

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE
BUREAUCRATIC STRUCTURES BETWEEN
LARGE AND SMALL SECONDARY
SCHOOLS

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BY
ALEMAYEHU HAILE
JULY, 1994

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SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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ALEMAYEHU HAILE

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SIGNATURE

Ya. Gen. Ingidayehu

ADVISOR

[Signature]

SIGNATURE

Adamu D. G. Selamaye

EXTERNAL EXAMINER

[Signature]

SIGNATURE

Zaudner G. G. G. G.

INTERNAL EXAMINER

Zaudner G. G. G. G.

SIGNATURE

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ABSTRACT

The concept of bureaucracy, here, is viewed as a means of organizing work which permits or encourages coordination. Coordination in turn is achieved in hierarchy of graded authority regulated by rules and depersonalizing mechanisms. As such bureaucracy is not a bed of roses for individuals. It is rather a system of administration which is destined to institutionalize work in organizations.

Schools are the basic organizational units in the educational institution; they have the role of dividing the work and integrating results. Thus, schools are becoming more bureaucratically structured. It is suggested that, the idea of bureaucratization of schools confirmed, to a considerable degree, Weber's specification of bureaucracy on the basis of their division of labour, their hierarchical structures, their rules and regulations, their procedures and their impersonal treatment based on competence. Hence, the educational version of bureaucracy is seen as a set of six-dimensions.

The study comparatively examines the basis of the bureaucratic model, the dimensions of organizations that are characteristically cited as bureaucratic attributes by measuring the degree to which these dimensions are present in the two sets of secondary school systems. It is illustrated in the study that a bureaucratic structure is not unitary variable but it is multidimensional and prevalent among the selected twelve secondary schools. The prevalence and emergence of these bureaucratic dimensions are also proved to be that the schools are bureaucratic in a large number of ways. Furthermore, it is demonstrated that size is a determining factor which influences the bureaucratic structures of secondary schools. Thus, all the six-bureaucratic dimensions vary in size.

Finally, the causes of disagreement (conflict) and the consequent results that reduced teachers commitment such as, seniority based promotions, lack of reconciliation between the expectations of autonomy and individual responsibility of highly trained professionals with the hierarchy of authorities, are also examined. Based on the previous comments and concluding remark in the study, in the final chapter, the writer forwards some realistic suggestion and recommendation that individual teachers need a certain amount of autonomy if they are to

contribute meaningfully to the objectives of the schools. Hence, school administrators should allow individual teachers to have enough autonomy to enhance their professional initiative and to encourage the development of positive and fruitful relationships within the school systems. Such necessary leadership styles may result from the recognition of the professional status of teachers and a substantial delegation of responsibility in them, and not from polarization of teachers and directors into 'superiors' and 'inferiors.'

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

It is believed that students of administration from the time of Weber to the present have used the bureaucratic model as the basis for conceptualizing the system of administration in organizations. The acceptance of bureaucratic model, as such, may serve as the starting point for studies of the development and modification of organizational structure, the position of individuals within such a structure, and the various associated problems, particularly, in a social organization like that of schools.

A school organization as a social group is oriented to the achievement of educational objectives. Such an organization can be designated as bureaucratic if it possesses three or more levels of authority such that all members on one level as subordinate to one or more members on the next higher level, and so on until the top most level is reached. Moreover, as schools are the basic organizational units in the educational system, they have the primary function of dividing the work and integrating the results. Thus, schools are becoming more bureaucratically structured. The idea of bureaucratiz-

ation of schools, particularly if they are large, confirmed to a considerable degree Weber's Specification of bureaucracy on the basis of their division of work, their hierarchical structures, their rules and regulations and their impersonal procedures based on competence.

Apart from the negative connotation it has among laymen, today bureaucracy is a form of "expert" administration inevitable, or at any rate difficult to avoid, in our school organization. Moreover, the sheer growth in size, and the need for accountability has made bureaucracy still more inevitable at the present secondary school situation in this country. Stressing this point, Sofer (1972:11) has stated that, "Bureaucracy seems to be the most effective form we have been able to develop in dealing with the new mass society which has developed in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries."

In the above statements, there is an implication which reflects the need for efficient guiding principles in the bureaucratization of the activities, decision making processes and channel of communications in secondary schools. Hence, in a large school system if there are effective systems of decentralization and delegation of authorities and responsibilities employees

can be kept constantly informed of every action taken in the name of the school.

As school organizations are becoming more and more bureaucratically structured, highly trained professional teachers also expect and need a certain degree of autonomy i.e an expectation that often conflicts with the organization's need for centralized control. Anderson (1968:8) stated that, "Most compelling of all of the administrative mechanisms used to control individual behaviour is the formal authority which is articulated through a body of bureaucratic rules. " In the school situation this implies that, in attempting to structure and impersonalize relationships so as to minimize the influence of the individual teachers on the accomplishment of organizational goals, the ground is laid for conflict. Because, coming to the school with expectations of independence and professional autonomy, a teacher is required to conform to rules and operating procedures to hierarchical authority. Accordingly, the most critical dilemma posed for the school organization is how to reconcile the expectations of autonomy and individual responsibility of highly trained professional teachers with the bureaucratic hierarchy's demand for centralized control.

The establishment of an educational program at the school level, on the other hand, calls for a plan and an organization for carrying out the program. According to Lane et.al (1967:183), "Method of organizing these function essentially consists of coordination and specialization." Here specialization implies that individuals are appointed and assigned, rather than elected, on the basis of skill, qualification and competence. However, it is not uncommon to see our school directors developed seniority on another official basis of competency for promotion within the school system. Accordingly, department heads, unit-leaders, and homeroom teachers are to be assigned on the basis of seniority. Here, because seniority is an age graded, it does not need direct assessment of competence. As such seniority is easier to measure and save school directors from some of the difficult problems of evaluating the technical competence of teachers.

In the above discussions, it must be noted that, while experience may provide the necessary practice that enhances competence, the mere fact of being on the job for a specified time is obviously not sufficient measure of competence. As such seniority does not guarantee competence or vice-versa.

In fact there seems to be a substantial agreement that schools vary in the extent to which they exhibit bureaucratic properties. Here, bureaucracy may be used much as a twelve-inch ruler, or as a yardstick, for measuring lengths. However, one should not expect, for example, that all objects measured by a ruler would be exactly twelve inches. As there are variation in length, some would be longer than others. Hence, it is more useful to study bureaucracies in terms of a set of dimensions or structural variables of organization. It is then, possible to describe an organization in terms of a profile of its structural characteristics and to compare the profile with other organization.

The study focuses on twelve secondary schools (six larger in Addis Ababa and six smaller in the provinces) on the basis of, Hierarchy of authority, Pressure of rules, Procedural specifications, Impersonality, Division of labour, and Technical Competence. Dennison and Shenton (1987:57) have also viewed the above six-dimensions of bureaucracy as the main features of school organizations. The paper comparatively examines, the dimensions of organization that are characteristically cited as bureaucratic attributes by measuring the degree to which these dimensions are present in the various school organizations.

1.2 Statement of the study (problem)

The purpose of the study is, therefore, to ascertain whether or not bureaucratization of the school activities is in effect in secondary schools located in Addis Ababa and in the provinces. Assuming that the six-dimensions of bureaucracy is the main features of school bureaucratization, the study tries to answer the following basic questions:

- What is the nature of bureaucratization in the teaching-learning process in secondary schools?
- Is there a relationship between conflict and bureaucracy in secondary schools?
- What effects are induced on the bureaucratic dimensions when school size increases?
- To what extent are male and female teachers affected by the bureaucratic dimensions of schools?

- What is the nature of the flow of information in the school bureaucracy?

- Are there relations among the bureaucratic dimensions within the schools?

These and other related matters are also covered on a comparative basis in the two school systems.

1.3 Significance of the Study

In accordance with formal characteristic of bureaucratic administration, there is the superimposition of systems of authority status, competence, and communication upon one another and the structuring of administrative offices in a hierarchical order. In the school situation, these systems create a distinctive social structure and psychological climate conducive to highly predictable behaviour by individual teachers who constitute the teaching staff.

Moreover, by focusing undue attention on norms of behaviour and operating procedures, rules may inadvertently result in a means - ends inversion for the organization, causing unsatisfactory relationships with teachers.

It is, therefore, essential for administrators to be aware of both the manifest and latent implications of bureaucratization constraints so that teachers, school principals, and others can best work together toward a common organizational goal. Thus the significance of the study focuses on the following major points:-

1. In attempting to structure and impersonalize relationships in the school situation, there comes, the unanticipated consequences, which include alienation of trained professionals, undue emphasis on procedural matters, avoidance of responsibility, minimization of commitment, and the appearance of informal groups which attempt to influence policy within the school organization. The study, as such, will pinpoint the magnitude and circumstances of these problems so that school administrators (principals) can take effective measures to minimize such bureaucratic constraints.

2. The study examines the contrasting functions that rules are called upon to perform for the school, by impersonalizing the exercise of authority, rules reduce anxiety and make the imposition of hierarchical authority more tolerable to teachers.

3. The study may also help to call the attention of educational planners and policy-makers consider the ever increasing size of secondary schools and allocating efficient and qualified educational administrators in due courses.

4. Finally the study is expected to contribute literature on bureaucratic structures of secondary schools and could serve as a starting point for further comprehensive study.

1.4 Limitations

Lack of adequate materials concerning bureaucracy and education in general were scarce. This was notably true in regard to the non-existence of previous literature on the subject in Ethiopia. Similarly, the information concerning the issue either in books or journals was not of recent works and at the same time is scant. However, despite the challenges and limitations stated above, the writer has made the utmost effort in gathering pertinent and relevant data from various sources. Most of the books and journals listed as bibliography are obtained from the libraries of Addis Ababa University, the British Library Document Supply Centre and the Economic Commission of Africa Library.

1.5 Delimitations

This study focuses on twelve secondary schools. In order to obtain the profile of the bureaucratic structures and for the purpose of comparative study, six larger secondary schools were considered from the Addis Ababa region. The remaining six, which are smaller in size in the provinces were selected from the former East-Shoa and South-Sjoa administrative regions.

Apart from the reasons of size and comparison, the researcher also felt that, the selection of secondary schools outside Addis Ababa is expected to have a double fold significance. First, it is known that many similar studies have exhausted respondents (teachers) in the Addis Ababa region and their participation in the study may minimize the anticipated results. Secondly, having years of working experience both as a school director and a teacher in the respective provinces, the researcher believes that teacher's attitudes, approaches and interactions in the school organization is relatively different, particularly, when compared to the Addis Ababa region. Thus, though the study uses the six-bureaucratic dimension model, the above two approaches gave additional highlights to the study.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

1. Bureaucracy: According to Griffith (1979:4), "Bureaucracy is a system of administration by means of departments or bureau, each headed by a chief." Anderson (1968:8) stated that, "... bureaucratic administration is the superimposition of systems of authority, status, competence, and communications upon one another and structuring of administrative offices in a hierarchical order." Similarly Kast and Rosenzweig (1985:76) viewed bureaucracy as "... a well-defined hierarchy of authority, a division of labour based on functional specialization, a system of rules, an impersonality in interpersonal relationships, a system of work procedures, and placement based on technical competence."

The above definitions and views implied that bureaucracy creates a distinctive social structure and psychological climate conducive to highly predictable behaviour by individuals in organizations. Moreover, within these implications the problem of control is a direct outgrowth of the need to coordinate the activities of functionally differentiated individuals and departments.

2. Structure: Structure may be considered, according to Kast and Roesenzweig (1984:234), as the established pattern of relationships among the components or parts of the organizations. Fiedler in Dennison and Shenton (1987:37) suggested that, "structure is concerned with organizing and directing the work."

In the above two statements the concept of structuring implies that the various activities or tasks are assigned to different departments and people in organizations. Though the structure is not visible it can also be inferred from the actual operations and behaviour of the individuals in the organization. However, in most organization the pattern of formal

relationships and duties are depicted in the organizational chart together with job description or position guides.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

1. HISTORICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF BUREAUCRACY IN ADMINISTRATION

Socrates in Lane et. al (1967:4) suggested that "... over whatever a man may preside, he will, if he knows what he needs, and is able to provide it, be a good president..." Accordingly, the art of successful administration was thus usually characterized as a militaristic or charismatic phenomenon-emotional, powerful and at times genetic.

It is believed that the earliest forms of administration undoubtedly accompanied man's first attempts at organized cooperation, but historical evidence permits us to infer that the rudiments of bureaucracy were evolved from very early military structures. Explaining the point Hittle (1949:20) asserts that "It is evident that present day staff organization is in some ways similar to the system established by Philip more than 2,000 years ago."

Moreover, the demands for technical competence and assignment on the basis of prescribed behaviour are other significance that bureaucracy has inferred from the professional military organization. Even today, management theory is still reproduced with "principles" directly derived from military staff theory. Such military "Offices" as "Sergeantmajor", who is the principal staff officer down below in the army unit, and "Quartermaster", whose responsibility is scouting, quartering and reconnaissance, are the legacy of military organization that gives the concept of "Line and Staff" or "Rank and File" in the modern bureaucratized organizations.

The idea of "Line and Staff" in bureaucratized institutions encompasses a doctrine of command, control, direction and communications through prescribed channels. Though the idea was derived from a primitive outlook when human beings were considered as a means to an end, it directly resulted into "Rational Model" of organization in the long run.

The rational model, according to Lane et.al (1967:6) maintains that administration in any organization is composed of a number of rational functions; planning, organizing, coordinating, evaluating, delegating,

controlling, and so on. As such, beginning with the Military and Roman Catholic Church, it was refined during the Industrial Revolution. It was then given theoretical expression by Max Weber and was extended by Frederic Winslow Taylor. Here one could say that, organizational management prior to this time was in large measure based on the particular personality of the individual manager as opposed to being based on any type of organizational theory. Elaborating this point and paraphrasing Weber's ideal type bureaucracy, Tanner and Williams (1981:26) have stated that, "Weber's thinking was influenced by the growing industrial organizations in Germany, his experience in the German army, and his concern for the low reliability of people making judgments, often in a personal and highly charged atmosphere."

In the above statements, Weber's model of bureaucracy highlights basic tendencies of actual organizations, because in its structure such type of organization was based on an organizational structure that emphasized depersonalization and that minimized emotional and irrational factors of the individual in the organization. Justifying the advent of bureaucracy Max Weber (1958:214) has put it in the following terms:

The decisive reason for the advance of bureaucratic organization has always been its purely technical superiority over any other form of organization. The fully developed bureaucratic mechanism compares with other organizations exactly as does the machine with non-mechanical modes of production.

Thus, Weber, a major contributor to the "machine model" of organization, gave the world the first completely developed principles of bureaucracy. Pfiffner and Presthus (1967: 41-42) have described Weber's ideal type bureaucracy with the following generalizations:

1. Hierarchy implies that offices are arranged in a hierarchical manner
2. Bureaucracy can be applicable to public as well as private efforts
3. Rationalized job structure means a rational division of Labour where each position has the legal authority for accomplishing goals
4. Formalization implies that rules are made and recorded in writing relative to decisions and activities
5. Management's being separated from ownership means that there is a hired, professional administrative group
6. Members of bureaucracy have no permanent right to office
7. The administrative group requires special competencies and training
8. Members are hired on the basis of competency
9. Weber's construct reflects the legalistic flavour, characteristic of administration in continental Europe.

Be it in Europe or elsewhere, such a highly structured "machine model" formal organization is not without its remarkable weakness. Whether such an

observation was an accurate reflection of what was really happening with the bureaucracies that Weber studied, or merely is wishful thinking, the facts that have been studied in terms of Sociological and Psychological factors of individuals in organization were and still are not congruent with the ideal-type bureaucracy. Explaining this state of conditions Tanner and Williams (1981:45) have noted that "... with respect to the organization, that an individual's attitude towards others on his or her same level, attitude toward immediate superior and subordinates, attitude toward the job, and attitude even toward the world in general are important variables in producing goods and providing services." Although the basic concern of the study in this part is historical, many of the issues we raise could have wider implications across the educational activities and explained in the following discussions.

1.1 DEVELOPMENT OF BUREAUCRACY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Taylor and his followers, in what came to be known as the "Scientific Management" movement, provide the basic reason for the "Machine Model" of organization on the basis of "getting the most out of workers." Accordingly, the scientific-management approach was the

notion of man as a machine. Because in its technique it shows no sign of human concerns. Stressing the point Griffith (1979:8) stated that, "The technique involved a study of the most efficient method, the shortest time, and the best materials and tools for performing every job in the shop."

As such it was evident that, prior to Taylor, standard procedures for workers to follow in accomplishing a specific task were non-existent. Thus two workers or teachers in our case, in the same organization, doing the same kind of task, might be using different methods and different work procedures. Hence, according to Tanner and Williams (1981:24), a major concern of Taylor was to develop orderliness in the organization by establishing certain standards and procedures for individual workers as they engaged in a specific task.

In accordance with the scientific management, the above statement implies that, based on the scientific observation and measurements standards and procedure were to be established for the Scientific task the individual performed. This included planning the work of a person at least one day in advance, often in writing, with the instruments for completing the job at hand.

Later on Taylorism spread to both public and school organizations. Griffith (1979:11) has noted that, "Scientific management had a powerful impact on American education from 1910 to 1925." Similarly, Lane et. al (1967:12) have described the events that, "By 1913, efficiency and education were effectively married and the honeymoon lasted longer than anyone might have guessed." Thus, Taylorism in Schools focused on efficiency, and school organizations were viewed as mechanisms and people were considered as a simple tool in the school system. Callahan (1962:244) noted that, "Perhaps the tragedy was not inherent in the borrowing from business and industry but only in the application. "By the same token though it is true that the commitment to efficiency has now become history, its legacy for schools has continued to be a strong faith in educational administration.

In addition to Taylor's influence on educational organization Weber's ideas have been a very important force in shaping the administration and organization of educational institutions. Using the construct of an "ideal type" of bureaucracy Weber's model emphasized institutionalized authority, organizational efficiency and impersonal relationship. Though such a bureaucratic model could minimize emotional and rational human factors

Weber saw such an organization would increase production. According to Griffith (1979:5), the educational version of Weber's ideal type of bureaucracy could be generalized as follows:-

- 1) Hierarchical structure; each subordinate is supervised by someone above him, compliance is not left to chance.
- 2) Functional specialization; people are selected on the basis of competence for a particular position or task.
- 3) Prescribed competence; each incumbent has the responsibility and commensurate authority to carry out his function.
- 4) Written Records; administrative decisions and rules are recorded.
- 5) Stable rules and policies; rules promote efficiency and insure continuity. They facilitate orderly, and equal treatment of clients.

