increase their influence at the top by keeping their intentions undercover so as to confound their critics or cohorts. These mysterious tactics could make it seem that such a person with "intimate understanding" of the organization's operations would be difficult to replace. It was easy to see what little chance innovation had in such a conservative setting (19, 1975, p. 148).

Cost of Control. This was considered to be another dysfunction because of the expense of maintaining rules, regulations, and procedures that have little value in reaching an organization's goals. A great deal of time was given to "formalizing, implementing, interpreting, and enforcing bureaucratic procedures" that often times it could be considered excessive (19, 1975, p. 149).

While such control procedures could contribute to organizational

productivity, in many organizations these procedures had a tendency to grow into monsters. Merton suggested a balance:

> . . . documentary records are to a certain point indispen-
> sable to large scale organizations, but when these are so
> valued for their own sake as to be needlessly multiplied
> and elaborated they get in the way of discharging the func-
> tions of bureaucracy (26, 1952, p. 396).

Anxiety. This was the end result of the pressure to conform and improve status. Robert Michaels in his book Political Parties stated that

> bureaucracy is the sworn enemy of individual libery . . . .
> The bureaucratic spirit corrupts character and engenders
> moral poverty. In every bureaucracy we may observe place
> hunting, a mania for promotion, and obsequiousness toward
> those upon whom promotion depends; there is arrogance
> towards inferiors and servility towards superiors (27, 1953,
> p. 176).

Thomson remarked that a state of anxiety resulted when someone in the hierarchy did not perform according to standards.

> Although a particular person may have great maturity
> and general psychological security, an insecure superior
> at any point in the hierarchy above him can, and probably
> will, generate pressures which must inevitably be passed
> down the line, creating insecurity and tension all the way
> to the bottom (38, 1961, p. 157).

Consequently, it was not surprising that subordinates were interested in their superiors at every level. Unfortunately, a common reflex action used by a bureaucrat when he feels threatened or anxious "is to further insulate himself by additional structure of rules and procedures and by increasingly strict conformity -- sometimes to the point of absurdity (19, 1975, p. 150)."

Were bureaucracies worthwhile? Hicks and Gullett remarked that the answer was yes if "one puts value on reducing nepotism, graft, favoritism, and corruption." They went on to say that "bureaucracy is

the best system that has been devised to deal with the enormous complex-

ity of society or even of a fairly large organization (19, 1975, p. 150)."

Walter R. Sharp offered the following quote to substantiate the

need for bureaucracies:

> Every large organization . . . sooner or later finds it
> advisable to set up routine procedures in the interest of
> fiscal regularity and operational consistency. Private
> business corporations are not more immune to this process
> than are government departments. Nor do routine procedures
> necessarily slow up . . . decisions. On the contrary, if
> they are properly adapted to the daily problems of the en-
> terprise, they expedite the action (35, 1931, p. 446).

Hicks and Gullett remarked that a large collection of managers

and subordinates were essential if goals were to be met and if the or-

ganization was to exist at all. This point was illustrated by Simon:

> It is clear that the actual physical task of carrying out
> an organization's objectives falls to the persons at the
> lowest level of administrative hierarchy. The automobile, as
> a physical object, is built not by the engineer or the ex-
> ecutive, but by the mechanic on the assembly line. The fire
> is extinguished, not by the fire chief or the captain, but
> by the team of firemen who play a hose on the blaze. It is
> equally clear that the persons above this lowest or operative
> level in the administrative hierarchy . . . have an essen-
> tial role to play in the accomplishment of . . . objectives.
> Even though, as far as physical cause and effect are con-
> cerned, it is the machine gunner, not the major who fights
> the battles, the major will likely have /a greater influ-
> ence upon the outcome of the battle than will any single
> machine gunner (36, 1944, p. 16).

Hicks and Gullett predicted that bureaucracies would be used for

the foreseeable future and that a better understanding of their functions

and flaws led to improved practice.

Owens remarked that bureaucracy "is essential to our increasing-

ly urban and complex way of life, and that we must have faith that its

serious abberations can be eliminated, or at least acceptably control-

led (29, 1970, p. 61)."

He found that he did not feel that bureaucracy would be the fi-
nal step in organizational development and that it was an important
phase in the formation of administrative systems. In addition, Owens
felt that "as organizational needs change and as our organizational so-
phistication grows, bureaucracy, as we now think of it, may well prove
to be neither inevitable nor eternal . . . ." He mentioned that it was
inevitable that change will come, that it will be significant, "and
that those organizations which can adequately adapt will be judged the
most satisfactory (29, 1970, p. 61-2)."

We thus would work to minimize our frustrations by learning
"how to live successfully with our bureaucracies, to learn how to adapt
to them , to accept the price they extract (even in human and personali-
ty terms) for services rendered, and to make the most of them (29, 1970,
p. 59)."

