MANAGERIAL ROLES APPROACH AND THE PROMINENT STUDY OF HENRY MINTZBERG AND SOME EMPIRICAL STUDIES UPON THE PRINCIPALS WORK

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ABSTRACT: The aims of this paper are to present the Managerial Roles Approach which is one of the ways used in analysing managerial work; to offer the results of Henry Mintzberg's outstanding study in which he analysed the managerial work by using the descriptive research method and structured observation technique; to exhibit some findings of empirical studies carried out in the field of educational administration with the same method and technique.

KEY WORDS: Managerial Roles Approach, The Work-Activity School, Managerial work

ÖZET: Bu makalenin amacı, yönetim işini analiz etmede kullanılan yollardan biri olan Yönetimsel Roller Yaklaşımını tanıtmak; Henry Mintzberg'in,betimsel araştırma yöntemini ve yapılandırılmış gözlem tekniğini kullanarak yönetimsel işi analiz ettiği çarpıcı araştırmasının sonuçlarını ortaya koymak ve eğitim yönetimi alanında yapılmış bazı ampirik araştırma bulgularını sunmaktır.

ANAHTAR SÖZCÜKLER: Yönetimsel Roller Yaklaşımı, İş-etkinlik Okulu, Yönetimsel iş.

1. INTRODUCTION

Studies on organisation and management trace back thousands of years. However, the systematic development of management thought generally dates back from the end of the ninetieth century in which the large industrial organisations emerge.

Management is a quite discursive subject and much has been written about it. Therefore, the study of organisations and their management requires a comprehensive analysis. That only a single approach to organisation and management provides all the answers can hardly be maintained. Different approaches should be comparatively studied.

It was only observed a few remarkable approaches to management until the early 1950's, such as classical approach and human relations approach. But, since then, as to what management is, what management theory is and how managerial work or events should be analysed, the various approaches to management and much differing views have been appeared. This situation resulted in much confusion in order to appreciate and probe the management and its ensuing problems and the managerial roles and events, etc. Some years ago, an author who attempted to classify the various "schools" of management theory called this situation "the management theory jungle" [1].

Certainly, it could be observed that many different approaches were diversely categorised by different authors. Familiarity with the approaches to management analysis can help one appreciate many insights, ideas and help one avoid re-examining previously known ideas. Figure 1 summarises the various approaches to management analysis in the following categories [2].

As seen in Figure 1, one of these approaches is Managerial Roles Approach that will be strived to explain in the following section.

2. THE MANAGERIAL ROLES APPROACH

The Managerial Roles Approach which is one of the newer approaches to management analysis has been popularised by Henry Mintzberg. Mintzberg has given this approach higher visibility although many researchers have studied the actual work of managers. This approach is related to the Work-Activity School.

The Work-Activity School of management deals with the actual activities of managers which are analysed systematically and conclusions are drawn only when they can be supported by the empirical evidence, therefore the researchers of this school relies on inductive methodology. The research methods used are largely similar and in most cases comparisons can be easily made to incorporate the findings of previous studies for the development of new conclusions.

In the Work-Activity School, and also in the Managerial Roles Approach, the main purpose is to analyse the managerial work, in other words, to describe and map out what the managers really do. In analysing the managerial work the researchers have mostly used the diary technique or two observational techniques: activity sampling and structured observation [3].

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Figure 1. Approaches to Management

CHARACTERISTICS/ CONTRIBUTIONS	LIMITATIONS	ILLUSTRATION
EMPIRICAL, OR CASE, APPROACH		
Studies experience through cases. Identifies successes and failure	Situations are all different. No attempt to identify principles. Limited value for developing management theory.	
INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOUR APPROACH		
Focus on interpersonal behaviour, human relations, leadership and motivation. Based on individual psychology	Ignores planning, organising and controlling. Psychological training is not enough to become an effective manager.	FOCUS OF STUDY
GROUP BEHAVIOUR APPROACH		
Emphasis on behaviour of people in groups. Based on sociology and social psychology. Primarily study of group behaviour patterns. The study of large groups is often called "organisation behaviour".	Often not integrated with management concepts, principles, theory, and techniques. Need for closer integration with organisation structure design, staffing, planning and controlling.	
CO-OPERATIVE SOCIAL SYSTEMS APPROACH		
Concerned with both interpersonal and group behavioural aspects leading to a system co-operation. Expanded concept includes any co-operative group with clear purpose.	Too broad a field for the study of management. At the same time, it overlooks many managerial concepts, principles, and techniques.	
SOCIOTECHNICAL APPROACH		
Technical system has great effect on social system (personal attitudes, group behaviour). Focus on production, office operations, and other areas with close relationships between the technical system and people	Emphasis only on blue-collar and lower-level office work. Ignores much of other managerial knowledge.	
DECISION THEORY APPROACH		
Focus on the making of decisions, persons or groups making decisions, and the decision-making process. Some theorists use decision making as a springboard to study all enterprise activities. The boundaries of study are no longer clearly defined.	There is more to managing than making decisions. The focus is at the same time too narrow and too wide.	