Similarly, Hall in Dennison and Shenton (1987:56) suggests that the degree of bureaucratization in school can be measured by a six dimensional organizational inventory; Hierarchy of authority, pressure of rules procedural specifications Impersonality; division of labour, technical competence.

Generally one needs to understand that the degree of bureaucratization along the above dimensions provides an important component of school management over and above its influence on the behaviour of individuals in school organization.

1.2 PATTERN OF BUREAUCRACY IN EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Organizational theories and practices of the classical period, characterized by the "machine model", were largely developed because of a need for greater productivity, effectiveness and efficiency in organization (Turner and Williams, 1981: 24).

In the above statement there is the implication that organizational management prior to this time was in large measure based on the particular personality of individual manager as opposed to being based on an organizational theory. The statement further indicates that organizational practices under such conditions obviously varied from one geographical area to another and from manager to manager. Thus the cumulative works of bureaucracy by Taylor, Weber and others seemed to have developed as a reaction to the unpredictable decision-making practices in organizations.

In their organization, schools develop a structure and mechanism to provide for their maintenance and continuity. One way of ordering such a structure, according to Lucio and McNail (1979:86), is through the development of a bureaucratic mechanism which induces an impersonal and rational orientation to the instructional

task. Because schools produce services that are consumed by society, a pattern must be established that permits them to translate the educational objectives and mobilize human resources for their production in the most efficient manner.

Within complex school organizations the problem of control is a direct result of the need to coordinate activities that have been broken down into sub-units so that they can be performed by a group of teachers. As such a school organization is seen as an aspect of bureaucracy. In adherence to the characteristics listed by Weber, Griffith (1979:6) stated that, " There is a hierarchical structure: teachers, supervisors, principals..." Here the implication is that responsibilities, duties and authorities are clearly defined, delegated and attached to the position rather to the individuals. Moreover, each member of the school occupies a position created by division of labour and interacts with individuals occupying other positions. Still more, out of the attempt to differentiate and integrate the activities of subunits one identifies the bureaucratic structures of schools.

An administrative staff functioning according to the above bureaucratic structure permits a high degree of predictability within the school organization. As such there is a specific delineation of authority and responsibility for each position in the school. Relationships between positions are formalized. Impersonality bounds the structure, so that individual teachers have little personal influence on the conduct of the duties of their position in the school.

2. ESSENTIALS AND EFFECTS OF BUREAUCRACY ON SCHOOLS

The establishment of an educational program calls for a plan that operate in a dynamic bureaucratic system for carrying out the program. Hence school systems, have many of the characteristics of bureaucracies. They have numerous policies, rules, and procedures to ensure similar or identical responses to problems. There is a clear-cut division of labour . There is a minimum of personal contact. Assignments are based on technical qualification and are highly formalized. Promotion is based upon seniority or achievement. The method of organizing these bureaucratic function essentially consists of coordination and specialization. Here, specialization implies that individuals are appointed and assigned, rather than elected, on the basis of skill and qualification.

Coordination on the other hand involves delegation of authority and delineation of responsibility and jurisdiction of each role within the organization (Anderson, 1968:6). Similarly, Lane et.al (1967:184) have stated that, "Coordination involves centralized graded authority, a system of rules, and impersonality." Although hall (1963:297) suggests that the degree of bureaucratization in a school can be measured by a six-dimensional inventory, more recently, Sousa and Hoy (1981:24) attempted a synthesis based upon both the six-dimensional categorization and the Aston studies in Pugh and Hickson (1976:7) on organizational structure. Accordingly, the various bureaucratic characters in the school situations include; centralization, hierarchy of authority, division of labour, pressure of rules, technical competencies, impersonality and procedural specifications.

a. Centralization: Implies the flow of authority from the top to the bottom and gives bureaucracy its rational character. In such a system it is the central office or the top management that has the ultimate authority to take the final decision concerning the goals of the organization. Hence, the principle of the "chain of command", in a school system refers to the accountability of every individual teacher to his

department head for accomplishing the special task he is assigned.

b. Pressure of rules: Most of the school Directors daily routine consists of established rules that give direction to their day to day performances. Thus, rules operate as guidelines for moulding the behaviour of teacher so that he can participate effectively as a member of the school. On the other hand, Anderson (1968:23) argues that, rules and regulations not only define acceptable behaviour but also indicate behaviour which permits the individual to escape sanctions. Here, rules determine only the nature of the interaction between students and teachers that realize the goals of the school. As a result rules permit the teachers to function in the school organization by strict adherence to the rules and regulation without personal involvement. For instance, teachers are required, a) to prepare lesson-plans according to established specifications, b) to follow prescribed curriculum guides and (c) to carry out the existing grading procedures exactly. Thus the vast reservoir of experiences, skills and knowledge of teachers is left untapped.

c) Impersonality: According to Dennison and Shenton (1987:56) impersonality implies, the extent to which

members and outsiders are treated without regard to individual qualities. In the school situation it may also imply that impersonality promotes imposed discipline whereby teachers are expected to divorce their personal contact and friendships while performing their duties. Moreover, the degree of impersonality may depend on the complexity of the organization. Hall (1963:39) concluded that, organizations that regularly deal with a large volume of customers or clients may develop a high degree of impersonality.

d. Hierarchy of Authority: Is the main characteristic in a bureaucratic form of organization. But, part of the confusion between ideal and actual conception of bureaucracy pose a tendency to confuse power with authority. Lucio and McNeil (1979:26) have noted that, "Authority is a power granted by superiors to carry out responsibilities; it includes the rights necessary to the discharge of line functions.

The phrase "a power granted by superiors" in the above notion indicates the legitimation of authority which in turn implies the capacity to use force. In the school situation, however, it must be understood that neither power nor authority imply the actual demonstration of force. As such, authority is accepted when one permits one's behaviour to be guided by the

decisions of a superior without questioning those decisions. For instance, the high school director is authorized by the Ministry of Education to order teachers to take an "extra curricular activities" as part of their duties.

e. Procedural Specifications: Is the extent to which members must follow organizationally defined techniques and procedures in dealing with situations they encounter (Dennison and Shenton, 1987:56). Here, it is believed that some form of specified procedural system including the instructional and personnel components is necessary. Since, policy statements alone are not particularly helpful in solving and pressing daily problems in the school, some sort of procedures have to be established and implemented.

In the above statements, there is the implication that, schools involve established structures such as school Board, classrooms, departments e.t.c. Alongside these establishments, there are also procedures which guide the interaction that arises between organizational members and the school environment. Hence, the school interacts with its school Board Committee, parents, and teachers within certain established and specified pattern of relationships. These relationships generates among

parents certain expectations about what the school can provide to their children. Students also anticipate particular results from such specified procedures. A homeroom teacher, for example, has to follow a certain procedures to deal with students who frequently are absent or misbehave. Similarly, the preparation and submission of weekly lesson-plans to the departments by individual teachers indicates the presence of certain specified procedures in the school system.

f. Division of Labour: Because the varied subjects to be taught in a school are too vast and too complex for everyone to learn with equal competence, greater efficiency results when tasks are divided into speciality areas. To achieve this educational goal of learners, the need for specialists in the various subjects to be taught becomes indispensable and unavoidable.

g. Technical Competence: In the school activity, technical competence implies the extent to which the standard of teaching is promoted in the school system. It may embrace the training, skill and academic qualification of individual teachers in the respective subject area together with their behaviour toward the profession.

From the preceding discussions one could say that,

bureaucratic form of administration in the school situation appears to be essential and effective to accomplish the educational activities of the school smoothly and systematically even though it is not for the pleasure of individuals in the school organization. Thus, bureaucracy can bring about a highly specialized, standardized and centralized set of organizations bounded by depersonalizing rules.

3. SIZE OF ORGANIZATIONS AND BUREAUCRACY

The size of organizations is another facet of bureaucracy. Because, as people in organization becomes larger, it demands greater direction and rules to guide group activities. That is when organizations generally become more bureaucratic, rules are enforced impartially, concern with administrative problems increase, and firmness toward subordinates increases.

The notion in the above statement for school organization is double fold. First, when size increases and problems become more complex there is little prospect that they will be solved by individual school directors. Second, one might argue that, where teachers have more students, more clerical duties, and more colleagues, there is less time for attention to

individual student's evaluation and the teaching techniques.

Regarding the school size, Anderson (1967:9) illustrated that, "...school size may affect instructional practices in determinantal fashion. As schools enrol larger and larger numbers of students, the requiring enlarged instructional and administrative staffs, increased specialization results." The illustration may imply that, teachers are assigned to teach specific subjects at specific grade level. However, such individualization of instruction is also made difficult by the number of students a teacher serves. Because many teachers may know what is required to provide useful experiences for students, but their number can limit the teacher's opportunity to provide those experiences.

Generally, one needs to understand that the size of a school organization together with the complexities of bureaucratic rules may result into an important component of school management over and above its influence on the behaviour of individuals in school organization. Apparently, thus, the size of school organization not only shapes the formal management system but also underlies the informal one as well. This means as the

number of teachers increases so does their influence over the formal ones.

4. DYSFUNCTION OF BUREAUCRACY IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS

Though there is no universal agreement on the definition and characteristics of bureaucracy, it is inevitable in any form of product or service giving organization. Bureaucracy is a system of administrative organization that seeks to achieve efficiency of operation through the rationalization of organizational behaviour. Accordingly, the primary objective of bureaucracy is to eliminate irrationality to maximize efficiency and to attain the goals of the organization with the least cost.

Thus, bureaucracy can be viewed as an organizational structure that leads to precision, reliability, and efficiency. However, bureaucracy is not always to meet all these expectations. At times bureaucracy may provide painful experiences that in turn could hinder the well being of organizations. In this regard Myers (1973:81) has pointed out three dysfunctions of bureaucracy namely, trained incapacity, displacement of goals, and conformity.

4.1 Trained Incapacity: Here it refers to a state of condition when individuals in organizations are unable to confront problems boldly because of their strict adherence to pre-established procedures and rules. As Myers (1973:81) put it, this comes into play when one's ability is inadequate to function effectively. In the school situation, a teacher's obligation to observe rules is transformed into a personal devotion of accepting the rigid enforced regulations under specified condition. Thus, when a new problem arises which is not recognized as different, that same previous training may lead to the use of the wrong procedures.

Instances of trained incapacity is a common feature in secondary schools. Most Directors and teachers, for example, are trained to work in an examination centered promotion school system. But if promotion without examination becomes a goal, as it happened recently as a result of transition in government teachers may decline to give examinations for students.

4.2. Displacement of Goals: This occurs when means to attain goals become goals themselves. Individuals in a bureaucratic organization that have lower status glorify routine procedures. Obviously, glorification of procedures of rules delays the attainment of the goals of

the organization. Such persons who worship and abide to established rules or procedures are unable to be of use of the organization.

The process of goal displacement is painfully apparent in secondary schools. Deputy principals in secondary schools are tempted to observe routine rules and policies at the expense of the actual learning and teaching process for attaining the educational goal of the organization. For instance they demand the teachers to submit lesson-plans daily or weekly, but such neatly and timely prepared lesson-plans may not guarantee good teaching unless the teachers use them effectively and efficiently to achieve the educational goal of the school.

4.3 Conformity: Another disadvantage of bureaucracy is that it encourages conformity upon the office holder. Conformity particularly, is a pronounced experience in our society that hindered individual's initiatives and creativity. Douglas (1988:3 69) has noted that, "...traditionally ingrained attitudes towards status and power undermine willingness to take initiatives and accept responsibility with different levels or organization." This "upward-looking" attitude is widespread and common that even high-level administrators seek formal authority from above before acting.

In many educational organizations, the power of a signature is a vital symbol of centralization of authority. In the school situation, for instance, students who have missed classes for fifteen days because of an illness or home problem must get admission slip from the director. Similarly, students who cannot afford P.T. Kit cannot participate in the educational activities unless approved by the directors. Such established formalities will not only reinforce the "upward lookin" chain of command which leads to absolute conformity but also results unessary wastage of time and energy that can be effectively used for other valuable purposes.

5. STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CHARTS OF SCHOOLS

The adherence of administrators to bureaucratization of Organization is most evident in the widespread use of organization charts. Stressing on the importance of an organization chart Kast and Rosenzweig (1985:236) have stated that, "A typical way of depicting the structure is through printed organization chart that specify the formal authority and communication networks of the organization."

As such, organization charts are hierarchical and emphasize relationships between superiors and direct

subordinates. In the case of schools, for example, the high school principals and teachers conference are placed on equal levels in the hierarchy, assistant principals are given authoritative responsibility over department heads (see: appendix III).

However, organizational charts are not without their marked weakness as they revealed only the formal organization and vary in size. Knezevich in Anderson (1967:190) stated that, "... they are no more than idealized pictures of the school operation, that they do nothing to reveal the informal organization, and that seldom is the chain of command limited to the paths of relationships indicated." Similarly, criticizing organizational chart's limitations, Kast and Rosenzweig (1985:238) have noted that, "Organizational Chart does not indicate the degree of authority that a superior has over subordinate."

Thus, the organizational chart, which is also known as "The pyramid structure," is intended to symbolically represent the official ranking of authority of the organization's offices. This stratification of authority is popularly described as the "Chain of command". As such within the school system the chain of command extends from the principal through his assistant to

department heads, teachers, and finally to the students and custodians. In other words, the organizational chart represents an official conception of authority, but it does not depict the actual distribution of power.

6. COMMUNICATION AND BUREAUCRACY IN SCHOOLS

Considering the importance of communication in organizations Roger and Agarawal Rigers (1976:7) have stated that, "Communication is the life-blood of an organization: if we could somehow remove communication flows from an organization, we would not have an organization." The underlying assumption is that, organizations cannot exist without effective communication, and when communication among individuals fails, their capacity for effective cooperation and productive effort also fails. Thus, an enormous non-teaching time in schools is spent in communicating and this takes place on various levels: Interpersonal; Inter-departmental; Intra-departmental: Inter-organizational and between the school and its environment.

Given that the bureaucratization of schools is unavoidable, it is inevitable that such a system would pose a great influence on the ways in which communication

takes place. This means that every information transmitted within the school produces another link in the communication system, creating another channel of communication. Thus, it is believed that the larger and more complex schools become, the more complex is the communications system. Moreover, maintenance of teachers attitude, conducive to acceptance of orders, requires a careful structuring of the lines of communication from higher to lower positions.

Basically, according to Dennison and Shenton (1987:140) the administrative, pastoral and academic needs of the school determine what needs to be communicated. Hence, most communication in the school situation, takes place in one of two ways:

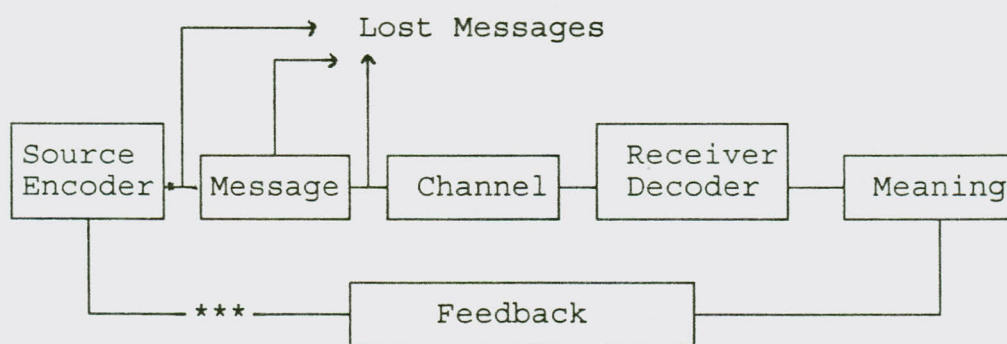
Oral - Involving the spoken work and which usually shows spontaneous adjustment to the receiver's responses
and

Written - involving more permanent, carefully prepared statements.

Whether in spoken or written form, skilful use of communication determines the success of organizations. Oral communications, for example, may be accompanied by unconscious non-verbal messages, often referred to as

"body language " which may either support or contradict what is actually being said. Similarly, unparaphrased written communication tends to lead into obscurity and mistrust among the employees.

Every communication or an idealized communication system, according to Lucio and McNail (1979:185), comprises five components - source, transmitter, channel, receiver, and destination. Then between the source and the destination, there must be some link is called a communication channel. As such in order that the information can pass over the channel, it is necessary to operate on it in such a way that it is suitable for transmission. Thus the component that performs this operation is a transmitter. Finally there must be a receiver that converts the transmitted information into its original form. The following chart illustrates the schematic model of the communication process.



** Noise
Figure 1. Generalized Model of the Communication Process

In most communication system, particularly in schools, both the source and receiver of the information is a human being. However, in schools, information flows develop in regularized and bureaucratically controlled ways that they are referred to as communication systems or networks. Those communication relationships depicted in organizational charts known as formal networks, while those which emerge as a result of needs and preference of teachers tend to be informal and are referred to as the "Grapevine." i.e: information is communicated through friends. Moreover, academic and non-academic matters of management in schools have their own access to information from the external environment as well as from their status in the formal communication system, and, because of their positions in the school, they are likely to be distinctly effective in coping with their own problems. For example, an assistant school director not only needs to initiate and control communication but also has to ensure a flow of information throughout the school. Here, provision for effective upwards, downwards, and laterally communication must also be made.

6.1. BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION IN SCHOOLS

The most obvious function of communication within schools is to coordinate the organizations's activity. As such, the greater the efficiency of the communication, the more specialization and interdependence can be tolerated. It follows then that the extent to which bureaucracy or centralized authority, can develop is dependent on the efficiency of the communication system. In this sense, the degree of "BUREAUCRACY" is a direct function of the ability to communicate. Failure to enhance the ability to communicate may be attributed from certain difficulties. The majority of such difficulties, according to Hanson (1985:95), can be classified into two types - Organizational and interpersonal.