Kramer concluded that "bureaucracy which has served us so well
in the past, both as an 'ideal type' and as a practical form of human
organization, will not survive as the dominant form of human organiza-
tion in the future." He stated that "social organizations behave like
other organisms: they transform themselves through selective adaptation,
and new shapes, patterns, models -- currently recessive -- are emerging
which promise basic changes." He said that this is because the methods
and processes utilized by bureaucracies today are "hopelessly out of
joint with contemporary realities" and predicted, as did Bennis, that
"with the next 25 to 50 years we will all witness and participate in the
end of bureaucracies (23, 1973, p. 162)."

Cohen stated that "in our modern day society we cannot complete-
ly do away with bureaucracies despite their shortcomings, as one last,

drastic solution to its ills" as such a mammoth bureaucracy is needed to
guide the functions of major organizations (8, 1965, p. 230).

In addition, he stated that even though we need bureaucracies,
we do not have to put up with defects without complaining. However,
we have an obligation to study their pathologies and help them to get
back to good health (8, 1965, p. 10).

Hicks and Gullett expressed similar concerns and stated that

> it appears that many of the dysfunctions could be reduced by
> measures such as constant emphasis on organizational objec-
> tives, by building creativity into the organization (for ex-
> ample research and development departments), and getting
> away from the 'once justified, always justified' trap.

They also suggested that bureaucrats be "required continually to
justify their own and their departments' activities in terms of the out-
put of and merely the needs of their systems (19, 1975, p. 151)."

In addition, they recommended that bureaucrats constantly remem-
ber "that the persons who hold positions . . . retain their individual
needs, prejudices, and emotions (19, 1975, p. 151)."

It was also suggested that managers took the time to see that
the orders benefit all concerned in some way. Many of the bureaucratic
dysfunctions could be eliminated if the needs and characteristics of all
organizational participants were constantly considered when decisions
were made.

Cohen considered how bureaucracies could be improved and offered
three proposals. One pertained to the rigidity dysfunction. He suggest-
ed that dynamism rather than inflexibility be the solution. The second
proposal was altruism and loyalty. He suggested that there be a "sensi-
tivity to the actions of the participants in a bureaucracy. A halt to

this sensitivity only leads to dysfunctional rigidity (8, 1965, p. 235)."

This meant loyalty to the goals of the organization must be achieved as

well as "autonomy and altruism on the part of all participants in order

to avoid strains for dysfunctional modifications."

The third proposal was concerned with the role of checks and

balances. Such a recommendation would "maintain checks and balances of

internal and external sources against misuse of power and deviations

(8, 1965, p. 238)."

Cohen was aware that these proposals were ivory tower in nature

and that he "cannot vouch for the human behavior necessary to carry out

these proposals." If these suggestions were to be realized, they had to

be implemented simultaneously and maintained over a considerable period

of time.

Goldman remarked that the "key to success is the ability to

function constructively and positively in an increasingly complex system

with intricate sets of conditions and variables." He listed five areas

in which emergent leaders were required to have skills. They were:

policy planning, interfacing with the external environment, accommodating

authority and power, relating to human concerns, and inventing the fu-

ture. Each was described briefly.

Leadership Skills

Policy Planning. This was a process that contrasts with the

typical decision-making efforts. Unfortunately, decisions were usually

randomly made by numerous isolated departments. Policy planning was an

attempt to seek opinions from each of the diverse groups affected by the

decision. Goldman defined it as "a process for examining the means and

ends of education, positing an array of alternatives and then deciding

upon a course of action (13, 1977, p. 75)."

He said that in order to guide education's future in a sequential

and logical fashion, tomorrow's

> leader must have skills in working with diverse groups of people
> toward achieving a reasoned, rational decision-making process
> that will guide future courses of action. He must be able to
> understand and translate complex variables of causation and
> association as they explain past events and important present
> social trends. He must have a futures mind-set that provides
> the perspective by which he can discern and identify alterna-
> tive futures. Also, he must be able to assist others in con-
> necting the past, present, and emerging futures as continuities
> which are important in policy formation (13, 1977, p. 75).

Interdependency. Goldman urged leaders of tomorrow "to take into

account the interdependency among the schools, their external environ-

ments, and the impact each has upon the other." Educational leaders

realized that "numerous internal policies and decisions are made in con-

sideration of the political, legal and social factors that are present

in the external environment." In summary, these leaders had to be aware

of "the importance of the interface between the internal environment of

the school and the external environment of the broader society (13, 1977,

p. 75-6)."

Open Communication. Goldman asked us as educational leaders to

consider why people have lost faith in their institutions. He felt that

confidence could only be restored by leaders who are able to bring di-

verse groups together to work collaboratively in an environment of mu-

tual respect and shared decision-making." The leader had to foster

open communications among all organizational participants (13, 1977, p. 76).

Sensitivity and Flexibility. Goldman expressed the feeling that since "the process of organizational control will shift away from administrative authority towards negotiation and mediation between the needs of the individual and the demands of the organization," the leader had to become a skillful diagnostician. In addition, he had to be sensitive and flexible "so that he may vary his own behavior to accommodate a broad range of needs expressed by a diverse group of people." In short, the leader had to be able to maximize the satisfaction of both the human concerns and organizational demands (13, 1977, p. 76-7).