SYSTEMS APPROACH

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Systems concepts have broad applicability. Systems have boundaries, but they also interact with the external environment, i.e., organisations are open systems. Recognises importance of studying interralatedness of planning, organising, and controlling in an organisation as well as the many subsystems.	Analyses of the interrelatedness of systems and subsystems as well as the interactions of organisations with their external environment. Can hardly be considered a new approach to management.	
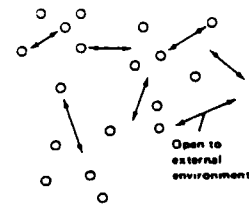
MATHEMATICAL OR "MANAGEMENT SCIENCE" APPROACH

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Managing is seen as mathematical processes, concepts, symbols, and models. Looks at management as a purely logical process, expressed in mathematical symbols and relationships	Preoccupation with mathematical models. Many aspects in managing cannot be modelled. Mathematics is a useful tool, but hardly a school or an approach to management.	
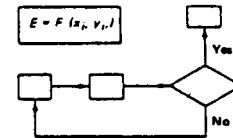
CONTINGENCY OR SITUATION APPROACH

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Managerial practice depends on circumstances (i.e. contingency or situation). Contingency theory recognises the influence of given solutions on organisational behaviour patterns.	Managers have long realised that there is no one best way to do things. Difficulty in determining all relevant contingency factors and showing their relationships. Can be very complex.	
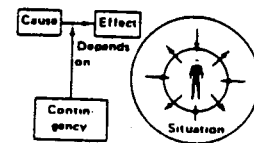
MANAGERIAL ROLES APPROACH

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Original study consisted of observations of five chief executives. On the basis of this study, ten managerial roles were identified and grouped into (1) interpersonal, (2) informational and (37 decision roles.	Original sample was very small. Some activities are not managerial. Activities are evidence of planning, organising, staffing, leading and controlling. But some important managerial activities were left out (e.g., appraising managers).	
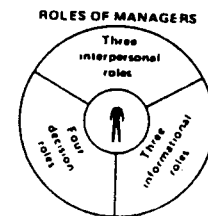
MCKINSEY'S 7-S FRAMEWORK

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The seven S's are (1) strategy, (2) structure, (3) systems, (4) style, (5) staff, (6) shared values, (7) skills.	Although this experienced consulting firm now uses a framework similar to the one found useful by Koontz et al. since 1955 and confirms its practicality, the terms used are precise and topics are not discussed in depth.	
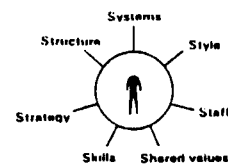
OPERATIONAL APPROACH

Draws together concepts, principles, techniques, and knowledge from other fields and managerial approaches. The attempt is to develop science and theory with practical application. Distinguishes between managerial and non-managerial knowledge. Develops classification system built around the managerial functions of planing, organising, staffing, leading, and controlling.	Does not as some authors do, identify representing" or " co-ordination" as a separate function. Co-ordination, for example, is the essence of managership and is the purpose of managing.	
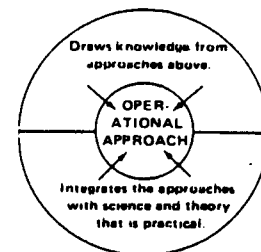
Diary techniques record actual work of managers. Managers themselves record their work-activities by using a precoded pad. Sune Carlson (1951) Rosemary Stewart (1967) and other researchers [3] have used the diary technique for the study of managerial work-analysis, but it has been regarded that it was a useful tool for the study of managerial work characteristics but not the study of work content which lead to statements of managerial roles. Hence, the diary technique is most useful where the categories, such as place of work, participants and so forth, are known and where we wish to study the time distribution among known work factors.

Activity sampling is another technique in which the researcher records the activities of managers at random time intervals through actual observation. The researcher photographs the manager's actions by periodically using this technique. However, the researcher cannot be exposed to the activity continuously, thus the interpretation of complex aspects of the activity becomes difficult. Activity sampling is effective when the topic of study is well understood and the activities can be coded simply and quickly.

Structured observation technique includes a variety of more systematic forms of observation. This technique is similar to the diary method but the only real difference is that recording is done by the researcher instead of the manager. Structured observation is a time-consuming technique, because the researcher must be present at all times in the work place selected while observing the managers, principals, administrators or foremen. Hence, the researchers used this technique had to take a limited sample. The more the sample size becomes much greater, the more the researcher spends much time. It has a highly cost of time but the only one that enables the researcher to study systematically and comprehensively various part of managerial work. The Table 1 lists some empirical studies of managerial work activities depending on the techniques mentioned above [3].