6.2. ORGANIZATIONAL BARRIERS

a) Physical distance: Mcleary in Dennison and Shenton (1987:146) indicates that departmentalization and specialization in larger secondary schools increase the difficulty of coordinating information through meetings or non-verbal media, and formalized systems need to be established. This may imply that specific problems are caused by teachers having working areas away from the

staff room; a situation which occurs in multi-site schools, or in single - site schools where the teaching areas are widely dispersed.

b) Technological barriers: Telephone calls and other interruptions may disturb face to face discussions; extensions may not always be in appropriate places and conditions.

c) Cost Barriers: May result from shortage of materials, facilities or time.

d) Status-Authority Barriers: People of the same status communicate more with one another than with those at different levels. They tend to direct their communications to those who can get things done and make them more secure to accomplish their job effectively to improve their positions. Smith (1966:36) has pointed out that the greater the number and types of status within an organization, the greater are the barriers to communicate within it.

e) Job-Specification Barriers: In secondary schools many groups of staff are more used to communicating among themselves than with members of other groups. For

instance, academic teaching staff tends to have a completely different view point from non-academic and non-teaching staff.

6.3 INTERPERSONAL BARRIERS

a) Value and Attitude Barriers: The case may arise from differences in age, sex or interests among the staff who have different values and role-expectations from their workmates.

b) Personality Barriers: Personal feelings such as jealousy and resentment can produce serious obstacles to smooth communication.

c) Knowledge and Credibility: It is true that what is said in schools is often less important than who says it, as such, considerations must be given to the credibility of the sender in relation to the information to be communicated.

d) Lack of complementarity of ego-state of sender and recipient: in the process of communication the ego-state of senders and recipient should show congruency as opposed to dealing in emotions and attitudes.

Moreover, though, timely information which is considered the main feature in the bureaucratized organization, immediacy, overloading and the untimely nature of information may hamper smooth communication resulting into conflict, as when a receiver responds to demands from several directions at once.

7. PROFESSIONALIZATION AND BUREAUCRACY IN SCHOOLS

Much of the literature in education assumes that teachers are already professionals. However, the word professional has been seriously abused in education. Because it has several connotations, mostly contradictory. As Myers (1973:20) describes it, "Perhaps the most common description of a professional teacher is one who is dedicated to the field of teaching and who is kind to students." On the other hand, according to Morris (1990:24) the conditions associated with a professional work ethic includes:

- The use of professional colleagues as the major source of ideas and judgments for professional work,
- a belief that fellow professionals are the persons best qualified to judge and control each others work.
- a belief that professionals are not primarily drawn to their work by extrinsic rewards, and
- a belief that a professional practitioner should make his own decisions without pressures from his employing organization or from external sources

Some researchers said, no ideal models exist for the definition of a profession still others have simply listed consequences of professionalization. Barber in Myers (1973:21) noted that, "Theoretical and methodological consensus is not yet so great among sociologists that there is an absolute agreement on the definition of "the profession" . "Some authors even maintain that teachers cannot become professionals because the requirements for professionalization are irreconcilable with the demands of bureaucracies. But there are some who do not support the position that the two are irreconcilable, but many do see a conflict or strain between professionalization and bureaucratization.

Because of varied conception and connotations, it is wise to avoid a debate over whether teachers are professionals, thus, it is more useful to concentrate on their degree of professionalization in a bureaucratically centred school organization. However, in accordance to the description and definition it must be understood that the professional teacher shall be competent and works earnestly toward becoming more competent. Here, the underlying implication is that, the professional teacher takes courses at universities, reads books and periodicals in his area of specialization, volunteers to

work in collaboration and does not gossip about fellow teachers or students and totally committed to his work.

On the other hand, because of the controversy between the professional orientation of teachers and the bureaucratically centred school system, the smooth running of the education is sometimes challenged. Describing the problems resulting from the professional values and bureaucratic forms of organization Hoy and Miskel (1987:151) have stated:

The ultimate basis for a professional act is professional knowledge; however the ultimate justification for bureaucratic act is its consistency with the organizational rules and regulations and approval by a superior. There in lies the major source of conflict between the organization and the profession, conflict between 'professional expertise and autonomy' and 'bureaucratic discipline and control'.

In the above statement there are implications as to what is expected of an administrative function to improve the situation. In schools, teachers are considered to be expert specialists who, because of their professional training and certification, should be provided with autonomy in their work. Such provision of teachers with autonomy, however, may reflect the structural looseness of school systems resulting in what may be called "Professional bureaucracies". Here, though deviation

from the characteristics of bureaucracy is implied, it ensures mutual understanding between professionals and administrative workers. Describing the nature of professional bureaucracies, Sergiovani (1982:113) has noted that, "Unlike the traditional bureaucracy. Where management control is direct and worker behaviour is orchestrated by a system of close supervision, the professional bureaucracy is characterized by a great deal of decentralization and supervision is general at best."

Thus, the school as a professional bureaucracy should rely heavily on the standardization of work processes and the standardization of products as coordinating mechanisms. These, in turn, delimit the one virtue given by the professional bureaucracy as an organizational design for schools i.e. teachers autonomy. Given the autonomy accorded to teachers in the professional bureaucracy and the fact that work is typically accomplished by individuals, direct control in the traditional sense of bureaucracy, should not be a viable coordinating mechanisms.

8. CONFLICT IN A BUREAUCRATIC SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

However well organized a school and whatever its success in sustaining an adaptive environment, conflict-

disagreement about the outcome of behaviour in a relationship is quite unavoidable (Muth, 1984:26). This may lead one's understanding that conflict is so common a phenomenon either as "accidental" or "exceptional" to the normal school activities. Then, it is not the presence, but the absence of conflict that constitutes the surprising and the abnormality.

In the school situation, conflict may take place as a group phenomenon or may arise as a result of anxiety which in turn takes its roots from authority that lacks a balance of power. Authority conflict in organizations results when individuals experience anxiety because of the presence of two or more contradictory bases of authority (Anderson, 1968:112). On the other hand the group nature of conflict, in the school environment, may be experienced as a result of disagreement in the process of teaching or teacher-administration related matters. For example, two teachers may disagree about the appropriateness of teaching methods, one department may be in dispute with another over the availability of resources or a department head may argue with various members of staff about their responsibilities.

Perhaps an important implication of conflict in school organization could be its productiveness. Here,

conflict between individuals and the structure of the school can be most constructive. As Lucio and McNeil (1979:97) put it, "If there were no protest by teachers against the organizational pattern, the institution would lose one of its strongest safeguards-self-correction." Accordingly, healthy teachers will experience frustration, conflict, and failure when they have minimized control over instruction, are expected to be passive and subordinate, deal predominately with decisional situations of short-time perspective, and are induced to perfect and use a few shallow abilities.

Probably, there is no more elaborate reason for the various conflicts observed in schools than those provided by the hierarchy of authority. One of the main reasons, according to Anderson (1968:113), for the existence of the hierarchy in organizations is to legitimate authority and to structure interpersonal authority relationships. It is in the attempt of structuring such relationships that the unanticipated consequences, or conflicts, resulted in secondary schools. It can be argued then that, organization with more structural patterns can practice more problems than those with the lesser ones. Litwak and Hylton in Dennison and Shenton (1987:87) claim that the potential for conflict tends to be greater in schools with more formal bureaucratic arrangements.

To illustrate the case in the above statements; almost every secondary school has a director to whom teachers are responsible. However, while teachers generally report directly to directors, assistant directors, department heads, or unit leaders sometimes come between the teacher and the director. These persons normally have some authority in the hierarchical ladder. Depending upon the size of schools, they decide the classes that a teacher shall teach, the text-books and instructional materials to be used, and sometimes the assignment of students to classes. Here, the relationship between a teacher and the intermediates can be highly colleugial but not always so. Thus, authority conflict arise when a teacher comply to decisions from several persons in the hierarchy simultaneously.

9. SYNOPTICAL RESEARCH REPORTS AND NOTES ON BUREAUCRACY

The Concept of Bureaucracy: An Empirical Assessment

by Richard H.Hall

Here, the concept of bureaucracy is viewed as a series of dimensions, each in the form of continuum. In regard to the dimensionality of bureaucracy, Hall refers to Udy's (1958:415-418) findings. In his study of formal organizations in non-industrial societies, Udy utilized

seven characteristics of bureaucracy. The characteristics were not either all present nor were they absent in any one organization. Instead, some had certain configurations of "present versus absent" characteristics, while other organizations had other configurations. These findings support the contention that the bureaucratic model is best approached from the dimensional perspective.

Accordingly, six-dimensions were chosen for use in the study on the basis of frequency of citation and theoretical importance. They are: A division of labour, A well-defined hierarchy of authority: A system of rules; A system of procedures: Impersonality of interpersonal relations; Promotion and selection for employment based upon technical competence. The bureaucratic characteristics described above are not highly inter-correlated; thus, organizations that are highly bureaucratized on one dimension are not necessarily so on the other dimensions.

Two possible methods of dimensional measurement were considered. The first was to observe the actions of organizational participants associated with each dimension. The second alternative was the use of interview responses. Scales were constructed for

measurement of each of the six dimensions and Likert internal consistency technique was employed. In their final form, the scales were quite brief; five contained ten items each, while the sixth contained twelve items.

The scales were designed to be administered to the personnel of the organizations selected for study. The selection of organizations for study was purposive to the extent that organizational variety in terms of type, age, and size was desired in order to demonstrate the relationship between the several dimensions. Data were collected from the employees of ten organizations. In each organization a systematic random sample of employees was selected that was designed to include members of both "management" and "worker" categories in order to reduce bias from either perspective.

Coming to the findings, the data tabulated and interpretation reveals that:

- The findings indicate that what is commonly approached as a totality (bureaucracy) is not such an integrated whole in reality. This implies that organizations should be studied from the bureaucratic perspective with less conjecture as to their degree and type of bureaucratization.

- The direction of the relationship between the "technical qualifications" dimension and the three of other dimensions is negative, i.e. in a highly bureaucratized situation (along all dimensions) the highly competent person might not be able to exercise the full range of his competence due to specific procedural specifications, limited sphere of activity, limited authority due to hierarchical demands, etc.

- The dimensions of the study, while essentially on the "bureaucratic" side of Udy's distinction do include one dimension which could be termed as "rational." The "technical qualifications" dimension can be viewed as a "rational" aspect of the overall concept of bureaucracy here. As noted above, this dimension was generally negatively associated with the other dimensions.

To demonstrate conclusively the validity of the study certain conclusions are made. First, the bureaucratic dimensions are meaningful organizational structural attributes. Second, when measured

quantitatively, the dimensions exist in the form of continua rather than as dichotomies. Third, the magnitude of the dimensions varied independently in the organizations studied. This indicates that, organizations that regularly deal with a large volume of customers or clients may develop a high degree of impersonality. These findings suggest some additional directions that research in this field could pursue. Certain problems that are typically ascribed to bureaucratic structures may in fact only exist when a particular configuration of the dimensions is present. For instance, an intense emphasis on procedures may be very useful in one type of organization but not in other types. It is within the realm of possibility that there are optimal or most rational forms of organization for particular organizational activities. Bureaucracy, as it has commonly been used, may not be that rational form described by weber, but particular configuration of the bureaucratic model may be the most rational form for a particular activities.

Generally, in the forgoing discussion, the concept of bureaucracy is viewed as a series of six dimensions, each in the form of a continuum. It is believed that the bureaucratic concept in the school situation is more empirically valid when approached in this manner, rather

than assuming that school organizations are highly bureaucratic or less bureaucratic. Stated more clearly, a highly bureaucratized school organizations would be characterized by an intricate division of labour, a multilevel closely followed hierarchical structure, extensive rules governing on the school activities, well developed and systematically followed work procedures, while the less bureaucratic school organizations would be characterized by a relatively flat and often bypassed hierarchy, and so on. It is with these suggested approaches and understanding the following comparative analysis is demonstrated through the application of the six bureaucratic dimensions to twelve secondary school organizations.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The operational measure of this study uses a descriptive survey and comparative research methods. In order to achieve the objective of this research a relevant and related literature is reviewed, and data regarding the bureaucratic structures is collected from twelve secondary schools both in and out of Addis Ababa. Other information is collected from teachers and school principals using different instruments is analysed on a comparative basis. Lastly, the study is summarized, its findings and conclusions are set forth, and recommendations are offered. The bibliography and appendices follow.

3.2 SAMPLING

For the purpose of this study, secondary schools with a total enrolment of more than 2,500, were considered large, while those with less than 2,500 are taken as small. In fact, the consideration of such school organizations for the study was also purposive to the extent that organizational variety in term of size

was desired in order to demonstrate the relationship between the bureaucratic dimensions in the schools. Secondary schools in Addis Ababa region are typically older, larger and in many instances more facilitated than the provincial ones. In all there are eleven secondary schools in Addis Ababa with more than five-thousand students each.

Table 1. Enrolment of Students in the Two School Systems

No	Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa	Enrolment	No	Secondary Schools in the provinces	Enrolment
1	Abiot Kirse	5653	1	Shashemene	2496*
2	Minilik II	7653*	2	Arsi-Neggelle	1861*
3	Shimelis Habte	50510*	3	Wonji	2043*
4	Entoto Atekali	7337*	4	Bue	981
5	Nefas Silk	8043	5	Merti	2367
6	Addis Ketema	6251	6	Gimbichu	1870
7	Kefitegna 7	8042	7	Butajira	2091*
8	Medhane Alem	12572*	8	Mojjo	1773*
9	Kolfe Atekali	6201*	9	Awash	896
10	Bole	7843*	10	Zeway	2350*
11	Yekatit 12	5604	11	Alaba-Kulito	1647

* Schools included in the study. Source, MOE, Statistics, 1985(E.C)

The sample schools for the study were the six large in the Addis Ababa region and the other six small which are located in the former east and south shoa administrative region. The sampling method used for the bigger secondary schools was that of random sampling from

the already stratified population shown in Table 1. Because of similar lower enrolment in the province schools were selected at simple random technique.

From the selected sample secondary schools, 30 academic staff members (including teachers, Assistant principals, unit-leaders and department heads) from each school were selected at random from teachers attendance sheet to fill the questionnaire. Besides this, in order to facilitate the realization of the objectives of the study, seven female teachers selected at random were also included in each of the 30 sampled teachers.

3.3 INSTRUMENTATION

There appeared to be two possible methods as to the measurement of the bureaucratic dimensions in the two school systems. One alternative was to observe the actions of individual teachers, noting the incidence of the various types of activities associated with each dimension. However, as this method is extremely time-consuming and would require prolonged observations, getting response through questionnaires was preferred.

The second alternative was the use of interview responses from school directors. As the responses from this method could directly be related to the elements of dimensions studied, it was selected on the basis of its greater simplicity and reliability.

3.4 SCALING

The instrument contains 71 items (statements) which are structured in the categories of the six-bureaucratic dimensions. Each of the dimensions were measured on ten items. An additional eleven items was also included to verify authority-conflict related matters. Using a four-point Likert-type scale, teachers responded to each item in terms of their agreement by indicating how closely each statement corresponds to an accurate description of their school organization. Except for the impersonality scale, all lower scores represent disagreement, while agreement is designated by the higher ones. A personal information items were also developed to obtain data on personal, departmental and demographical characteristics of respondents.

Examples of items from each scales are:

1. Hierarchy of authority scale: "At what level are decisions made about school matters?"

2. Authority conflict scale: "During the past years have you had disagreement with the director?"
3. Impersonality scale: "Have you ever considered home problems in assigning a grade to a student?"
4. Pressure of rule scale: "How often do you observe teachers dismiss classes before time in your school?"
5. Divisions of labour scale: "who is responsible for checking whether examination papers are of the standard?"
6. Procedural specification scale: "How often do teachers ask students to bring their parents without the knowledge of the office?"
7. Technical competence scale: "How often do you accept constructive criticism from your superiors?"

It should be recognized that the concepts of the items variables in the study were entirely developed modelling the Ministry of Education Guidelines (1980) (1982) and some of Rebore's (1985:274-7) indicators for professional qualities of teachers. Besides, the personal experiences of the author in secondary schools both as a principal and a teacher enables the translation of these concepts into observable indices.

3.5 RELIABILITY

The first draft of questionnaire was pre-tested on a sample of teachers during the partial fulfilment of the course entitled "Seminar on Education" held in the academic year of 1992. From the result obtained the questions were edited and rewritten with some additional ones. Items which were not believed to discriminate among subjects were eliminated. It was then that the entire questionnaire was reproduced.

3.6 ANALYSIS OF DATA

The analysis is based on 347 respondents in two different localities, using data collected from academic teaching staffs supplemented by interviews with the respective school directors and school document materials. The 179 cases utilized here represent a portion of respondents from the six larger sample schools, while the rest 168 cases are from the provinces. Despite owing gaps in the data, especially, from the smaller schools as a result of unreturned questionnaire of twelve cases, the remaining cases offered sufficiently complete data on all relevant points to enable their use in the present analysis.

The differences that occurred in mean scores between the two school systems, measured on the six-bureaucratic dimensions scale, provide the major source for data analysis. The mean scores obtained were compared and the differences in the absolute-score level were analysed. Besides, differences in the mean scores are related to school size and other factors in the bureaucratic properties among schools, the significance of this differences is examined by performing a t-test method which was considered at, .05, .01 or .001 levels.

Moreover, because a comparison of total scores between the two schools by using proportions is very revealing, relationships and differences in the bureaucratic properties are also analysed on the basis of percentiles. The establishment of rank order tables for administrative perspectives and simple bar graphs are the other sources used for data analysis.

In order to give a glimpse of the condition resulted from the bureaucratic measures, an average of two items, as per dimension, were treated separately. Furthermore, because of the interdependence nature of the bureaucratic dimension some items at times are treated in two different analyses for their relevancy.

Finally, the correlation coefficients is used to see the interrelationships among the six-bureaucratic dimensions in the respective school systems.

CHAPTER FOUR

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SIX BUREAUCRATIC DIMENSION IN LARGER AND SMALLER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

4.1 HIERARCHY OF AUTHORITY

4.1.1 The Source of Conflict

It is illustrated in the literature that hierarchy of authority is prestructured by the organization into departments to facilitate decision-making in order to accomplish the objectives of organizations. By the same token, despite differences in the degree (arrangement) of the structure in the hierarchy, both the larger Addis Ababa and the smaller provincial secondary schools have well structured hierarchy of authorities.