Invent the Future. Lastly, the leader had to be willing "to search for new ideas, to explore and try to give them form . . . ." In a sense he had to be able to invent the future (13, 1977, p. 77).

As Hopkins stated, it was important to realize the need for inventing the "future we might be able to achieve if we think creatively and act in a foresighted manner . . . . It won't automatically happen -- we have to invent it and then strive to produce it (20, 1973, p. 255)."

Rubin urged the leader to give high priority to the organization's objectives which were hopefully "collectively determined." Since individually set goals would not aid an organization in its fulfillment of its goals, the goals had to be group determined. "A school will become a synergy when its leadership ensures that every teacher of the schools both understands and perpetuates the objectives of the school, and that the aggregate teaching efforts are coordinated in some systematic pattern (30, 1970, p. 57)."

Rubin saw the responsibility of the principal revolve around four main functions:

1. managing the routine operations of the school.
2. judging the worth of the school's objectives and the
    usefullness of the procedures used to accomplish them.
3. instituting new principles which result in better ed-
    cation for students.
4. welding the professional talents of the staff into a
    cohesive force (30, 1970, p. 58).

He stated that top priority had to be given towards mediating a

balance between the teacher's individuality and the organization's ob-

jectives. He went on to state:

> If he wanted to be a leader, the principal could not
> serve as a friendly concort of teachers, functioning as a
> buffer between the faculty and the superintendent's office.
> Leaders, afterall, are not managers, much less mediators;
> leaders are individuals who take an enterprise beyond its
> exiting limitations. But leadership of this sort must be
> inventive and flexible (30, 1970, p. 59-60).

He also remarked that there were four crucial factors that af-

fected the behavior of the teachers:

1. He must take into account the political elements of the
    situations which limit his influence.
2. He must consider the individuals with who he will work
    and select influence tactics which are opposite.
3. He must acquire a clear understanding of his own
    mission.
4. He must select a method of action from his repertoire
    of leadership maneuvers that fits the particular
    situation (30, 1970, p. 60).

He felt that the "principal's task, and his greatest challenge

was to oversee the improvement of the school" as he cannot be satisfied

with supervising the present organization in a constantly changing

society (30, 1970, p. 70). He remarked:

> If leadership is taken to mean the act of leading the
> school to higher levels of performance, logic suggests that
> school principals ought to give their primary attention to
> four tasks: (1) identifying weaknesses in the organization,
> (2) analyzing their cause, (3) planning corrective procedures,
> and (4) initiating and sustaining the corrective procedure until
> the desired improvement is accomplished (30, 1970, p. 63).

Lastly, he urged us to think about the following:

1. The able leader will be adept at exploiting the
   human talents at his disposal.
2. The able leader will know that more teacher control
   of instruction is not only inevitable, but desirable
   and will use this autonomy as intelligently as possible.
3. The able leader will know that he will never be free
   of external pressures.'
4. The able leader will know himself and strive to develop
   the internal strength as well as the external skill
   for doing what his logical intelligence dictates.
5. The able leader will constantly appraise his organi-
   zation and its level of achievement and work for
   constant renewal. He must nurture a lasting obses-
   sion for finding the better way (30, 1970, p. 63-66).

Rubin remarked further on in his book that "not only are these

old difficulties still with us, but our own time has given rise to a new

set of problems which did not exist a generation ago. In a sense, these

newer complications are the result of excesses, of the need to cope with

too much (30, 1970, p. 103)."

He stated that "great leadership, therefore, is more likely to

come from a creative effort to resolve problems than from an unquestion-

ing observance of the folklore of administration (30, 1970, p. 109)."

The following paragraph summarized Rubin's concern for the future

of educational administration.

> The future role of the principal will not be charted by a
> science of administration or of teaching or of learning. Nor,
> one suspects, will it be charted in any major way by the hor-
> tatory literature in the journals, urging this or that demarche
> upon the harried educator. It is more likely that the role of
> the principal will be shaped by power relations between and
> among groups, by the values of society, by demography and even
> by foreign affairs. For these are the forces that have accel-
> erated the educational revolution of our century and which
> now control its future (30, 1970, p. 112).

Rubin felt that

The coming role of leadership will require a major commitment
of time to human engineering and to the clutivation of new

skills. The principal who makes it his first concern to
improve the quality of teaching in his school must himself
be a perceptive student of the social forces which affect
the school and of the theory and practice which order and
direct his function . . . . The central thrust of his
energy has been mandated, it is toward unsettling the set-
tled, challenging the accepted, and leading the way to-
ward an endless reappraisal of the techniques, materials --
and above all -- the art and science of teaching (30, 1970,
p. 112).

Cawelti in his article entitled "Which Leadership Style -- From

the Head or Heart?" urged principals to assume a more active and risk-

taking role. He was concerned that many educational leaders are re-

maining silent on current crucial issues. He also stated that principals

must assume responsibility for demonstrating "joint concern for people

and goals" while maintaining a "balance in modeling qualities of the

head and the heart (7, 1979, p. 378)."