Certainly, there has been some other empirical studies used different research techniques, but in Table 1 only ten diary studies and three by observation and one by activity sampling are included.

Table 1. Empirical Studies of Managerial Work Activities

Researcher	Year Reported	Method Used	Subjects	Period of Study (Days)	Special Interests
Carlson	1951	Diary	9 Senior managers (managing directors)	216	Finding common behaviour patterns (Particularly communication) in the work of managing directors
Burns	1954	Diary	4 Middle Managers	103	Relationship of managers in one departmental group
Burns	1957	Diary	76 Senior and middle managers	1520	How managers spend their time
Copeman	1963	Diary	58 Senior and middle managers	290	Comparison of work of chief executives and department heads
Dubin, Spray	1964	Diary	8 Senior and middle managers	80	How managers spend their time
Brewer, Tomlinson	1964	Diary	6 Senior manager	105	Decision-making behaviour
Horne, Lupton	1965	Diary	66 Middle managers	330	How managers spend their time
Thomason	1966-67	Diary	Various configurations of managers	not reported	Communication centres
Lawler, Porter Tennenbaum	1968	Diary	105 Middle and lower level mangers	525	Manager's reactions toward interaction episodes
Stewart	1967	Diary	160 Senior and managers	3200b	Variations in managerial jobs
Kelly	1964	Activity sampling	4 Foremen (section mangers	60b	How section managers spend their time
Ponder	1957	Observation	24 Foremen	48	Foremen effectiveness
Landsberger	1962	Observation	3 Middle managers	6	Horizontal relationships
Guest, Jasinski	1956	Observation	56 Foremen	56	How foremen spend their time

3. MINTZBERG'S STUDY: THE NATURE OF MANAGERIAL WORK

In 1968, Mintzberg completed his doctoral thesis titled "The Manager at Work-Determining His activities, Roles and Programs by Structured Observation" at the MIT Sloan School of Management, based on study of work of five chief executives. In 1970, he reviewed and rearranged his thesis. However, it was not to be the same publication of his thesis but it was to be a new book titled The Nature of Managerial Work, dealing not only with his study of the work of five chief executives, at the same time with empirical studies of many other managers as well.

Mintzberg's study also falls into the Work-Activity School. His prime objective was to describe the work-content by observing managers' work-activities. His study revealed a lack of satisfactory descriptive data on the content of managerial work. In other words, there was little to tell us what managers actually do.

Mintzberg's study is a landmark one among studies of Work-activity School and provides a powerful base for developing the rich descriptive view of management, therefore the focus of his study is on the "real" matter rather than the "ideal", the "is" rather than "ought" [4].

He selected a research methodology that is inductive, comprehensive and intensive. It was inductive because the purpose was to develop a general statement of managerial roles from a study of specific managers. It was comprehensive because it had to capture the whole work of managing and it was intensive because it had to examine deeply the complex set of managerial activities.

Structured observation was chosen as the technique for the study by Mintzberg. This technique restricted the sample size and he obtained less quantitative data on work characteristics in his study than those in a comparable diary study, but more powerful qualitative data on activity-content. Mintzberg observed five chief executives in all for one week each , a supérintendent of a large suburban school system, a chairman and chief executive officer of a major consulting firm, a president of a firm that produced sophisticated technological products for industry and defence, a head of a large urban hospital, a president of a firm producing consumer goods.

Mintzberg's study describes the work of manager from four points of view: (1) the work characteristics common to all managers, (2) the manager's work in terms of ten basic roles, (3) the variations in managers' work using the common roles and characteristics, and (4) the programming the manager's work.

In the following paragraphs, a summary will be given about the first two groups with the findings of some empirical studies of work activities.

3.1. Managerial Work Characteristics

Managers are found in all kinds of organisations when people attempt to work together to achieve a common purpose. They are responsible for the success of their organisations and the reality is that managers find themselves working at unending rates. However, there is a "folklore" which relates to the idea that managers are reflective, systematic planners with everything in its time and place [5]. Mintzberg and Guest assert that the managers assume "an unrelenting pace" in their work which is characterised by **variety, brevity** and **fragmentation** and they are strongly proactive and dislike reflective activities [3, 4].

Mintzberg observed the activities of five chief executives at work and found that the **variety** of activities to be performed is great and the managers encounters this variety of activities continuously throughout each working day. Another revealing fact was that there was a lack of pattern among activities and that managers seem to jump from issue to issue with no organised pattern of scheduled time, therefore it requires that managers shift moods quickly and frequently. Figure 2 provides a great variety in the content of verbal contacts and mail [3].