In school organizations one of the most compelling bureaucratic mechanisms used to control individual behaviour is the hierarchy of authority which is the main source of ultimate decisions. These decisions, important structural (hierarchical) variables within the school organizations, are used extensively to direct and control actions of teachers by making explicit approved attitudes and behaviour. But attempting to structure and implement decisions in schools may

demand a well structured hierarchy so as to minimize the influence of individuals on the accomplishment of organizational goals. Due to the presence of such challenges and resistance or lack of skills in the decision-making process, there can be variation in legitimating and exercising authority among the schools. Consequently, some schools are stronger in legitimizing their bureaucratic decisions than others. Table 2, contains the items and the mean scores for the hierarchy of authority scale in the two school systems.

Table 2 Mean Discrepancy scores between large Addis Ababa and small provincial Secondary School teachers on variable measured on the Hierarchy of Authority

Number of Items	Larger A.A Sec. Schools Mean	Smaller Pro. Sec Schools Mean	Dif.	t
7 Extent of teachers involvement in major decisions in the school.	3.00	2.13	0.87	9.66 ⁰
8 The level at which decisions are made about school matters.	3.35	2.59	0.76	7.60 ⁰
9 Individual teachers involvement in major decisions concerning his work.	3.11	2.17	0.94	9.40 ⁰
10 Contribution of the decision making process to the desire of teachers to do a good job. teachers to do	3.02	2.03	0.99	9.9 ⁰
11 How free is a teacher to talk to the director about non-academic matters.	3.26	2.17	1.09	10.9 ⁰
12 How free is a teacher to talk to the director about non-academic matters.	3.40	1.98	1.42	14.63 ⁰
13 The direction of the flow of information about non-academic matters.	3.07	2.04	1.03	10.30 ⁰
14 The direction of the flow of information about non-academic matters.	3.06	2.06	1.00	10.00 ⁰

P⁰ < .001

2/...

Number of Items	Larger A.A Sec. Schools Mean	Smaller Pro. Sec Schools Mean	Dif.	t
15 The character of interaction between teachers and the school officials.	3.01	2.20	0.81	9.00 ⁰
16 Awareness of the director to the disciplinary problems faced by teachers at the classroom level.	3.13	2.12	1.01	10.10 ⁰

$P^0 < .001$

In order to determine the strength in exercising authority in the various school systems ten variables in the decision-making process were examined (see Table 2). In all circumstances, the school authorities who give lesser chance of participation and involvement for their subordinates are found to be more stronger in exercising their power (authority). The hierarchy of authority scale items for which significant differences did occur shown in the table are represented by a mean increase between .76 and 1.42 where the differences were highly significant.

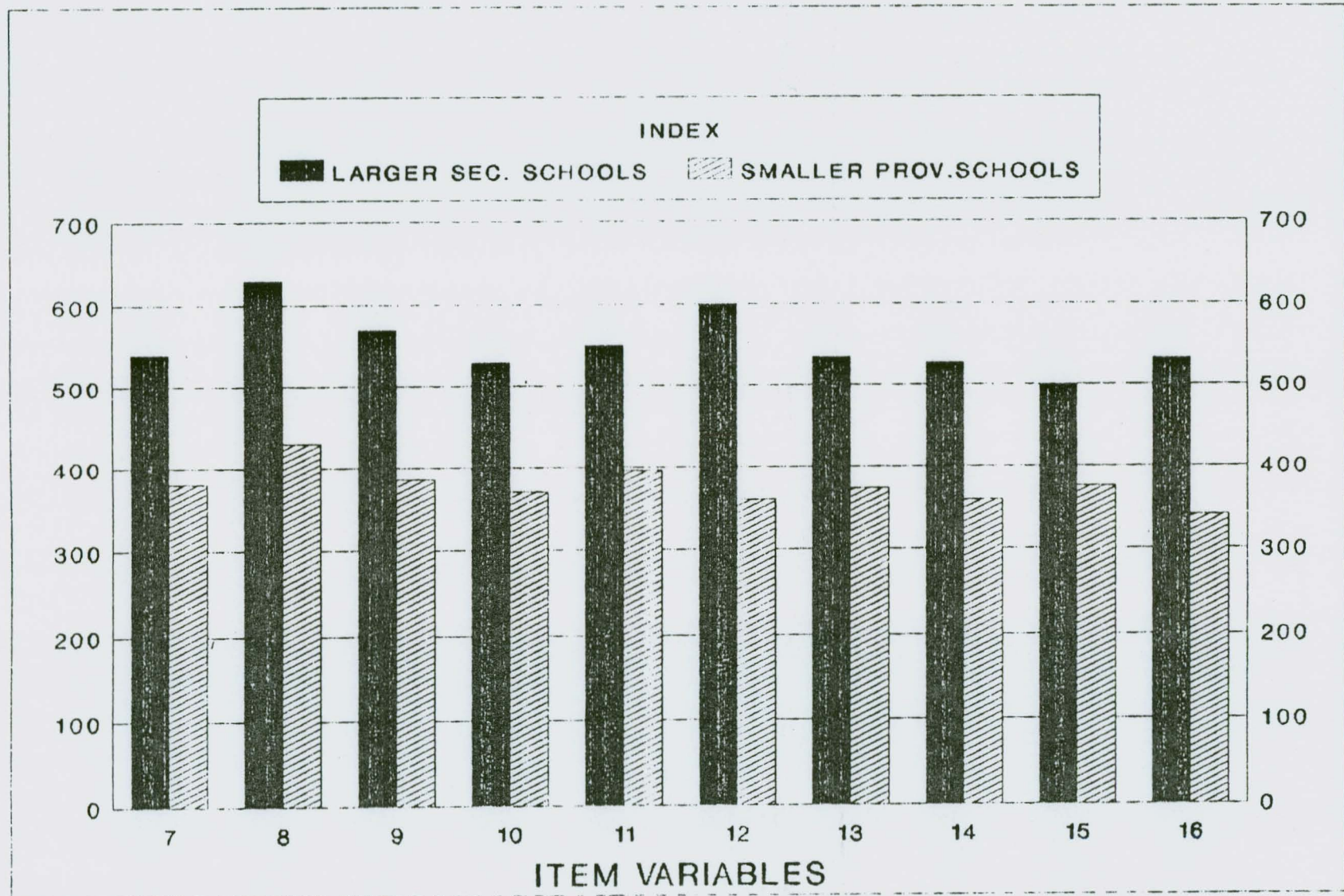


Figure 2. The Intensity of Using Authority Measures In the Two School Systems

In provincial secondary schools the aggregate scores were low in all the ten items. Figure 2, also reflect a marked differences in each item scores. The picture, as such, indicates the intensity of using authority measures to be greater in larger school organizations. But, though the intensity of authority varies, the facts and figures in the tables imply the presence of a well structured hierarchy of authority in both school systems.

However, the well structuring of hierarchy of authority in the various schools does not guarantee the smooth running of the school activities since conflict is quite a common phenomenon observed in all the selected secondary schools. Then, the possibilities and existence of conflict in this part of the study is seen in reference to hierarchy and authority.

It is believed that, the superimposition of division of labour upon a hierarchical authority structure creates the bureaucratic form of organization that is subjected to tension and problems as the result of the interaction of these two systems. In the school situation, this refers to the interaction between the school officials and teachers. In Table 3, though the frequency varies, some sort of disagreement (conflict) indices have been observed in all twelve secondary schools.

TABLE 3 AUTHORITY CONFLICT IN THE SELECTED SECONDARY
SCHOOLS OF ADDI ABABA REGION AND THE
PROVINCES

Item	Larger A.A. Region Secondary												Smaller Provincial Secondary											
	During the past years																							
	School Teachers																							
	Never		Once		Twice		Over 3		Never		Once		Twice		Over 3									
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4								
following?																								
Teachers			Teachers			Teachers			Teachers			Teachers			Teachers			Teachers			Teachers			
M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%	
17a, Director	30	33	84	-	3	20	7	-	4	-	-	38	24	36	10	4	8	16	4	12	72	-	43	
17b, V/Director	38	42	44	37	-	21	48	-	27	14	-	8	86	32	70	31	-	18	17	-	10	2	-	1
17c, Unit-leaders	39	36	42	37	2	22	51	4	31	10	-	6	68	28	57	56	3	35	3	1	6	3	-	2
17d, Dept. Heads	80	38	66	36	3	22	21	1	12	-	-	-	69	32	60	44	-	26	20	-	12	3	-	2
17e, H/Room Teach.	95	41	76	27	1	15	15	-	8	-	-	-	101	29	77	30	3	20	5	-	3	-	-	-

Code: Code response 1 to 4 as numbered.

Here, what is more surprising is that the degree of conflict tends to be greater in the bigger Addis Ababa Secondary Schools with more formal bureaucratic arrangement than the smaller provincial ones. One can argue that, an increase in size necessitates new level of hierarchy and

increases the division of labour and dependence upon specialized skills, friction between formal and functional bases of authority would be more in the larger school organization. The interview with school principals and school documents of the six bigger Addis Ababa Schools also reveals that, they have a total enrolment of well above 5,000 each. At times the figure even exceeds 8,000, as in the case of Medhane-Alem and Bole Secondary schools, each with, one principal, two vice-directors, six unit-leaders and various department heads. Whereas, the smaller provincial secondary schools with a total enrolment of less than 2,500 each, at the most have one director, one vice-director and two unit-leaders and department heads. Some of the provincial secondary schools such as, Arsi-Neggelle, Butajira, and Mojjo still have only one director and two unit-leaders each. Thus, in Table 3, 35 per cent of teachers have experienced disagreement with vice-directors twice or more, and the case with unit-leaders at the same rate accounts 37 per cent for the Addis Ababa region, while it is 11 and 8 per cent in the smaller provincial ones respectively.

This situation may lead to conflict as a result of tension that a teacher feels because of his accountability to two or more contradictory source of authority. The examination of articles in Table 4, may illustrate how contradictory is the source of authority in secondary school organizations.

TABLE 4: List of some of the Duties and Responsibilities of Authorities in Secondary School Organizations

Director: Among the various duties and responsibilities the following articles indicate;

Article, 1.3.7. He is responsible for controlling, and checking whether teachers have prepared plans and carry out their duties accordingly.

Article, 1.5.1. He is also to check and control whether teachers are on time in their duties.

Vice-Director: Over and above being a responsible man in the absence of the director he:-

Article 2.8. Should also to check whether the yearly, semester and weekly lesson-plans are prepared and implemented by individual teachers.

Article 2.10. Should also to check whether teachers are teaching according to the time-table and make sure that they are present on time in their duties.

Article 2.32. Should check and control whether teachers respect the school-hours and present on time in their respective classes.

Unit-Leader:- Other than his accountability to the academic vice-director he is involved in the various administrative functions. Among the various duties and responsibilities depicted;

Article 5.11. He is responsible for checking teachers' presence on time in their respective classes

Article 5.8 . He is to check and control whether teachers have given home-work and class activities to students.

Article 5.3. He is to check and control whether teachers pay due respect to the policy rules and regulations of the school.

It is no wonder then that the coincidence of the above duties and responsibilities of directors, vice-directors and unit-leaders creates the over-lapping of power exercise that may increase frustration which in turn aggravates the chance of conflict between school officials and teachers. Despite that teachers' accountability, particularly in secondary schools, is directly to the director, the size and the bureaucratic arrangements of the school organization sometimes enabled the vice-directors and unit-leaders to interfere directly into teacher-director relationships. These persons normally have some authority in the hierarchy they decide, the classes that a teacher should teach, check whether teachers are in the class on time, the text-books and instructional materials to be used, e.t.c. The relationship between a teacher and these intermediates can be highly collegial but not always so, consequently authority conflict may arise at one time or another. Hence, in Table 5, it is noted that the rate and intensity of authority conflict is higher for the bigger Addis Ababa Secondary Schools, with a total index of 829 where the number of these intermediates is more.

TABLE 5: Hierarchy of Authority and the Rate of conflict in the two school Systems

<u>Category of Hierarchy</u>	Authority Conflict Rate			
	Larger Sec. Schools %		Smaller Sec. Schools %	
Directors	27	3	376	47
*Vice-Directors	274	33	31	3
*Unit-Leaders	283	34	160	20
Dept. Heads	144	17	160	20
H.Room Teachers	101	12	81	10
Total	829	100	808	100

* Middle Hierarchy

Also in Table 5, it is in the middle hierarchy that the greatest impact rests upon where the vice-directors and unit-leaders become victims of the various conflicts. It seems directors in bigger schools are relatively remote and well protected against such conflict due to the number and presence of subordinate authorities who can assume responsibility.

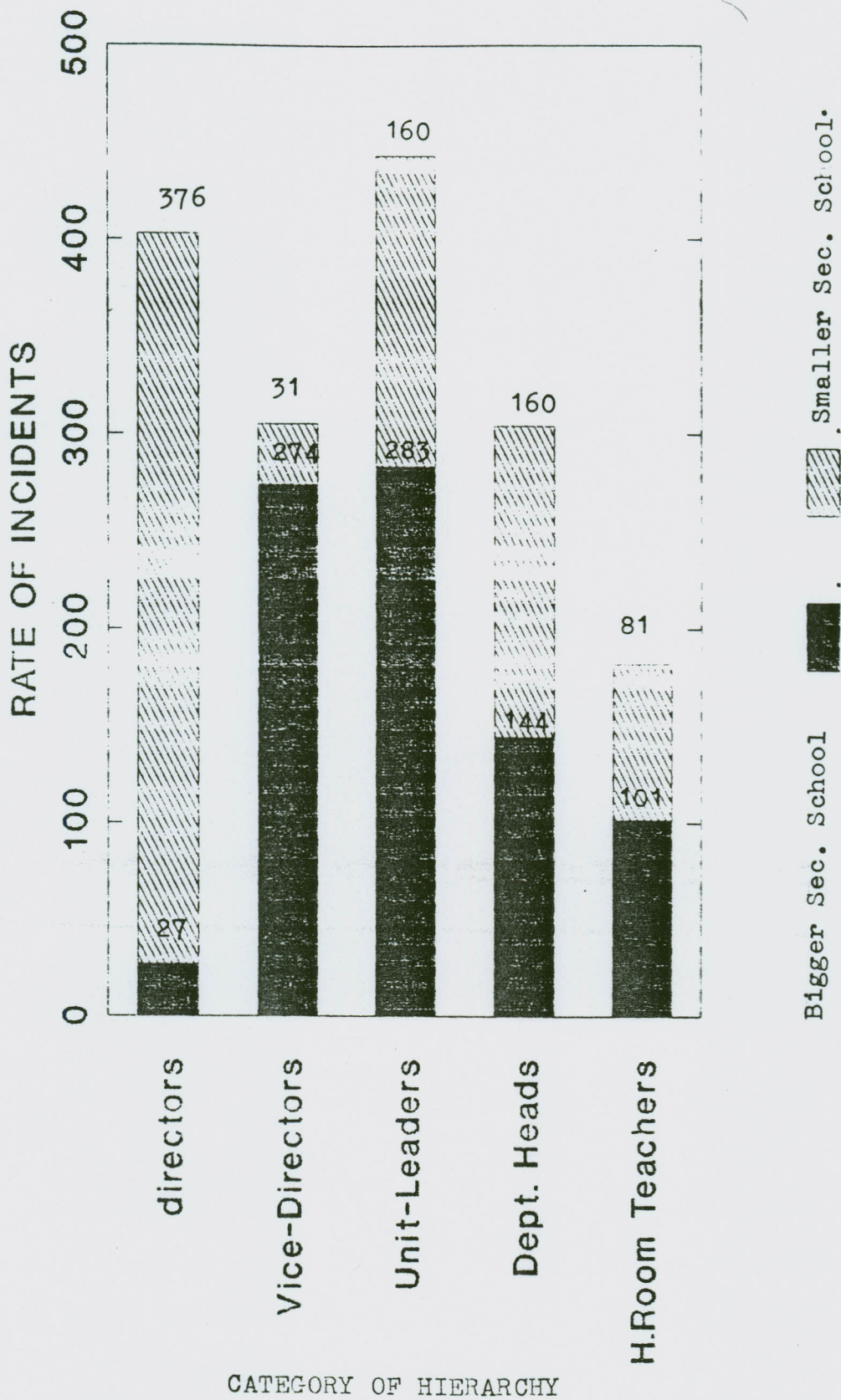


Figure 3. The Share in of the Impact of Conflict by the Hierarcehies

Thus out of the registered 829 incidents the share in of troubles by directors in the bigger secondary schools is only 3 percent, while, because the close proximity of the directors to teachers tends to increase their control over them, the rate of authority conflict with directors is higher in the smaller provincial schools (see also Figure 3).