The "new administrator" would use the best of the classical, neo-

classical, behavioral and systems approaches as there would be no one

way of viewing or striving for useful leadership.

He would have to be more aware of the important role other admin-

istrations will play in his own administering. Just because a useful

theory originated in the world of business, it could no longer be cast

aside nonchalantly as being irrelevant. He would also be paying more

attention to theories evolving from such behavioral disciplines as psy-

chology, anthropology, and social science.

The new administrator would also have to become adept at seeking

better ways of doing things. He could no longer wait for a superior to

initiate change. He had to be actively involved in each phase of the

school's operation so he could effectively integrate the various compo-

nents when he implemented change. He had to secure enough to give the

teachers more autonomy.

He had to be a thorough problem-solver -- one who knew when there was a problem because he was actively involved in all phases of the organization's operations, because he knew where to seek answers, and because he was familiar with various learning and leadership theories. In short, he had to be sensitive and open.

Sergiovanni made us aware of the fact that since all of the features of a school are interdependent, "a change in one variable results in changes in other variables." He commented that "bureaucratically oriented schools, while increasing in formalization, centralizations, and the like, display a low tolerance for innovativeness and change (33, 1979, p. 54)."

He then described the ideal professional type of school as one that was able to adapt without putting an unhealthy emphasis on production. It was also one that constantly sought "to accommodate the need for expression which professional workers require." In addition, it is complex and highly innovative (33, 1979, p. 54). He continued:

> Organizational structure is the central nervous system
> of the school, and when it is functioning properly, it per-
> mits the organization to perform a variety of related motions
> and activities -- often simultaneously. But like any ner-
> vous system, it has limits. Some motions and activities are
> modified or prohibited because they make excessive demands
> on the school's nervous system -- its organizational structure.
> Take the principles of individualized instruction and teacher
> autonomy, for example. The school can be and should be more
> responsive to, and flexible in, providing teachers with dis-
> cretion and autonomy. But we cannot individualize to the
> point at which a separate school would be created for each
> student or each teacher. To do so would, in a sense, des-
> troy the school as an organizaed institution (33, 1979, p. 55).

Gordon Cawelti stated that most theorists of the past twenty years felt that the "most appropriate style must demonstrate equal con-

cern for people and production (7, 1979, p. 374)."

A study by Michael Macoby found that corporate success was no
longer dependent upon conforming to company mores already in existence,
as described in Whyte's Organization Man. This realization led him to
identify four "species of managers" that function in today's respected
companies. These were the Craftsman who was concerned with perfection
of the product, proud of his quality of work, quiet, modest, and practi-
cal, and did not enjoy leading; the Jungle Fighter who sought power,
and did considerable politicking to get ahead; the Company Man who
was concerned with the human side of the corporation, who worked to main-
tain stability and integrity, and who adhered to policy; and lastly, the
Gamesman who was challenged by strong competition and winning over it,
who liked to take risks and motivate others, and was a team player for
the corporation. The contest hyped him up and he communicated his en-
thusiasm to others (25, 1979, p. 375)."

He found that Gamesmen were more likely to find their way to the
top but that he was not as inclined to take the risks or be as charismatic
as he was a decade ago. In short, the "conservative tempo of the times
has slowed down many educational gamesmen (25, 1979, p. 376)."

Gates, Blanchard, and Hersey concurred with Cawelti when they
stated that "successful leaders are those who can adapt their behavior
to meet the demands of their own unique environment (11, 1979, p. 348)."

Likewise, Sexton and Switzer remarked that there was no categori-
cally correct style. Instead, the modern educational leaders should
know what style is better in which situation and should be able to draw
from both poles at will (34, 1977, p. 24)."

Gordon L. Lippitt felt somewhat different because he contended

that different leaders were needed at different stages of organizational
life. He felt that categorizing a leader as a gamesman, craftsman, etc.,
was too limiting in examining the complex aspects of leadership.

Chapter III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Designation of the Research Method

The research method utilized throughout the study was the historical approach whereby an effort was made to examine current conditions and concerns by gaining a deeper understanding of what has already been done.

Data along the lines of the two sub-questions of the study were collected, collated, and interpreted in an attempt to discover new knowledge.

Sources of the Data

The sources used throughout this study were mostly secondary in nature. These sources were varied in their immediacy and proximity to the primary source. Some were news articles that expressed the thought of current authors. The more prevalent sources, however, were collections of articles and texts devoted to the description of leadership, administration, and bureaucracy.

Techniques Used to Gather and Analyze Data

As the data was being reviewed and collected, decisions were made about its possible inclusion on the basis of its consistency. If the information was consistent with a variety of authors, it was included in the study; if it proved to be inconsistent, it was excluded.

Care was taken to be objective in the identification, considera-
tion, and reporting of all relevant data whether it supported the par-
ticular orientation of this writer or not.