Another surprising point is that manager's activities have the **brevity**. The manager becomes conditioned by his overload and thus he develops an appreciation for the opportunity cost of his own time.
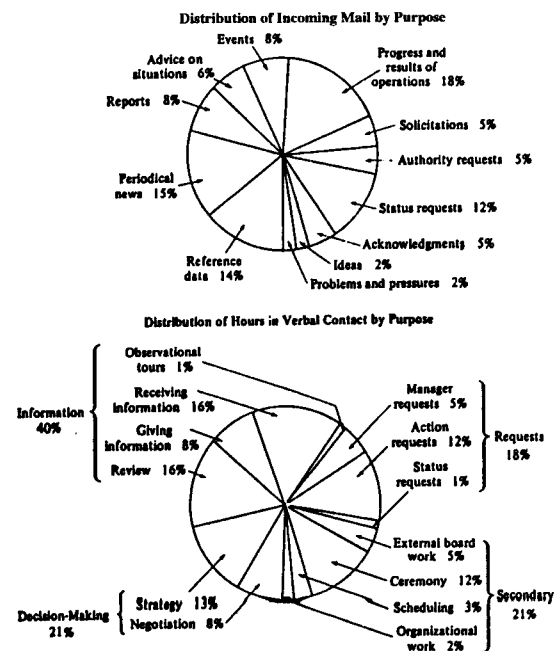

Figure 2. The Purposes of Managerial Activities.

Guest and Ponder found extreme brevity at the foremen level, in the first case 48 seconds average duration per activity, in the second case 2 minutes [6, 7].

In Mintzberg's study, half of the observed activities were completed in less than nine minutes and only one-tenth took more than an hour. It exhibits that the managers were seldom willing to spend much time on any one issue in any one case. Figure 3 shows the distribution of activities by duration (in hours) [3].

Both Carlson and Stewart emphasise the characteristics of **fragmentation** in managerial work [8, 9]. Carlson notes that only 12 times in the 35 days of her study, the manager worked undisturbed in his office for intervals of at least 23 minutes [8]. Rosemary Stewart found that they averaged only nine periods of at least one-half hour without interruption for four weeks [9]. And also Mintzberg explained that the managers did not choose to free themselves of interruption or to give themselves much free time and that the manager's work was interrupted by the factors encouraged by himself as well as by his subordinates and the others [3].

Figure 3. Frequency DOistribution of Managerial Activities by Duration
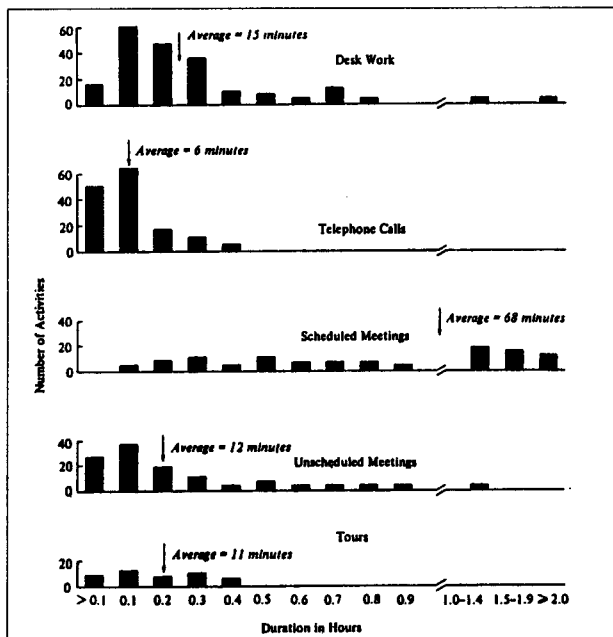
The other characteristics of managerial work can be put in order as in the following:

a. Managers prefer and emphasise the more active elements of his work- the current, the specific, the well-defined, the non-routine activities;

b. Managers use five basic media: the mail (documented communication), the telephone (purely verbal), the unscheduled meeting (informal face-to-

face), the scheduled meeting (formal face-to-face) and the tour (visual). The managers favour the verbal media and spends most of time in verbal contact. Figure 4 indicates that verbal interaction accounted for 78 percent of the managers' time and 67 percent of their activities [3];