4.1.2. Structure and Organizational Charts

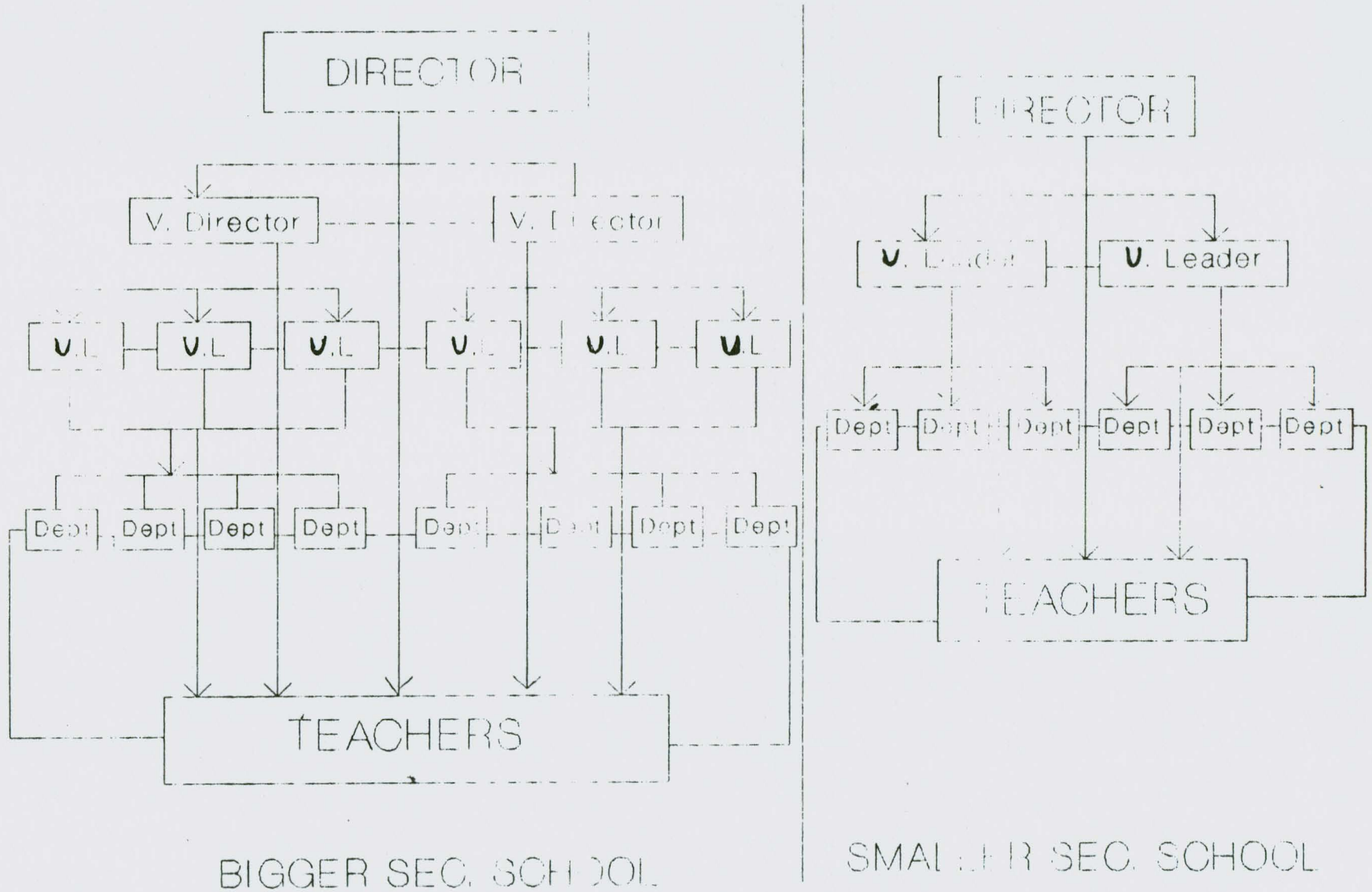
The analysis of the structural arrangement in the hierarchy of authority in both school systems also reveals the presence of trouble spots. Structure, here, may be considered as the established pattern of relationships among the sub-units or parts of the school organization. Stated briefly, structuring is concerned with organizing and directing the school activities, i.e the various activities or tasks are assigned to different units, departments, and teachers in the organization.

In most of the schools, under study, the pattern of formal relationships and duties are depicted in the organizational chart, whilst it is kept usually decorating the director's office. Moreover, these organizational charts specify only the model as it is supposed to exist and omit most of the vital operating details. Hence, one's reliance on such organization charts may easily lead to misconception

about the way the organization function unless one inferred from the actual operations and behaviour of the individuals in the respective school organization. Still more, because the relative tall or flat nature of the organizational chart implies differences in the structural arrangement of the hierarchy of authority, the analysis of the organizational charts of the bigger and the smaller secondary schools may bring us a better understanding of the situation.

Though variation exists in the degree of authority conflict, close study conduct for both sets of schools has disclosed the tendency of the structural arrangement of the hierarchy to be the cause of conflict when compared with what is actually happening in the organization. Following are the outlines of the organization structure for both type of schools, presenting the interpretation of the actual practice as was envisioned by the researcher.

Figure 4. Outline of the School Organization Charts for Bigger and Smaller Secondary Schools as envisioned by the Researcher



* * ———>Line of Authority, Arrowheads show direction in which control

The arrangement of the envisioned charts above reveal that the directors are looking down from the top. In accordance with the policy of the Ministry of Education (1980.7), the vice-directors are legally authorized to facilitate the instructional process by 1) maintaining the adapted educational policies of the state; 2) appraising the policies in accordance with executive needs; 3) supplying the director with the means for informing the teachers and the conditions in the school; 4) furnishing creative leadership to the teaching profession and acting as professional advisors to the directors. However, in the smaller provincial secondary schools, all the above duties and responsibilities go to the unit-leaders who, by virtue of their position in the hierarchical arrangement, represent the vice directors (See, Figure 4). Because of this virtual representation in the hierarchy, it is observed in the study that, in the smaller provincial secondary schools, teachers usually bypassed the unit leaders hierarchy to reach the directors for any serious academic or non-academic matters.

Such a bypassing of hierarchy may endanger the position of directors in the provincial secondary schools. Because when a director is directly observable by teachers, he will also tend to increase his behavioral confirmity just as his observation of teachers increases theirs. When he is observable, teachers may have access to his personal affairs.

A typical example is, the unit-leader who acts as the vice-director; he often participates in secret knowledge concerning the informal behaviour of the organization, such as conflict among the administrative staff or illicit uses of school property, which may increase his involvement with his job and his loyalty to the director. But this also makes him a threat to the director. Since access to secret knowledge is a source of informal power, the unit leaders can enhance their status by relating gossip about their directors. Thus, perhaps directors must sacrifice a certain amount of social distance and respect in exchange of the personal loyalty of their subordinates. In other words, avoidance of direct observability has advantages for both directors and subordinates (teachers). When the director directly observes the teacher (subordinate), the director also leaves himself open to scrutiny. Yet, if he is entirely unobservable, he leaves himself open to gossip.

Furthermore, part of the confusion arises because the reality of authority is even more complex than the chart implies. Here vice-directors and unit-leaders are given authoritative responsibility over teachers (Lines with arrow heads indicates authoritative control, See also Figure 4). Yet, according to the Ministry of Education, the directors are responsible for supervision of teachers and teaching, a primary responsibility of directors in a good organization.

The teachers are automatically caught between the directors and vice-directors in bigger schools and between the director and unit-leaders in the smaller schools, if one is to follow the charts. The teachers are further caught between the two vices in the bigger schools. Similar case exists in the smaller provincial schools where the two unit-leaders occupy equally responsible positions in the organizations. Thus, unless care is taken, such line of commands may be confused creating a stage for disastrous situation that may aggravate authority conflict. For this reason, it is meaningful to adopt an "idealized version" of school organization which restricts and limits the span of control of individuals in position in the respective schools.

Then, if a teacher adherence to more than one source of authority, his relationship with administrative workers may be unacceptable to himself or to the administration. Because teachers and administrative workers are differently oriented. Here in the preceding discussions teachers seem to be oriented toward their profession in both schools, while administrators are looking the school as an organization. Thus conflict may results between superiors and subordinates over teaching-learning process.

4.1.3. Sex and authority Conflict

The most interesting response to the hierarchy of authority (or conflict) is the proportion of female teachers in all sample secondary schools. Of the twelve schools considered in the study only 11 female teachers happened to be in disagreement with the (directors) hierarchy of authority (see also Table 3). Here, female teachers are far low on the conflict generating factors than their male counterparts. This may coincide with Etzioni in Myers (1973:67) statement's who points out that "...women on the average are more amenable to administrative control than men."

The above coincidence together with the response of female teachers may imply that women are also less conscious of organizational status and more submissive in this context than men. Moreover, the desire for pleasant relationships with superiors at work also seems to be more important to females than to males. There is also the implication that women desire sociability more than men because many women are highly motivated in their work, caring less about what happens in the hierarchy of authority they seek to avoid conflicts on the job.

Over and above the implications mentioned, it the writers contention to say that, their predominantly femalial character together with the advantage of being the objects of chivalry when dealing with male superior that might enabled them to

occupy such a safe position.

Generally, hierarchy of authority, as such, is a key characteristics in all sample secondary schools and found to be both the source of power and disagreement (conflict) in the respective school organization.

4.2 IMPERSONALITY OF TEACHERS IN THE TWO SCHOOLS

Impersonality, in the school situation, demands the formality in relationships between teachers and students in the treatment of all students alike. The index of this attitude in the study is measured by ten items; observing a teacher attempts in using the same text-book for the same sections; examining the teacher whether he considered certain factors in grading students; checking teachers' responses as to whether their character and interaction varies from class to class, from student to student and the type and time of examination they give to their students. The "open end" responses of teachers is also considered.

TABLE 6. Use of Text-books by Teachers

Item and Number	Larger Sec. School Teachers			Smaller Pro. Sec.S. Teachers		
	M	F	%	M	F	%
19, In using text-books for your classes do you;						
1, make several different text books available for student use in your classes?	10	2	6.7	21	1	13
2, assign outside reading in the library for particular students?	-	-	-	-	-	-
3, Use different text-book for sections of the same subject based on student's ability?	27	3	16.8	19	-	11.0
4, use the same text-books for all sections of the same subject?	100	37	76.5	96	31	76.0
Total	137	42	100	136	32	100

Code: Code response 1 to 4 as numbered

It is apparent from the above figures, Table 6, that bureaucratic commitment of teachers, particularly their impersonal treatment of students regarding the usage of text-

book is unanimously high both in the larger and the smaller ones. The case is even slightly lower for secondary schools located outside Addis Ababa with an average index of 75.5 percent.

TABLE 7. Impersonality Index of Teachers to Conditional Factors of Students

Items and Number	Larger School Teachers				Smaller School Teachers											
	Always Considered	often Considered	Sometimes Considered	Not Considered	Always Considered	Often Cons. Considered	Sometimes Considered	Not Considered								
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4								
Do you consider the following factors in grading a student?	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%								
20a Home Problems	3	2	31	17	30	17	115	64	8	5	59	35	91	54	10	6
20b Physical disability	0	0	39	22	52	29	86	49	16	10	51	30	57	40	34	20
20c His achievement compared to his ability	27	15	5	3	73	41	74	41	32	19	49	29	53	32	34	20
20d Emotional Problems	0	0	39	22	48	27	92	51	7	4	44	26	46	27	71	42
20e Disciplinary Problems	75	42	45	25	6	3	53	29	97	58	34	20	13	8	24	14
Total Average%	12		18		23		47		19		28		32		20	

The grading of students, in relation to factors such as home problems, physical disability etcetra is another measure that reflects the degree of teacher's impersonality (Table 7).

It is the negative or the "Not Considered" response that measures the highest degree of impersonality in the table. Then, there seems to be a relationship between the size of schools and the impersonality index of teachers. Here, the total response of teachers in bigger secondary schools is higher than the smaller provincial schools with an average index of 47 per cent and 20 per cent respectively. This implies that where teachers have more students, particularly in a city like Addis Ababa, there is less chance and time for attention to individual students, and his evaluation at the classroom level. The reverse is true for smaller secondary schools where teachers interaction with their students is more in the smaller provincial towns. As such, one could say that as size increases so does the impersonal treatment of students.

The other way the index of impersonality in the study is seen from its relationship with the various departments. Accordingly, in the open end questions attached to the item, most of the teachers response from English department were positive. Here all the scaled responses, except the "not considered" choice, are assumed to have positive implications i.e the degree of impersonality is minimized. Compared with other departments, English teachers impersonal treatment of students, especially in the bigger schools, found to be lower than two or three departments put together. For example, a close examination of item 20C typically reveals the situation (Table 8).

TABLE 8 Impersonality of Teachers
by Departments

Item and Department	Larger Secondary School Teachers		Smaller Prov. Sec School Teachers	
	Positive Implied Responses		Positive Implied Response	
20c,		%		%
English Dept.	36	34.2	31	23.1
Amharic Dept.	12	11.4	22	16.4
Maths. Dept.	21	20.0	26	19.4
Social Sc. Dept	14	13.3	28	20.8
Natural Sc. Dept.	22	20.9	27	20.1
TOTAL	105	99.8	134	99.8

Out of the registered 105 positive implied responses in the bigger schools 34.2 Per cent represents teachers from the english department. Though the proportion is lesser, similar observation exists in the smaller schools with an index of 23.1 per cent. The trend of views in the specified responses in the open end question also suggest, most English teachers favour students who show active participation in English Classes. Some of the teachers even specifically describe their favouritism to the extent of saying that, "Additional mark is granted to students who excelled in expression and communication skill in the english language." Such a stand of low impersonality treatment of the English teachers seems to be reinforced by the general objectives of teaching English in Secondary Schools, whose goals are, the development of

TABLE 9: Teachers Mean Scores on Impersonality Measures and Their Significant Differences

Items Number	Larger Sec. School Teachers Mean	Smaller Sec. School Teachers Mean	Diff.	t
19 Using of text books	3.620	3.494	0.126	1.177*
20a Home Problems	4.446	2.613	0.833	9.05 ⁰
20b Physical disability	3.268	2.708	0.56	6.22 ⁰
20c Achievement compared to ability	2.966	2.488	0.478	4.30 ⁰
20d Emotional Problems	3.273	3.077	0.196	1.96*
20e Disciplinary problems	2.229	1.7857	0.444	3.82 ⁰
21 Friendly support to female students	3.452	3.369	0.083	0.89
22 Friendly support to male students	3.597	3.279	0.318	0.47
23 Character Variation between classes	3.748	3.553	0.195	2.40*
24 Preparation of different exam papers	3.765	3.333	0.432	5.26 ⁰

P < .01

P* < .005

P⁰ < .001

Out of the total registered cases of 347, in the study, 207 are teachers with B.A degree and above. The superimposition of this figure over the "Positive Implied" responses in table, 8 reveals that, the greatest proportion of respondents belongs to the group with higher professional qualifications. The index is even higher for the larger schools than the smaller ones, which is 54 and 51 per cent respectively.

It seems, the position and the low impersonality treatment of the highly qualified teachers go hand in hand with the assumption that "Professional teachers are those who are kind to students." On the contrary, such a position of the highly professional teachers suggests that their adherence and compliance to the school bureaucracies is lower than those lesser qualified ones. Thus, teachers with higher qualification are found to be the least inclined in the impersonal treatment of students in the two school systems.

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The preceding analysis together with the mean discrepancy scores on the impersonality measures may suggest that the

bureaucratic dimension of impersonality is directly proportional to the size of school organizations. In table 9, although the configurations in the schools seems quite similar, except for items 21 and 22 all differences were significant beyond the .05 level.

4.3. PRESSURE OF RULES

In addition to the two bureaucratic dimensions already outlined, schools may rely upon rules that explicitly or implicitly prescribe or proscribe behaviour. Moreover, because close supervision by school directors is not possible as the school organization increases in size, they are forced to call upon rules to direct action, reaction and interaction of individual teachers. Furthermore, in a very real sense the imposition of rules in school organization stabilize impersonalization, decentralization and the legitimization of authority.

Here, administrative rules are concerned with the teachers and his relationship to the school and to his superiors. On the other hand the pedagogical aspects of rules may facilitate the teacher's relationship with students in instructional matters. This includes lesson-plan preparation and submission of tests and final examination to superiors for approval. For instance, the combined scores of the two school

teachers on two items in table 10 shows the reluctance of some teachers to the pressure of rules.

TABLE 10, Combined Scores on the Preparation and Submission of Lessons - Plans

Item	Larger and Smaller School Teachers Responses			
	No	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
25, Are you to prepare lesson-plan which may be inspected by your superiors?	1	2	3	4
	-	19	47	281
	Total%	6	14	80
26, Are you used to submit your lesson-plan to the department exactly on the due date?	-	24	39	285
	Total %	7	11	82

N= 347 Codes; 1 to 4 as numbered.

In Table 10, it is clear that it is not only the pressure of rules but their relevance which is subject to interpretation. One has to consider that in the school system the pressure of rules not only provides "remote control" to school directors, but they also lay the basis for evaluation. Here, the preparation of lesson- plan by teachers is also understood as the explications in the policy of the Ministry of Education. However, by personal reasons or another some teachers did not respond positively and uniformly throughout.

As indicated in the table, the response of teachers along the "Almost always" scores is not unanimously high as it is expected. Out of the total population of 347, in all sample schools, only 80 per cent of the response of "sometimes" and "often" accounted for about six and fourteen per cent each.

Based on the above figures and responses, one could say that the bureaucratic assumption of "Rationality of organization can be increased by rule compliance", is doomed to failure in all sample school organizations because of the inconsistency of teachers commitment to pressure of rules.

The other item used to examine the compliance of teachers to pressure of rules is seen from the submission of tests and final examinations to their superiors for approval. The lower column in Table 10, shows that not all teachers have responded positively as it should be. Although insignificant the proportion, seven per cent, the "sometimes" responses of teachers may suggest something in terms of autonomy. As Katz in Hanson (1985:99) stated, autonomy refers to, "The independence of subunits of an organization from control by other part of the organization or even by the whole organization." Here the implied fact is that professional teachers tend to feel that they are the ultimate authorities in the teaching and evaluating students because of their expertise in specialized fields. Teachers, as such simply

don't like to consider department heads approval of test or an examination in their subject area. Thus, one can argue that, the bureaucratic model of secondary schools with higher emphasis on the pressure of rules may not totally applicable, just because of the presence of teachers who need to have autonomy in their professional activities.

TABLE 11: Differences of Mean Scores of Teachers on Pressure of Rules

Item Number		Larger Schools	Smaller Schools	Difference	t
25	Mean S.D	3.815 0.467	3.684 0.610	0.131	1.679*
26	Mean S.D	3.905 0.294	3.583 0.729	0.322	4.18 ⁰
27	Mean S.D	3.888 0.365	3.398 0.751	0.49	6.125 ⁰
28	Mean S.D	3.921 0.358	3.458 0.780	0.463	7.78 ⁰
29	Mean S.D	1.352 0.657	1.244 0.507	0.108	1.35*
30	Mean S.D	3.812 0.471	3.273 1.013	0.537	5.770 ⁰
31	Mean S.D	3.832 0.443	3.333 0.951	0.499	5.54 ⁰
32	Mean S.D	3.888 0.365	3.309 1.002	0.579	6.65 ⁰
33	Mean S.D	3.927 0.281	3.601 0.639	0.326	4.46 ⁰
34	Mean S.D	3.955 0.232	3.648 0.648	0.307	4.38 ⁰

p* < .05
P⁰ < .001

In order to check whether the larger and the smaller provincial secondary schools differ significantly with respect to the measures of pressure of rules, ten items were tested by determining the t-test value. In Table 11, all items value fall between 1.35 and 6.65 which are significant at 0.05 level. The slight differences of the means indicate the

existence of similar compliance to the pressure of rules in the two school organizations.