It was realized that if the formulated inferences were to be
considered credible, they had to be derived from a variety of compati-
ble sources (40, 1969, p. 384). However, an effort was made to avoid
formulating interpretations beyond the inferred limits of the collected
data. In addition, an effort was made to evaluate conflicting pieces
of research before making a final decision about its inclusion.

The gathered data was then categorized, classified, and sum-
marized through written narratives and then interpreted within the
framework of historical trends, changing philosophies, and current
leadership theories. Using a chronological approach, the literature
was then surveyed and depcited in an attempt to discern current trends.

Chapter IV

TREATMENT OF THE DATA

The data originally presented in Chapter II was tabulated in
this chapter. This tabulation followed the same sequence from classi-
cal to modern and considered how the leaders in each era would behave.
This treatment of the data helped to further answer the study's two
main questions.

Classical

An educational leader subscribing to Weber's philosophy would
be one who prescribed a procedure for dealing with each situation.
There was no hesitation in deciding how a problem was to be solved as
everything was "down on paper." He expected each person above and be-
low him to restrict themselves to the specifications of their particu-
lar job only; the teacher was not expected to perform a task that was
under the jurisdiction of the secretary, for example. He was not one
to be concerned about his popularity with his staff; instead, his re-
lations with them and his clients was very impersonal. Because of the
emphasis on impersonality, he promoted a teacher, for example, to the
position of department head on the basis of technical competence alone.
The promotion did not take place because he had a particular interest
in that teacher. He exerted control over every phase of the organiza-
tion's operations and was not too concerned about whether or not the
employee was satisfied with his job or supervisors. If a conflict

arose between an organizational leader and a subordinate, the decision was always rendered in favor of the organization. A leader who subscribed to the Weberian model paid particular attention to routine as a non-routinized method of operation was not tolerated.

The principal who functioned during Taylor's time or one who would adopt his school of thought today, would be a proponent of scientific management. Under this philosophy, an educational leader was concerned with time and motion -- how much could be accomplished or taught within a specific time frame. There would be a process of constant measurement to see how well or to what extent goals were being met. The human dimension was not a concern with this administrator because of the great emphasis on productivity.

Since cost was a prominent factor during this era, educational leaders had to be greatly concerned with increasing their enrollments as much as possible.

The school reflected the industrial culture because emphasis was placed on perceiving the worker as a production unit that resembled a machine in many respects. The principal worked to mold his teachers to the task so precisely that little thinking was required. Instead, they relied on their supervisor to do all the decision-making. Creativity was not encouraged, nor it seems, tolerated as it might interrupt the smooth operation of the organization.

The principal was termed an Efficiency Expert. And, as Cubberly mentioned, the children were also considered industrial units: "Our schools are, in a sense, factories in which the raw products (children) are to be shaped and fashioned into products to meet the various de-

mands of life."

One attempt to facilitate the process of fashioning students
into products was the platoon system developed by William Wirt. Here,
efficient use was made of time and space thus minimizing waste in man-
ufacture.

During this time period, the only expectation of a leader was
to devise and maintain a smooth running organization. In order to fa-
cilitate this expectation, the adminstrator developed routines for all
behaviors and policies. There was no consideration given to the needs
of the participants. The principal therefore did not need to consider.
ways to motivate his staff as money was thought to be the main source
of incentives. All he had to do was supervise for efficiency/non-effi-
ciency and to see that rules were consistently followed. He saw him-
self as a member of an inflexible hierarchy of command; therefore, he
did not ask any questions of his superiors and did not expect any from
his subordinates.

Neo-Classical

The focus on organizational efficiency of the classical era was
somewhat responsible for the phase of leader behavior that was to fol-
low. During the neo-classical period there was greater attention given
to the relationships within an organization or school. As a result, a
leader operating in this setting was called an Organizational Engineer.
Gulick found the leadership behavior of such an "engineer" to revolve
around "purpose, process, clientele, and place."

As stated by Hencley a leader was concerned about how leaders
used authority and used the tools of departmentalization and decentral-

ization to facilitate the flow of authority.

A school administrator who operated during the neo-classical
era had to be a master of all the elements functioning in a smooth-
running organization: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-
ordinating, reporting, and budgeting. He saw his role as one of uni-
fying all of these elements so as to streamline the facility's operation.
He had his finger in every pot so to speak. He examined his plant to
determine how people could be more accountable for their actions at each
level of hierarchy. By seeking input from an immediate supervisor, a
teacher had to be able to perform his/her tasks in a manner more accep-
table to the school's administrator and goals would be more likely to
be realized. This principal met frequently with his department heads
to perform the POSDCORB functions mentioned above. This technique
symbolized the desire for unity and control.

A principal who adopted the philosophy of Roethlesberger, Mayo,
and Barnard placed greater emphasis on worker satisfaction than those
operating in the classical era.

It was not long, however, before educators realized the educa-
tional process was more social than mechanical. The Organizational
Engineer was then replaced by the Social Engineer. The leaders of this
school of thought created the image of the leader as one who was not
only cognizant of human relations but who cultivated and even exploited
them for the benefit of the organiation. The principal who wished to be
termed a Social Engineer demonstrated that the social and psychological
aspects were extremely important in helping the organization meet its
goals.