Figure 4. Distribution of Time and Activities by Media
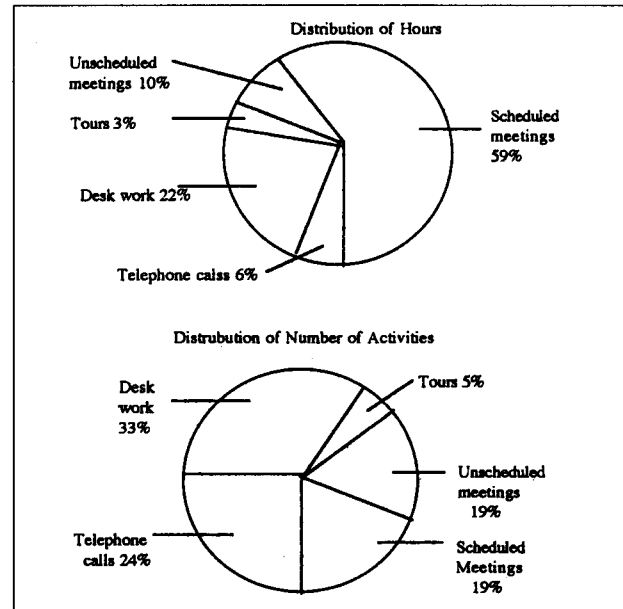
c. The manager maintains communication relationship with three groups- superiors, outsiders and subordinates. The following table depicts the proportions of total contact time spent with each group in different studies [3, 9, 10, 11].

Table 2. Distribution of Total Contact Time in different studies

Groups	Stewart's study	Mintzberg's study	Jasinski's study	Kelly's study
Subordinates	41%	48%	46%	50%
Superiors (bosses, directors)	12%	7%	10%	20%
Others	47%	44%	44%	30%

As seen in Table 2, subordinates generally consume approximately one-half of the manager's contact time and external contacts consume one-third to one-half of the manager's contact time, but the manager spends relatively little of his time with superior, approximately 10 percent of his contact time.

In conclusion, the pressures of his work force the manager to be superficial in his activities -to overload himself with work, encourage interruption, respond quickly to every stimulus, tend the tangible and avoid the abstract, make decisions in small increments, and do everything in a hectic way.

3.2. The Managerial Roles

In his study, Mintzberg asked one basic question: what did the manager do? The answers led to a number of critical managerial roles which could be grouped into three major categories: (a) interpersonal roles, (b) informational roles and (c) decisional roles [3].

Mintzberg recognises that managers have formal authority over the unit they manage and as a result of this formal authority and status managerial activities can be seen a set of ten roles. Figure 5 indicates the manager's roles.
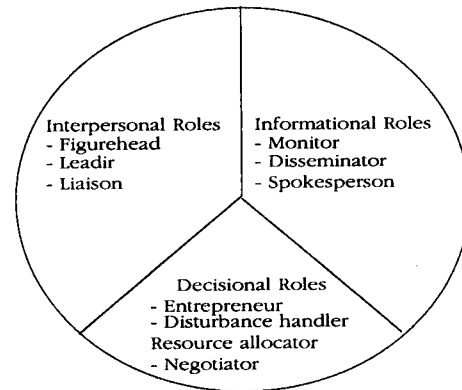
Figure 5. The Managerial Roles

Interpersonal Roles
- Figurehead
- Leadir
- Liaison

Informational Roles
- Monitor
- Disseminator
- Spokesperson

Decisional Roles
- Entrepreneur
- Disturbance handler
Resource allocator
- Negotiator

Table 3. Summary of Ten Roles

Role	Description	Identifiable Activities from Study of Chief Executives	Recognition in the Literature
Interpersonal			
Figuredhead	Symbolic head; obliged to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature	Ceremony, status requests, solicitations	Sometimes recognised, but usually only at highest organisational levels
Leader	Responsibilities for motivation and activation of subordinates; responsible for staffing, training	Virtually all managerial activities involving subordinates	Most widely recognised of all managerial roles
Liaison	Maintains self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide favours and information	Acknowledgement of mail; external board work; other activities involving outsiders	Largely ignored, except for particular empirical studies (Sayles on lower- and middle-level managers, Neustadt on U.S. Presidents, Whyte and Homans on informal leaders
Informational			
Monitor	Seeks and receives wide variety of special information (much of it current) to develop thorough understanding of organisation and environment; emerges as nerve centre of internal and external information of the organisation	Handling all mail and contacts categorised as concerned primarily with receiving information (e.g., periodical news, observational tours)	Recognised in the work of Sayles, Neustad, Wrapp, and especially Aguilar
Disseminator	Transmits information received outsiders or from other subordinates to members of the organisation; some information factual, some involving interpretation and integration of diverse value positions of organisational influencers	Forwarding mail into organization for informational purposes, verbal contacts involving information flow to subordinates.	Unrecognised (except for Papandereou discussion of "peak co-ordinator" who integrates influencer preference)
Spokesman	Transmits information to outsiders on organisation's plans, policies, actions, results, etc.; serves as expert on organisation's industry	Board meeting; handling mail and contacts involving transmission of information to outsiders	Generally acknowledged as managerial role
Decisional			
Entrepreneur	Searches organisation and its environment for opportunities and initiates "improvement projects" to bring about change; supervises design of certain projects as well	Strategy and review sessions involving initiation or design of improvement projects	Implicitly acknowledged, but usually not analysed except for economist (who were concerned largely with the establishment of new organisations) and Sayles, who probes into this role
Disturbance Handler	Responsible for corrective action when organisation faces important, unexpected disturbances	Strategy and review sessions involving disturbances and cities	Discussed in abstract way by many writers (e.g., management by exception) but analysed carefully only Sayles
Resource Allocator	Responsible for the allocation of organisational resources of all kinds, in effects the making or approval of all significant organisational decisions	Scheduling; requests for authorisation; any activity involving budgeting and the programming of subordinates' work	Little explicit recognition as a role, although implicitly recognised by many who analyse organisational resource-allocation activities
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organisation at major negotiations	Negotiation	Largely unrecognised (or recognised but claimed to be non managerial work) except for Sayles