4.4 DIVISION OF LABOUR IN THE STRUCTURED ADMINISTRATIVE PERSPECTIVES

Because of the varied activities to be carried out in a school are too complex for everyone to carry on with equal competence, greater efficiency results when tasks are divided into speciality areas. It is observed in the study that, in most of the school systems teachers are assigned to classes according to their training, skill and qualification. The interview with school principals also reveals that, in their decentralized organization system, under the division of labour process, the director, the vice-directors and the department heads agree in advance on the individual teacher assignment into the various departments.

Whatesmore, division of labour in both school systems was found to have something to do with the hierarchy of authority. When asked to describe the division of labour most of the school principals have used their organizational charts. From the description, official positions in schools are referred to as offices. Each office constitutes a system of jobs, or roles, which prescribe the responsibilities of that office with respect to other offices in the system. Accordingly, the

director's official obligation is to provide facilities for teachers and to influence their direction. The vice-directors together with unit-leaders are responsible for staffing and coordinating classrooms. Teachers are supposed to impart knowledge and values to students without showing favouritism and so on.

Division of labour, which is sometimes known as differentiation on the other hand, demands control or integrating mechanism, particularly in the bigger school organizations. As such division of labour, like the other bureaucratic dimensions is seriously affected by the size of schools. Bigger size meant, more division of labour, more hierarchy of authority and more procedural specifications.

Such complexities in an organization requires, a well structured communication network system which otherwise may weaken the bureaucratization of the teaching-learning process in the school organization. In other words, every divisions of labour and sub-units within the school produces another link in the communication. Thus, the larger and more complex schools become, the more complex is the communications system. For instance, other than the formal routine orders, the larger Medhane Alem and Entoto Secondary Schools have adopted similar documented means of communication system in the form of written orders, intended to integrate the various departmental activities (see Appendix III). Whereas, such elaboration of

communication means are either absent or practised temporarily in the smaller provincial secondary schools.

Direction of communication in the division of labour and in the school organization system in general in this part of the study further seen in accordance with teacher's responses as to how the information flow in the respective school systems. In the school situation, it is recognized that mostly information flows either in vertical or horizontal direction pending the circumstances in the school organization. These two types of communication systems, however, practised interchangeably or both at the same time may imply different reasons and consequences in administrative perspectives. Analysis of item 13. in Table 12 though treated previously is also relevant here in providing a good example.

Table 12, Information Flow in the Structured Organization

Item and Number	Larger Secondary School Teachers			Smaller Secondary School Teachers		
	M	F	%	M	F	%
13, In what direction does information about academic matters flow in your school?						
1. Down, up, and between teachers and between students	9	-	5	38	17	33
2. Down and up	15	10	14	53	11	38
3. Mostly horizontal	70	18	49	29	2	18
4. Downward from director to teachers to students	43	14	32	16	2	11
T O T A L	137	42	100	136	32	100

Other than administrative perspectives, the direction of the information flow along the responses indicated above may also suggest that there could be a number of factors in which the school organizational communications can be identified with. As such, the horizontal information flow which is a dominant feature in the bigger schools, with an index of 49 per cent can be the result of active social interaction among teachers. This is especially true in Entoto, Medhane Alem and Minilik Secondary Schools where the division and relationships

among teachers are both diffuse and complex. Among the various factors, which do not operate the same degree in many of the provincial ones, the bigger secondary schools possessed; a relatively splendid rest rooms accommodated with dinner, tea and soft-drinks at times video-films etecetra which can serve as a bridge between teachers and school officials; extension division such as night schooling which provides additional time (chance) for teachers interaction which in turn may strengthen the horizontal communication. There is in short a noticeable opportunity of mutual interaction and understanding among teachers as a result of such informal relationships in the bigger secondary schools of Addis Ababa. Hence, One can conclude that, adherence and commitment of teachers to the bureaucratic organization could be improved through the informal relations, at least at the school level.

The down and up information flow, on the other hand, in the provinces which occupy a prominent position with an index of 38 per cent, in Table 12, implies the domination of vertical communication system. This may also mean that, communication is downward flowing among selective echelons where inviolate meanings are attached to statements from the directors. In such circumstances, for example, the validity of information depends upon who gives it, and the tendency of directors in this instance is to discuss or report only those

matters which support status and to avoid communication which may threaten maintenance of status. Still more, vertical communication in provincial schools implies that, teachers in lower echelons may receive information relative to organizational goals as these are perceived by the top hierarchy but in turn have little opportunity to give feedback.

From the structured administrative perspectives point of view, division of labour in organizations is an indispensable process both at the top hierarchy and down in the lower echelons, without which a good communication system alone may not be effective in attaining organizational objectives.

In this study, because the various school activities are to carried out simultaneously the importance of division of labour is found to be the main features in all the school systems. However, there appeared to be differences in magnitude and uniformity of the division of labour in the two sets of school.

TABLE 13: Mean Scores on the Magnitude and Uniformity of Division of Labour in the Two Schools

Items and Number	Larger Schools Mean	Smaller Schools Mean	Differences
35 Responsibility for achieving high performance goals.	3.881	3.226	0.655
36 Responsibility for checking the standard of examination paper	3.810	3.226	0.584
37 Duty of keeping accurate records as per instruction	3.955	3.934	0.021
38 Marking and submission of student absentees to the office	3.972	3.964	0.008
39 Evaluation of subject teachers	3.972	3.684	0.288
40 Distribution of text-books to students	3.966	3.572	0.437
41 Responsibility for maximum academic discipline	3.938	3.607	0.331
42 Budgeting and buying of school materials	3.983	3.916	0.067
43 The running of the "school bell."	3.966	3.666	0.3
44 The information about the change in the "Time-Tabling."	3.933	3.916	0.017

Though the configuration of the mean scores seems uniform, a close scrutiny of each items reveals the presence of differences in the magnitude of the division of labour. The mean score of items, 37,38,42 and 44 in Table 13, indicates the relative similar uniformity and magnitude in the division of labour among the schools. As for example, there is no doubt in agreeing that the duty of keeping accurate records as per instruction goes to the subject teachers or marking and submission of student absentees to the office by home room teachers. On the other hand the relative mean differences of item 35, 36, 39, 40, 41 and 43 indicate differences in the magnitude of appropriate division of labour. For instance, it is not uncommon to see school directors checking the standard of examination papers while it is an appropriate responsibility of department heads or it is a common practice to send out a student to run the "school bell" especially in the provinces.

From the preceding discussions we can say that division of labour in both schools obviate the need for more integrating and control mechanisms, which may reduce the possibility of disorderliness and increases the welfare of school organizations.

4.5 PROCEDURAL SPECIFICATION

As one of the bureaucratic dimensions, procedural

specification in the school systems enable teachers to follow organizationally defined techniques and procedures in dealing with situations they encounter. Under this dimension such conditions as; teachers' freedom to give his opinion in handling problems in the classroom; the procedures in the preparation and conduction of quizzes, tests and examinations; process of resolving student disciplinary problems and other crucial issues related to the personality of teachers which all require specified decisions, are examined. But it is believed that, teachers may carry out solutions to school problems more largely when they have participation in the decision-making process.

TABLE 14, Participation in Decision Making Process

Item	Larger School Teachers			Smaller School Teachers		
	M	F	%	M	F	%
53, Who holds the highest decision making power concerning academic related school problems, Such as cheating in examination in the school?						
1, Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	
2, Subject and home room teachers	-	-	-	-	6	4
3, Director and teachers	3	-	2	66	11	46
4, Director with administrative staff	134	42	98	70	15	51
TOTAL	137	42	100	136	32	100

In Table 14, the greatest proportion of teachers's response which is 98 per cent, in bigger schools indicates that most of the decisions concerning school problems are made at the director level. Whereas, in the smaller provincial secondary schools teacher participation in decision making concerning school problems is higher than that of the bigger ones. Here, 46 per cent of teacher's response in the smaller schools implies that decisions are made in collaboration in smaller schools is high as teachers have the chance in participating in the decision-making process concerning school problems.

However, whether the process in the decision-making is agreed or disagreed, the solutions for school problems, particularly in secondary schools, goes beyond the acceptance of the established procedural specifications. As such, teachers may have limited responsibility for decision making either in or out of their classrooms, they may deal at times with students who are unique. By contrast, bureaucracies place problems into discrete categories where they can be handled with established procedural specifications. Since all problems falling within one category are dealt identically, the chance of solving the various unique problems faced by individual teachers is very rare.

Then, if procedural specifications are formulated to guide the activities of the school, to bring this action about a school director must introduce, define, and gain teacher support. For example, decisions made largely at the director level in the bigger secondary schools of Addis Ababa implied that the communication of procedural specification is ignored or poorly performed as they are ordered into effect without any consideration of the timely problems of the individual teachers in the respective school systems.

The total figures of the statistical variables in Table 15, also indicate that, generally, the bigger secondary schools maintain a dominant position in implementing organizationally defined procedural specification though it lacks teacher's participation.

TABLE 15: Aggregate Scores of Ten Items on Procedural Specification in the two Schools

STATISTICAL VARIABLES	Larger Sec.	Smaller Sec. Schools	t
Grand Scores	6678.00	5,960.000	
Means	37.307	35.476	
Standard Deviations	1.896	2.522	11.44
Maximums	40.000	40.000	
Minimums	31.000	27.000	
Number of Teachers	179	168.000	

$P^* < .001$

Whatever may be the case, in very real sense, teachers mostly prefer to have some part in the decision which affects

them, and therefore, it is more effective when domination is reduced to a minimum. Thus, if teachers must comply, they prefer complying to a cooperatively developed procedural specifications. Since this is less impersonal, the feeling of being dominated is not so great. This is not to say, however, that teachers should reject decisions of their superiors. Teachers often want the system specified and would comply to the decisions of superiors if they do not seriously distort their own basic behaviours.

4.6 TECHNICAL COMPETENCE

Finally, in addition to the five bureaucratic dimensions already outlined, technical competence, as a key characteristics in all twelve secondary schools, illustrates the extent to which the standard of teaching is promoted in the school system. But it is very difficult to measure technical competence directly or as to what constitutes good teaching. Here a glimpse of two items in table 16, on the basis of teacher academic qualification and their response on teaching assignment or the position they occupy together with school directors interview may suffice to provide a clue to the condition of technical competence in the two school systems.

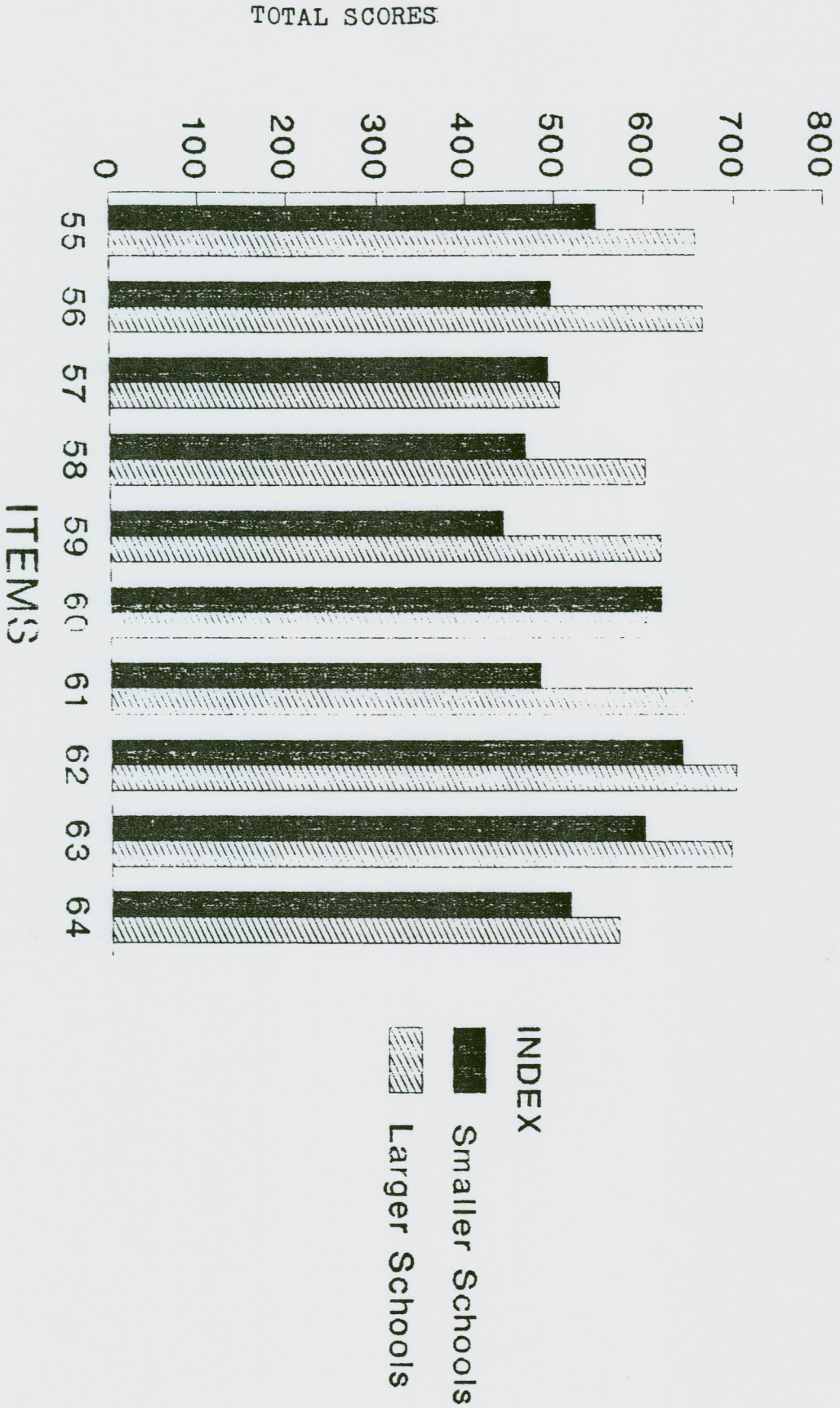
TABLE16: Technical competence index by qualification and assignment in the schools

ITEMS	Larger Sec. School Teachers			Smaller Sec. School Teachers		
	M	F	%	M	F	%
	3, Indicate your academic qualification					
1. T.T.I	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Diploma (12+2)	26	34	34	54	27	48.2
3. Bachelors	83	7	50	68	5	43.4
4. Master's Degree	12	-	7	6	-	3.8
5. Others	15	1	9	8	-	4.6
Total	138	42	100	136	32	100
62, How strictly is considered your qualification for what you are teaching or the position you occupy?						
1. Considered very little	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Slightly considered	-	-	-	4	2	3
3. To some extent considered	11	6	9	17	3	12
4. Very strictly considered	126	36	91	115	27	85
Total	137	42	100	136	32	100

There are significant differences among the categories of academic qualifications with respect to the proportion of teachers within and between the schools. Teacher's response in Table 16, shows the number of degree holders in all schools is higher than the rest. The case is still higher for bigger secondary schools than those of the provincials which is 50 and 53.4 per cents respectively. Such concentration of highly qualified teachers in the bigger schools may suggest that the majority of degree holders preferred to teach in more urbanized areas.

another characteristic, indicated in the table, is the high percentage of teachers with Diploma (12+2) in provincial secondary schools. As compared to schools in and around Addis Ababa teachers qualified in Diploma are increasing in number in the provincial secondary schools. Some of the reasons is discussed in detail latter in this chapter.

The lower column in Table 16, on the other hand shows teacher's responses as to how they are assigned to teach in the various grades and the position they hold in the school system. Competence here is viewed as the degree to which a teacher identifies with his qualification in relation to the task he is assigned. Over 90 per cent in the larger and 85 per cent in the smaller ones agreed that their assignment is



Figure, 6. TECHNICAL COMPENCE INDEX IN THE TWO SCHOOL SYSTEMS

on the basis of their academic qualifications. This shows that, a great deal of effort (has been) in effect to promote high technical competency in each of the school systems.

Moreover, other than the analysis of the two items discussed above, the total scores, with the exception of item sixty, also indicates that the bigger schools excels in the technical competence dimension measured on the variables in the remaining items (Figure 6).

The other exceptional characteristic of technical competency in the study is its relation with seniority, especially in the provinces. A close scrutiny of interviews with school directors reveals that seniority has developed as another official basis of competency, particularly, when it comes to promotions within the school system. Some of the directors even have argued that, the longer the experience an individual has the more he has expected to have acquired skills, and knowledge that would be beneficial to his higher post. Accordingly, other than academic qualification, department heads, unit-leaders, and home room teachers are to be assigned on the basis of seniority. Here, because seniority is an age graded it does not need direct assessment of competence. As such seniority is easier to measure and save school directors from some of the difficult problems of evaluating the technical competence of teachers.

In the above discussion, however, it must be noted that, while experience may provide the necessary practice that enhance competence, the mere fact of being on the job for a specified time is obviously not sufficient measures of competence. As such seniority does not guarantee competence or vice-versa. Thus, because the measures of technical competence are not refined enough to select, promote or assign teachers on that basis alone, merit selection should naturally be based on other than technical competence. Though difficult to fairly judge individual's merit neatly, the use of such criteria may provide better justifications. This may also helps to explain why "fair" directors use officially irrelevant criteria to make decisions about promotion or assignment when there are simply too many teachers qualified equally. However, while the use of such criteria other than competence may seem logically arbitrary from the view point of good teaching they are not necessarily irrelevant to the needs of the school organization.

The other peculiarities of seniority is that, the power to be transferred is found to be the function of seniority. Because newly graduate (Degree) teachers are to be assigned in the provinces where the situation is challenging, it is not surprising that most young beginning teachers often apply for transference. However, their application usually rejected

because such demand is met more often on the basis of seniority than of achievement. At times, the teacher is characterized by such classification as, freshman, probationary, permanent etecetra which in turn may increas their indifference toward the school administration and make them to dislike the school as a place to work.