With this awareness, he behaved in such a way that modeled a respect for others, an acceptance of individual differences, a sensitivity to the feelings of others, and an awareness that kindness is not synomous with weakness. He realized the teachers' needs for a feeling of personal worth and status. A skillful Social Engineer was careful not to carry the idea of a democratic administration too far, however. He realized that an organization needed authority as well as democracy.

The administrator was constantly checking the pulse of the staff to see if all was well with them personally. He tolerated all the different personalities on his staff. In addition, he worked to get to know the needs, strengths, and weaknesses of each teacher so he could groom those qualities in such a way that would create positive feedback for the teacher while simultaneously helping the organization meet its goals more effectively. He created positions and opportunities for the teachers to interact informally and most likely, would interact with them whenever appropriate. His office door was constantly open for easy interaction with all staff members. He probably selected new teachers on the basis of how he felt the candidate would fit in with the existing staff. If a teacher wanted to try a new approach, the principal was likely to approve it if it was well thought through. In fact, he would be inclined to help the teacher secure needed materials. He would expect his teachers to operate in a similar manner with their students. Lastly, he stressed the need for the teachers to function as a group rather than as individuals.

Such an administrator believed as Barnard did that since men could work elsewhere, he had to give attention towards creating a de-

sire within the worker to work for reasons other than salary. This was
in direct contrast to Taylor who believed that since people wanted to
work, little thought had to be given to providing incentives other than
money. Taylor thought the more the worker was paid, the more willing
he was to work.

Barnard realized that there were two different types of incen-
tives: objective and subjective. Objective incentives referred to such
things as money, prestige, physical conditions, patriotism, association-
al attractiveness, habitual methods, feelings of importance, and com-
mradship. Subjective incentives referred to fear of being fired, ra-
tionalization of opportunity, and inculcation of motives. In essence,
a leader of this era felt that all organizational administrators had to
utilize a combination of incentives, subjective as well as objective.

A person who emulated Likert's notion of leadership placed
great trust in the capabilities of the worker. He was delighted to see
that his teachers were actively involved in creating, organizing, and
implementing a plan of their own design. Here, a structured hierarchy
was not feasible as it did not permit the constant interaction needed
in a participative environment.

Modern

Another type of leader, as described by Moreno and Lewin, was
called the Clinician. This leadership type was concerned about facili-
tating healthy, interpersonal relationships among a staff. The clinician
used group dynamics as a vehicle for making an individual aware of how
others saw him. Such a technique helped reveal any dissatisfactions,
hostilities, and power struggles that prevailed among his staff. He

also used sensitivity training as a way to improve the relations among
his teachers.

Even though such techniques had obvious weaknesses, the impli-
cations for those in leadership positions will increase and as a result,
add new images to the leadership role.

A leader who utilized the systems approach considered the re-
lationships that existed within the organization before he considered
efficiency. He realized that people's perceptions of their jobs varied
according to the expectations held for them by others. For example,
one individual would find it difficult to work overtime because of the
expectations held for him by his family; whereas, another individual's
family would expect him to work extra hours.

There were times when he emphasized the institution over the
individual depending upon the desired outcome. Such a leader had to be
adaptive as must the organization.

Contingency

The leader who adopted the contingency approach was one who
realized an employee might not want his job enriched with increased co-
worker commraderie, or with incentives that led to a promotion. He re-
alized that each situation was different.

Bureaucracies

Perhaps the most obvious evidence of this synthesis lay in the
fact that an administrator had to be constantly aware that the school
was a complex organization with formal and informal aspects.

The leaders followed the bureaucratic (formal) model when it

came time to formulate the organizational structure by implementing a sharptly pyramidal design. Or they used the human (informal) model when seeking feedback from subordinates.

In any case, the extent to which a school implemented the bureaucratic model was dependent upon the administrator's ability to be responsive to both internal and external pressures. It was highly unlikely that a sharply pyramidal design would elicit favorable re- sults 100% of the time. The astute administrator had to be skillful in diagnosing pathological symptoms that, if detected and corrected in time, led to effective human behavior within the organization.

The formal aspects of a bureaucracy (the impersonal and unemo- tional aspects) proved to be insufficient in meeting the social (in- formal) needs of the participants. Money, it was found, was not a suf- ficient motivator. Instead, it was discovered that the internal opera- tion could be jeopardized if the participants' needs were not recogniz- ed and satisfied.

Chapter V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to discern the answers to the
following questions:

1. What are the implications of changing administrative
   philosophies and theoretical veins upon administra-
   tive leadership?

2. Does the literature suggest a separate type of lead-
   er for bureaucracies?

The first phase of the study included a chronological review
of administrative philosophies and theoretical veins ranging from the
classical era to the present day contingency theories. This was follow-
ed by an exploration of the characteristics, flaws, and benefits of
bureaucracies.