As shown in Figure 5, the roles can be described individually, but they can not be isolated from each other. These ten roles form an integrated whole.

Table 3 contains a summary description of ten managerial roles with details on managerial activities identifiable with each role and the treatment of each role in the literature [3].

As a result of describing the nature of managerial work in terms of a set of ten roles, Mintzberg recognises that the combination of roles varies for different managers, for different organisations, for different levels of organisations and over periods of time, that's managers do not give equal attention to each role, that's differences are in emphasis rather than in kind.

Managers at the different levels of organisation engage in each of the roles, but some of which are emphasised more than others, but in all cases the interpersonal, informational and decisional roles remain inseparable Mintzberg suggests eight managerial jobs styles and each of which emphasises a certain combination of key roles, a kin to five styles in Rosemary Stewart's study [9]. These are summarised below [3].

Table 4. Eight Managerial Job Types

Managerial job types	Key roles
Contact Man	Liaison, figurehead
Political manager	Spokesman, negotiator
Entrepreneur	Entrepreneur, negotiator
Insider	Resource allocator
Real-time manager	Disturbance handler
Team manager	Leader
Expert manager	Monitor, spokesman
New manager	liaison, monitor

The contact man has two primary roles: liaison and figurehead. He spends a good part of his time outside the organisation, attending a variety of functions, doing people favours, giving speeches and building a friendship network of support. Public relation and building linkages between people outside the organisation are emphasised by the contact man.

Another type of manager is the **political manager** who also spends a great deal of time with outsiders, but for different relations. His key roles are spokesman and negotiator. He intends to reconcile the conflicting forces acting on organisation and emphasises the widening coalition.

The manager as **entrepreneur** spends much of his time seeking opportunities for change and for implementing changes. The roles of entrepreneur and negotiator characterise the style, especially this style is commonly needed at a smalle or young organisation where innovation is the key to survival.

The insider manger is primarily concerned with building up structure, developing and training the subordinates and supervising the staff. This style contains the **resource allocator** and the **leader.**

Real-time manager is a different kind of insider. He is interested in day-to-day problems of his organisation. **Disturbance handler** is the dominant role in which the manager appears to be too busy with "putting out fires", and seems to have a "finger in every pie".

The team manager is oriented to building a highly cohesive group which can be characterised by high morale and mutual support among its members. **Leader** role is the vital one for the team manager.

The expert manager does more desk work and more reading and writing. Fragmentation and variety in his activities are hardly witnessed. He assumes managerial responsibility and continues to participate in specialised work of the organisation. Key roles are **monitor** and **spokesman**.

Last type of manager is one new to the job. **The new manager** emphasises **liaison** and **monitor** role when there is a lack of contacts and sufficient information when he has more information, he begins to stress the entrepreneur role for a time.

As mentioned above, Mintzberg studied of what the manager does. Knowledge of it is critical to understand the roles of manager and to determine the work-characteristics. However, yet the basic question of what managers actually do has sufficiently been unexamined. Whereas much has been written about what manager should do and research has been conducted based on conceptions of what the role of manager ought to be. When looked at literature, it can be regarded that the most of the studies are normative and less of which are descriptive.

Normative studies are concerned with what the manager should do and which actions the manager should take to produce the best outputs and concentrate on the most of effective ones. In normative studies, managers are expected to use effectively and efficiently the financial, human and material resources in an organisational structure to ensure the organisational goals and values. They set some standards for improving present levels of organisational and managerial functioning. Despite this, they fail to capture the real world of management as it actually is.

By contrast, descriptive studies deal with "what is" and "what the manager is doing" and try to describe accurately the activities of managers. The main difference between normative and descriptive studies is that it is assumed to maximise the objectives in normative ones rather than to satisfy constraints as in descriptive ones. Manager is conscious of and interested in goals and desires to operate managerial processes in an ideal way; but these are affected by such realities of organisational life as politics, the actual distribution of power and authority, the pressures which managers face to manage conflict and limits on human rationality -in which all are neglected by normative view.