TABLE 17, THE RANK ORDER OF CAUSES OF DISSATISFACTION IN
ADMINISTRATIVE PERSPECTIVES

Items	Satisfied	Sometime Satisfied	Usually Satisfied	Dissatisfy	Total Scores	Rank	
18a, Administrative backing	L.S.	1 64	2 27	3 18	4 70	453	4 th
	S.S.	58	31	23	46	300	3 rd
18b, Interference of Supervisors	L.S.	134	17	17	11	284	3 rd
	S.S.	57	31	10	20	218	3 rd
18c, Class assignment	L.S.	33	18	17	70	338	3 rd
	S.S.	30	22	33	37	322	4 th
18d, Transference upon request	L.S.	84	32	18	50	384	3 rd
	S.S.	10	20	33	103	166	2 nd
18e, Night-schooling	L.S.	-	17	58	103	308	2 nd
	S.S.	97	26	25	20	304	3 rd
18f, Class-size	L.S.	-	3	58	111	314	3 rd
	S.S.	9	28	43	32	312	3 rd

4 L.S, Larger Secondary Schools Cods: Code response 1 to as numbered

S.S, Smaller Secondary Schools

The rank order in Table 17, shows that, among teachers in the provinces, "transference upon request" ranks second as the main cause of dissatisfaction with the school administration.

Still more, from the view point of school directors, seniority is asserted and cited frequently as a weakness and even considered frequently as a weakness and even considered in the formal evaluation and promotion procedures. Here, it seems school director's views of seniority coincides with the policy of the Ministry of Education that asserts the first six month of beginning teachers as a probation period. This implies that the sense of time and the way it is valued both in the ministry and in the School Organization is , oversimplified. Considering the concept of time among administrators in developing g societies, Douglas (1988:367) noted that, "Rather than viewed as a scarce resource, item is considered as a relatively abundant commodity, measured in long-term sequence, such as seasons. " Here, the bureaucratic assumption that organizations could achieve their objectives by the application of logic, rationality and time becomes out of context. Then it is no wonder that young teachers who deprived of seniority becomes the first to submit their names on the list to seek a transfer to a more comfortable school. One where they can really teach and not be concerned constantly with the bureaucratic constraints of seniority.

Generally, the most promising practice from an educational stand point would be to promote the technical competence of teachers by arranging programmes that minimizes teacher's feeling of the bureaucratic constraints; avoiding

total adherence to seniority for promotion and assignment purposes; arranging certain advantages for the inexperienced young teachers may also enhance their competency. For example, arranging minimum number of teaching-loads rather than maximum loads for the first couple of years. Moreover, what is essential on personal issues such as transference should not that seniority be applied, but that these decisions be made by fellow teachers rather than administration.

4.7 INTERRELATIONSHIPS OF THE SIX BUREAUCRATIC DIMENSIONS

Of the greater interest, in the schools studied, are the interrelationships among the bureaucratic dimensions in the two sets of schools. Here where the structural arrangement in the hierarchy of authority is more, so does the impersonality treatment of subordinates (teachers) which may in turn paves the way for better technical competence.

TABLE 18, INTER-BUREAUCRATIC DIMENSIONAL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS IN LARGER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Bureaucratic Dimensions	Imper.	Bureaucratic Dimensions			
		P.Rules	Division.L	Proces.	T.C
Hierarchy of Authority	0.484965°	0.180314*	0.172665*	0.303889°	0.471835°
Impersonality		0.184150*	0.200017*	0.371438°	0.467954°
Pressure of Rules			0.245556°	0.167291*	0.169804*
Division of Labor				0.258920°	0.235028°
Procerderal					
Specification					0.367030°

P* < .05

P0 < .001

In Table 18, the correlation coefficients between hierarchy of authority and impersonality is 0.484965, while it is 0.471835 between hierarchy of authority and technical competence. Whereas similar correlation coefficients in Table 18, shows lesser relationships.

TABLE 19, INTER-BUREAUCRATIC DIMENSIONAL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS IN THE SMALLER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Bureaucratic Dimensions	Bureaucratic Dimensions				
	Impersonality	P.Rules	Division of L	Proc. S.	T.C
Hierarchy of Auth.	0.219005°	0.244200°	0.112685*	0.134361*	0.202853*
Impersonality		0.376608	0.112240*	0.091138*	0.086367°
Pressure of Rules			0.382913°	0.271581°	0.367987*
Division of Labor				0.256899*	0.333805°
Procedural Specification					0.368919°

P* < .05

P₀ .001

But, because of the professionals challenge, it is observed that the correlation coefficient of hierarchy of authority and pressure of rules is relatively less significant. One can argue that highly qualified and technically competent individuals would expect professional autonomy and could be most impatient with pressure of rules which inhibit the exercise of personal influences.

Still another similar correlations are observed between procedural specification and the division of labor (in both tables), which are 0.258920 and 0.256899 respectively. In this context, the school administration may have considered the technical competence of teachers and could have become lesser inclined in specifying the approaches that individual teachers must follow, as for example, in the preparation of examination papers. Generally, these interrelationships imply that teachers want to make decisions that they consider within their professional domain and that school administrators should provide the necessary leadership in order to accomplish educational objectives fruitfully.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Summary

Bureaucracy is, then in the school situation, a means of organizing work which permits or encourages coordination. Coordination in turn is achieved in a hierarchy of graded authority regulated by rules and depersonalizing mechanisms. Bureaucracy, as such, is not designed for the pleasure of individual teachers so much as it is destined to institutionalize work. Stated briefly, schools are social organizations within which individuals cannot act what they please because of the internal restrictions imposed by bureaucratic rules and procedures which otherwise cannot be efficient unless monitored accordingly.

Apart from the negative connotation it has today among laymen, bureaucracy is a form of "expert" administration inevitable, or at any rate difficult to avoid, in our school organization. The sheer growth in size, and the need for accountability together with the need for maintaining maximum academic discipline has made bureaucracy still more inevitable at the present secondary schools situation in this country.

However, as school organizations are becoming more and more

bureaucratically structured, highly trained professional teachers also expect and need a certain degree of autonomy. Because, coming to the school with expectations of independence and professional autonomy, a teacher is required to conform to rules and operating procedures to hierarchical authority. Accordingly, the most critical dilemma posed for the school organization is how to reconcile the expectations of autonomy and individual responsibility of highly trained professional teachers with the bureaucratic hierarchy's demand for centralized control. Similarly, in carrying out the school programmes, some school directors promote individuals within a school system on the basis of seniority as opposed to competency. Here because seniority is an age graded, it does not need direct assessment of competence, at the same time, it may save school directors from some of the difficult problems of evaluating the technical competence of teachers. But it is believed that while experience may provide the necessary practice that enhance competence, the mere fact of being on the job for a specified time is obviously not sufficient measure of competence.

Generally, there seems to be a substantial agreement that schools vary in the extent to which they exhibit bureaucratic properties and that bureaucracy is typically not a unitary concept.

The purpose of the study is, therefore, to investigate whether or not bureaucratization in the school organization is in effect in secondary schools located in Addis Ababa and in the provinces on the basis of the six-bureaucratic dimensions namely; Hierarchy of Authority, Pressure of Rules, Procedural Specification, Impersonality, Division of Labor and Technical Competence.

In view of these inquires a general comparative analysis of the bureaucratic structures between the two school systems has been used. The analysis is entirely based on 347 teachers responses in twelve secondary schools using items constructed in line with the six-bureaucratic dimensions supplemented by school directors interview and school document materials.

5.2 Findings

When the mean scores on each dimension were tabulated, a range of scores for each items was found. However, it should be noted that these scores do not correspond to the possible range of the total scores for each dimensions scale. For example, under hierarchy of authority all the ten items mean scores differences are represented by a mean increase between .76 and 1.42 and the differences were great enough to be statistically significant beyond the .05 level. Whereas the total scores range for the same dimensions was 2012 between the two school systems.

Under authority conflict scale, larger schools with more hierarchical arrangement have the highest index of over 55 per cent. The impact of conflict within the hierarchy of schools highly felt at the middle where the share of unit-leaders was 58 per cent in the bigger schools while similar effect was felt with an average index of 63 per cent at the top directors level in the province. The involvement of female teachers in authority conflict, particularly with the too hierarchy, throughout the study was low when compared to their male counterparts, it is only eleven out of seventy-four.

Analysis of the impersonality dimension indicates that except the presence of similar lower index along with the English Department, in every aspect the bigger school organizations maintain a dominant position. For example, the configuration of items 20a, 20b, 20c, 20d and 20e, indicates that the proportion of teachers who do not consider the conditional factors in the grading of students in the bigger schools also maintain the same dominant position along the division of labor dimension. Here, what seems to be uniform in both schools is the prevalence of vertical information flow about academic matters is due to the presence of similar arrangement in the school hierarchy.

Many of the findings in the analysis of the pressure of rules and the procedural specification dimensions cover a wide range of factors that challenges the professional autonomy of teachers. For instance, the combined response of items 25 and 26 under the pressure of rules dimension in the two schools could not reach the highest percentage as expected though the issues are explicated even at the Ministry level. Similarly, the treatment of item 53 under the procedural specification, the indices of 98 and 51 per cents in the schools imply a serious lack of teachers participation in decisions concerning the procedures as to the solutions to the schools academic disciplinary problems.

Other than the statistical configurations the findings in the school directors' interview, in the province, indicates that seniority is highly considered in the technical competence" for transference and promotions purpose within the school systems. This findings while not conclusive, may raise the question of the appropriateness and utility of seniority in the technical competence is taken to encompass a general high level of training and qualification it may not be totally appropriate to use the "age graded" dimension of seniority for promotion purpose.

Finally , in addition to the similar configurations of bureaucratization among the schools studied, evidence obtained from the interrelationships correlation, also indicates some similar relationships between dimensions within the respective school systems.

5.3 Conclusions

The empirical evidence in the study clearly shows that bureaucratic structure is not unitary variable but it is multidimensional and prevalent among the twelve secondary schools. The prevalence and emergence of these bureaucratic dimensions also suggest that the schools are bureaucratic in a large number of ways. For instance, the vertical information flow in the communication system reflect the intensive use of the bureaucratic properties in both school organizations.

The size of schools also happens to be a determining factor which affects the bureaucratic dimension of schools. Thus, hierarchy of authority, division of labor, procedural specifications and technical competence all vary in size. Moreover, impersonality of teachers toward their students and the school organization in general are inextricably associated with size, qualification of teachers and at times with departments. Except for the hierarchy of authority and the resulted authority conflict, there is no visible differences

observed between female and male teachers in their reaction toward the school bureaucracy.

The complexity of administrative functions and the problem of control in larger schools causes school directors to direct teacher's actions through written orders rather than direct explications and supervision. Because of the reduction in face-to-face contact between directors and teachers, procedures are highly formalized and decentralization of authority is formed through more hierarchical arrangement. Thus schools with such highly bureaucratized arrangement were found practising high rate of authority conflict in their organization. Over and above the complexity of administrative functions, the structural arrangement of authorities or the implications of "organizational charts", virtually becomes the cause of disagreement in the two school systems. Seniority, as opposed to competency, is highly favoured among the directors in provinces while lack of teachers participation in major decisions concerning the school activities is predominantly observed in all selected secondary schools. Lastly, the nature of the interrelationship correlations within the respective school systems suggest that the six-bureaucratic dimensions are indeed interdependence.

5.4 Recommendations

In view of the finding and conclusions reported in this study, these recommendations in the form of suggestion are offered:-

1, An educational administrator should have a certain vantage point whereby he can take a hard look at the bureaucracy in which administrative functions are conducted, i.e. awareness that the bureaucratic dimensions are interdependent within an organization could be the key to successful leadership, but to overlook the fact that people make up organizations can lead to failure.

2. Top school officials need special administrative skills that should and could be gained first through appropriate schooling and then later in the actual work place or vice-versa.

3. The investigator also imagines that the present inefficiency of school directors could be resolved through intensive supervision and guidance from the MOE, which otherwise the blaming could rest on the Ministry itself.

4. During the course of the study it was observed that except for temporary hand-outs that describes "what to do" and "what not to do", there is no permanent and uniform teachers' hand-book with the inscribed code of professional obligations

may enhance teachers' commitment to the bureaucratic rules in school organizations.

5. Considering the present trend of massive enrolment and the resulted deterioration in education secondary school directors should have a minimum of B.A degree in Educational Administration or a related qualification in human relation studies. This may also reduce the feeling of frustration which is one of the major causes of authority conflict among the professional teachers.

6. Though the degree varies, the structural arrangement of authority and its consequences is believed to be the other causes of conflict in the selected secondary schools. Here an effort to abolish the double subordination of teachers, by restricting the "zone of influence" of directors, vices, and unit-leaders could minimize the incidents.

7. The present trend of democracy in public affairs as opposed to bureaucracy in education could result into tragedy unless a careful assessment is taken in the assignment of top school officials in secondary schools. Because, most of all educational organization, for a better results, demands an efficient and competent bureaucrat who shall deserve that title by achievement rather than ascribed authority.

8. School directors should allow individual teachers enough autonomy to stimulate their professional initiative and to encourage the development of positive and fruitful relationships within the school systems.

9. Finally the study may contribute literature on bureaucratic structures of secondary schools and could serve as a framework for further comprehensive study on a nationwide scale.

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The book presents practical solutions that can be applicable to all levels of management in public and private organizations. It also encourages participative management and democratic leadership styles by concentrating on the value and dignity of the individual employee in our organization.

2. Garcia - Zamor, J.C (1972) "A Typology of Creole Bureaucracies". International Review of Administrative Sciences. Vol. 38 No. 1 - 4, pp 49 - 54

The article here noted that the bureaucracies of the developing regions are of European derivation, however, in developing countries contexts, these bureaucracies diverge from their Western Models to fit local conditions. As a result of this, one finds some fundamental similarities but also some striking differences among the developing countries bureaucracies, but still

they all share a common feature; the Weberian type of bureaucracy.

3. Griffiths, D.E.(1956) Human Relations in School Administration. New York: Appleton - Century - Crofts, INC, pp 127 - 128

The author here emphasised the impersonality of bureaucratic behavior in relation to authority. Moreover, the type of authority and its mode of authority is discussed in detail.

4. Hoselitz, B. (1971) "Levels of Economic Performance and Bureaucratic Structure". Bureaucracy and Political Development. Princeton: Princeton University Press, pp 168 - 198

Here the article noted that bureaucracy is a social system, as such each bureaucracy, whether private or public, whether large or small, whether efficient or inefficient, has its system of values. Moreover, the integrative nature of bureaucracy is examined in detail.

5. Hughes, M. and Peter Ribbins, Hywel Thomas (1985) Managing Education: The System and Institution. Management Ideas Applied to Education: Modes of Organizational Accomodation: Cassel: Cassel Educational Ltd, pp 7 - 10 , pp 272 - 274 , pp 346 - 353

The book acknowledged the idea of bureaucratization of schools and colleges, particularly if they are large, confirming to a considerable degree to Weber's specification of bureaucracy on the basis of their division of work, their hierarchical structures, their rules and regulations, their impersonal procedures and their employment practices based on technical criteria.

6. Hunt, J.W. (1979) Managing People at work: A Manager's Guide to Behavior in Organizations, Structuring Organizations: Weber's Views of Bureaucratic Structures: London: McGraw Hill Book Company Ltd, pp 137 - 138 , pp 145 - 147

The author has given a details of Weber's Views of bureaucratic structures which is common to all bureaucracies in the various organization. In these structure it is indicated that those in positions of power are entitled to reinforce the legitimacy of the structure.

7. Johnston, G.S. and Venable, B.P. (1986) "A Study of Teacher Loyalty to the Principal: Rule Administration and Hierarchical Influence of the Principal". Educational Administration Quarterly. Vol. 22 No. 4, pp 4 - 27

The article highlighted that school principals need to be aware that teachers will react positively and comply

willingly with the principals' directives if they perceive that things are being done on their behalf. As such "back the teachers up" seems reasonable for a principal's relationships with the teachers.

8. Kast, F.E. and Rosenzweig, J.E. (1985) Organization and Management: A Systems and Contingency Approach.

Bureaucratic Model: Dimensions of Bureaucracy: Research and Modification of Bureaucratic Model: New York: McGraw - Hill Book Company, pp 67 - 70

The book explains that, rational - legal authority is based on position within the organization, and when it evolves into an organized administrative staff, it will take the form of a bureaucratic structure. Moreover, it is also noted that the bureaucratic form is most appropriate for routine organizational activities where productivity is the major objective.

9. Katz, M.B (1977) "From Voluntarism to Bureaucracy in American Education". Power and Ideology in Education.

New York: Oxford University Press, pp 386 - 397

In this article it is noted that, among the competing organizational models, incipient bureaucracy triumphed because if education is to revive, democratic localism should be attacked to avoid the dictation of parents in the school affairs.

10. Mills, A.J. and Murgatroyd, S.J. (1991) Organizational Rules: A Framework for Understanding Organizational Action. Ways of Viewing Rules: Gender rules at work: Institutionalization: Philadelphia: Open University Press, pp 16 - 31 , pp 76 - 79 , pp 126 - 128 , p 137 , p 158

The book is about organizational rules providing the significance of rules for making sense of organizations. Here it is also noted that organizations are human creations, moulded out of the interactions of people, as such, organizations are perceived and cannot be fully understood apart from the broader social relations within which they are a part.

11. Mintzberg, H. (1979) The Structuring of Organizations: A Synthesis of the Research. Bureaucratic and Organic Forms of Structure: Machine Bureaucracy: Professional Bureaucracy: Englewood: Prentice - Hall, INC, pp 84 - 86 , pp 351 - 352 , pp 241 - 262

The author defines a structure as bureaucratic (centralized or not) to the extent that its behavior is predetermined or predictable, in effect, standardized. He also concluded that effective structuring; requires a close fit between the contingency factors and the design parameters; requires an internal consistency among the design parameters.

12. Sousa, D.A. and Hoy, W.K. (1981) "Bureaucratic Structure in Schools: A Refinement and Synthesis in Measurement." Educational Administration Quarterly. Vol. 17 No. 4, pp 21 - 39

The article identifies that, hierarchy of authority, presence of rules, procedural specifications and technical competence emerged as basic dimensions of school bureaucratic structure and analysed on the basis of Hall and Mackay approach.