The initial part of the study could best be summarized by the
timeline shown below:

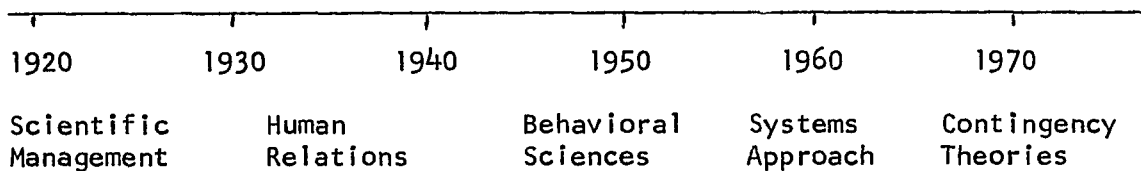| 1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1970
Scientific Management	Human Relations		Behavioral Sciences	Systems Approach	Contingency Theories

Figure 4

Classical

To summarize the timeline briefly, it became evident that the
theories were originally very regimented. Organizations operating dur-
ing the 1920's were considered to be static structures and they reigned

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supreme over the participants. To these administrators, the only road to efficiency and productivity was to surrender man's needs to the service of the cold, insensitive machine. Motivation was considered to be an uncomplicated concept. A leader of the classical time was considered to be a good one if he demonstrated authoritarian behaviors and implicitly adopted the objectives set forth by his superiors. He also possessed a certainty and unconditional attitude that the performance of the organization would be improved when, and only when, management principles were followed. The theories of this era were prescriptive and suggested what should, must, or ought to be.

Neo-classical

The classical period was followed by the neo-classical or human relations period where theoriests felt that a good leader was one who demonstrated the democratic rather than authoritarian behaviors. This was in direct contrast to the classicists mentioned above.: The new era also recognized the fact that formal organizations have informal structures that could not be ignored. Equally important was the fact that they realized that the output of the employees was determined more by their social capacity than their physical capacity. They also realized that there were other motivations in force besides money and that these motivations were often more important. The highlight of this era was the realization that there was a dynamic process of interaction in constant play with the organizational structure -- another point of direct contrast with the theories of the classical period. In short, they found that a highly specialized division of labor was not the most likely way of maximizing an organization's level of efficiency. Instead,

individual workers were found to react to the hierarchy, rules, and rewards of an organization not as individuals, but as members of a group.

Modern

The period of modern theory added even more emphasis to the interactive process that occurs within an organizational structure. These theorists assumed that an event was caused by numerous interrelated and interdependent factors. They viewed the organization as adaptive and recognized all the variables at play. To these theorists, the choice of objectives and methods for achieving them were left to the individual leader. If the environment was stable, a classical form of leadership would be more effective; if the environment was perceived to be unstable, a more humanistic form of leadership would be required. In short, modern theiry integrated the classical and neo-classical periods with contemporary concepts.

Bureaucracies

It was evident that bureaucracies were increasing in both formalization and centralization because our society was becoming more and more complex. Research has also indicated that the leaders of a bureaucracy must behave differently than those in charge of other organizations. Bureaucratic leaders had to adopt the following behaviors. They had to:

1. accomplish objectives set forth by their superiors.
2. be accountable to superiors.
3. adhere to their position's area of authority.
4. be technically qualified.
5. be subject to authority and control.
6. be impersonal and formalistic.
7. live within the broader regulations of the organization.
8. accomplish goals adequately or have seniority if he was to be considered for a promotion.

9. strive for objective rationality, impersonality, and routinization.
10. keep exempliary records.

The research indicated, however, that the formal aspects of a bureaucracy had been found to be insufficient mainly because they did not meet the informal needs of the participants. They were also insufficient because there was little tolerance for innovation and alterations, and because, when seeking a replacement, more weight was given to position than talent and ability.

If a bureaucratic organization was to survive, it had to refrain from putting an unhealthy emphasis on production and ritualistic behavior.. Yet, researchers found bureaucracies were the best systems we have to deal with the increasing complexity of our society. We needed routine because, if implemented properly, it could expedite decisions and procedures so goals could be achieved.

Researchers felt that we must learn how to live successfully with our bureaucracies and to realize that we do not have to accept their flaws without question. Instead, we had an obligation to study the dysfunctions of our bureaucracies in an attempt to make them more flexible and sensitive.

If our bureaucracies, as currently structured, needed to be altered to better suit today's needs, our concepts of leadership would also need to undergo alteration. The research indicated that the preferred leader behaved in the following ways. They had to:

1. be equipped to understand their organizational environment.
2. seek opinions from each of the diverse groups to be affected by a decision.
3. have skills in working with diverse groups toward achieving a reasoned, rational decision-making process that will guide future courses of action.