When reviewed the literature, we encounter frequently a great deal of normative studies, but not of descriptive ones. Therefore a need exists to give more attention to descriptive studies. Mintzberg stresses that the researchers can no longer afford to ignore managerial work analyses used descriptive method and that the reality model of managerial work should be revealed, which is contrast to what the literature suggest should be done.

4. SOME EMPIRICAL STUDIES UPON THE PRINCIPALS' ADMINISTRATIVE WORK

There have been a number of Mintzberg-type studies of educational administrators .Certainly, there have been many studies on educational administrators' work activities that did not use Mintzberg's method -structured observation. But, under this sub-title a summary will be given the results of some studies used structured observation in which this method provides a detailed record of educational administrators' work activities over time.

Superintendents have been studied by Duignan, by Larson, by Bussom, by Vicars, and by Pitner and Ogawa [12, 13, 14]. Studies of high schools principals have been reported by Martin and Willower, by O'Dempsey and by Willis [15, 16, 17, 30]. Elementary school principals were examined by Willower and Kmetz, by Peterson, by Crowson and Others, by Kmetz, by Beck and Seifert and Hemphill and Others [18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23]. And also some studies of supervisors and principals were carried out by Gibson, by Parker, by Beilfuss, by Sullivan in accordance with any graduate programme [24, 25, 26, 27]. Except these studies, many articles were written about the activities and time allocation of educational administrators [28, 29, 31].

The studies have been done in diverse countries and all involved small samples. Duignan's study has been carried out in Canada, O'Dempsey's study and Willis's in Australia, but many of which in various locations of USA.

Sample sizes ranged from three to eight. Observation periods were typically one work week per person, but some researchers observed each administrator for three weeks. Therefore their data often were not comparable. Nevertheless some cautious statements can be made.

Studies on **superintendents'** work activities point out that superintendents can be described as information brokers, communicators, mediators, environment monitors, obedient administrators, consultative decision makers and executives rather than leaders. They are also found as symbolic leaders in a sense that they held themselves ultimately responsible for their districts' performances even if they had a limited influence over them. Superintendents tended to engage in fewer and longer activities than principals. They were more likely to meet with organisational outsiders [12, 32].

Studies on **instructional supervisors** shows that supervisors primarily maintain the day-to-day operates of the school system -essentially functioning as administrators. Analyses of supervisors' work activities showed activities concentrated on three categories: resource allocator %30), monitor (%19) and disseminator (%16). These activities indicate that the supervisor is an insider who is primarily concerned with internal operations. They had little activity requiring external contact as an official representative of the school system and little activity relating to presenting new ideas or involving non-routine duties. Indeed, 98 percent of the supervisor's work was accounted for in terms of administration.

The supervisory work's analyses depicted that the major portion (%61) of the supervisor's time was spent in verbal communication involved formal and informal, brief and face-to-face contacts with persons within the school system. Table 5 shows the time allocation of instructional supervisors [27].

Table 5. Allocation of time to Various Forms of Activity

Activity	Percentage
Verbal Communication	
Informal	40
Formal	21
Desk work	18
Travel	7
In-house travel (tours)	3
Technical work	7
Miscellaneous	4

Instructional supervisors were spent much of their time on internal matters and lasted five minutes or less [27], in another study nine minutes [29] per activity. Supervisors spent relatively little time on other activities. They spent 18 percent of their time on desk work, 7 percent on technical work (including classroom observation and in-service education) an 10 percent on travel (including travel and in-house tours).

They average only 7 percent on technical work , but it is quite less time to develop instruction. Whereas instructional improvement is the real of evaluation [22]. If this is true, instructional supervisors must be more effective and efficient in the time devoted to instruction and spent much more time to instructional improvement and to communication with teachers. However it is regarded that instructional supervisors spend only 14 percent of communication with teachers, a small amount with superordinates and much of which to people in lateral positions. Their communication activity served four major purpose: processing information, handling resources, maintaining status and resolving conflicts [27]. Data make certain that instructional supervisors generally behave as an administrator not an agent for improving instruction in schools.

Some of studies that use Mintzberg's method give some results of studies which record the work behaviour of a sample of **elementary principals** and of **secondary principals** [15, 18, 24, 25, 26, 29].

According to these results, the administrative work of principals includes a high volume of work completed at an unrelenting pace, variety, brevity and fragmentation of tasks, and preferences for verbal media and live action.

Elementary principals worked an average of 41.7 hours on the job and eight evening hours per week [18], in another study 45.84 hours per week on the job with an additional average of 8.7 extra hours at night [24].