13. Tanner, C.K and Williams, E.J. (1981) Educational Planning and Decision Making. The classical Period: Massachusetts: D.C. Heath and Company, pp 24 - 27

Tanner stated that, the bureaucratic "machine model" of organization is a derivation of the Scientific Management movement where its main objective is the idea of task, i.e. planning the work of a person at least one day in advance, often in writing, with the instructions for completing the job at hand. Instructions included specificity as well as the time needed for doing the work. Referring to Callahan in 'Education and the Cult of Efficiency', Tanner also noted that "perhaps the tragedy was not inherent in the borrowing from business and industry but only in the application".

14. Tekeste N. (1990) The Crisis of Ethiopian Education: Some Implications For Nation - Building. The Growth of Incompetence in Running the affairs of state: Uppsala: Uppsala University, pp 73 - 77

Tekeste emphasised the incompetency of Bureaucratic structures in the Education system of Ethiopia. He concluded that the structural dimension of bureaucracy is a task easily achieved (eg. the establishment of departments, committees etc.) however, the task of evolving a responsive and responsible corps of planners, administrators, and policy makers requires a long period accompanied by consistent and rigorous execution of plans.

15. Tyack, D.B. (1977) "City Schools: Centralization of Control at the Turn of the Century". Power and Ideology in Education. New York: Oxford University Press, pp 397 - 408

The author here indicated that in order to make schoolmen strictly accountable for the quality of education the structures and process of schooling should adapt the bureaucratic model of organization. By "bureaucracy" he meant a system bound by absolute rule and regulations.

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APPENDIX - I

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

INSTRUCTION

This questionnaire is part of a study designed in cooperation with your school to learn more about the bureaucratic structure of Secondary Schools so that teachers, School principals, and others can best work together.

The aim is to use the information to illustrate whether or not bureaucratization of the teaching-learning process is in effect in your school. This is not a test and there are no right or wrong answers. I appreciate your cooperation in answering each question as thoughtfully and frankly as possible. To ensure complete confidentiality please do not write your name.

Thank you,

GSR/0107/83 Alemayehu Haile

Please put this mark "/" or write your answers if necessary.

I. General Background

1. Name of School _____
—
2. Are you, 1. male _____ 2. female _____
3. Indicate your academic qualification (s)
 1. T.T.I
 2. Diploma (12+2)
 3. Bachelor's degree
 4. Master's degree
 5. Other (specify)
4. Indicate your position in the School,
 1. Teacher (subject)
 2. Home room teacher
 3. Department head
 4. Unit leader
 5. Vice-Director
5. Indicate the total number of years you have been working in this school
 1. One
 2. Two
 3. Three
 4. Four
 5. Five
 6. Over five
6. What is your department _____.

II. Hierarchy of Authority Scale

7. To what extent are teachers involved in major decisions affecting them in your school?

1. Fully involved in decision affecting them
2. Usually consulted, but ordinarily not involved in decisions affecting them
3. Never involved in decisions affecting them: occasionally consulted
4. Not at all involved

8. At what level are decisions made about school matters, such as instructional plans, teaching methods, student behaviour, student activities, etc.?

1. Throughout school system
2. Largely by board, director and staff, some by vice-director
3. By board, director and staff, more specific decisions made at lower level
4. All or almost all decisions made by director and vice-director, department heads, unit-leaders and home room teachers

9. To what extent are you involved in major decisions related to your work?

1. Fully involved in decisions related to my work
2. Usually consulted, but ordinarily not involved in decisions related to my work
3. Never involved in decisions related to my work, occasionally consulted
4. Not at all involved

10. How much does the decision making process contribute to the desire of teachers to do a good job in your school?

1. Substantial contribution
2. Some contribution
3. Relatively little contribution
4. Not very much often weakens it

11. How free do you feel to talk to your director about academic matter, such as subject content, instructional plans, teaching aid or methods, etc?

1. Very free
2. Quite free
3. Slightly free
4. Not free

12. How free do you feel to talk to your director about non-

academic matter, such as student behaviour, emotional problems of students, discipline, student activities, etc?

1. Very free
2. Quite free
3. Slightly free
4. Not free

13. What is the direction of the flow of information about academic matters?

1. Down, up, and between teachers, and between students
2. Down and up
3. Mostly Horizontal
4. Downward from director to teachers to student

14. What is the direction of the flow of information about non-academic matters?

1. Down, up, and between teachers, and between students
2. Down and up
3. Mostly downward
4. Downward from director to teachers to student

15. What is the character and amount of interaction in the school between the school officials and teachers?

1. Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust
2. Moderate interaction; often with fair amount of confidence and trust
3. Little interaction; director usually maintains distance from teachers.
4. Very little interaction; usually with fear and distrust

16. How well does your director know the disciplinary problems faced by teachers at the classroom level?

1. Very well
2. Quite well
3. Somewhat
4. Not well

17. During the past years have you had disagreement with any of the following?

	Never	Once	Twice	Over three times
17,a. Director	1	2	3	4
17,b. Vice-Director	1	2	3	4
17,c. Unit-leader	1	2	3	4
17,d. Department-head	1	2	3	4
17,e. Home room teacher	1	2	3	4

18. Indicate your satisfaction with the following aspect of your School

	SATISFIED	SOMETIMES	SATISFIED	USUALLY	SATISFIED
DISSATISFIED					
18,a. Administrative backing for teachers	1	2	3	4	

18,b. Interference of superiors into teacher's grading of their students	1	2	3	4	
---	---	---	---	---	--

Satisfied Sometimes Satisfied Usually Satisfied Dis-
satisfied

18,c. Class assignment

for teachers 1 2 3 4

18,d. Transfer of
teachers upon

request 1 2 3 4

18,e. Matters related

to night schooling 1 2 3 4

18,f. Problems related

to class size 1 2 3 4

Other (specify) _____

19. In using text-books for your classes do you;

1. make several different text or books available for student use in your class
2. assign outside reading in the library for particular student
3. use different text-books for sections of the same subject based on student is ability
4. use the some text-books for all sections of the same subject.

20, Have you ever consider the following factors in assigning a grade (mark) to a student?

	Always considered	Often considered	Sometimes considered	Not considered
20a. Home problems	1	2	3	4
20b. Physical disability	1	2	3	4
20c. His achievement compared to his ability	1	2	3	4
20d. Emotional Problems	1	2	3	4
20e. Disciplinary problems	1	2	3	4

Give your own specifications for the above considerations (if any) _____

21. How often do you seek to be friendly TO and supportive OF your female students?

1. Almost always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Rarely

22. How often do you seek to be friendly TO and supportive OF your male students?

1. Almost always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Rarely

23. To what extent does your interaction and character vAry from class to class?

1. A very great deal
2. A considerable amount
3. A slight amount
4. Practically none

Give your own specifications for the above answer

24. Have you ever prepared different types of tests or exams for the same subject of the same grade level?

1. Almost always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Rarely

Specify your answer _____

25. Are you to prepare annual lesson-plan which may be inspected by your superiors?

1. No
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Almost always

26. Are you used to submit your lesson plan to the department exactly on the due date?

1. Not at all
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Almost always

27. Are you expected to submit tests and final exam papers to the department or superiors for approval?

1. Not at all
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Almost always

28. To what extent do you respect the rules you receive from superiors?

1. Very little
2. Some what
3. Quite a bit
4. Very much

29. How often DO teachers go beyond the time limits of a period while conducting classes in your school?

1. Almost always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Not at all

30. How often do you observe teachers dismiss classes before time in your school?

1. Almost always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Rarely

31. In your school, do teachers strictly respect "Coffee-

break" or is it "every man for himself".?

1. Every man for himself
2. Relatively little respect
3. A moderate amount of respect
4. A very substantial amount of respect

32. To what extent is the process of teacher's attendance sheet is strictly observed (by teachers) in your school?

1. Very little
2. Some what
3. Quite a bit
4. Very much

33. Have you ever made a change in the class without (Other than the period scheduled on the time-table?

1. Almost always
2. Often
3. Sometimes
4. Not at all

34. How much resistance is there to frequent theacher's absenteeism and irresponsibilities in your school?

1. Little or no resistance
2. Some resistance
3. Moderate resistance
4. Strong resistance

VI DIVISION OF LOBOR SCALE

35. Who feels responsible for achieving high performance goals for your school?

1. Director only
2. Director and some teachers
3. Director, most teachers and some students
4. Director, teachers and students

36. Who is responsible for checking whether exam paper are of the standard expected for each grade level?

1. The director
2. Vice-director & staff
3. Subject teachers
4. Heads of departments

37. In your school does the duty of keeping complete and accurate record of marks given for class activities, tests and quizzes as per instruction goes to

1. The Director
2. Unit-leaders
3. Home room teachers
4. Subject teachers

38. Are home room teacher to mark absentees each day and submit monthly attendance to the office for the respective classes?

1. Not at all
2. Sometimes
3. Sometimes
4. Often
4. Almost always

39. At what level is the process of evaluation conducted regarding the performance of subject-teachers?

1. Board of education and the director
2. Director and school committee
3. Director and vice
4. Director and Department Heads

40. In your school, is the distribution of books to student carried out by "every teacher"?

1. Not by every teacher

2. The unit-leaders and subject teachers distribute cooperatively.
3. Sometimes it is carried out by teachers and students
4. Home room teachers in co-operation with the book store always distribute books.

41. Who holds high responsibility for maintaining maximum academic discipline in your school?

1. Teachers and the board of education
2. Director and the board of education usually maintain that activity
3. Unit-leaders and teachers co-operatively maintain the academic discipline.
4. Administrative staffs, unit-leaders, department heads and teachers are always work in full co- operation for maintaining high academic discipline.

42. To what extent the non-academic matters such as budgeting and buying of school materials treated by the director and the school-board?

1. very little
2. Somewhat
3. Quite a bit
4. Very much

43. How often individual teachers are involved in the running of the "school bell" in the school?

1. Almost always involved
2. often involved
3. Quite well informed
4. Very well informed

VII PROCEDURAL SPECIFICATION SCALE

44. How well informed are teachers about the change in the Time- tabling of the School Programme?
1. Almost always
 2. often
 3. Sometimes
 4. Rarely
45. How often teachers ask students to bring their parents without the knowledge of the office in your school?
1. Almost always
 2. Often
 3. Sometimes
 4. Rarely
46. To what extent are individual subject teachers involved in granting permission to students other than their respective periods?
1. Fully involved
 2. Usually involved
 3. Sometimes
 4. Rarely
47. How well do you know serious irregularities in attendance of students in a classroom in your school?
1. Not well
 2. Somewhat
 3. Quite well
 4. Very well
48. How often do teachers conduct tests and quizzes accordingly before semester exam in the school?
1. rarely
 2. sometimes
 3. often

4. almost

49. In your school, how well informed (in advance) are teachers about the process and conduction of semester exams?

1. Not well informed
2. somewhat
3. quite well
4. very well

50. How often do you observe teachers come to school drunken or intoxicated?

1. Almost always
2. often
3. sometimes
4. Often

51. Does the disciplinary measures of suspension and expulsion of a student it to be invoked only as a last resort after other means of handling the problem have proven ineffective in your school?

1. Not at all
2. sometimes
3. often
4. almost always

52. How well informed are your students about disciplinary code that outlines those offense that may result in suspension and expulsion?

1. Not well informed
2. somewhat informed

3. quite a bit informed
4. very well informed

53. Who holds the highest decision making power concerning academic related school problems, such as cheating in exam by students in your school?

1. Teachers
2. subject teachers and home room teacher
3. Director together with administrative staffs.

54. Is the individual teacher free to give his own opinion in handling problems in the classroom?

1. not all free
2. rarely free
3. sometimes free
4. always free

VIII TECHNICAL COMPETENCE SCALE

55. How often do you accept constructive criticism from your superiors?

1. Not at all
2. sometimes
3. often
4. Almost always

56. To what extent are teachers practices good relationships with the school administration in the school?

1. very little
2. somewhat
3. quite a bit
4. a very great deal

57. To what extent you support the teaching profession?
1. practically none
 2. a slight amount
 3. A considerable amount
 4. a very great deal
58. How often individual teachers uses a variety of teaching aids and resources in your school?
1. Rarely
 2. Sometimes
 3. often
 4. almost always
59. In your school, how interested are teachers to participate in the general and necessary school meetings?
1. very little interested
 2. relatively interested
 3. moderately interested
 4. very substantial amount of interest is observed
60. How often is seniority is considered for promotion purpose within the school system) other than achievement in your school?
1. No consideration of seniority
 2. Sometimes considered
 3. relatively considered
 4. almost always considered
61. Do you think the act of cruelty such as physical, mental and emotional abuse of students, has a negative effect in the teaching learning activity?
62. How strictly is considered your qualification for what you are teaching or the position you occupy in the school?
1. considered very little

2. slightly considered
3. to some extent considered
4. very strictly considered

63. To what extent teachers show interest and volunteers for the "extra" duties (out of classroom, responsibilities) in your school?

1. very little interest
2. somewhat interested
3. quite a bit interest
4. very great interest

64. How many times do you want the evaluation of teachers to be made annually in the school?

1. not at all
2. once in a year
3. once or twice
4. twice or more

other (specify) _____

THE END THANK YOU !

APPENDIX - 2

Interview Questions to School Principals
and Supervisors (Confidential)

1. How do you describe the "division of Labor" and the "delegation of authority" in your school?
2. How often do you use internal rules and regulations in your school other than those explicated in the policy of the Ministry of Education?
3. Do you think compliance to rules by your subordinates is a matter of competence or something else?
4. On what basis do you conduct promotions, fringe benefits and demotions within the school system?
5. How do you see the present trend in democracy as opposed to bureaucracy in the educational activities in your school?

*Due to high rate of succession of school directors in the Addis Ababa Region, a full scale comment on question number five is not materialized. The case is partially true for provincial.

- York: American Management Association
73. Stoner, J.A.F. (1982) Management. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
 74. Udy, H.S. (1958) "Bureaucratic Elements in Organizations: Some Research Findings" American Sociological Review, Vol. 23. No 23,

THE SUBJECT TEACHERS WILL:-

1. Be present in their classes in time.
2. Never dismiss any class before time.
3. Grant permission to a student to absent Himself from class for their period only.
4. Attend all staff meetings and departmental meetings and follow the instructions given to them through notices and circulars from time to time.
5. Consult the heads of Departments for preparing lesson plans, giving tests and examinations, and seek advice and help to solve classroom problems if any.
6. prepare weekly lesson plans for each month and submit them to the head of the department for approval, in advance, not later than the first day of the month. Lesson plan forms will be available with the academic Asst. Director.
7. Have with them daily outlines of lessons, prepared on the basis of the weekly lesson plans, in a book provided for this purpose when they go to their classes and should be made available to authorities when required.
8. Keep complete and accurate record of marks given for tests and exams as per instructions received from the office or from the heads of departments.
9. Never ask a student to bring his/her parent or guardian to the school prior permission from the office for the same. Such cases must be channelled through the Dean of students.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS.

1. Utmost Uniformity should be maintained in tests and examinations given in different classes of the same grade.
2. Two formal examinations will be given, one at the end of each semester.
3. There will be not formal mid-semester exams during both semesters.
4. During each semester.
 - (a) 10% of the marks will be for class work and home work.
 - (b) 30% of the marks will be decided by tests and quiz in the class.
 - (c) 60% of the marks will be decided by formal semester exam.
5. A minimum of three tests must be conducted in each subject in a class in each semester for deciding the 30% mentioned above.
6. Heads of Departments will see that question papers are of the standard expected for each grade level and well-balanced: Two or more question papers for the same grade level in the same subject will not be allowed unless under special circumstances.

meet at least once a month and execute business. ✓
deal with academic matters not specifically covered above
such as elocution contest, writing essay competition, publishing
magazines, any suggestion in connection with the academic pro-
brought by the school staff or students etc.

SUBJECT COMMITTEES:

AMHARIC	ENGLISH	MATHS	PHYSICS	CHEMISTRY	BIOLOGY	GEOGRAPHY	HISTORY	POL. EDUC.	AGRICULTURE	PHYSICAL EDUCATION	PRT.	COMMERCE	ECONOMIC	HOME ECONOMICS	
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Every subject committee consists of 2 teachers from each
grade teaching the same subject.

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES:

The subject committee, under the guidance of the Academic
Council, shall meet at least once every two weeks, receive
reports from members of the teaching staff and discuss them
and make short reports to the Academic Council.

Control the implementation of all directives given by the
Academic Council.

Devise and administer diagnostic tests to locate specific
weakness in students' knowledge and acquired skill.

Devise examination question papers, considering the validity
of each test.

Direct grade representatives to have frequent meetings with
all subject teachers in that grade and discuss with them all
practical problems faced and suggestion made and bring all
relevant matters to the subject committees for information,
discussion and action.

Consider the implication of giving 'homework' and suggest
ways of making 'homework' effective.

3G) Consider the introduction of practical work, even in a limited way, in all subjects and make recommendations(not only science but also Arts).


3H) Take action on each other matters that will contribute to the acievement of the basic objective of the Academic Council.

4. GENERAL:

The Academic Council and the subject committees must recognise that there are so many limiting factors and so giving directives alone cannot achieve the noble objective. whatever suggestions are made must meet the test of practicability under existing conditions such us:

- 4a) the high enrollments in classes
- 4b) the financial constraints of the school.
- 4c) lack of text books, lack of facilities in library and laboratories.

It is worthy to remember that most of the valuable sugge-
stions would normally originate from the teacher in the classroom. his or her contribution with a spirit of dedication to this noble profession to the success of this noble profession to the success of this programme will be greatly applauded.



Board of Education

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General Teacher Conference

Vice-Principal Non-Academic

Vice-Principal Academic

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Typist

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Record officer

Unit-Leader

Morning Shift

Afternoon Shift

Department Head

Homeroom Teacher

Teacher

Clubs

Curriculum Committee

Labour Education

Extra Curricular

Administrative Committee

Student Adm. Committee

STUDENTS


APPENDIX A

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

- Name of the candidate Alemayehu Haile Beshah

- Signature

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'Alemayehu Haile Beshah', written over a horizontal line.

- Place and date of submission

July, 1994