4.   understand and translate complex variables of causation
     and association as they explain the events of the past
     and important present social trends.
5.   be responsive to both internal and external pressures.
6.   be skillful in diagnosing pathological symptoms that can,
     if detected and corrected in time, lead to effective
     human behavior within the organization.
7.   have an awareness for the ever present tension that exists
     between individual and organizational goals.
8.   be adept at negotiation and mediation.
9.   be sensitive and flexible so that they can more adequately
     accommodate the broad range of needs expressed by diverse
     groups of people.
10. be willing to search for new ideas.
11. help every teacher or particpant understand and perpetu-
     ate the goals of the organization.
12. clearly comprehend their own mission.
13. develop an internal strength as well as external skills
     for doing what they consider most logical.
14. constantly appraise their organization to determine its
     level of achievement.
15. nurture an obsession for finding a better way of doing
     things.
16. use the best of the classical, neo-classical, behavioral
     and systems approaches since there will be no one way of
     solving problems.
17. know where to seek answers.
18. be more adaptable and skillful in understanding the
     nature of change.
19. explore the insights of disciplines such as psychology,
     sociology, and snthropology, and political science.
20. become sensitized to the realities of their organizational
     environment by exploring the concepts and principles of a
     number of theories.
21. realize that an event is caused by not one single factor
     as advocated by the classical theorists, but by numerous
     factors that are interrelated and interdependent.
22. become less reluctant to provide teachers with meaning-
     ful reward systems which permit them to function as re-
     spected, autonomous, and responsible professionals.
23. realize that social pressures will determine future
     forces of change.
24. accommodate the need for expression that professionals
     require.
25. remember that the orders must benefit all concerned in
     some way.
26. be able to assist others in connecting the past, present,
     and emerging futures.

     In summary, the preferred leader will adapt his behavior to

meet the demands of his environment -- an environment that is unique

from all others. He must know what style of leadership will be effective in which situations. He must know that there are no pre-established recipes for succeeding in administration and that an isolated, all-encompassing well-defined school of organizational thought does not exist since our knowledge of administration is continuously growing. Equally important, he must be aware of the excesses that various theories can create.

Implications for Future Study

The outcome of the study had several implications for future research. Educators must continue to look at changing situations and the suggested ideal for administrative leadership as they occur and draw conclusions about what types of leaders are needed in order to cope with our complex society. Just as society has changed and become more and more complex over the past decades, it will continue to change and increase in complexity. As a result, the concept of leadership is worthy of constant study.

Another follow-up study could be made to determine the effectiveness of leaders who could be termed "new administrators" -- those who fit the description of the desired type of leader outlined in this study. The researcher could seek input from the participants at various levels of the organization's hierarchy to determine the degree to which the new administrator is effective or ineffective.

Studies could also be done on the implications of the changing teacher's posture upon administrative leadership. This is a concern that is increasing in importance. A researcher could consider the factors that contributed to this changed teacher posture.

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The Implications of Milieu Upon Educational Administration
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The Problem.   It was the purpose of this study to answer the follow-
ing questions:

1. What are the implications of changing milieu upon administra-
    tive leadership?

2. Ancillary to the above, does the literature suggest a
    separate type of administrative leadership for bureaucratic
    organizations?

Method.   The research method utilized throughout the study was the
content analysis technique of the historian whereby the conceptual
literature over a period of time was critically examined. Data along
the lines of the two sub-questions of the study were collected, collated,
and interpreted in an attempt to discover new knowledge.

Results.   During the Classical period, it became evident that the
administrative philosophies and theoretical veins were originally very
regimented. Organizations operating during the 1920's were considered
static structures, guided by prescriptive theories. Here, the only
road to efficiency and productivity was to surrender man'sneeds to the
service of the cold, insensitive machine. A leader in the classical
period was considered competent if he demonstrated authoritarian be-
havior and implicitly adopted the objectives set forth by his superiors.
During the Neo-classical period, theorists felt that a good leader
was one who demonstrated the democratic rather than authoritarian be-
haviors. The new era also recognized that formal organizations had in-
formal structures that could not be ignored. The highlight of this era
was the realization that there were other motivations in force besides
money and that these motivations were often more important. It was
also discovered that individual workers reacted to an organization's
hierarchy, rules, and rewards not as individuals but as members of a
group.
The period of Modern theory added even more emphasis to the inter-
active process that occured within an organization's structure. These
theorists assumed that an event was caused by numerous interrelated
and interdependent factors. They felt that the choice of objectives
and methods for achieving them were to be left to the individual leader.
In short, the modern era integrated the classical and the neo-classical
periods with contemporary concepts.
In considering the questions of whether or not a bureaucracy re-
quired a separate type of leadership, it was found that bureaucracies
were increasing in both formalization and centralization because our
society was becoming more and more complex. Research also indicated

that bureaucratic leaders must behave differently than those in charge of other bureaucracies. If our bureaucracies, as currently structured, needed to be altered to better suit today's needs, our concepts of leadership would also need to undergo alteration. It was found that the preferred leader will adapt his behavior to meet the demands of his environment.

A major outcome of the study was the realization that educators must continue to look at changing situations and the suggested ideal for administrative leadership as they occur and draw conclusions about what type of leaders are needed in order to cope with our complex society. Just as society has changed and become increasingly complex, it will continue to change and increase in complexity. As a result, the concept of leadership is worthy of constant study.