The elementary principals engaged in a total of 3058 activities, averaging 611.6 each per week and 122.3 each per day. As shown in Table 6(18) , they gave 32.5 percent of their time unscheduled meeting, more than to any other, which were hastily arranged contacts between the principals and one or more persons which usually occurred spontaneously. The other major portion of the elementary principal was given to desk work which involved writing notes, completing reports, processing correspondence, etc..

70 percent of their time involved personal contacts which included face-to-face meetings, telephone calls and the brief visual and verbal interactions during monitoring and touring. More contacts were made with teachers, more than with any other group.

Giving or receiving information were the activities that were most common to contacts [18]. More time was expended in organisational maintenance than in instructional leadership. Maintenance activities took 38.6 percent of the elementary principals' time and accounted for 53.7 percent of their activities.

Table 6. Number of Activities and Mean Percentage of Time Spent by Elementary Principals

Activity	Number of Activities	Mean Percentage of time
Desk Work	267	18.6
Phone Calls	424	8.0
Scheduled Meetings	42	10.3
Unscheduled Meetings	1027	32.5
Exchanges	842	6.0
Monitoring	92	4.4
Tours	146	4.2
Trips	37	5.4
Observing	9	2.5
Personal	67	3.6
Announcing	49	0.7
Teaching	7	1.9
Support Chores	49	1.9

The **secondary school principals** worked an average of 53.2 hours on the job and an additional eleven evening hours per week. The secondary school principals engaged in 149.2 activities each day. Table 7 depicts the number of activities and mean percentage of time spent by secondary school principals [15]. It presents that they spent much of their time to unscheduled meetings just like elementary school principals. And also the secondary principals mostly dealt with the organisational maintenance and maintenance activities took 36.5 percent of their time and 53.9 percent of their activities.

Table 7. Number of Activities and Mean Percentage of Time Spent by Secondary School Principals

Activity	Number of Activities	Mean Percentage of time
Desk Work	254	16.0
Phone Calls	393	5.8
Scheduled Meetings	117	17.3
Unscheduled Meetings	1221	27.5
Exchanges	1355	9.0
Monitoring	82	5.5
Tours	88	7.7
Trips	11	2.2
Observing	8	2.4
Personal	133	5.1
Announcing	61	0.7
Teaching	2	0.1
Support Chores	5	0.7

As Martin and Willower pointed out, the secondary school principals engaged in similar patterns of task performances, as exhibiting the "busy person"

syndrome [32], as having an inside focus, as taking a broad school-wide view of instruction but not becoming actively engaged, as having pupil control as a major interest, as exhibiting a strong control concern with extra-curricular activities [15].

Consequently, educational administrators all spent much time on organisational routines and maintenance. They participated in many meetings (scheduled or unscheduled), in numerous face-to-face and telephone encounters with a variety of persons. The studies depict administrative work in much the same way as Mintzberg's original research. Work proceeds at a fast and unrelenting pace with many varied, brief, fragmented, interrupted segments, and administrators exhibit preferences for activities that are current, lively and verbal. In terms of the allocation of administrator attention, priority goes to immediate issues that can be quickly handled.

5. CONCLUSION

Reseach studies realized by depending on Managerial Roles Approach,through observations directly upon the managers (administrators) , are required that their roles should empirically be determined.These kinds of studies are significant because these reveal the difference between the observed and proposed managerial (admistrative) roles which are often mentioned in literature. Hence,detailed observations of manager's (administrator's) work clearly call attention to the diference between what a manager (an administrator) **should do** and what he/she **can do.** An educational administrator who has to jump from one operating emergency to another every 45 seconds,although he/she may have been trained in the field of educational administration,can take only of individual emergency cases because of his/her overload.This situation also justifies that he/she prefers to perform some certain roles.In a sense it points out that educational administrators give importance to some of their roles which are proposed for them and ignore some of them.It could be said that administrative roles can vary for different administrators,for different schools,for different levels of schools and over periods of time.

Besides that it is important to collect data efficiently of how administrators behave in which situational circumstances exist and to compare many types of administrators.Variations in the content and characteristics of administrators' work can be explained by a contincency theory.Here,the purpose is not only to picture the present situation and not to bound to the circumstances but to provide a base for research and improvement efforts by analysing the prevailing practices.

Yet,there is no empirical research which studies on the work characteristics , work content and administrative job types of school administrators in Turkey. All studies related to administrators' work are normative and in many of them data have been collected through questionnaires.Studies to be realized about administrators' roles and work characteristics should exhibit whether they perform the proposed roles or not,and compare the results to ones of the studies done before.It may be hoped that the results prove useful to arrange the effective in-service training programs,and to develop insights into the job and means of coping with the complexity of the work and to teach the critical skills of administration.and to improve the administrative behavior.

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